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## Predictive Factors in Fashion Involvement of First Time Mothers concerning their Newborn's Clothes

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## **Abstract**

Transition to motherhood is one of the most major and significant transitions during the life cycle reflecting consumer behavior changes and adjusting to the new role (Banister & Hogg, 2006; Winson, 2009).

Becoming a mother for the first time often correlates with possible selves relating to the new mother's identity and her new role as a mother. The new mother, especially the first time mother, has her aspirations, fears, hopes and ideas of how she will function as a mother and what kind of mother she will be (Bailey, 2001; Dunkel & Kerpeleman, 2006; Libra 2007).

The new mother is occupied with what pram, toys or books, clothes and so on to buy, and what services she will give her new born. Her purchase decision is influenced by her involvement towards the product. Her motivation, attention and the time spent, or the number of shops and media she will use are influenced and connected to the involvement she will have for each category (Brown & Rothschild, 1993; Jain & Sharma, 2000; Michaelidou, 2008; Dholakia, 2001).

Clothing can inform others about the status of the individual - his professional personality or his identity (O'Cass, 2000; Choy, 2008; Hourigan & Bouquore, 2012). Belleau et al. (2008) show that new mothers are interested in a profit valuable market because they are uncertain and insecure, and use clothes as status and positioning their being "good mothers".

This paper treats solo mothers as a differentiated group trying to distinguish between them and partnered mothers in relation to fashion involvement.

It focuses on independent variables that influence fashion involvement of the first time mothers regarding their newborn's fashion clothes. It compares solo mothers not in a relationship mothers with mothers in a relationship and is concerned with consumer

involvement of the mother as a construct contain the following four types of involvement: product involvement, advertising involvement, consumption decision involvement, and purchase involvement.

Fashion involvement for consumers has perceived the importance of fashion clothing (O'Cass, 2001). Tigert, Ring and King. (1976) find that fashion involvement is composed of five dimensions of fashion adoption-related behavior: a) fashion innovativeness and time of purchase, b) fashion interpersonal connection, c) fashion interest, d) fashion knowledge ability, e) and fashion awareness and reaction to changing fashion trends. The results demonstrate that the highly fashion-involved consumer is also a heavy fashion-clothing buyer (Tigert, et al, 1976).

Of the many definitions of fashion involvement that by O'Cass (2004: 870) is the most describable: "Fashion involvement is the extent to which consumers view the related fashion clothing activities as a central part of their lives".

This study examines the new mother's involvement in her baby's clothes related to demographic and independent variables amongst solo and partnered mothers. It embraces 247 Jewish new mothers having their first baby, of whom 106 are single mothers by choice never been married and 141 are partnered married mothers.

The mother's involvement profile was examined using the second order factor model of fashion involvement (O'Cass, 2000) showing that the Consumer Involvement Profile (CIF) was based on the measures of product involvement, purchase decision involvement, advertising involvement and consumption involvement.

The new mothers were asked about their age, income, work status, education, media usage, personality traits and price perception in order to find the most impact-correlated factors predicting fashion involvement of the new mother with baby's clothes.

The fashion involvement profile as well as each of the five types was measured using a five-point Likert scale for a single item to measure the insolvent's dimension, with 1 =

the least fashion involvement and 5 = highest fashion involvement. Reliability analysis produced a Cronbach's alpha of 0.76, indicating high intra-relationships among the five items used to measure fashion involvement (Xu, 2000).

The results show different influence of the independent variable on the involvement's types

### **Positive relationship**

The following factors are having positive relationship with the new mother's fashion involvement to her baby's clothes:

- Public self-consciousness, Price quality, Media usage and Prestige sensitivity with all of the involvement's dimensions (product, advertising, purchase decision and consumption involvement)
- Self-confidence and purchase decision involvement.

**No significant** relationship was found between fashion involvement's dimensions and the new mother's

- Work status
- Income of the new mother
- No significant relation was found between **age** and product involvement
- No significant relationship was found between **education** and advertising involvement and education with purchase decision and education with consumption involvement)

### **Negative influence**

The following factors are having negative relationship with the new mother's fashion involvement to her baby's clothes:

- Age of the mother and all dimensions of involvement besides product involvement
- Education of the mother and product involvement, purchase decision and education and consumer involvement

**Moderate variables:** Marital status moderate the relationship as follow:

**In partnered mothers** the relationship between the following independent variables are stronger compare to solo mothers:

- Age and all dimensions beside product involvement
- Price quality and advertising involvement
- Prestige sensitivity and consumption involvement
- Self-confidence and purchase decision involvement

**In solo mothers the** relationship between the following independent variables are stronger compare to partnered mothers:

- Education and product involvement, and education and consumer profile involvement.
- Price quality and all dimensions (beside advertising involvement)
- Prestige sensitivity and consumption involvement
- Age and self-confidence have no significant influence on the relation between fashion involvement's types base on the marital status of the new mother

The results also indicate that both age and self confidence are having no moderate on the fashion involvement of the new mother base on their marital status

The results show that solo and partnered mothers with high involvement are less cost conscious, spend much more time shopping and have more knowledge. They are more interested and are less traditional. Both new solo or partnered mothers with a high price perception, high usage of media, are younger and have high self consciousness of the baby's dressing probably have high involvement and will act as fashion leaders for baby clothes.

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## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **1.1 The research topic**

The dissertation presents and studies the field of consumer behavior regarding the level of involvement and its antecedents that will stimulate the first time mother regarding an important status such as clothes of the newborn.

The study focuses on the dimensions of fashion involvement (involvement in the product, involvement in the purchase decision, involvement in the advertising and involvement in consumption, and the decision itself) of first time mothers regarding their newborn babies both as solo and as partnered mothers.

Previous and popular studies have shown that the family life cycle is a factor highly involved in consumer decision-making regarding personal transitions that predict consumer behavior.

The study tries to determine what predictors can analyze the Mother's Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (MCFIP) of new mothers in the following two segments: solo mothers (not in a relationship) and new partnered mothers who are married or in a cohabiting relationship.

In Israel 2004, about 145,207 women gave birth where 30% of them (45,000) are mothers for the first time. From 1994 to 2004 the birth rate increased by about 25% (114,543 births in 1994 to 145,207 births in 2004). The average age of the mother on giving birth for the first time is 26.5 years old (an increase of 1.4 years over the last ten years).

In 2004 about 3.6% of the births (5500 babies) were to unmarried mothers, of whom 60% had never been married and the rest are divorced or widowed. The average age of the solo mother was 35-39, with 9% over 40 years of age (CBS, 2008, table 1331)

[http://www.cbs.gov.il/publications/vital\\_stat\\_birth04/pdf/h\\_print.pdf](http://www.cbs.gov.il/publications/vital_stat_birth04/pdf/h_print.pdf)

Based on the National Insurance Institute of Israel law 1992 the single mother is defined as "a household consisting of one parent mother and at least one child".

<http://www.btl.gov.il/search/Results.aspx?k=single%20mother>

The proportion of solo mothers in Israel increased significantly over the years from 4% in 1970s to 8.8% in 1995 and to 8.9% in 2004 and of them 13% are solo mothers, 74% are divorced and the rest (13%) are widows (CBS, 2008).

The average age of the first-time mother is 27-30 years of age. The average expense during the first six months on baby goods is about \$4,500 (excluding the monthly expense for diapers, baby food, pacifiers and other convenience goods).

The Single Parent Law, introduced in 1992, grants single parents special treatment, primarily under the Income Support Law. In 1994 and 1995 additional legislative changes eased the terms of eligibility of this segment of the population. The law defines a single parent as a resident of Israel who has custody of a child and to whom one of the following applies:

- (1) Is not married and there is no person who is known publicly as his or her spouse;
- (2) Is married and to whom the provisions of one of following subparagraphs apply, if there is no other person who is known publicly as his or her spouse;
  - (a) He or she has lived separately from his or her spouse for a period of at least two years and has commenced legal proceedings for the dissolution of marriage and has acted within the framework of such proceedings for at least two years;
  - (b) She is an "aguna," within the meaning thereof in Section 1 of the National Insurance Law [Consolidated Version] 5755-1995;
- (3) He or she is a new immigrant who has been in Israel for more than one year and less than two years and his or her spouse has not immigrated to Israel and has not

lived in Israel, provided that he or she has no other spouse (National Insurance Institute, 2005).

<http://www.molsa.gov.il/Populations/Distress/SingleParent/Documents/8fbf0f1a945d4a7688b344d8806ce841CPW00057.pdf>

Most (90.7%) solo parent families in Israel were headed by women in 2001 in which the youngest child was under 18 (CBS, 2000: table 12:5). The proportion of solo mothers in Israel increased significantly over the years from 4% in the 1970s to 8.8% in 1995, to 8.9% in 2004. Divorced mothers account for 59% and the rest (37%) are widows. The percentage of single mothers by choice has been rising over the last three decades from 1.3% in the 1990s to 3.4% in 2005 (Central Bureau of Statistics 2008: 178-203).

Single mothers are frequent within the last three decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century particular in Western countries (Duncan, 2000). Compared to the second half of the 1990s they constituted 25% of families in the United States, 19% in Great Britain, 18% in Australia, and 17% in Germany (Duncan, 2000).

Increasing legitimacy of solo mothers by choice, as a divorcee, or losing a spouse creates differentiation amongst the mothers into at least two segments. Each has its own specific forum, legal consultancy services, social services and so on. Yet little has been studied in relationship to the consumption decision and the involvement the new solo mother versus the partnered mother as a consumer.

Most of the research focuses on solo mothers having older children, their difficulties and conflicts as one parent, and their efforts to survive within the consumption philosophy. Little has been tested related to solo mothers regarding their behaviors after birth and compared to partnered mothers.

How will the first –time mother react to consumption decisions for her baby? Will the marital status influence her decision and in what way? Will solo new mothers buy in the same process and be motivated by the same factors as partnered mothers? What other variables including demographic variables, her self-confidence and public self-

consciousness, price perception and media usage will influence the new mother's involvement? It will be very interesting to see if there is any difference between solo and partnered mothers regarding their newborn just after birth especially when he is a first child.

Women are conscious and aware of their appearance to improve their self-identity and to position themselves relevant to the social culture (Zaichkowsky 1985; O'Cass, 2000, 2004; Banister & Hogg, 2006; Hansen & Jensen, 2009). Clothes can be used as "symbolic consumption" they help to identity positioning influence the self of the consumer , were scholars have been interested in exploring the correlation between clothes and their prestige during the transition to first-time mothers, which is a major significant transition entailing fears, aspirations and possible selves (Dunkel & Kerpelman, 2006).

It will be stimulating to find out how new mothers purchase their newborn's clothes as status symbols and representation, especially to explore whether new mothers are aware of baby clothes. What other attributes such as lack of time, lack of money or other characteristics influence their purchase decision for baby's clothes?, The more involved the person is the more involved he will be in the purchasing decision, and the greater the involvement and attention to the product, to the advertising, and to the consumption process itself. Fashion leaders are among the first to purchase the products, play a role model for all the other customers, and their reaction influences the success or failure of the product (Srivastava et al., 2012). Finding the fashion leader among the new mothers will help the marketers to enter the market segment and achieving their goals more rapidly and more successfully.

## **1.2 The idea of fashion involvement of the new mother**

Fashion involvement defined as the "consumer's perceived importance of fashion clothing "and equally (O'Cass2001). Another definition of fashion involvement is "broadly based behavioral phenomenon evidenced in the variety of material and non-material context" (Sprole & King, 1974).

Fashion has been shown to be an important symbolic product related to the individual's identity and fulfilling a number of functions beyond mere functional performance, including warmth or protection. The importance of clothing is because of the symbols and status they set for the individual - his professional identity or his personality (O'Cass, 2000; Choy, 2008; Hourigan & Bouquoure, 2012). The second order model construct of the involvement profile is a composition of the four first order types including involvement with the product itself, dressing and the person's perception of the product, involvement in the advertising, and the information published about the product. Consumption involvement contains the behavior and the effort the person is investing in the procedure and purchase decision, and contains the behavior and activities of the consumer as related to situational involvement (Mittal & Lee, 1989; O'Cass, 2000).

The four order construct represents the Consumer's Involvement Profile (CIP) (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Sridhar, 2007; Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008) or the Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (CFIP) (O'Cass, 2000, 2004; McFatter, 2005), to be discussed by the researcher in this study.

Academic scholars covering the factors predicting the fashion involvement profile of the consumer show a negative significant correlation of fashion involvement among females with age, and a positive significant relationship between fashion involvement and education, income, working status, personality traits (both self-confidence and public self-consciousness), media usage and price perception (price /quality and prestige price) (Prendergast, Phau & Wong, 2003; O'Cass, 2004; McFatter, 2005). The factors predicting and influencing fashion involvement were more of the same amongst most of the females, but different for men having lower fashion involvement (Hiew Shu & Tee, 2012).

Transition to motherhood especially for the first time is regarded as a significant transition during the life cycle (Rubin, 1967; Winson, 2009), followimh eith concerning fears and aspiration the new mother is having related to the new role, and adding

another member to the family holds joyful expectations (Bailey, 2001). The new mother has conflicts between her ideal self and her worried self.

It was motivating to explore the fashion involvement of the first time mother and to examine what significant factors influence the fashion involvement of the new mother as related to her marital/personal status. Fashion and its importance for the consumer's self relates to the new mother's identity helping her to adjust to her new role and to have approval and endorsement from the social environment.

### **1.3 The research objective**

The research objective is to add knowledge and information in the field of consumer behavior when the assumption is that independent variables influence and predict the consumer's fashion involvement. The research focuses on the transition to mother for the first time and is supposed to add practical knowledge regarding the baby's clothes and dressing amongst solo and partnered first time mothers.

The research relates to the second order model of CFIP, containing the following aspects: product involvement, advertising involvement, consumption involvement, and purchase decision involvement.

### **1.4 The research question**

The study has the following questions:

1. What are the significant factors influencing the MCFIP of the new mother vis-à-vis her newborn's clothes?
2. Is there a difference in consumer involvement of the new mothers between solo and partnered mothers?
3. Do the independent variables have the same effect on each involvement type?

### **1.5 Added value of the thesis**

The benefit of the research is as follow:

- a. The research contributes to the understanding of the impact of the variables on fashion involvement within the target sector of first time mothers (of babies up to two years of age). Therefore, it will help the marketers in the baby clothing industry to make better decisions and choices helping them to penetrate the market, fulfill the mothers' needs and desires, and increase their revenues.
- b. The research parallels two main samples and includes partnered and solo mothers that have not been discussed in the literature, especially in the context of their purchasing behavior and involvement for their baby's clothes. The study aims to see if being in a relationship during and after the transition to motherhood, in a different age, income, and education bracket, makes a difference within these two segments relative to variables causing their involvement for their newborn.
- c. The research examines the impact of variables on fashion involvement using the construct of Mother's Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (MCFIP) as a new approach. The research treats consumer involvement as a construct of four dimensions, each with a different measure and scale and each of the type influencing the consumer involvement of the mother.
- d. The research takes into account that transition to motherhood for the first time creates enormous conflicts and aspirations for the new mother and there are differences between solo and partnered mothers. Adjusting to this transition for the first time refers to solo mothers by choice as a profitable valuable segment for the marketers. The research is one of the few in Israel trying to investigate the purchase decisions of the new mother in her first time motherhood, and trying to explore if there are significant differences because of marital status that implicate an exclusive approach, significant from the market. To the best of this researcher's knowledge, this is the first study in Israel that treats solo mothers not as having a low income, low education, and needing welfare, but as an equal sector with its own needs and consumption decision procedures towards the newborn.

## **1.6 The research methodology**

- The research methodology was to find out what variables will predict more significantly the MCFIP amongst partnered and solo new mothers, through mothers attending the Health Care Mother and Infant Center, known as Tipat Halav, in the 24 months after giving birth. These centers provides health and medical services to promote the health of pregnant mothers, of babies and of children up to six years of age, and their families. They exist in all towns and villages in Israel and are run by the Ministry of Health. These clinics are the first service young families meet that accompany them professionally through diverse issues, starting from pregnancy testing to development tests, including:
  - Periodic tracking of the child's growth and development, offering advice at all stages of child development;
  - Immunization according to the timetable determined by the Ministry of Health, to prevent the babies catching infectious diseases;
  - Instruction to improve health and prevent illness such as proper nutrition, breast-feeding, dental health, hygiene etc.;
  - Parental counseling on subjects pertinent to parenting and child-rearing. The staff includes doctors and nurses who specialize in caring for mothers/parents and babies.

These Mother and Infant Centers are the best place to find new mothers willing to answer the questionnaire while waiting for the doctor's examination. During the research there were some difficulties relating to the sample as follows:

- 1) One of the problems was to find new mothers giving birth for the first time in the last two years;
- 2) Finding solo new mothers having their first child alone because of their small percentage in the population (around 4% of 152,000 newborns per year);
- 3) Asking the new mothers in the Mother and Infant Centers to answer a face to face questionnaire lasting about 20-25 minutes.

Because the new mother is dealing with her newborn's needs it was not easy to have their time, and willing to answer the questionnaire. Of 203 partnered mothers and 106 solo mothers around 75% responded to the personal questionnaire.

Because of these difficulties the research performed in Israel from February 2010- June 2012 was very complex and sometime annoying and frustrating. During that period the researcher visited 13 Mother and Infant Centers, some of them more than once.

All in all, the research sample include 106 single mothers having no relationship within the last two years and 141 partnered mothers having a relationship by marriage or a cohabiting relationship.

To obtain more insights from the research, the researcher included ten independent variables representing the new mother's characteristics: marital status, age, income, education, work status, media usage by the mother, her price perception, prestige sensitivity, self-confidence and public self-consciousness. In addition she used three moderating variables: marital status, age and public self-consciousness. The research included 21 hypothesis and the research statistical procedures include correlation analysis, and regression analysis between all the research variables.

Based on the " traditional consumer behavior model", which Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell (1968) often term the "consumer behavior model", there are five steps in the decision making process:

1. Identify the need
2. Collect information
3. Evaluate the brands available
4. Decision making
5. Post purchase evaluation (Schiffman & Kanuk ,2002: 96).

Transitions take place during the family life cycle (FLC) influence the frequency of buying, the product's category, quantity of the purchase, involvement level during the purchase, and so on (Wells & Gubar, 1996; Powell & Powell, 2001).

The research explores the correlation between fashion involvement of the new mother with demographic variables, price perception, media usage and personality traits of each group: solo versus partnered new mothers.

In the first section the researcher will focus on the terminology of solo and partnered mothers in Israel, the trends in the new family and the reasons for having solo or partnered families. The second part will spotlight the transition to motherhood and its importance for the mother's identity and behavior as well as the changes in herself. The third section constructs the new role that helps the consumer to adjust to the new status in a social cultural meaning. It will also present the relationship between purchasing objectives and transition to motherhood. Section four discusses the characteristics of the partnered and solo new mother. Section five discusses the behavior of the consumption model and the authorities on mother's behavior. Section six relates to the information source and media usage by the new mother during consumption behavior. Section seven concerns fashion involvement, its antecedents and dimensions.

This study confirms that media usage, public self-consciousness, prestige sensitivity and price/quality predict fashion involvement of both solo and partnered mothers. Age can predict (negative relationship) all involvement dimensions amongst partnered mothers and only product involvement of the solo mothers can predict (negative relationship) product and consumer involvement of solo new mothers; self-confidence can predict the purchase decision of partnered mothers.

### **1.6.1 Definition of terms**

- Family - two individuals or more having a relationship by blood, marriage or adoption (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000:296)
- Nuclear family: A kinship group in which a husband, a wife, and their children live together in one household (Nam, 2004 )
- Cohabiting family: A household headed by two biological parents, two grandparents, a mother with a stepfather, a father with a stepmother, an aunt with

a spouse, an uncle with a spouse, an older sibling with a spouse, foster parents, or extended relatives with spouses acting as the primary caregivers and guardians of the child.

- Partnered mother: Mothers having a child with a partner whether they are married or in a cohabiting relationship, or whether they are divorced and both parents are raising the child (The National Insurance Institute of Israel (NII), 2012)
- In this study partnered mothers refers to cohabiting or married mothers
- Single Family Law (1992): A single family is defined as a "parent who is not married and who maintains a child not yet 18 years old. Parents fitting this definition will be entitled under the National Insurance Law and additional laws"
- Not partnered mother/solo mothers/single mother: A household consisting of one parent mother and at least one child .The one parent mother can be due to widowhood and loss of a spouses, a divorce or a decision of become pregnant and have a baby on her own
- Fashion involvement is the degree that consumers are interested in fashion and the amount of importance that is placed on the category (McKinney Traylor-Legette, Kincade, & Holloman2004; Park, Kim & Forney 2006).

## **Chapter 2: The Literature Review**

### **2.1 The family identity and trends in the family life cycle**

#### **2.1.1 The family identity**

This chapter will define the term "family" according to traditional and modern approaches, focusing on its stages according to its progression in society at large. It will examine the significance of the term and how it differs from the definition of household. The study will further present the development of the family during the last century including the diverse stages at different periods in time.

Today, separations, divorces, co-habitation, remarriages, single parent families, homosexual partnerships, extramarital affairs, remaining single, flings, etc. are reality in the Western world (Ekstrom, 2003). Even so, the nuclear family is often presented in advertising. It may reflect a nostalgic dream of a family, which is less common in today's society. Also, in the academic world, we may have an illusion of an ideal family or think that family cohesiveness is stronger at other universities or departments. A family can be defined as a group of individuals with which we have work relations (Ekstrom, 2003). Family has been identified as the most important significant decision-making and consumption unit (Assael, 1992) making it attractive to marketing academics. Many studies have been conducted on the family life cycle and its transitions as a predictable consumer behavior parameter because of the multiple characteristics of consumers including age, household size, and life-changing events such as marriage, the addition or departure of children, and the death of a spouse (Wells & Gubar, 1966).

The traditional definition of family stands for marriage between a man and a woman while the legal definition according to the Supreme Court of the United States focuses on the legal status such as marriage or parent and the relationship between the parents

(Duncan, 2000). Another characterization for the traditional family is a nuclear unit of marriage between a man and a woman with their children (Murdock, 1945).

The original nuclear family was monogamous and patriarchal. It embraced one male and one female connected by marriage recognized by law with natural or adopted children who were absorbed in that unit, where the father was the head of the family, the sole breadwinner, representing the family vis-à-vis the state and society. The mother was subordinate to him but had authority over the children and the home. The nuclear family was traditional, living according to clear ancient religious customs and according to closed social norms and standards known in advance (Turner, 1979). Over the last decade the family relationship has not been based on marriage but on a cohabiting relationship between two people having the same objectives and goals. Family can be described as a small domestic group of kinds or people in a kin-like relationship consisting of at least one adult and one dependent person" (Popenoe, 1988: 529) or as "The form of single households, same gender households, and cohabiter-type households, each displaying distinctly different consumption behaviors" (Schaninger & Danko, 1993: 583).

Not surprisingly cohabiting as well as married families will stick together after birth according to their relationship during or before birth (Carlson & Högnäs, 2010). Couples with greater relational attachment at birth are much more likely to still be together five years later. Of couples cohabiting at birth, 56% remained together five years later (28% married, 28% still cohabiting), as compared with 77% of couples married at birth who remain married. Of couples in 'visiting' relationships (romantically involved but living apart) when the baby was born, 7% got married, 14% were cohabiting, and 6% were still in a visiting arrangement.

Family identity mutually constructed both internally among family members and externally in relation to observation of outside family behavior Bennett, Wolin, & McAvity, (1988) provides the most comprehensive explanation of family identity: "Family identity is the family's subjective sense of its own continuity over time, its present situation, and its character. It is the persons and the construct of qualities and attributes

that make it a particular family and that differentiate it from other families” (Bennett, Wolin, & McAvity, 1988: 212).

According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2008) the definition of family is a household having two or more individuals related by birth, marriage or adoption although unrelated people.

Common to all definitions of family is that each member makes decisions about who to include as a member, how to anchor family in the past and future, and distinguishing the family by its unique characteristics (Epp & Price, 2008). These researchers outline three components of family identity:

- Structure - indicates who is in the family and who is outside the family now and in the past. Structure reflects the boundaries between the family members and the hierarchy and the roles of the members, such as divorced or married.
- Generational orientation – describes links to past and future generations, such as generations who connect through stories, photographs and memories that anchor a family to its past.
- Character - daily characteristics of family life regarding activities, values, attitudes, beliefs and other family attributes.

Each of the three components is relevant to a relational unit which is a subgroup within the family (Epp & Price, 2008). Transitions within the family, such as having a child or leaving the nest, challenge the relational and family identity, altering sources like values or symbols and the experiences of collective possible family selves. This enables the family to adjust to changes more rapidly and be more multidimensional (Littlejohn, 1999).

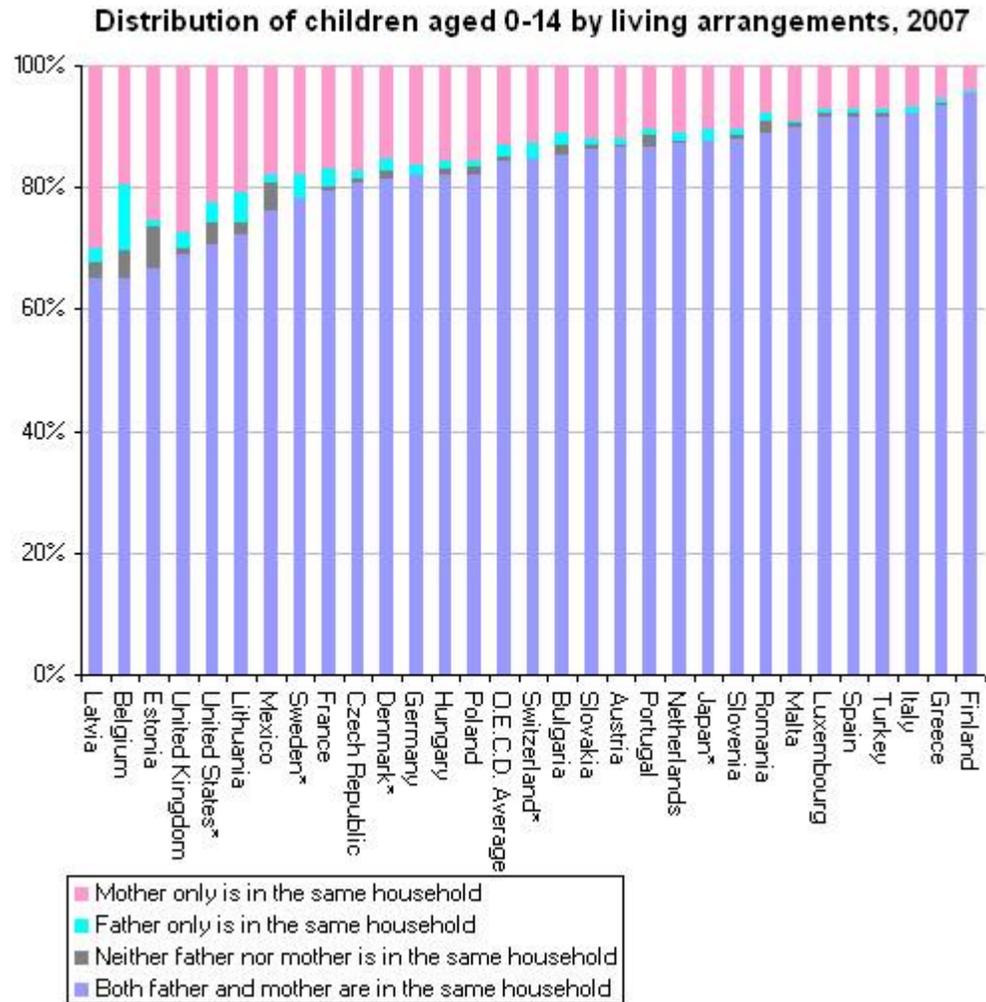
The Family life Cycle (FLC) is known as a series of stages through which the family unit is predicted to pass in life (Murphy & Staples, 1979; Gilly & Ennis, 1982). It serves as a market tool explaining consumer behavior at various phases and represents the pattern of individual behavior as they age, marry, have children and retire.

The FLC is used as a conceptual tool for understanding the family development when traditions from one stage to another are predictable and observable. This is a sociological concept describing changes in the family across time including relational transitions in individual status (marriage, divorce, remarriage, widowhood) as well as the transitions in the parental situation (birth of the first and the second child). These concepts are used as family transitions in conflicts, happy or unpleasant events, interactions and episodes affecting their consumer behavior, and predict the consumption behavior of the family members. The birth of the first child, departure of a child or losing a beloved person are the markers or transitions between stages in the family cycle each bringing necessary changes or developments in needs requirements and consumption patterns (Marr & McCready, 1996), (figure no. 1).

Each phase during FLC is a demographic variable positioned as a different market segment including needs, attitudes, desires, and consumption behavior having different roles and insights. The model represents American society where up to the 1950s and mid 1960s most Americans had the same life circle. They married, had children, raised their children, aged, retired, and died. But then, as Schiffman and Kanuk (2000:285) show, the rule changed and the traditional and expected FLC no longer existed. People developed their career but delayed childbirth time, get divorced, raise children as a single unit, and families did not look the same. The model as well as the concept was renamed and restructured, as Engel et al. (2002) suggest, renaming the family life cycle as the household life cycle representing the classic and modern family units.

As Schiffman and Kanuk (2000:275-277) argue, family consists of individuals sharing the same relationship by blood, marriage or adoption, where households do not necessarily have these factors. However in the context of consumer behavior both the traditional family and households can be treated as synonymous, i.e. marketers should understand that by moving from one stage to another in traditional or modern FLC the product or services needs of the consumers change and differ.

The traditional family cycles based on the nuclear family start with a bachelor progressing to matrimony, childbearing and death. The basic family unit did not consider that some may "recycle" to former stages, will divorce or will have children alone.



**Figure no. 1: Single and partnered mothers in the world**

Source: <http://economix.blogs.nytimes.com/2010/03/10/single-parents-around-the-world/>

### **2.1.2 The Israeli family**

Demographic data indicate that Israel is more family-oriented than Western and Eastern European countries, according to the indices of a relatively high birth rate, a relatively low divorce rate, and relatively few births outside the marital framework. Apparently, although the impact of industrialization and modernization did not overlook Israel, the Israeli family remained relatively stable. Peres and Katz (1991) propose several explanations for this fact:

1. The tense security situation and the fact that Israel is a "nation under siege" arouse high awareness amongst Israelis of the danger inherent in the country and this increases the family orientation.
2. Many and a growing number of Israelis are of Sephardic Middle Eastern and Asian origin, who are characterized by more traditional family patterns.
3. The central status of religion and tradition in Israel are also manifested in the institutional and the value levels.
4. Israeli society is limited and relatively intimate, affording a means of effective supervision which increases the connection between the individual and his family.

Safir (1993) maintains that the stability of the Israeli family is supported by patriarchal values originating in the Jewish tradition, Moreover, she notes the great importance placed in that society on fertility, amongst other things on the background of the "demographic problem" and the ambition to maintain a Jewish majority in Israel. The Israel family is stable and maintains the place of resident. The marriage ceremony and are traditional culture are highly valued. Israeli society still expects women to stay at home during the first four months after birth and then to return to work.

It is doubtful if there is any such thing as the "Israeli family" with unique attributes. The level of family orientation in Israel is relatively high, certainly in comparison to other modern societies, and in comparison to other societies it is characterized by a high marriage rate, a general rate of fertility (number of births annually relative to the number of women of birthing age), and the birth rate (number of births annually relative to the

total population) are relatively high, as well as the low divorce rate (Sharlin 1992, Peres & Katz, 1996).

In Israel in nonreligious families, the birthrate is 2.7 children per family compared to 2.05 children in the USA and 1.9 children in Germany (<http://peakoil.com/forums/is-europe-dying-t59005.html>). The Israeli sociologists (Lavee & Katz, 2008) describe Israeli society as a technologically developed society that has undergone a rapid process of modernization and Americanization, explaining the relatively low unmarried rate in Israel. At the same time, and the marriage and divorce rates are similar to those of traditional and agrarian societies such as Jordan and Tunisia (despite the gradual decline in the disparity regarding the index of family orientation between Israel and western societies).

### **2.1.3. The Israel solo family**

The single parent family law (Knesset, 1992) determines that the concept of the single parent covers a variety of family situations: widows and widowers, divorced males and females, women whose husbands refuse to agree to a divorce, and unmarried mothers. The law, which was legislated in 1992, defines a single parent as one who is not married and who has no known other, who has custody of a child who has not yet attained the age of 18. This law is a break-through in definition and in attitude towards single parent families in affording economic benefits.

#### Definitions

1. In this Law, a "single parent is a resident of Israel who has the custody of a child and to whom one of the following applies:

- (1) Is not married and there is no person who is known publicly as his or her spouse;
- (2) Is married and to whom the provisions of one of subparagraphs (a) or (b) apply, provided that there is no other person who is known publicly as his or her spouse;
  - (a) He or she has lived separately from his or her spouse for a period of at least two years and has commenced legal proceedings for the dissolution of marriage and has acted within the framework of such proceedings for at least two years;

- (b) She is an *aguna* (a woman denied a divorce by her husband which is a criterion for remarriage), within the meaning thereof in Section 1 of the National Insurance Law [Consolidated Version] 5755-1995;
- (3) He or she is a new immigrant who has been in Israel for more than one year and less than two years and his or her spouse has not immigrated to Israel and has not lived in Israel, provided that he or she has no other spouse;

The solo mothers in Israel are a growing, relatively new, social group. They are a demographic social phenomenon associated with two general demographic developments: the growth in the female population and unmarried women in general, and the growth in single parent families in particular. This gives rise to single parent households.

Consequent to these changes, a higher level of education, delaying the age of marriage from 24.5 to 26.7 in the last decade, and a rise in the level of economic independence amongst women finds a global increase in the number of unmarried mothers: 36% in the U.S., 42% in Britain, 45% in France, 55% in Sweden (CBS, 2008: table 1331).

Despite this increase, Israel still has the lowest percentage of single parent households in the western world. More than 65% have two adults living in couplehood, compared to less than 55% in Scandinavia and less than 60% in the U.S. Israel is ranked fifth in the western world in the number of single parent families headed by the mother (91%) and in fourteenth place in such families headed by the father (9%). Belgium is ranked first in single parent families headed by the father (25%), while Israel is ranked in 28<sup>th</sup> place (one before the lowest ranking) in the western world regarding the percentage of children with solo mothers (3.4%), following Greece (4%) and before Cyprus (2.3%). Iceland heads the list with 6.3% of births to solo mothers, followed by Norway, Estonia, Sweden, Norway and Denmark (where the percentage is all above 50%) (Swirski, Kraus, Konnor –Attias & Herbest, 2003).

Based on the National Insurance Institute of Israel (2002), a single-parent family is defined in the Single-Parent Families Law as “a parent who is not married and who maintains a child not yet 18 years of age”. Parents who fit this definition may be entitled to benefits under the National Insurance Law and additional laws.

Solo /single new mothers are women who raise their children on their own because of divorce, widowhood or single women who decided to get pregnant and to have a child on their own. In Israel, because of the terror attacks, war and security operations, approximately 2% of the solo mothers are widows losing their spouse during pregnancy and are of necessity giving birth on their own. Even amongst women in Israel 59% get divorced during their pregnancy resulting in them giving birth on their own. The rest of the solo mothers are solo by choice because of not finding "Mr. Right" or reaching the deadline for having a baby (CBS, 2002 table 5.12).

The proportion of solo mothers in Israel increased significantly over the last two decades from 4% in 1970s to 8.8% in 1995 and to 8.9% in 2004. Solo mothers by choice account for 3.4%, 59% are divorced and the rest are widowed. The endorsement and approval of single, never married mothers with a child of their own arises due to the exposure to western culture, where becoming an independent woman who wants to have a child without any compromise increased the percentage of single mothers by choice three-fold in the last twenty years from 1.3% in the 1990s to 3.4% in 2005 (figure no. 2).

Another factor affecting the rise in the percentage of single parent families in Israel was the immigration from the FSU and Ethiopia (The Moses Campaign) that brought many single-parent families, affecting the legitimacy and normativity of this sector in Israel (Swirski et al., 2003).

#### 2.1.4 Solo mothers by choice

Data regarding different family frameworks for 2008 notes that 5,500 new children are born yearly to single parent families. In the last 25 years the highest percentage of solo mothers aged 35-39 (the average age for solo mothers) has grown to 40% of births, while young women up to the age of 19 account for only 1% of these births.

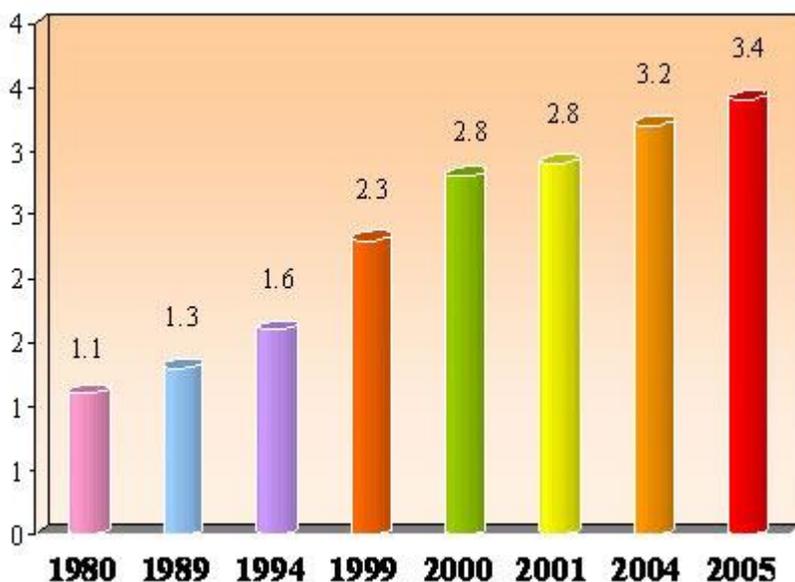
Solo mothers by choice in Israel (figure no 2) refers to women who have never been married and decided to bring a child into the world, without a marital framework, and usually based on their financial ability and independent sources of income. Generally, the decision to raise the child born whether through a donation from a sperm bank or through a written agreement with a man who is not interested in sharing the child rearing, totally alone is that of the mother. His name usually does not appear as the child's father. Similarly, there are women who decide to have a child after getting pregnant without the father's knowledge. They in any case do not demand his involvement or financial help in raising the child. This group has several defining attributes:

- Age: Women take this decision after experiencing several unsuccessful and disappointing relationships in the previous decade or two rather than in establishing a family unit. They fear missing the chance to become pregnant due to the ticking biological clock, which generates increasing pressure towards the end of their thirties.
- Socio-economic situation: Solo mothers belong usually to the middle class and above. Most have higher education. As of 2007, a parent with higher education heads 43% of single parent families, 19% lack higher education, 13% have a B.A degree, 11% have an M.A. or a Ph.D. Those completing high school account for 40%, completing elementary school for 14%, and only 3% lack any education.
- Employment: Most solo mothers are employed in the free professions, own their apartment or live in a rented, well-equipped apartment. Data from the NII for 2005 indicate that most solo mothers (69%) supported themselves and their children.

Alimony from the fathers was demanded by 18%, and 13% needed support from the State.

- About 70% of the single mothers belong to the labor force, to the same extent as partnered mothers, and are employed full time or part time.
- The average age of employed single parents is 38 with more than 12 years of schooling (Bar Zuri, 2000).

One may assume that change in the structure of the Israeli family will continue and it will become more similar in character to families in industrialized and modern societies around the world. At the same time, it would seem that compared to the trends towards modernization contradictory trends of religious and national conservatism affect Israeli families hence also the expectation for it to continue to maintain its relative stability (Peres & Katz, 1991; Sharlin et al., 1992).



**Figure no. 2: Proportion of single mothers by choice in Israel**

Source: <http://www.newfamily.org.il/about>

## **2.1.5 Fashion baby clothes markets in Israel and globally**

### **2.1.5.1 Fashion baby clothes markets in the world**

Women take the lead in buying infant and children's clothing. Some 42% of women, as compared with 30% of men, report making these purchases in the past year. The peak age for buying infant clothing is 25-34 years of age, while the age ranges that bracket those years (i.e., ages 18 - 24 and 35 - 44) also have high purchase incidence. There is another small rise in purchase incidence found among consumers aged 55-64, a prime age for grand parenting (Danziger, 2003).

Why do parents buy luxury apparel for their infants? Clothing often being used as a symbolic value reflects the wearer's ability to pay high price for a perceived high quality symbolic of the brand identity (Prendergast, Phau & Wong, 2003) Studying 134 parents of new born infants aged 0-4 years purchasing at least one luxury brand for their children Prendergast et al., (2003) show that the main motivations for dressing the infants with luxury clothes are: "The luxury brands have good designs" or "Specific luxury brands can show my children's character". Materialism has a significant positive relationship with the consumption of luxury brands for the infant, suggesting that "materialistic parents pay less emphasis to the possession of luxury brands for infants as a way to show off their wealth" (p.18). The high expenditure by the mother is more materialistic, but her concern for luxury infant brands is the main reason, as is the highly perceived quality and the desire to offer the best to the one for whom they love and care (Prendergast, Phau & Wong, 2000).

Fashion clothing is recognized as an important part of the human existence as well as a major part of our identity (Woodward, 2007; Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012).

The term 'fashion' is accounted through attributing changes, novelty and added value and is a continued focus in ever-changing consumption studies (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012).

Americans spent 4.1% more for infant's clothing in 2001 than in 2000. This rise is linked not only to a rising birth rate but also to the baby boomers who have married off their children and are willing to spend a lot of money (compared to their parents) on their infants (Danziger, 2003). In the mid-2000s, the trend in this sector was for clothing and accessories that were smaller versions of the hottest trends for adults, primarily women. The increase in consumer spending on apparel and accessories, begun in 2003, grew very quickly in the children's sector, particularly in luxury and upscale products and brands. Designers such as Polo, DKNY, and Calvin Klein were entering the market with pint-sized products.

The average age of the new mother is 27, significantly rising in the last decade due to the mother's financial status that allows her to spend large sums of money on her new born and purchase children's fashion clothing. Another positive sign for the baby and children's industry arises from the same study: Birth rates among the most mature mothers, aged 35-44 years of age, are at their highest levels in three decades. (Danziger, 2003).

According to the "China baby clothing market research report in 2012-2016" released by the authorities, baby apparel retail shows a diversified consumption pattern with department stores, brand stores, maternity and baby supplies stores, large chain stores well accepted by consumers.

National survey data shows that by the end of 2012, China's baby clothing market has developed rapidly with the market size reached RMB34.8 billion, a CAAGR of approximately 17.6%. The market capacity is expected to increase to RMB227.98 billion in 2015, far higher than the average growth rate of China's clothing market. In future years, the baby clothing market will maintain strong growth momentum, and turn in the direction of branding and specialization; market concentration will continue to increase. (<http://www.babychinaindustry.com/en/node/4335>)

Using two focus groups of new mothers aged 27-31 each exploring different dimensions of baby clothing ads (Mads & Mette represent supermarket retail H&M

represent inexpensive clothing stores, Fransa – mid level clothing and DKNY upper level retail) Andersen, Sorensen and Kjaer (2008) show that the greater the new mother's involvement the greater her familiarity with the brands, the greater her information and familiarity with the ads and the more eager she is to talk and discuss the subject. That study shows that the mother is concerned about dressing the child in the right style to resemble adult styles, to send the "right message", and give "right impression". The new mother cuts her own consumption of clothes in favor of the clothes for the baby; by doing so her new role as a mother increases and she has a more hedonic motive as a self-sacrificing mother.

#### **2.1.5.2 Fashion baby clothes markets in Israel**

The turnover in the fashion market for clothes for babies and children aged 0-2 was \$3.5 billion in 2006 and 1.5 milliard \$ in Israel (<http://www.1mother.net/index>). The market is divided into the two following sectors:

- Babies aged 0-2 years, where the stress is on comfort
- Children aged 3-13, where the stress is on convenience in basic clothing and on trendiness in evening wear.

This market includes primary basic items of clothing for babies, that can amount to the sum of \$75 per month as the age of 0-2 years old (The Marker 2007) . This market grows constantly. From the start of 2004 until the end of 2008, more than 600 new branches of clothing chains were opened, and about another 110 in 2008 (The Marker 2007). Evaluations have it that 360 private shops operate in Israel for baby's clothes and another 110 chain shops such as Honigman Kids, GAP especially for baby's clothes.

Shops reached the conclusion that the placing children's departments in critical locations increases the scope of sales by some 80%, while shops that specialize in baby clothing address the middle class. Furthermore, some large chains that sold female adult clothing now includes baby clothing.

Elbaz, CEO of the Solog group, the largest manufacturer of baby clothing in Israel (22% of the market) claims that fashion companies have, in recent years, discovered the potential in baby clothes and have begun to invest resources in the social networks, in advertizing, in marketing and in PR, and to invest in opening shops that offer a real shopping experience.

The new trend in many firms is children's clothing departments in shops for adult clothes, such as Solog "Shop and Shop" in Gali stores. They have also increased the scope of sales by 80%, as most shoppers are women aged 25-40, who, as noted, are potential buyers of baby clothes (<http://www.1mother.net/index.php>)

According to the CBS, (<http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-3881022,00.html>), recent years have seen the trend of international companies to enter the Israeli market, thus reducing the cost of fashion products and their financial viability. This forced many of them to open cheap discount shops that meet the needs of the Israeli customer in times of national economic difficulty. Nowadays, leading firms familiar in Israel, such as Castro, Mango and Honigman, have been forced to open outlet stores that sell surplus goods at significant discount prices in order to cope with the competition forced by the entry of international firms, and adapt themselves to the economic times (Ministry of Trade, Commerce and Tourism, 2012). Thus it transpires that the discount product market is flourishing: it has risen by 50% since 2009 and is expected to rise by another 25% in the next two years (<http://www.themarket.com/consumer/1.1799232>).

## **2.2. Transition to motherhood for the first time**

### **2.2.1 Life transition in general and possible selves**

Transition is defined as shifting from one status to another (Rooney 1999). The changes of which life is full, whether from baby to infancy, child to adolescent, parent to old person, are mostly marked culturally by events, celebrations and certain rituals, even if no more than birthday parties,. These transitions are considered achievements.

Vehviläinen-Julkunen (1995) describes transitions as an integral part of human development. They have a profound impact and a dramatic effect on the lives of significant others, and major significance for health and welfare.

During life changes such as career change, parenting or losing a close relative are often related to identity transitions and alter the person's feelings, values and images of who he would like to be in the future, the person he wants to become, and the new identity he will adopt after the transition (Ibarra, 2007).

The aspirations, fears, ideas, and images the person wishes for himself during and after the transition is termed "Possible Selves" (PS). "Possible selves are the ideal selves that we would very much like to become. They are also the selves that we could become and are afraid of becoming. The possible selves that are hoped for might include the successful self, the creative self, the rich self, the thin self, or the loved and admired self, whereas, the created possible selves could be the alone self, the depressed self, the incompetent self, the alcoholic self, the unemployed self, or the bag lady self" (Markus & Nurius, 1986: 954).

Possible selves derive from representations of the self in the past and they include representations of the self in the future. They are different and separable from the current or now selves, yet are connected to them.

The selves we fear or wish to become relate to competitors with other expectations of our friends and us, as well as aspirations and fears influenced and shaped by the social

contexts. Possible selves function as the selves we imagine becoming in the future, the selves we hope to become, the selves we fear we may become, and the selves we fully expect we will become (Dunkel & Kerpelman, 2006:19). The selves are based on activities and the identity selves we were, our activities and fears we have and the ideal we wish to become (Dunkel & Kerpelman, 2006:22).

Possible selves also provide an interpretive context and shape the current selves in terms of fears, goals, and identity (Dunkel & Kerpelman, 2006). Possible self is derived from the individual's self-knowledge of what is possible to achieve. This is motivation as it is particularized and individualized according to aspiration motives and threats of the effective states (any term of emotional stage). The second important function of possible selves derives from their role in providing an interpretation from their current behavior. Thus the actions, abilities, and attributes of the individual depend on his surrounding in the context of possibility (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Searching possible self: Markus and Nurius (1986) asked 201 male and female college students about their role of possibility within the self-concept (one's description and evaluation of oneself, including psychological and physical characteristics, qualities, and skills. Self-concepts contribute to the individual's sense of identity over time.). Based on the participants' responses a questionnaire was developed listing 150 possibilities for the self. A third of them were judged as positive possibilities (such as a rich good father or good shape), a third as a negative possibilities (such as lazy or depressed) and the last third as a natural (such as making one's own decisions).

The findings show that possibilities are possible self-guide incentives for behavior thus the person's behavior and important decisions involve a process of imaging the self under various alternative outcomes.

The importance of possible selves lies in its sensitive ability to predict future behavior and provide an interpretive concept for the current self. People strive to become who

they wish to be and shape their identity in relation to their aspirations and fears. The greater the person's self-esteem and personal efficacy the more hopes possible selves have ("I hope for excellent health" or "I hope for a good job") versus feared possible selves ("I fear being widowed" or "I fear losing my job"); (Robinson, Davis, & Meara, 2003).

Possible selves can act as career motivated tools helping the person to focus on his career. Testing 204 low income rural women Robinson et al., (2003) find that the less income the women has the less balance she will feel between hoped and feared possible selves and the less motivated the possible selves will act.

Possible selves are sensitive to situations that contain new information about the self, but incorrect or fantasized possible selves about the individual may respond in action and reject the self. The outcome of the gap between what we want or desire to be and what we are becoming eventually may cause active rejection or incorporate the possible self into a revised self-concept. During transitions in life people will implement possibilities that did not exist previously and will change activities and relationships in order to fit their new role. The personality transition is a trigger to change in the possible selves (Schouten, 1991).

Life transitions are defined as "the passage of adjustment from one situation to another" (Sabina & Spencer, 2002:9). Transition is defined as the process of changing from one state to another including dramatic effects on the lives. Transition to mother is a process of personal and interpersonal change that occurs as a woman assumes maternal tasks and appraises herself as a mother (cited in Pridham & Chang, 1992).

Life transitions such as birth, adulthood, marriage, divorce or death are events containing physical, psychological and social changes in the individual (Sevin & Ladwein, 2007). Transition for mothers for the first time contains increasingly complex demands, conflicts and frustrations but also joy, happiness, social ties and parental identity. The new mother is not prepared for the exciting change and is in conflict with

her feelings between her aspirations and joy of the coming child and her fears, worries, and her new identity. The change in the family structure is an unknown transition related to the possible selves and changing identity (Bailey, 2001).

Walker (1997: 32) defines transition as “A change in a significant life role marked by a transitional or liminal period during which (a) personal identities are suspended, producing significant psychological consequences, and (b) symbolic consumption may be used to facilitate the transition to the new role”.

Life transition represents a break between two periods, before and after, and involves social status transition in the individual personality. Life transitions involve a new set of roles and imply necessary adaption to the new system of roles and status. (Sabina & Spencer, 2002:9-21; Sevin & Ladwein, 2007).

All of the life transitions follow a predictable pattern. Transition during life often consists of the following three stages (Van Gennep, 1960):

1. Separation from the former identity and old role habits. It entails the reconstruction of identity that begins when the person is separate from his former role, and other key components of the present self. Separation can triggered by forced changes such as loss of a job or beloved person, but also by planned changes like parenting or marriage.

The separation can cause loss or rejection from the former self-concepts resulting in a fresh start for the person (Belk, 1988).

When the separation does not constitute a completed transition but is conducted in a period of change and set concept flexibility known as luminous state.

2. Transition, in which the person is changing in order to fit the new role. This is the second stage of separation and entails changing the self-concept in order to fit the new role. In this stage the possible selves begin with an unclear image of the future self, and often involve the consumption of goods symbolic to the new self.

The individual tries services and goods that fit his goals, fears, and values, often incorporating them from popular culture and myth. The time an individual will spend during the transition stage to the new role depends on various factors including the motivation to make the change, the level of perceived risk involved, the individual's imagination and the extent of the completed self-change (Van Gennep 1960; Schouten, 1991). Forced and distressing changes like death of a beloved person will induce small motivation versus good and controlled changes like progressing to a better job.

3. Incorporation in which the person integrates the new role and status (Van Gennep, 1960; Schouten, 1991).

The third stage in transition is the acquisition of a new identity. At this stage the person can either be

1. Inactive to the change when possible selves are not reasonable to motivate action for example liminality to the change;
2. The person can actively reject the change when he believes that the new self-concept is undesirable;
3. The person can incorporate and adjust the self-concept when the possible self is plausible and desirable and therefore the person is motivated to adjust to the change (Van Gennep, 1960; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Schouten, 1991).

In order to attain the new role the individual must incorporate social roles by (direct or indirect) observation of role models such as parents, family or friends. Learning and adopting other's behaviors is divided into three stages (Sevin & Ladwein, 2008). In the first the individual selects what model he will observe, then he learns the behavior of the role model (acquisition phase) and finally the individual reproduces the process and translates the observations into actions (Sevin & Ladwein, 2008).

### **2.2.2 Motherhood – changing identity**

When asked why they decided to have their first (or only) child, the overwhelming majority of parents (87%) answer, “The joy of having children”. But nearly half (47%) also say:” There wasn’t a reason; it just happened” (Gertner Moryoseff, 2009).

Every year 145,207 women give birth in Israel alone, of whom 30% (45,600) are first-time mothers. About 3,825 (8.3%) of this sector are single (not married) first-time mothers with an average age of 26.5 years of age. The average expense during the first six months on shopping for baby goods is about \$4,500 (excluding monthly expenses for diapers, baby food, pacifiers and other convenience goods) (CBS 2008, table no 1331).

As people make the transition to parenthood, they may begin to describe themselves their roles, their values, and how they see themselves differently. Many studies have been conducted about the importance of having a child for the individual, and although the father has a significant role as a partner, most of the studies deal with the social, psychological and physical changes women experience.

According to Van Genneep (1960) first-time motherhood sequences into three phases: separation from the job and old occupations, pregnancy as the liminal period and childbirth as the incorporation stage (Van Genneep, 1960).

Based on the literature (Van Genneep, 1960; Belsky, Lang & Rovin, 1985; Winson, 2009) the transition to motherhood entails many exchanges in social status. The new mother adjusts to her new identity, as a responsible person, no longer independent, caring for her diet. The pregnancy is a transition for women to another identity - another self, increasing their fear and worried about the unknown. Society regards them first as a wife or as a single person but after transition to motherhood recognizes their new identity as a mother having new mother's tasks in addition to her employable identity.

Transition to motherhood arises from the following three main topics: 'talking in' process, "self-system process" and the "operations area" (Winson, 2009).

The "talking in" process refers to the woman trying to understand and sense her becoming a mother - the major maternal role she is experiencing. The "self-system

process" suggests concern with the body image, the ideal image and the self-image (Winson, 2009).

The ideal image concerns the new mother's capacity to suffer out of love for another and her way of giving to another. The self-image sees her here and now rather than in relation to the previous stage, and the body image theory focuses on the body's ability to accommodate and function with the transition.

The debate over breastfeeding involves more than merely ensuring the physical survival of the infant. It could be argued that breastfeeding focuses the woman's mind more acutely on the issues and on transitional processes that she is experiencing, but it is not integral to the concept of motherhood. The processes involved in the transition to motherhood are still poorly understood or researched (Winson, 2009).

Chick and Meleis (1986, cited in Pridham & Chang, 1992), define the transition to motherhood as a process of personal and interpersonal change that occurs as a woman assumes maternal tasks and assesses herself as a mother. Those researchers note that the previous definitions were limited to problem-solving regarding infant care and parenting issues; mothers have focused on assessment of their problem-solving competence, their relationship with the infant, and their attention to the infant's development and individual characteristics. This definition relates to behavior rather than to psychological attitudes, mental processes, emotional development or change. It moves current thinking beyond psychomotor skills and towards the psychological, but it still lacks information about the processes and strength of feeling that are associated with motherhood.

The transition to motherhood is often accompanied by social, psychological, and cultural change of which the woman is not aware till giving birth. These transitions cause motherhood to be one of the most difficult occupations forcing the woman to change her identity and innovate a new one, and western women are left the conflict of work and ideas (mother versus wage earner) (Winson, 2009).

Motherhood is considered a major transition in terms of changing the women's identity and self due to its significant role change impacting on the ordinary and familiar activities the new mother performs daily (Kielhofner, 2002; Horne et al., 2005). Roles, individual means, and a person's identity in terms of her working status and activities, routines and habits previously performed regularly are components of our self-identity. Role identity is generated when others recognize and respond to us as occupying a particular status and our selves are reflected in the attitudes and actions of others towards us (Kielhofner, 2002).

The involvement of mothers in efforts for better child welfare, and the strategies of some in the middle class to capture the "mother trade" through consumption on behalf of children is notable.

Maternal consumption, as an ideology, serves to integrate the sacred facet of mothers and children with the profane world of the marketplace by recasting motherhood as a consumer practice. "Motherhood is an identity, an experience, and an institution" as Letherby and Earle (2001) declare and becoming a mother is identified by a very particular relationship between the women and an infant (Letherby, 2001: 22). Her self-identity is associated with work status and activities during life, as Christiansen (1999) describes it, are key not just to being a person, but to being a particular person, and thus creating and maintaining an identity.

The new mother's activities such as walking in the park, changing nappies, feeding the baby or joining a mothers group, have become the basis for the new mother's identity having a period of occupational disruption (Horne et al. 2005).

Once a woman becomes a mother her identity and individuality in her new role are engaged with her obligations related to her home and her new baby rather than choosing leisure occupations such as reading a book (Turner, 2002).

The new mother's feeling of obligation is a crucial and significant part of her new identity as Horne et al. (2005) who surveyed 32 new (married) mothers having their first child note a mother. They found that, as related to occupational change, motherhood and becoming a mother has changed their work status role and made disorder in their balanced lifestyle.

The arrival of a new baby influences the new mother's habits, routines and her self-care activities. Privacy in her daily routine, such as in showering, sleeping or spending time on her own, are often disturbed spending time with the new baby (Kielhofner, 2002). Questioning 202 employed and unemployed single and partnered mothers regarding their way spending time after one year after birth, Sanik and Mauldin (1986) show, as expected, that unemployed mothers spend more time on physical (bathing and feeding the baby) and nonphysical activities like playing, reading a story and personal issues (include sleeping, grooming, resting eating).

Furthermore, unemployed solo mothers spend more time with their children and on their own personal needs than employed solo mothers. The author found that single mothers who were employed spend the least time in household tasks (1.8 hours per day) while mothers in two adult families who were not employed spent the most (6.0 hours).

Further analysis shows that there is no difference amongst mothers regarding the time devoted to non-physical care of their families. In each group the mother putting the same based on employed situation of the mothers was shown in necessity activities including home feeding or spending time on personal needs. Becoming a new mother is expressed in a new identity and a new status and is incorporated in the complexities between the pre-motherhood post-natal selves and the new identity as a mother, as described in the next section.

### **2.2.3. Transition to motherhood and change in identity**

Life transitions, like career changes, can act as push factors leading the person to desire changing his possible self to fit the new job, or alternatively can act as pull factors

where a person may discover an unknown passion, new skills or seek a new work status (Kunda, Barley & Evans, 2002; Ibarra, 2007).

Transitions in life separate the person from the key role to which he was accustomed, and engage him in creating new roles to fit the gaps. The individual will begin to formulate possible selves and to envision himself, as he might possibly become (Markus & Nurius, 1986). Transition to first-time motherhood is associated with new roles, activities, new consumptions decisions and new possible selves the new mother is having (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Banister & Hogg, 2006).

Possible selves during transition to motherhood relate to the ambitions, fears and ideas the woman has during pregnancy and after birth including questions such as, what kind of mother do I want to be? or Will I be a good mother? What is a good mother? And, Will I be able to balance my new work and life with my new role as a mother? (Banister & Hogg, 2006).

Pregnancy can be associated with a period of transition between former and future social identity during which the women have anticipations and fears and life focuses more on the child than on the mother. She is busy buying more things for the infant and taking care of and interesting herself in her health as a child carrier rather than herself as a human being (Ladwin & Sevin, 2008). Pregnancy is considered a transition during the women's life cycle and the everyday life of pregnant women experiences social, psychological and physical changes.

The characteristics of the pregnancy period exist only during this period. Sevin and Ladwein (2008) mention the following highlights:

1. Protection of the child imposes on women a healthy life style including healthy nutrition fruits, forgoing tobacco or alcohol;
2. Pregnant women use special goods and services helping them to learn about the new situation including DVDs, books or using the internet and medical information;

3. Pregnant women are very intense with themselves buying leisure cosmetics and new clothes for their situation (Prothero, 2002);
4. Intense social distribution in the family's roles also occurs. The role definition is changing and the women's identity reduces the domestic jobs with the husband helping and assisting them;
5. Physical changes also occur during pregnancy including morning sickness, baby movements or a growing belly. Ultrasound scans and medical tests all enhance the anticipated preparation of the mother to be;
6. With this reality the first material goods purchased include bedroom, clothes, pushchair or pram are reinforced by the coming event with a certain element of emotion (Sevin & Ladwein, 2007).

Pregnancy is therefore considered a transition stage in the women's identity between the former and the future social roles emphasizing the initiation and expectation of the expected child continuing through the consumption practices concerned with the child rather than focusing on the mother.

Consumption and material preparation help control the duration, separating the pregnant woman from childbirth and activating the new role as a new mother, and allowing the pregnant women to generate the transition and adapt to her new role. Consumption during pregnancy can be practiced with the following two dimensions (Schoutern, 1991; Sevin & Ladwein, 2008):

1. Child oriented: Preparing a protected environment for the child
2. Mother's orientation: The social role of the mother is associated with the anticipation of the new status.

As Thomsen and Sorensen (2006) show the two functions of material consumption: 1) Establish the role of the new mother in the eyes of others; and 2) Facilitate performance of the new role before the child arrives.

Using semi-structured interviews on women who had recently given birth to their first child, Banister and Hogg (2006) found out that the new possible selves of the new mother concern her new identity, different hopes, her new fears and expectations of the new mothers have affected the patterns of interests, themes and choices of the participants. They further find that their new identity as future mothers to be is the perception of the ideal mothers in the eyes of pregnant and new mothers, including consumption decisions such as whether to buy pacifiers and their aspirations or their fears of breastfeeding. Possible selves and the mother's ideal mother in the eyes of society also influence services purchasing choices such as joining a network of new mothers or joining social networks generated by health care professionals regarding what constitutes a "good mother". A possible self is linked to the consumption choices of services and goods that a "good mother" should buy (Banister & Hogg, 2006; O'Malley, 2006).

Looking at magazines showing stereotypes of attractive pregnant and new mothers, enjoying their children, delaying their career, having fun and enjoying relationships and leisure causes disturbance and frustration among the new mothers. The books and information guides have prescriptions as to how to be a "good mother" creating more annoyance and uncertainty in the new mother identity. Over 800 books of motherhood have published between 1970 -2000 (Douglas & Michaels, 2004).

## **2.3. Demographic characteristics of the new mother**

### **2.3.1. General overview**

The internal and external world changes irrevocably as the new personality experiences profound adaptation to the baby's needs. Throughout history, women have devised strategies, and sometimes adopted rites, devised by other more experienced women, to aid them in this process. The need for support reflects the consciousness of the issues associated with birth, including the risk of infant and maternal mortality. Despite the low level of threat to the infant's and mothers' wellbeing due to modern obstetric care, the worry and concern still exist for all parties.

Social and economic changes that occurred during the last fifty years have been associated with changes in the family structure as well as characteristics of first-time mothers. The age of the first birth and educational attainment have changed over time and, for example, the mother's age at the first birth increased by 3.6 years from 1970 to 2007 - from 21.4 to 25.0 years (National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS)). The percentage of women aged 35 and over increased nearly eight times between 1970 (1%) and 2006 (8%) and the percentage of first-time mothers under 20 years of age dropped from 36% to 21% during that same period (Laughlin, 2010).

The arrival of a new baby will impact the new mothers' habits, routines, and work status in an irreversible way, as, for example, regarding privacy of the bathroom or shower, sleeping time or having leisure activities as well as career and work activities. Interviewing white British married first-time mothers averaging 33.5 years of age found similar activities before and after childbirth, with important activities such as friends, family or home maintenance, disturbed due to having the new baby. There were also changes in work status, particularly time spent in self-care activities (Horne, Corr & Earle, 2005).

Based on data from the National Center for Health Statistics and the Census Bureau (2008) the changing demographic characteristics of U.S. mothers compare women who gave birth in 2008 with those who gave birth in 1990. One of the most basic events in a woman's life is the transformation generated by giving birth (see table no 1).

|                       | 1990      | 2000      | 2001      | 2002      | 2003      | 2004      | 2005      | 2006      | 2007      | 2008      |
|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| <b>Total</b>          | 4,158,212 | 4,058,814 | 4,025,933 | 4,021,726 | 4,089,950 | 4,112,052 | 4,138,349 | 4,265,555 | 4,317,119 | 4,251,095 |
| <b>Age</b>            |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |
| <b>Total (10-19)</b>  | 533,483   | 477,509   | 453,725   | 432,808   | 421,241   | 422,024   | 421,315   | 441,832   | 451,263   | 440,775   |
| 10-14                 | 11,657    | 8,519     | 7,781     | 7,315     | 6,661     | 6,781     | 6,722     | 6,396     | 6,218     | 5,775     |
| 15-19                 | 521,826   | 468,990   | 445,944   | 425,493   | 414,580   | 415,243   | 414,593   | 435,436   | 445,045   | 435,000   |
| <b>Total (20-34)</b>  | 3,256,901 | 3,034,631 | 3,022,589 | 3,033,716 | 3,094,217 | 3,104,467 | 3,122,675 | 3,212,594 | 3,253,520 | 3,207,208 |
| 20-24                 | 1,093,730 | 1,017,806 | 1,021,627 | 1,022,106 | 1,032,305 | 1,034,419 | 1,040,388 | 1,080,437 | 1,082,837 | 1,052,928 |
| 25-29                 | 1,277,108 | 1,087,547 | 1,058,265 | 1,060,391 | 1,086,366 | 1,104,443 | 1,131,596 | 1,181,899 | 1,208,504 | 1,196,713 |
| 30-34                 | 886,063   | 929,278   | 942,697   | 951,219   | 975,546   | 965,605   | 950,691   | 950,258   | 962,179   | 957,567   |
| <b>Total (35+)</b>    | 367,828   | 546,674   | 549,619   | 555,202   | 574,492   | 585,377   | 594,359   | 611,129   | 612,336   | 603,113   |
| 35-39                 | 317,583   | 452,057   | 451,723   | 453,927   | 467,642   | 475,580   | 483,156   | 498,616   | 499,916   | 489,357   |
| 40-44                 | 48,607    | 90,013    | 92,813    | 95,788    | 101,005   | 103,675   | 104,667   | 105,539   | 105,071   | 106,090   |
| 45+                   | 1,638     | 4,604     | 5,083     | 5,487     | 5,845     | 6,122     | 6,536     | 6,974     | 7,349     | 7,666     |
| <b>Race</b>           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |
| <b>White</b>          | 2,712,524 | 2,400,347 | 2,346,435 | 2,318,229 | 2,344,104 | 2,322,249 | 2,303,211 | 2,330,332 | 2,312,474 | 2,273,220 |
| <b>Black</b>          | 674,137   | 607,419   | 592,330   | 580,848   | 579,392   | 582,455   | 587,301   | 621,687   | 627,230   | 625,314   |
| <b>Hispanic</b>       | 595,136   | 815,868   | 851,851   | 876,642   | 912,329   | 946,349   | 985,505   | 1,039,077 | 1,061,971 | 1,038,933 |
| <b>Asian</b>          | 138,869   | 196,308   | 196,336   | 206,691   | 214,644   | 220,771   | 221,356   | 231,593   | 244,745   | 243,460   |
| <b>Marital Status</b> |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |           |
| <b>Married</b>        | 2,992,828 | 2,711,771 | 2,676,684 | 2,655,760 | 2,673,955 | 2,641,863 | 2,611,315 | 2,623,609 | 2,602,478 | 2,523,146 |
| <b>Unmarried</b>      | 1,165,384 | 1,347,043 | 1,349,249 | 1,365,966 | 1,415,995 | 1,470,189 | 1,527,034 | 1,641,946 | 1,714,641 | 1,727,950 |

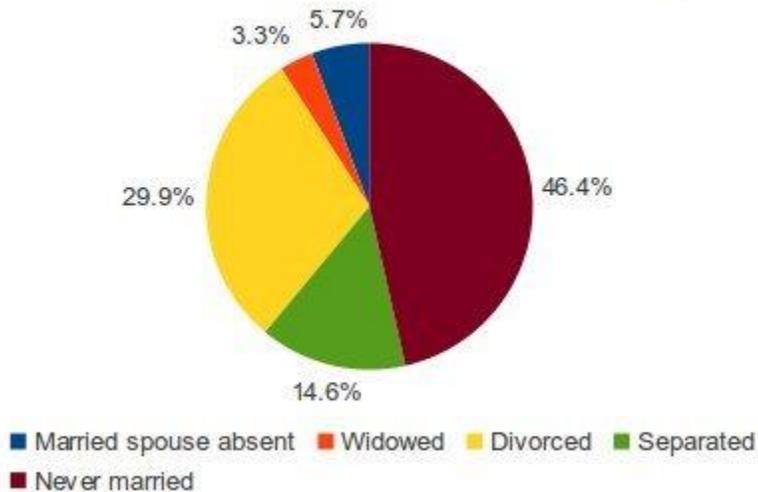
**Table no 1: Births by age, race, ethnicity and marital status of mother, 1990-2008**  
**(Source: National Center for Health Statistics data, 2007)**

### **2.3. 2. The - marital status of the new mother: Single vs. partnered mothers**

The proportion of all births to unmarried women increased to 39.7% in 2007, from 38.5% in 2006, with increases noted for all races and Hispanic-origin groups and within each age group of 15 years and older. In 2007, 31.8% of all births occurred by cesarean delivery, up 2% from 2006. Increases in cesarean delivery were noted for most age groups and for non-Hispanic white, non-Hispanic black, and Hispanic women (figure no. 3) (Heron, Sutton, Xu, Ventura, Strobino & Guyer, 2007).

## Marital Status of Single Mothers in the US, 2012

Source: Table C3, <http://www.census.gov/hhes/families/data/cps2012.html>



<http://dalrock.wordpress.com/>

Figure no 3: Marital status of single mothers in the US, 2012

In his study Halle et al. (2008) suggest that being a first-time mother, in a co-parenting relationship, reduces the anxiety over consumption of high involvement goods for the baby, probably because the parents consult among themselves and make the decisions after evaluation and discussion. First-time single mothers must take decisions regarding another person all alone, bearing all the responsibility by themselves. Fathers play a significant role in the transition to a family with a newborn baby by supporting and participating in the child's development as early as during pregnancy (ibid). Single mothers have the same obligations towards the newborn but must cope with the new person in their life on their own.

Four births in ten (41%) were to unmarried women in 2008, including most births to women in their early 20s. In 1990, 28% of births were to unmarried women. The unmarried mother share of births has increased most sharply for whites and Hispanics, although the highest share is for black women.

The number of single parent families in Israel has doubled since the 1990s. The rooting of feminist values together with a rise in the divorce rate, an increase in the birth rate amongst unmarried women and the great wave of immigration from the FSU have contributed to this growth amongst the Jewish secular female population (Israel Central Bureau of Statistics [CBS], 2008). According to data from the EU and the WHO for 2007 Israel ranks fifth in the percentage of single parent families, where the numbers are 7% or one in every 12 children lives in a single parent family. The U.S. ranks first with 16% followed by Canada with 11%. Israel's has the lowest rate of single parent households in the western world: more than 65% of Israeli households are run by couples, compared to 55% in Scandinavia, and less than 60% in the U.S. (Figure number 4).

Israel ranks fifth in the western world in the number of single parent families headed by the mother (91%) and holds fourteenth place in the number of families headed by the father (9%). Belgium ranked first as regards single parent families headed by the father (25%). Israel ranks in 28<sup>th</sup> place (one before last) in the number of children of unmarried mothers only 3.4% - preceded by Greece (4%), and followed by Cyprus (2.3%). Iceland leads with 63% of all births amongst unmarried mothers, followed by Estonia, Sweden, Norway and Denmark (all with a rate of above 50%). The complexity of the transition to first-time motherhood as well as the increase in the number of single new mothers makes it potentially viable, from the baby's point of sales, to have an improved marketing strategy to adjust goods and performance of an exclusive orientation to this niche and thus fulfill its needs completely.

Around 40% of the unmarried mothers in Ireland, England, Sweden, Finland, Holland and the USA, have never been married, although some of them may have given birth in some partnership. In Israel, however, the percentage of solo mothers is far lower – about 14% of all the single parents, and is lower compared to other countries. Only in Italy and Greece is their percentage even lower. The percentage of divorcees amongst the single mothers is highest in Greece, and stands at almost 80%. This is followed by Israel and Switzerland - some 74% of all mothers. (It should noted, however, that the

percentage of single mothers in Israel rose significantly over the years. They accounted for only 5% of all single mothers in 1985, and 17% in 2008 (Stier, 2010).

Choosing donor insemination is a common choice for single women interested in motherhood. Although it is far from easy, this technique gives women the greatest amount of control. It allows a woman the experience of bearing and raising her own biological child without the potential complications involved in asking a man to whom she is not married to be the father (Bock, 2001). Not all women know men whom they would want to father their child and who would agree to such a plan. Even if they do, such arrangements pose a risk of complex emotional entanglements and possible future custody disputes. Choosing artificial insemination also has the advantage of bypassing all the bureaucratic obstacles single women encounter in an adoption culture that can be deeply prejudiced against them. For these reasons, many women decide to tolerate all the very real problems posed by artificial insemination in order to become mothers (Anderson 1994: 230-231).

An additional advantage of insemination to intercourse is that the sperm in sperm banks is routinely screened for HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases. Overall, then, the advantages of insemination are:

- (a) Less risk of contracting an illness than there is with intercourse, since "unhealthy" sperm are screened out;
- (b) Insemination feels like a "cleaner" and more honest approach than intercourse in that it does not involve "using" a man for sex in order to acquire sperm;
- (c) It provides safety from anyone who might wish to seek a custody battle at any point in the future;
- (d) If there are no medical complications, costs are much lower than the costs of adoption.

Being a single parent does not always mean reducing the time spent with children as shown in the study by Sanik and Mauldin (1986) who find that marital status is not considered a factor influencing the time spent with children relative to emotional needs.

By interviewing 210 two parent/two children families, and 81 one parent/two children families, these researchers show that single parents do not have less contact with their children, and they spend the same amount of time (45 minutes per day) on emotional issues with their children as two-parent households. Thompson, McLanahan & Curtin (1992) report that single parents (with absent fathers) have less restrictive rules compared to married parents. Single parents exert weaker controls and make fewer demands than married couples. These differences may be explained in the control and authority that the second parent can bring to the family unit, and that single mothers have not socialized according to traditional male and paternal behaviors.

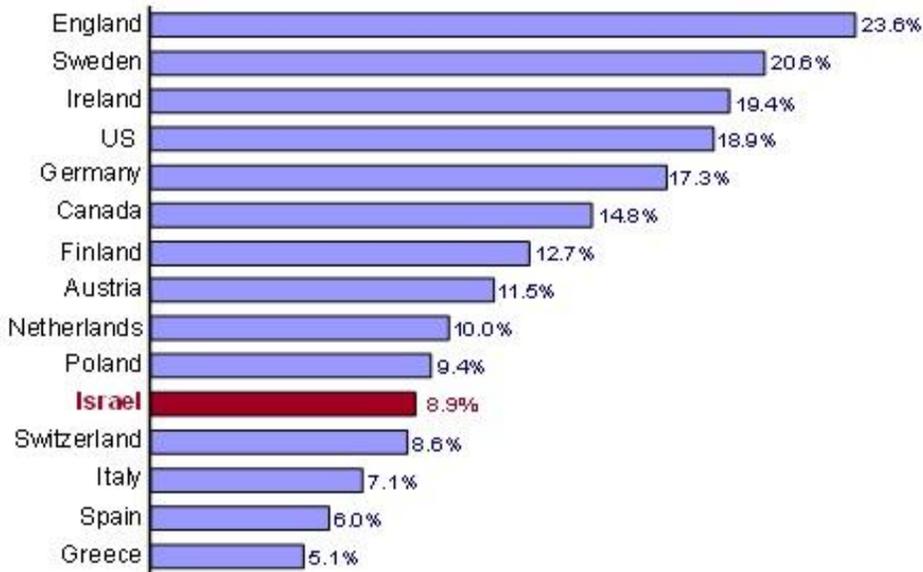
Cairney, Boyle and Racine (2003) find a substantial association between single parents (separated, divorced, or widowed and having children out of marriage), major depressive episodes (MDF) and chronic stress expressed in the following statements: "There is too much pressure on me" or "I don't have enough money".

Mothers giving birth with no partner's support are more likely to be poor, report greater stress and their children will have lower academic achievements (Terry-Humen et al., 2001; Laughlin, 2010).

In the UK solo single mothers suffer from poverty where 9,400,000 solo parents mostly are mothers receiving income support from the government. Interviewing 25 lone mothers with a low income in the UK shows that they will use the income support to buy an expensive brand clothing for their children because they want to give them the same opportunities as other children and are struggling to do so.

## Single-parent mothers as a percent of all mothers\*

2004-2005



\*mothers aged 18-64

Source: Taub Center for Social Policy Studies in Israel.

Data: Luxembourg Income Study (LIS), database.

Figure no. 4: Single parent mothers as a percentage of all mothers, 2004-2005

### 2.3.3 The income of the new mother's

New parents become more aware of their expenses, income, saving assets and so on in the past and currently. They find themselves forced to adopt more reasonable buying habits postponing large expenditures (such as car, electrical goods or even moving house) and first consider buying goods for their first baby rather than for themselves (Xieao, 1996).

Most of the popular literature refers to income as an important demographic influence on consumer behavior in terms of financial stress, saving behavior and becoming a good mother in merging career and motherhood.

Low income and its associated stress can decrease the abilities of both solo and partnered families concerning the child's wellbeing in terms of product and service (i.e. education services, health products, books and so on) (McLoyd, 1990).

The literature reveals the influence of income on the saving assets. Thus families with a high income continue to have saving assets after the first newborn while low income families will have ceased their savings (if they have any) in order to raise their child (Xieao, 1996).

The influence of income on consumer behavior: Monthly income influences first-time parents' consumer behavior in relation to their feelings, buying behavior and future behavior. (Monthly income refers to monthly salary not including other sources such as savings, help from parents, rent or others.) Although having a second adult may cause more expenses, the contribution to the household income is greater than the additional expense. Lerman (2002) shows that partnered first-time mothers have less financial stress than single parents. The marriage is considered to have more economic advantages compared to single parents and can enhance economic wellbeing in high and low incomes because:

1. Both parents can contribute to the monthly income;
2. Even if only one parent working he/she can work full time while the other takes care of the baby.

Solo mothers often have financial and other stresses due to their lack of time, responsibility to continuing working after birth and guilt feelings. Studies on married and single mothers with low income show those with a low (below average) income are likely to more troubled and deal with work and expenses, will buy fewer luxury goods such as books, toys and health care and will stop saving money. Solo mothers believe in their ability to change their expense power in the short and long term.

In contrast high-income first-time mothers believe they have the same expense power in the long term, they will continue saving after birth and will spend on luxury products for them and for the baby (Lerman, 2002).

In all western countries, single mothers are poorer than partnered mothers. The government applies a proactive safety policy to help their ability to work and raise a child. In Israel the poverty rate is extremely low, and stands at 18% of mothers who live below the poverty line. This difference should be compared to 40% in Canada, and 38% in the USA. The explanation for this is that in Israel there is a relatively low percentage of married mothers as well, who live below the poverty line. This is in view of the fact that most families living below the poverty line are Arabs and Druze.

The secular sector does not reflect the socioeconomic low cross-section and therefore the differences between single mothers and partnered mothers are amongst the lowest in Israel as regards the poverty rates. In 2005 alone, there were more than 35,000 poor single parent families, accounting for 37% of all single parent families. Their percentage rises every year; from 2002-2005 there was an increase of 32% in the number of poor single parent families (Stier, 2012).

Since 1995, when Israel introduced the National Insurance Law for single parents that enables every single parent to receive an income supplement for his child, the participation of uneducated mothers in the labor market declined markedly, as they rely more on government support (<http://www.btl.gov.il>

In general, having the first baby, regardless of family and financial status, increases the warring of both new fathers and mothers as to whether they can support and provide the baby's needs. Will they be able to save money? Can they manage with the financial burden of having a child? Studies show that parenthood emphasizes the financial attention to expenses, income and saving. New parents become more aware for their expenses, income, savings in the past, have more reasonable and less impulsive buying habits, delaying large purchases (such as car, electrical goods or even moving house). Parents will concentrate more on buying things for the baby rather than for themselves. Low-income mothers in England have low availability to purchase fashion clothes for themselves before clothes for their child.

#### **2.3.4. The age of the new mother's**

Mothers of newborns are older now than their counterparts were two decades ago. In 1990, teens had a higher share of all births (13%) than did women aged 35 and older (9%). In 2008, the reverse was true — 10% of births were to teens, compared with 14% to women aged 35 and older. Each race and ethnic group had a higher share of mothers of newborns in 2008 aged 35 and older, and a lower share who are teens, than in 1990 (National Center for Health Statistics - NCHS, 2007).

The age of the first childbirth amongst new mothers has changed over time. Data from the NCHS indicate that the average mother's age for first-time birth rose from 21.4 years in 1970, to 24.9 years in 2000, and to 29 years in 2006. Furthermore, the percentage of first births amongst mothers aged 30 or older has risen from 4% in 1970 to 34% in 2000 (National Center for Health Statistics - NCHS, 2007).

In Israel the average age is 27 years of age while the mature age of first-time mother is considered to be in the late 30s or early 40s (Morris & Martin, 2000). The average age of single parents is 35 years of age and older. (40% of unmarried first time mothers are aged 35-39, while amongst 19-year olds only 1% are single mothers) (figure no. 5).

The typical mature-age parent encountered in the early childhood setting may seem somewhat different to younger parents as regards having had earlier experiences with other children, been in paid employment for several years, may actually be financially stretched and may be more anxious regarding both her and the baby's health situation (Powell, 1999).

The literature review concerning the financial burdens in transition to motherhood, especially in mature aged mothers who thought they are unlikely to have children, notes that mature aged mothers who consciously postponed having children have more saved income, squander less, and pay greater attention to financial security for themselves and the newborn compared to younger parents (Chi-Ching, 1995; Powell & Powell, 2001).

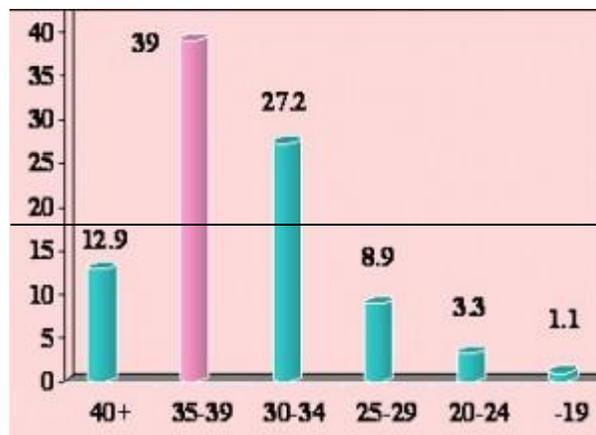
Older new mothers choosing to delay their first birth in order to complete their studies or having an important major career without interference will eventually have saving accounts and a stable financial situation when they become new mothers. The literature shows that older new mothers are more likely to have higher education, are more organized with their workplace, and have a higher monthly income that helps them to deal with the new situation and raising a child (Oláh, 2008).

Based on research by Hand and Kelly (2001) some characteristics of older mothers can be noted. Delayed family formation for both men and women may result from young people tending to reach the milestones which usually precede parenthood. These include leaving the parental home, gaining economic independence, and marrying or forming long term de facto relationships later than was the case in previous decades. This delay is often related to pursuing higher education and subsequently seeking to establish themselves in a career. Work status also frequently related to delayed motherhood. An example of this is the fact that 80% of first time mothers aged 40 plus were from non-manual employment and professional working status.

Grindstaff (1996) further tracked a cohort of college-educated women from their graduation until the age of 30. He finds women who had chosen to work in 'nontraditional' working status were more likely to delay child bearing compared to women who entered into traditional occupations such as education, notably elementary school teachers. She suggests that the way workplaces are organized may also influence decisions regarding when to have children. Women's intentions when leaving college about having children, for example, were not affected by whether they had chosen traditional or non-traditional careers. However, their fertility outcomes differed greatly in relation to their career choice. She asserts that career paths in occupations traditionally linked to women are more conducive to parenting and career development than non-traditional working status.

Laughlin (2011) reports that both younger and older first-time mothers (aged 30 or above) are choosing to stay and work at the same place in the following first months up to a year after giving birth as younger first-time mothers (31% compared to 32%). In her report based on the Economics and Statistics Administration U.S. Census Bureau (2008), she indicates that the differences between working mothers occurred amongst young mothers under the age of 18 (only 13% of first-time mothers under the age of 18 worked during the first months after birth).

In order to highlight general mechanisms of the late transition to motherhood Olah (2008) focuses on 498 individual first-time mothers from Sweden and 5,487 new Hungarian mothers aged 18-41. In their research they show that late first birth (at the age of 27 and above) is higher amongst educated mothers given their better economic position. In Hungary less educated mothers seldom postpone motherhood till their late twenties (in Hungary mother's peak is at the age of 27 while in Sweden it is at 29 years of age), while the less educated give birth at a younger age. In both countries age, as well as education, are decisive factors in the late transition to parenthood.



**Figure no. 5 : Average age in percentages of single mothers**

Source <http://www.newfamily.org.il/about>

### **2.3.5 The education of the new mother's**

Young women who give birth in their late teens and early twenties start families at ages when other women are completing high school and entering college. Having delayed childbearing until their late twenties and thirties they are more likely to have completed their schooling and to have accumulated more years of work experience than their younger counterparts. Education and experience can influence income levels and job security, which may in turn affect their decisions about working during pregnancy and how soon to return to work after giving birth (Laughlin, 2011).

Most mothers of newborns (54%) had at least some college education in 2006, an increase from 41% in 1990. Among mothers of newborns who were aged 35 and older, 71% had at least some college education. Data are based on the National Center for Health Statistics data, 2007 (Tallese, 2008). These data indicate that since 1970 the proportion of educated first-time mothers has increased rapidly from 12% of mothers who completed four years of college in 1970 to 24% in 1990 and 33% in 2006. The factors influencing this rise were related to career desires and delayed births enabling the women to finish college before childbirth.

The mother's education is also interrelated with behavior regarding the baby's goods. More educated mothers are buying more books, informal education, and toys than low educated mothers. In the child's early years the mother's education has more influence than the father's education, while in high school the influence is the same (Greenfield and Goodnow's (1994)

Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 1986) ecology model implies the linkage between mother's education, the family household framework, and the consumption behavior.

This paradigm matches Greenfield and Goodnow's (1994) research. They suggest that married first-time mothers with higher education will buy more intelligent games, books, educational goods compared to first-time mothers with low education up to high school (Goodnow, 1990).

Another decisive factor associated with motherhood behavior is former experience with children prior to giving birth (Greer & Combs, 2000). Studies show that former experience with children reduces the anxiety of the first-time mother and allows better adjustment to motherhood. The new mother knows what to expect by transition into motherhood, has fewer crises with the father, and less fears and self-doubting. Studies indicate the slight influence of the mother's occupation on the child's earliest period. Mothers working from home have limited time with the baby but have more income and resources for the household, hence her occupation can influence not only during the first year (on her role as a mother) but mostly later as correlated to the maternal earnings (ibid)

Olah (2008) shows that educated mothers postpone their first-time motherhood due to their improved economic position, their ability to cope with childcare issues and the career opportunities they do not want to miss (the peak ages of post high school educated first-time mothers in Hungary and Sweden is 27 and 29 years of age). The mother's educational level is also associated with the probability she will work during pregnancy as shown by Laughlin (2011). She reports that 87% of new mothers with a bachelor's degree or higher worked during their first pregnancy compared to 28% of new mothers with a lower education level. Trends over the last 30 years suggest that first-time new mothers work later into their pregnancy. Between 2006-2008 almost 88% of the first-time working mothers continued working in their last trimester (three months before labor).

The differences in the working rate relate to age as well as to education. Older mothers (over 25 years of age) had higher rates of working compared to younger mothers due to career opportunities they did not want to miss and the fact that older women are more educated than younger women.

Solo mothers (who have decided to have a child without a marital framework and to raise it alone) usually belong to the middle class and above. Most of them are educated and head 43% of single parent families. As of 2007, the division of families with higher

education was as follows: 19% had higher education, 13% had a B.A. degree, 11% had an M.A. or PhD; 40 % had completed high school, and just 3% lacked any education, Most of those employed were in the free professions, living in their own apartment, or in a rented apartment. The National Insurance Institute, 2005, finds most solo mothers (69%) support themselves and their children, 18% asked for the child's father for child support and 13% needed State support. 43% of single parent families are headed by a parent with post high school education, and 40% have high school education.

### **2.3.6. The work status of the new mother's**

From the beginning of the 1960s trends to return to work after childbirth were evident when 14% of new mothers return to work, a figure that more than doubled in 1976 and rose to 57-64% of first-time mothers returning to work after childbirth in 2000-2007 (Laughlin, 2010). Younger mothers were twice as likely leave a job than older mothers (32% vs. 15%). Overall, 66% of mothers who had their first birth in 2006–2008 worked during pregnancy. First-time mothers under the age of 22 had lower rates of employment during pregnancy than older first-time mothers (aged 22 and older). Among women at the ends of the age spectrum, 15% of new mothers under the age of 18, worked while pregnant, compared with 80% of mothers aged 30 and older. Single mothers participate in the labor force in Israel to a somewhat higher degree than partnered women (77.4% vs. 76% in 2000). This is due to the single parent's desire to create a suitable income for themselves and their children (Swirski et al., 2003). This rate of participation rises with increased level of education amongst both solo and partnered mothers.

Education is found to have a moderating influence on the rate of participation in the labor force. The percentage of solo mothers therein is higher than amongst partnered mothers (78.0% of solo mothers vs. 70.1% of partnered mothers). As for mothers with elementary education the percentage of solo mothers in the labor force is lower than amongst partnered mothers: 50.6% (Swirski et al., 2003). In other words, a higher percentage of partnered mothers with higher education participate in the labor force.

The data from Swirski et al., (2003) also show that 87% of the new mothers in Israel in 2006, and 72% in 2008, working during pregnancy were highly educated. The main reasons influencing working during pregnancy reflect the fact that educated or mature women have more adventures and responsibilities in their careers they do not want to give up during pregnancy. Working during pregnancy affected the rate of return to work. Women who worked during pregnancy returned to their old work after birth sooner than others (45% vs. 17%).

Having a baby is a major factor causing conflict between mother and "worker". The new mothers choose to alter their occupational pattern after childbirth and spend more time being a mother than developing career opportunities. Some women prefer to work at home while others have a "work commitment" - they feel obligated to work and have an incentive to keep their job after their first childbirth. Desai & Waite (1991) studied 1,158 new mothers finding that women in occupations requiring substantial job-specific training and higher education will return to work shortly after childbearing (three months) while women with greater training can more easily quit their current job for another flexible career.

The rate of employment amongst solo mothers is dependent to some extent on the government support system. In Scandinavia, for example, the government provides day care centers for extremely low cost and for relatively long hours. Integrating single mothers in the labor market is more extensive than in countries where child care is relatively expensive and is provided for only for a few hours a day.

More than half (57%) of the women aged 18-50 having their first child were members of the labor force, while 76% in 2006 and 72% in 2008 of the new mothers worked during their first pregnancy.

Based on data from the U.S. Department of Commerce Economics and Statistics Administration U.S. Census Bureau (Laughlin, 2010) there is a trend in working patterns during pregnancy associated with education and the age of the new mother. Educated

mothers with a first degree or higher education were more likely to work during pregnancy than mothers with less education (87% vs. 28-72%). Women having their first child before their first marriage were less likely to work during pregnancy (53%) vs. new mothers giving birth after their first marriage (84%). New mothers having their first child at the age of 25 years or older had higher rates of working during pregnancy than younger mothers (Laughlin, 2010).

In the USA, characterized by the relatively limited support for weak and vulnerable sectors, such as single parents, the source of only 16% of a household's income of this group is from State support; about 75% of the labor market in Sweden and Finland, for example, enjoy more significant State support. The support amounts to about 30% of the household's income, and the labor market provides almost all the rest. England and Ireland are unique in their support accounting for almost half the family income, with the labor market providing about 45%. These data are compatible with the relatively low rate of participation of solo mothers in the labor market (Stier, 2012).

Based on Toledano (2007) only 57% of the new mothers return to work after birth and during their first year. Return to work or staying at home is basically dependent on the mother's salary and work status. Another variable influence on the percentage of new mothers to get back to work is the government's policy where the higher the governmental of new mothers, the lower the chance she will return to work.

Solo mothers tend to be more disadvantaged than their married counterparts, both before and after the birth. Unmarried mothers generally have lower incomes, lower levels of education, and are more likely to be dependent on welfare assistance compared to married mothers (ibid).

In sum we can see through the new mother's demographic and behavioral attributes (2008):

- The new mother is now older than two decades earlier (14% of the new mothers are 35 years old in 2008 compared to 9% in 1990);

- They are more educated (54% had at least some college education compared to 41% in 1990). 41% are not married (compared to 28% in 1990), delaying marriage after having a career or only when "Mr. Right" comes along (Dalrymple-Alford et al., 2012);
- A growing trend to have a child without a partner, increased educational attainments and medical skills to become pregnant at an older age

All the trends cited above reflect a complex mix of demographic and behavioral factors. For example, the higher share of college-educated mothers stems both from their rising birth rates and from women's increasing educational attainment. The rise in births to unmarried women is reflected in both their rising birth rates and the shrinking percentage of adults who are married.

## **2.4 Consumption decision of the new mother**

### **2.4.1 Consumption decision and transition to motherhood**

For many women transition to motherhood is marked by doubts, fears, and frustration as well as by love, joy, and excitement (Story, Davies & Farrell, 2005).

Consumption supports the new roles. Consumers are motivated to approach new roles and define themselves with the help of consumption, although these ideas do not match the mother's transition (The Voice Group, 2010).

Pregnancy is considered a transition during the women's life cycle, and the everyday life of pregnant women undergoes social, psychological, and physical changes.

The characteristics of the period of pregnancy exist only during this period. Sevin and Ladwein (2007) mention the following highlights:

1. Protection of the child imposes on the women a healthy life including healthy nutrition, eating fruit, and giving up tobacco or alcohol;

2. Pregnant women use special goods and services helping them to learn about the new situation including watching DVD, books or using the internet and medical information;
3. Pregnant women are very intensive with themselves buying cosmetics and new clothes for their condition (Prothero, 2002);
3. Intense social distribution in the family's roles also occurs. Role definition is changing and the women reduce the domestic jobs. The husband helps and assists the woman;
4. Physical changes also occur during pregnancy including morning sickness, baby's movement or the growing belly. Ultrasound scans and medical tests all enhance the anticipated preparation of the mother-to-be.

Pregnancy for these reasons is considered a transition stage in the women's life between the former and the future social roles emphasizing the expectation of the anticipated child, continuing through the consumption practices concerning the child rather than focusing on the mother. Every month the pregnancy progresses; the new role and new status are emphasized and the new mother starts to prepare both the child's environment including the bedroom, clothing, toys and other child care products and the maternity kit for herself.

Consumption and material preparation help control the duration separating the pregnant woman from childbirth and activating the new role as a new mother, allowing her to generate the transition and adapt to the new role of motherhood. Consumption during pregnancy can be practiced at the following two dimensions (Schouthern, 1991a; Sevin & Ladwein, 2007). The first is child oriented and entails preparing a protected environment for the new child; the second dimension contains the mother's social role associated with her anticipated new status as a mother. As Thomsen & Sorensen (2006) show the two functions of material consumption are:

1. Establishing the role of the new mother in the eyes of others;
2. Facilitating the implementation of the new role before the child is born (Thomsen & Sorensen, 2006).

In England raising a child until the age of five costs approximately £52,000 in 2005 (Andersen, Sorensen & Kjaer 2008). In France for example, approximately €4,116 is spent during the infant's first year (The Guardian, 2005). But even though and despite the fact that the first pregnancy represents the most important event in women's life, little academic research has been conducted and few studies have examined the first-time mother's consumer behavior (Carrigan & Szmigin, 2004; Thomsen & Sorensen, 2006; Sevin & Ladwein, 2007).

Schouten (1991) demonstrates the relationship between symbolic consumption and personal role transition. During the transition and role change the person has goods and services that often fit the change in his and the society's perspective. In their study, Sevin and Ladwein (2007) present the results of interviews with 27 pregnant mothers expecting their first child and their fears, aspirations and goals as new mothers. One of the interesting findings was that the fears and goals begin from the time the new mother finds she is pregnant. In the case of the new mother pregnancy is a push factor for adjusting to a new role and a new status. During pregnancy, the new mother's status is not officially present but they start to prepare their future role as mother and to buy and purchase goods and services to fit the new role, such as books, medical contacts, videos or interaction with other pregnant mothers in order to construct the new self. Becoming a mother for the first-time is considered the most important change in the woman's life, reflecting consumption decisions creating the mother's identity (Commuri & Gentry, 2000).

Popular scholars have shown that implementing the new role and status as a mother-to-be related to consumption decisions fit for this role. Consumption is an important factor in the mother's ideologies and influences her perceived characteristics of "good mother" or "bad mother". Studies further show that conspicuous consumption of baby's good plays a critical role in the enactment of motherhood, and concerns the individual woman seeking to define her role and worth as a mother (Shouten, 1990; Prothero, 2002; Banister & Hogg 2006;Thomsen & Sorenson 2006). By interviewing focus groups,

Andersen et al. (2008) find that the perfect mother in Denmark must know the latest fashion clothes for the baby and must provide her baby with nice clothes as an "ideal mother". Using fashion codes and choosing the right style and appropriate brands for her baby, the new mother is trying to construct her motherhood self and construct a new identity as a mother, correlated to her new identity.

The consumption of clothing for the baby was the role responsibility of the mother, even though in western society the fathers play an equal role in parenting. The idea that the fathers will participate in choosing clothes for the baby was ridiculous from the mother's point of view. As McDonough (1999:228) reports the mother will satisfy herself when she cuts her own consumption in favor for the baby as represented in Western culture, "identifiable by her self-sacrifice her capacity to nurture, and her possession of moral goodness".

Clothes are not the only good reflecting a new identity. Most parents consider a pram to be a necessity for the baby. The pram functions as the second bed for the baby and represents a means of transportation. Because a pram is a visible good it represents the role transition of the mother/father to be and its acquisition symbolizes a sub-process in the parent's new identity (Sevin & Ladwein, 2007).

In Denmark for example, the pram is considered the most important decision the new families make and represents the most expensive purchase, influencing the status and symbol of the new family (Thomsen & Sorenson 2006).

The study examined thirty mothers with a new baby of one year of age who participated in in-depth interviews about their consumption while becoming a mother. The study shows that a pram can be a vehicle of role transition and can be taken as a symbol or signal for the identity of the new mother (Carrigan & Szmigin, 2004; Thomsen & Sorenson 2006). They deliberate the idea that objects can support identity construction because of their signal value for the person and the public, meaning they can provide for the individual self. They interviewed eight Danish mothers different in narrative style,

married or co-habiting, having one-two children up to three years of age. The mothers were recorded regarding their acquisition and use of the interviewee's pram (termed "grand tour "questions). The results show that in the mother's perception the pram's acquisition has symbolic meaning for her new life roles. The results also indicate the uncertainty and ambivalent consumption the new mother has due to her insecure feelings when purchasing a relatively inexpensive pram compared to the expensive well-known brand.

Clothing is often used for its symbolic value reflecting the wearer's status (Solomon, 1983). In a situation whereby the clothing is of a luxury brand, it may be perceived as an ostentatious display of wealth as consumers are motivated by a desire to impress others with their ability to pay particularly high prices for prestigious products.

Pregnancy is a cause for change in social behavior and social commitment to such leisure professional activities as reading or special aerobics for pregnant women. As Stern & Bruckheimer-Stern (1998) observe, the child welfare market is unknown to first-time pregnant women. The pregnant mother requires information and professional knowledge about the child's wellbeing. Pregnancy is a period spent in expectation of the child's arrival and doing preparatory psychological work with regard to the mother's future role.

Studies mention that the "baby shower" (i.e. a prenatal party celebrating the anticipated new baby) comes with the acquisition process of the new role of the mother (Fischer & Gainer, 1993). By participating in eight baby showers in North America these researchers tried to find a relationship between three stages in transition and parties held in honor of women who are about to become mothers. As mentioned earlier rites of passage consist of three stages (Van Gennep, 1960):

1. Separation - in which an individual may be physically "shifted" from the old life and former role or status;
2. Transition - a liminal stage where the person passes from one role to the other;

3. Reintegration - in which the individual is reunited into an existing group establishing the new role and position.

Fisher and Gainer (1993) show in their observations that during baby showers, the mother to be is acquainted both with potential mothers and mothers in the present, and she experiences the ritual three stage transition during this baby shower. The new mother does not change physically (stage 1) but the baby shower contributes to the transition and the reintegration stage and formulates possible selves for the mother to be (Schouten, 1991; Fisher & Gainer, 1993).

Adopting new responsibilities, loss of independence, female solidarity and passing of knowledge of motherhood (i.e. exchange in information about children) are the themes of the North American baby shower, helping the new mother move from the old role to the new position. The mother's experience of separation, transition and reintegration takes place in various forms of baby shower.

Consumption practice with the mother's future social role helps her to become orientated. Research shows that purchasing during the first pregnancy establishes the role of the new mother and implies her anticipation and goals of the new mother. As noted, consumption allows an anticipation of the forthcoming social role and status during the transitional period, at which time they are not yet in effect (Sevin & Ladwein, 2007).

As O'Malley (2006) shows, consumption is related to embracing the role; liminal consumers rely on consumption symbolism to approach a desirable motherhood. In order to appear to be doing what is best for her baby, the mother seeks parenting manuals to learn suggestions for raising the baby properly. The books are full of advice about products and services for baby-centered consumption.

#### **2.4.2. Consumption decision during transition of identity**

The goods and services we purchase often express who we are and, according to Thomsen and Sorenson (2006), there is a relationship between symbolic consumption and personal role transitions. In their study these authors imply that consumption helps to construct the consumer's identity in the following dimensions:

1. It supports the construction of the single consumer's identity, i.e. the objects are saying something about the consumer or that consumption can provide a certain feeling or sense that develops the consumer's experimental identity;
2. Another dimension of constructing consumption is between private identity, i.e. ideographic symbolic of the consumer, or constructing a public identity by using cultural symbolic stereotypes of the objects

Consumption can construct maintenance identity when the consumer's identity is established and solid versus acquisition identity as Van Gennep (1960) shows, and in the sense of supporting the individual changes to the new role (Thomsen & Sorensen, 2006). Transition during the life cycle changes the role status, such as having a new partner, a new baby, getting divorced which can challenge an individual with associated stress and the new obligatory role factors.

Since the social role concerns rights, obligations, and status position, the uncertainty pertaining to the new role can be reduced by changing consumption according to the new expectations (Baniter & Hogg 2006; Sørensen, 2010).

Many authors have shown that life transition can be experienced by the consumption of goods and services which fit the new role, and that the presence or absence of symbolic materials are the active side of the tangible property during transition. Furthermore, the consumption of new symbolic items fitting the new role is a way to deal with the uncertainty. The less secure the individual feels in his new role the more likely he is to use stereotypes to enhance the new role (Solomon, 1983; Prothero, 2002).

Consumption during change supports the social status, helps the person to adjust to the new role, and therefore reduces uncertainty. The more significant the transition is, the

more the use of consumption reduces uncertainty (Walker 1997). Clothing can be a symbolic object of working status and professionalism, and accessories can be used in a women's entry into the professional environment (Solomon et al., 1983). Consumption activities play a significant role in the restoration of harmony to construct a new identity and a new component of the extended self.

The relationship between symbolic construction and identity construction are manifested in four different but related ways:

1. Consumption to manage with uncertainty
2. Consumption motivated to achieve the ideal self
3. Consumption to cope with liminality
4. Consumption to bridge identities.

Below, the author details the various possible linkages between consumption process and changing identity, based on Schouten (1991), Banister &Hogg (2006), The Voice Group (2010), and Griffin (2007).

1. The first linkage is between consumption and role uncertainty: A role change is often guided by challenges, stress, and uncertainty about the obligations and performing the new role. The less secure the consumers will be relative to their new role performance and expectations, the more likely they will be to use products and services as stereotypical symbols to enhance role performance. Thus purchasing and using material symbols during role transition may serve not only to enhance instruments of impression but also to inhibit certain desirable /undesirable role performances and self-definitions (The Voice, 2010). Attractive shoes, for example, will encourage the woman preparing for her job interview, while maternity clothes indicate the condition of the mother-to-be (Griffin 2007). In this way the transitional consumer will seek to use symbolic consumption to reduce her uncertainty and to support her new status.
2. Another linkage between consumption and role transition relates to the consumption motivation to achieve the ideal self, assuming the consumers are not pleased with their current self and identity. In this situation, consumption of representative

products will help the consumer to accept her ideal self as desirable. The women will have cosmetics that fit her ideal identity as a cultivated women or the new mother-to-be will purchase services that will pertain to her new identity as a "good mother" (Banister &Hogg 2006).

3. Consumption as support for liminality: The more significant the transition, the more likely consumption will be used to facilitate the transition to the new role by narrowing the gap between the real /current identity and the new/ideal identity and by reducing the uncertainty and coping with the liminality during the change. Pregnant women, for example, will buy baby goods helping her to imagine her motherhood and cope with her new role (Thompson et al., 2008; The Voice Group, 2010).
4. Consumption to bridge identities: When the transition causes conflict and discomfort between several ideal identities. Beside the challenge to cope with the ideal self, the consumer will have to cope with several and contradictory ideal selves during transition. The new mother, for example, is coping with her identity as a mother and as a person. As Ahuvia (2005) observes, possessions and activities of consumers used as demarcating, compromising, and synthesizing solutions, create a coherent self-narrative.

In his study asking ten in-depth interviews and 70 phone interviews Ahuvia (2005) shows that love's objects serve as indications and reminders helping solve conflicts between identities. The importance of a pram for the mother can be explained by the concept of liminal consumption. This suggests that consumption eases the discomfort of the liminal phase and the discrepancy between a real and an ideal life, and reduces uncertainty. By providing the right accessories and the right brand liminal consumption enjoys support through reconstructing the new identity during the new role. Thus during the liminal period, consumption of the "right products" may be important for the consumer (Shouten 1991; Thomsen & Sorensen, 2006).

Based on interviewing first time mothers Thomsen and Sorensen (2006) suggest that the pram is extremely important for the transition into the motherhood identity. The transition process concludes when role performance increases.

Becoming a mother is often connected with psychological and sociological ambivalence (classified as a dilemma in the human condition and often a response of modern life). The new mother finds herself between the ideal of a "good mother" and the cultural beliefs that mothering comes naturally. The maternal ambivalence is between the ideal selves and the "ought" selves for the new mother, between the duty of the mother and her desirable identity as an independent feminist (O'Malley, 2003; Banister & Hogg 2006).

Another example in ambivalent consumption can be seen regarding cosmetic surgery, when a woman is ambivalent between her desire and aspiration to have cosmetic surgery on the one hand, and on the other hand & Kelly (2001) Research her fear and worry about being stigmatized by it and its outcome (Schouten, 1999). In this way consumption can help the new mother to fill the gap between the two ambivalent identities, for instance, continuing to buy regular clothes that are not special for pregnant women.

Consumption can play a positive role in helping the consumer during transition but despite the uncertainty and insecurity consumers sometimes feel indecisive and uncertain in their consumption decisions. Consumption has not only positive aspects during the transition but also can complicate the process, making it complex and confused. The Voice Group (2010) studied the negative and problematic aspects of transitional consumption, to which end the group held interviews with 25 new modern mainstream mothers from England, Denmark, and Ireland, who had a full and successful career during their pregnancies. They were interviewed again several months after birth on their experiences, thoughts, and feelings about their identities. The findings demonstrate that uncertainty, resistance, fears, constraints, negative feeling and problematic aspects can accompany the transition and may confuse the consumer.

- Uncertainty during consumption: New mothers have feelings of uncertainty concerning baby products and have doubts in relation to the choices they must make. The feeling of insecurity during transitional consumption is one of frustration,

causing anxious moments when making decisions regarding purchases relating to baby goods. They do not know what to buy, what size or brand such as clothes, baby milk formula or even socks; they have fears of making the wrong choices and view the baby's world as "unknown and "new". The new mothers dealt with the uncertainty in consumption using several strategies such as trying different brands until they found the right choice or buying the best and most expensive brand for the first child to reduce the risk (The Voice Group, 2010).

- Resistance to consumption is also a negative feeling occurring during transition when the consumers are resistant to buying products related to their new role (O'Malley, 2003; Banister & Hogg 2006; the Voice Group, 2010). Studies report new mothers' resistance to having pregnancy clothes or getting gifts or secondary clothes for the baby; they report their feeling that their autonomy is been taken away and they must control responsibility for another.

Feelings like uncertainty and insecurity swamp the new mother not always leaving time or energy for shopping. These abilities are absent for pregnant women and new mothers, making the consumption process very frustrating and disappointing. New mothers as well as mothers-to-be have fears and uncertainties related to their diet during pregnancy or breastfeeding: what is the best food to use (Sevin & Landwein, 2008). Another uncertainty concerned a pram or baby goods before the birth because of the new mother's superstitions and bad luck. Transition to motherhood is a powerful dramatic psychological and physical process often enhanced by vulnerability and unbalanced interactions in the marketplace during this liminal stage (The Voice Group, 2012). The new mother feels vulnerable during pregnancy and after birth. She confesses to a type of "outer body" experience, when the transitory new body in this liminal stage underlines to the women a new self, separate from the work force and having unknown certainty concerning her new role.

The lack of energy or time or income security eliminate the shopping spirit and joy on one hand, and the mother's duty for buying baby products and medical goods on the other hand. This inflicts an experience of ambivalence and liminality enlightening the shopping environment (The Voice Group, 2010).

By resisting the consumption of conspicuous symbols of motherhood, women may try to resist the ideologies of motherhood and to keep it a personal, private matter. However, there are other mothers-to-be who indulge in all kinds of consumption related to their future role and are happy to put it on display (Thomsen & Sorenson, 2006).

#### **2.4.3 Consumption decision of the new mother and group influence**

Group influence on an individual's behavior can be seen in various forms.

Deutsch and Gerard (1955) aver that a reference group can exert influence in three main ways:

- (1) Through normative compliance
- (2) Value expressiveness
- (3) Informational influence (Meyer & Anderson 2000).

Normative compliance occurs when an individual is motivated and influenced by a reference group in order to receive the positive outcomes and avoid negative outcomes (Michener et al., 1990). An example of normative compliant behavior would then be preference for clothing styles similar to their peers in order to fit in. Another form of influence, informational influence, occurs when an individual accepts information from the reference group (Michener et al., 1990). This form of influence may be used for obtaining product knowledge and social acceptance (Meyer & Anderson 2000). An example of this influence would be seen in teenagers asking opinions about clothing from their mothers, siblings or friends. Value expressiveness, though not a typical form of influence, is defined as an individual's desire to enhance self-image. With this respect, value expressiveness can be explained by this youth seeking opinions or approval from their peer groups or family in order to enhance their self perceptions.

Pregnant mothers can learn about their status from direct or indirect role models. A role model may be defined as identifying any person with whom an individual can come into contact directly or indirectly and who is likely to influence the consumption–related decisions and actions of the individual.

Direct role models are sisters or friends who have recently had children, asking them to cite the brands they used when they had babies. Indirect role models include various media sources such as television, the press or the internet (Ladwein & Sevin, 2007).

Based on Andersen, Sorensen & Kjaer (2008) using in-depth interviews with groups of new mothers regarding their consumption behavior for their new born finds that children's clothing represents a field where mothers seek to show their worth and competence through symbolic negotiations of conspicuous consumption. Interpretation of the accounts from the present study note that fathers are more or less outmaneuvered from this field, reduced, at the most, to executing orders. However, one should be wary of taking absent fathers' accounts at face value. The actual consumption patterns and the fathers' perceptions could be quite different. It is important to note that motherhood seems to be based somewhat on the (almost hostile) exclusion of the fathers. The women are very much aware of the signals they send to the surroundings through their children's clothing. They seem largely to consume through their children. This we also recognize as vicarious consumption (Veblen 1970 [1925]), seemingly at the expense of consumption directed towards themselves. Some of them wonder how easy it is for them to do so, but in fact they are just reproducing images of "the good mother", as she is presented in Western culture. She is identifiable by her "self-sacrifice, her capacity to nurture, and her possession of moral goodness" (McDonagh 1999:228).

So when these mothers cut their own consumption of clothes in favor of clothes for their children, they simply reproduce a cultural ideal, but at the same time they are able to construct and negotiate their new motherhood identity through conspicuous consumption. A mode of consumption and identity construction that they use on their

own behalf, perhaps as a more hedonic motive, now becomes even more gratifying as it becomes legitimized as vicarious consumption and enshrouded with the moral goodness of motherhood self-sacrifice. To spend time and effort on the child's clothes is a very visible way to identify the self in the role as a mother. Vicarious consumption is a natural response to this ideal. However, to retain the aura of moral goodness and good taste, it is pertinent that the conspicuous consumption of motherhood is performed in a suitable manner, so that it becomes 'not too conspicuous'. Symbolic consumption in baby fashion is to have motherhood identity through choosing the right style for the baby, the right brand, appropriate culture and fashion so the clothes show how perfect the mother is.

## **2.5 information search**

### **2.5.1. Internal and external information**

The purchase decision process is influenced by a large number of different factors one of which is the information search defined as "the process by which the consumer surveys his or her environment for appropriate data to make a reasonable decision" (Solomon et al 2006:265). The individual must evaluate the information value relative to the cognitive satisfaction and compare the time and effort needed to search this information.

The consumer can use information from his memory (internal information learning), and if this is insufficient, the consumer will use external information including:

1. Individuals like friends, word of mouth and family members;
2. Market and other related sources (e.g. advertising, salespersons, exhibitions and fair or low prices);
3. Public communication instruments, such as articles or internet from independent groups;
4. Personal experience like product testing or observations.

What influences the information behavior? The consumer will invest high costs (money and time) in information when he has a high level of uncertainty, when the product entails high involvement, and when there are considerable differences between the stores and the brands. However, when there are numerous differences and the level of the consumer's uncertainty' is low the economics, and cost of information will increase (Urbany 1988; Guy, Park & Konana, 2011)

The differences between internal and external information and their relevance to the consumer depend on various categories including situational variables. These include previous satisfaction, time spent and its cost, perceived risk, consumer characteristics such as education or income, and product characteristics such as involvement or the number of alternatives (Schmidt & Spreng, 1996; Gursoy & McCleary, 2004).

The external source can be individuals, family friends, acquaintances, market, advertising or exhibitions, public communication instruments and personal experiences. The Internet is been considered an inexpensive source of saving in terms of cost and time, and has made a huge change in information seeking for consumers at both high and low levels of involvement. Internet is the most efficient media giving the relevant information within a short time and with reduced effort for high involvement consumers. Senecal and Nantel (2004) as well as Guy, Park and Konana (2011) show that the consumer will trust noncommercial recommendations, such as linked websites or individuals' word of mouth (external word to mouth) more than seller-related websites or retailer's recommendations (internal word to mouth). The consumer will also trust his personal experiences more than advertising commercials, and independent learning more than tendentious information, such as advertising and salespersons.

Information received from salespersons is mostly used at the start of the external search, where information received from individuals being regarded as evaluative and used in later stages. Since consumers are more concerned about high involvement durable products with complex functionality, high price, and long life, they will be more engaged in the purchase decision and will be more influenced by external WOM like

Amazon.com and three external WOM websites (Cnet, DpReview, and Epinions) while retailer's internal WOM has a limited influence on its sales of high-involvement products (Guy, Park & Konana, 2011).

The more perceived the risk the more important is the purchasing; the more significant is the product, the more important is evaluation of the alternative. The more extensive the information search process, the more time and effort the consumer will put into search behavior and will evaluate information more deeply (Prabha, Connaway, Olszewski, & Jenkins, 2007).

The greater the consumer's uncertainty the more time and effort he will spend seeking information (Simonson, Huber & Paine, 1988). Prior to decision-making consumers spend time and information in the expectation of marginal benefit from information, which is equal to the expected marginal cost. In order to reach a rational decision the consumer will probably use compensatory strategies, and devote more time to the consumption process (Zander & Hamm, 2012).

### **2.5.2. The internet – information tool**

The internet has become an extremely important tool when seeking information and purchasing decisions. It enables the consumer to gather much information, to compare products, to obtain opinions, and increase his purchasing strength. Using a sample of 157 new mothers aged 27 with new babies (10 months old) McDaniel and Holmes (2012) show that new mothers spent approximately three hours on the computer each day, most of which was spent on the Internet. This suggests that the frequency of blogging is extended as a connection to family and friends which then predicted perceptions of social support.

Purchasing on the net increases competition and promotes the consumer's wellbeing, since the multitude of search channels enables greater negotiations for the consumer, and force the salesperson to agree to reductions. The need then also arises to follow surveys that are sometimes conducted amongst hundreds of interviewees. Bar Zuri (2009) in his study on how much time consumers (aged 14+) spend on internet

searches, finds that consumers with higher education believe they spend more time surfing the net. His survey indicates that the consumers with higher education assess the time spent surfing the internet for a product or service as 20.8 hours since they are more sensitive to the results, while those with less than eight years of education spend 14.3 hours.

The type of online information required usually includes information regarding prices, campaigns, and special reductions (Cornell 2012). Most surfers use three or four sites to seek information. The higher the education and age, the greater the use of sites, due to their ability to conduct relevant research on suitable sites, and their sensitivity to information is high.

The researchers isolated the attributes of liberated motherhood. In the course of a year in Israel there are 160,000 births (According to CBS). Many of them manifest presence on the internet.

Nielsen Spring (2009:10) shows that all types of mothers, and in particular new younger mothers with one child, tend more to visit social networking sites and publish or own a blog than most other online users. Their digital behavior indicates the transformational role of social networking, and plays a key role amongst mothers aged 25-35 with at least one child. In addition to e-mail, they are 85% more likely to spend time on Facebook compared to the average online consumer. "Power" mothers aged 39-54 are only 23% more likely to post comments on a social network. "Established" mothers (aged 40-50 with 3+ children) are heavy online shoppers who stay connected via e-mail and dabble in social networking. It transpires, according to Facebook, that women aged 40-50, who do not work, are the fastest growing demographic group on the site.

What is a virtual mother? According to analysis of the conversations the first and most frightened and confused group are new mothers of children aged 0-3 months (15% of mothers on the internet), who are not interested in the baby's development but only in his immediate needs.

In the second group are the "adaptive" people - friends of mothers who participated in internet conversations. About 43% of this group are mothers with babies aged 3-12 months, and who searched products that will help them to function in the new situation and to return to their previous lives.

The third group contains mothers of infants aged 1.5-2.5 years (18%), considered "experienced", or "mothers of almost babies" , who gradually leave the "virtual kindergarden", deliberate over whether to stay at home or to return to work, and are interested in the transition to solid food and to daycare centers. This group comprises veteran mothers of more than one child (19%), with considerable experience who lead and guide the others.

Each of the above types is motivated by a different reason. The new mothers are motivated by fear, the next group is already more self-confident. The marketing message to these two groups is very different from the message to experienced mothers. Those most experienced are the most important as they will continue to lead opinion, having a "perfect family", or at least will make sure to present themselves thus.

To whom do they listen and with whom do they consult? About 75% of the new mothers of babies aged 0-3 months listen and are mainly influenced by friends on the forum, listening less to well-baby health clinic experts. 8.5% of new mothers who surf the internet do not consult a doctor on certain issues, but enter a forum with specialized doctors.

Once, the well-baby clinic nurses would give their opinion, which was considered of ultimate importance. Now the mothers compare the comments and advice of these nurses to their friends' advice, who are considered more to be opinion-leaders, up-to-date and authoritative, than those nurse who are considered old-fashioned, as these mothers surf and have other sources of information.

The study (<http://www.ynet.co.il/articles/0,7340,L-4342972,00.html>) further finds that mothers seek the best information regarding care for their baby. About 27% of the conversations pertain to nursing, interested mainly in the baby's nutrition. The other conversations pertain to the baby's basic needs; of the conversations discuss the baby's health (14 %) nutrition (20%), consumer goods (15%) development of the baby (11%), and sleep issues (9%).

The mother places her needs in a far lower place than those of her baby. Centered in the conversation is a type of mythical figure, whom everyone praises and fears for her welfare. That new mother can be seen in the face book profile of new mothers: a photograph of the wedding, or of the pregnant woman is replaced by a photograph of the mother and child, and later by the baby by himself. (Doherty and Fiona 2010)

These differences were observed between males and females by Bar Zuri(2009), showing that men tried to use both professional and search information engines, while females chose the search sources more cautiously and used the engines with which they were familiar

The relationship between marital status, gender and other demographic variables is revealed in detail in the next section.

The five stages in the consumer behavior model emerge also in the E-buying process, wherein the internet is used as a stimulus for problem recognition, a source for information search, a device for evaluation between the brands and as a tool for buying (Bai & Xuan 2008).

Shopping on the internet has been associated with risk, particularly as regards privacy, identity and credit card theft (Dubelaar Jevons & Parker, 2003). Most of the goods bought on the internet are inexpensive; most entail relatively low financial risk. The survey finds hesitation and worries about buying expensive product from the internet like jewelry.

The profile of the internet shopper who makes online purchases is mainly more impulsive having more favorable attitudes towards advertising and direct marketing, more sympathy for convenience methods including less shopping time and physical effort, and are heavier users of internet and e-mails.

The study by Brashear Vishal and Asare (2009) conducted in six countries (U.S, New Zealand, England, China, Brazil, and Bulgaria) and demonstrates that even though Internet shoppers are distinguished from non-shoppers by virtue of income, computer ownership, e-mail and Internet usage, they are not different from non-shoppers with regard to education, age, and gender in most of the countries examined. The results contrast with findings in prior research where Internet shoppers in the United States found to be primarily young, educated, and male (Brashear, Vishal & Asare 2009,). A profile of the internet shopper: evidenced by six countries (Bar Zuri 2009) finds that half the internet usage in Israel is for buying tourist services and electrical products on the net. Only 19% of them were for buying financial and insurances services .This difference is explained by the high risk the consumer has in financing products compared to tourist reservations or small electrical products for the home.

## **2.6 Consumer involvement**

### **2.6.1 Consumer Involvement – definitions and classifications**

Consumer involvement explains the differences in the mental and physical effort by the consumer, while decision-making depends on the differentiation between alternatives, the product's complexity, the personal needs and motives regardless of the price of the product or the information advertized (Zaichkowsky, 1985: Sridhar, 2007).

One definition of involvement is, "A person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests". Zaichkowsky (1985: 342) notes that different involvement levels may lead to different consumer responses, while Kanuk (2002:220) observes, "Involvement is a heightened state of awareness that motivates

consumers to seek out, attend to, and think about product information prior to purchase." It is the perceived interest and importance that a consumer attaches to the acquisition and consumption of a product/service offering.

#### 2.6.1.1 Situational and enduring involvement

Studies distinguish between types of involvement. Situational involvement refers to a specific situation or state relevant to the consumer and creates temporary involvement with the product or situation such as a gift or buying for a special occasion. The other type of involvement is enduring involvement where the person shows a high-level of interest in the product category over a period of time, and spends time collecting and processing information and integrating it within his memory (Rothschild, 1979).

The difference between these two types is that an individual might usually purchase various low-price brands of liquor in a stochastic manner because of low enduring involvement; on the occasion of a visit by the boss, however, a high involvement decision would be made to purchase a specific brand.

Enduring involvement derives from a perception that the product holds values and reveals ongoing interest in a product or class. When the level of the involvement towards the stimulus extends over a period of time it is termed "enduring involvement", in which the person has a high level of interest in the product category and spends time collecting and processing information during the decision-making process.

Enduring involvement is often related to the individual's ego, values and self-concept, and causes because of the product's ability to satisfy the consumer's need and self-identity rather than goals or a specific purchase (Bloch & Richins 1986; Kardes & Cline 2011: 87-91). Enduring involvement not related to a situation or state of action but lasts over time. Enduring involvement with a product category often gives rise to an opinion leader (i.e. "A person who holds interest in a particular product/service category, and becomes a specialist; he makes efforts to gather all information about the category, the brand offering etc" (Bloch & Richins 1986).

Situation involvement related to the customer having a perceived risk in a specific situation or event that temporarily increases the relevance of the interest and the involvement in the product. Situation involvement arises when the person is thinking and has a high level of interest in the product for a short period of time; it is specific to a situation and thus temporary in nature. Situational involvement can vary from low to high depending on the situational factors (Hawkins & Coney, 1983; Sangeeta, 2008). Situational involvement reflects temporary feelings that accompany a special situation, whereas enduring involvement is a long-term concern with the product. Enduring involvement is low for most products while situational involvement is a short-term phenomenon occurring only regarding high-risk products. Together enduring and situational involvement influence involvement response, and are defined as the processes at the decision processes (Richins & Bloch, 1992).

Most research has measured involvement relative to products known as enduring involvement, where situational involvement, which relates to a purchase or decision, has received less attention even though its value lies in explaining non-product behavior, including taking advantage of sales catalogs or direct mail (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008; Stone 1984), Situational involvement refers to the level of interest arising from a specific situation or topical purchase event (Dholakia, 2001; Stone 1984). The internal factors (enduring involvement) and external factors (situational involvement) can be, in effect, an involvement response. This refers to behavioral orientation involving information and decision-making processes where involvement is a behavior rather than an intermediary of behavior.

High response involvement represents a situation where the consumer is actively seeking information, evaluating alternatives and making the optimal choice, while in low response involvement the individual spends minimum time and effort to obtain the product. The response involvement is based on purchasing decision, product, advertising personality factors or variables (Rothschild, 1979).

The uncertainty in buying and the risk the consumer is taking from using the product is another situational variable influencing product involvement. Perceived risk can be defined as the uncertainty regarding the possible negative consequence of using a product or a service, especially the potentially negative consequences of the purchase. Uncertainty is then defined as a situation where a decision-maker knows that possible outcomes of each alternative can be identified, and is classified relative to goal uncertainty, product uncertainty and advertising uncertainty (Taylor, 1974).

The studies by Kaplan, Szybillo, & Jacoby (1974) and Kim and Lennon (2000): generally show the relationship between involvement and perceived risk, with Laurent and Kapferer (1985) viewing the perceived risk as one of the dimensions of involvement, where the following risks occur during the evaluation stage:

1. Social risk refers to disapproval of the product by family or friends;
2. Financial risk refers to the loss of a sum of money while purchasing;
3. Physical risk refers to the product's possible danger to health or safety;
4. Performance risk is that product purchase may fail to function as originally expected;
5. Time risk is time wasted when the product is repaired or replaced;
6. Psychological risk is the perception of a negative effect on the consumer's peace of mind due to purchasing a defective product.

The consumers' behavior can be better predicted through perceived risk since consumers are more often motivated to avoid their mistakes than to maximize utility in purchasing. Channeling resources into strategies which consumers find more useful can relieve risk factors and help to increase marketing efficiency, while withdrawing them from those which they find less useful (Mitchell, 1999).

Regardless, using perceived risk as an antecedent, consequence or dimension of involvement, all scholars agree that perceived risk and involvement are two components interacting as a motivational process where involvement and consumer risk perceptions

caused, and influence one another, as well as subsequent behavioral responses of consumers (Dholakia, 2001).

### **2.6.2 Antecedents of involvement scaling and involvement**

Zaichkowsky (1985), Sharma et al (2000), Sridhar (2007), Michaelidou & Dibb (2008) and The Vision Group (2008) find the following antecedents for fashion involvement: 1) the person himself, 2) the product and 3) the situation.

1. The person himself: The individual characteristics including his values, attitudes and interests including age, education or gender

The consumer himself is one of the antecedent causes and affects involvement. The individual's needs, values, attitudes, interests and lifestyle affect his motivation and concern towards different products. Products which relate to self-image and personality traits lead to high involvement. Similarly, products that have a bearing on social class and lifestyle. The greater the degree of concern the consumer dedicates to the product the greater the involvement; the personal relevance is represented by the linkage between the consumer's needs and desires and the effort he will invest for the product's benefits.

Values generally represent basic needs and goals of the individual that guide belief about the product. Since people use a product more to communicate their values to others than linkage between values, the product and the product related attitude influence the consumer's involvement level. For example, in fashion the clothing's interest and behavior is usually concerned with the (economic and aesthetic) values as well as with the personality traits of the buyers. Since apparel is often used to achieve social goals and aspirations, the consumer's personality and needs often serve to generate consumption goals as well as the decision process (Hye Shin, 2005, The Vision Group, 2002; Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008).

2. The second antecedent of involvement refers to the stimuli product or service product factors including price, quality, confidence, importance, ease and use of the product which influence the consumer's involvement.

The product or service: Another antecedent of involvement related to characteristics of the stimulus. Involvement can be defined as a sum of variable's

influencing the consumer's decision-making and communication behaviors (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Sridhar, 2007).

Product involvement is a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interest (Zaichkowsky, 1985). According to the literature, product involvement is seen two different ways: first as product importance and the second as enduring involvement.

Product involvement refers to the stimuli, values and benefits the product service offers to increase a person's interest. Concern is for an internal state variable that indicates the amount of arousal, interest or drive evoked by a product class.

Product involvement is high when there are major differences between the alternatives; the product is consumed for a long period, and it expresses the consumer's personality. The product is costly and it has a high-perceived risk (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Richins & Bloch 1986). Products, which are highly priced, entail a high risk or are very important to the consumer, will have a high-perceived risk generating a high level of involvement. A low-priced or unimportant product lacking equity or value will generate a low level of perceived risk and low involvement (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001).

3. The situation, uses and occasion of the purchase decision – consumption and behavioral variables such as the media, advertising. This antecedent influences the level of involvement, for example, if the consumer is purchasing the product for himself or as a gift, or if he purchases the product in an outlet store or in a special luxury store (The Vision Group, 2002), social pressure (shopping alone or with friend, the level of purchasing and time commitment (leisure versus time constraints). All these situational variables will concern the level of involvement.

### **2.6.3. Measuring personal involvement scales**

Studies have characterized involvement as the level of concern for, or interest in, the purchase and refer to a high and low level of involvement (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981; Antil, 1984; Zaichokowsky, 1985; Jain & Sharma 2000). Low involvement products refer to products or services less important or less relevant to the consumer. He will have a low level of involvement in the product/service, will not make much effort to evaluate

and collect data prior to decision-making but will take the decision in a short period of time.

In high involvement situations, the consumer considers information processing in a logical order. People perceived as high-risk worry about their purchase and will search for information actively before purchasing. The channels information consist of mass media, word of mouth, and advertising in the field of sale

If the consumer has low involvement in products, his search information will be passively short and focus on solving the problem. The message will be less repetitive and briefer than other high involvement situations. In low involvement, the consumer is using non-compensatory decision rules, (when weakness overcomes strength), decides to test a new registered brand. Price can be an important factor that can affect people's decision making with high involvement.

Low involvement products, such as bubble bath, involve spending less time, money, and effort when the purchase is intended as a gift. In other words, the purchase situation is the main antecedent factor of involvement in a purchase decision (Brown & Rothschild, 1993; Jain & Sharma, 2000).

High involvement occurs when the issue is relevant and important to the consumer, who will have high levels of consumer involvement, use more criteria for choice making, searching actively for more information and processes and integrate information very intensely, knowing about the alternative brands and form attitudes that are more resistant to change. High involvement product categories tend to be very competitive, and manufacturers tend to emphasize and communicate a large number of product attributes and benefits, exposing the consumer to many potentially similar messages and products. An example of this is mobile phones, which come with numerous services and different technological devices, typically considered a high involvement product. In high involvement risk, the consumer spends considerable time evaluating the possibilities prior to making a decision, seeking considerable (mostly skilled and

professional) information and data. An example of this is the tendency to seek more information about a travel destination in the internet and in articles compared to people with low involvement (Cai, Feng & Breiter, 2004). Data show that people with medium involvement sought information about travel tips, dining, how to get around and social services while information about sports and museums is perceived to be more valuable by those at the low involvement level.

High involvement consists of high personal emotional or cognitive involvement, long period use, costly products, the possibility of trying out or not trying out the product before purchasing it, and small perceived differences between brands. Low involvement models entail frequent product purchase or impulse buying in both first time and repeat purchase situations. (Table no. 2 illustrates a comparison between high and low involvement products with reference to the decision making process.)

1. Information seeking: High involvement consumers will attempt to collect information, would actively seek information, and use various sources of information while low involvement consumers receive information in a passive way without making any effort to inform the community;
2. Product evaluation: High involvement consumers will process the evaluation stage in greater depth, seeking more brands and more information on each brand, using rational and emotional arguments before deciding, while low involvement consumers would seek a moderate number of brand alternatives and less information on each one.
3. Decision-making: High involvement consumers will decide after a cognitive process, while low involvement consumers will not make a rapid impulsive decision.
4. Post-purchase process: High involvement consumers will have cognitive dissonance and high brand loyalty while low involvement consumers will have rare dissonance (depending on the modification between the alternatives) and will be satisfied more easily.

The process is depending on the level of involvement (high or low) varies in terms of the sequence of how cognition, attitude and behavior are arranged.

1. Cognition: this refers to the knowledge, information and resulting beliefs about brands;
2. Attitude: this is the positive/negative feeling about the brands that results from evaluation of beliefs, and
3. Behavior: is the reaction in terms of purchasing or not purchasing.

**Table no. 2: High and low involvement products vis-à-vis consumer decision**

Source: Assael 1992: 120-125

| Process ``   | High involvement  | Low involvement   |
|--|---|---|
| 1. Problem recognition   | Actual state type of desired state                          | Actual state type   |
| 2. Information search<br>a) Number of brands considered<br>b) Number of sellers considered | Extensive<br>internal and external sources<br>Many<br>Many  | Minimum<br>Restricted to internal sources only.<br>One<br>One/Few |
| 3. Evaluation of alternatives<br>Number of product/service attributes evaluated            | Complex<br>Many   | Simple (if at all)<br>One/None                                    |
| 4. Purchase  | Gradual after a cognitive process                           | Immediate   |
| 5. Post purchase processes   | Cognitive dissonance is high.<br>Brand loyalty if satisfied | Brand loyalty.<br>Repeat purchase.                                |
| 6. Time spent in purchase  | Large   | Small/Minimal   |
| 7. Types of goods  | Specialty goods   | Convenience   |

Involvement theories are based on both hemispheres of the brain. They specialize in two kinds of information when the left brain focuses on cognitive activities and the right hemisphere is concerned with nonverbal holistic information (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2006). The theory using the brain's hemispheres is known as the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Petty, Cacioppo & Shuman, 1984). It proposes that the person's level of involvement during information processing is a crucial factor for determining the effective route. High involvement entails the person seeing the central cognitive arguments, while in low involvement the consumers will follow the peripheral route relying on other elements such as background or speaker.

**Personal Involvement Scale:** Most studies treat involvement as a multidimensional construct and measure it using its multi-dimensions (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008). The predominant view is that "no single construct can individually describe, explain or predict involvement in a satisfactory manner" (Rothschild, 1979).

Empirical functions of involvement range from one dimension (Zaichkovsky, 1985) to seven dimensions (Tigert et al., 1976; Bloch, 1981; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985) including dimensions such as importance, interest, pleasure etc.).

Those versions of involvement measurement (table no 3) treat new versions of scales including many items that are similar to, or the same as, those in earlier work (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008).

**Table no. 3: Studies of involvement**

| Number of dimensions | Type of involvement study              | Empirical study              |
|----------------------|--|------------------------------|
| 5                    | Consumer Fashion involvement Profile   | Tigert, Ring and King (1976) |
| 6                    | Product involvement                    | Bloch (1981)                 |
| 4                    | Fashion involvement                    | O'Cass (2000, 2001)          |
| 1                    | Personally inventory involvement (PII) | Zaichkowsky (1985)           |
| 5                    | Product involvement (PI)               | Kapferer & Laurent (1985a)   |
| 4                    | Purchase decision involvement          | Mittal & Lee                 |
| 3                    | Involvement (based on PII)             | McQuarrie & Munson (1986)    |
| 2                    | Product involvement (apparel)          | Michaelidou & Dibb (2006)    |
| 3                    | Involvement (based on PII)             | Flynn & Goldsmith (1993)     |
| 7                    | Product involvement                    | Dholakia (2001)              |

Using evidence collected from their studies, Laurent & Kapferer (1985) suggest that no single facet can predict involvement. For this reason, they strongly treat involvement as a multi-faceted component describing the Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) measurement scale on the following five facets

The perceived importance of the product relates to

- 1) Interest – centrality, ego-importance of the product class.
- 2) Pleasure – hedonic and rewarding value of the product class.
- 3) Sign – perceived sign value of the product class.
- 4) Risk importance – perceived importance of the negative consequences of a bad purchase
- 5) Risk probability – subjective probability of making a bad purchase

Each of these five facets of involvement was measured by three items (15 items in total) on a 7-point Likert (interval) scale ranging from “totally disagree” to “fully agree” (Verbeke & Vackier, 2004; Hye-Shin, 2005).

Consumer Involvement Profiles CIP: Involvement cannot be measured directly however. To measure CIPs, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) integrated antecedents of involvement

and developed a scale to measure CIP to give a better understanding of the dynamics of consumer involvement. The antecedents of involvement mentioned are

1. Perceived importance of product
2. Perceived risk associated with the product purchase
3. Symbolic / sign value attributed by the consumers to the product, its purchase and its consumption.
4. Hedonistic value of the product

This verified CIP as a first order construct. Risk associated with product purchase will include two facets: One is the perception regarding negative results of poor choice and second is the perception about the chances of committing such a mistake.

Involvement was measure by Zaichkowsky's (1985) based purchase decision involvement on indicators associated with the antecedents and consequent to the involvement "state" (including situational, enduring and response states of involvement). Her scale, in contrast to that of Laurent and Kapferer (1985), was sensitive to the three categories that affect a person's level of involvement: personal, physical, and situational. The result was a 'multi-item" scale (i.e. inventory) which survived multiple tests of validity and served in application within the product categories (McQuarrie & Munson, 1987),

Zaichkowsky (1985) developed her scale for product involvement and advertising involvement but she also suggested that it can be used for purchase involvement by specifying the purchase-decision as the context of the instrument. Her scale for a Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) treats involvement as a one-dimensional construct. It necessitates completing one score for each of the 22 items measured on a seven-point scale tested on a wide range of products. This is a seven-point, twenty item bipolar scale using a simple and applicable instrument. It is designed to measure the involvement with products, although some minor modifications allowed it to measure involvement with advertisements also with purchase decisions.

Dholakia (2001) used Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) scale to measure product involvement for products and services using seven dimensions:

1. Situational involvement (temporary perception of product importance may result in the detailed evaluation of the objective stimuli such as cost or performance features);
2. Enduring involvement (ongoing concern for a product class arises as a result of ongoing interest with the product class and its association with the individual's self-concept, perceived risk, and risk perception arising from uncertain consequences);
3. Functional risk (all types of risks arise from an objective feature of the product including cost or financial risk, performance features or performance risk possibilities of excessive investment of time or time risk and physical risk);
4. Social risk (concerned with the adverse consequences associated with significant opinions or the consumer);
5. Information seeking (the consumer's propensity to seek related information prior the purchase decision);
6. Information dissemination prior to purchase (related to opinion and advice giving by leaders);
7. Psychological risk viewed as experience of anxiety or psychological discomfort arising from worry or regret after purchasing.

Dholakia (2001) finds that each of the seven dimensions of involvement motivated and contributed to affectively high product involvement and risk perception where there was especially enduring involvement. This is an important source for specific purchase decisions. Situational involvement is responsible for a feeling of anxiety and information seeking; prior purchasing is influenced both by enduring and situational involvement but propensity to disseminate information prior to a purchase situation is positively influenced by enduring and not by situational involvement. He used Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) CIP scale in a study of 4,400 observations within 22 product categories, finding that consumer involvement profile scales of involvement should not be built on one factor but based on the antecedents of involvement including deep interest in the issue, enjoyable acting about the issue and identifying oneself totally with

the issue The extent of the decision process is influenced by all facets of the profile including interest in the product and perception of negative consequences in case of a bad purchase. The involvement profile contains all involvement types such as involvement in the product or involvement in the purchase decision process (ibid)

Martin (1998) modified Zaichkowsky's (1985) scale and used a five-point, ten item scale showing that in high involvement products the consumers have a high level of involvement relative to the product categories. These include high personal value and importance for the product, high price sensitivity and related to high quality, interactivity, its uniqueness, high effort in information's collection and major costs in case of a bad purchase. Using these attributes can categorize the consumer's involvement into high or low involvement (Martin, 1998).

Another critique of the Zaichkowsky (1985) model relates to the fact that not all the items are relevant for measuring involvement. Some of them are redundant. Hand & Kelly Research (2001) states that the critique of the full PII model by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) was that it had never been published and there was no assurance that the translations of the 20 items into English would acquiesce the same item construction as the French originals.

Zaichkowsky (1994) has reduced the PII by half reducing items relevant to product and personal involvement leaving only items related to advertising involvement. She thus shows that the validity and the reliability of the model still remain. She did not alter the definition of involvement; it remained "A person's perceived relevance of the advertisement based on inherent needs values and interest" (Zaichkowsky, 1985) but specifies PII to the involvement of advertising.

The validity and reliability of the PII scale were proven using statistical tests and retests such as Cronbach Alpha and factor analysis (Zaichkowsky, 1986, 1994). Zaichowsky's (1985) PII scale measures the state of involvement and has been modified frequently.

An example of this is the use of the five-point scale instead of the seven-point or using the Likert scale instead of a bipolar scale (Sridhar, 2007).

Although most studies measure product involvement based on that researcher's (1984) scale, the Mittal (1989) analogue involvement as situational temporal involvement has four dimensions:

1. The degree of caring about types and brands
2. Differences among the brands
3. The importance of the right choice
4. The concern with the outcome of the choice.

According to Mittal and Lee (1989), one product, even an inexpensive one, can have high or low involvement based on the behavioral variation in a particular situation (e.g. routine, gift, regular or emergency purchase).

Using Zaichovsky's (1985) PII scale Flynn and Goldsmith (1993) measure involvement in travel and fashion services, using a sample of women of a median age of 37 years with a range of 20-77. Their findings revealed fashion involvement correlated to time, dedicated to searching for clothing in media usage. Women having high fashion involvement read more about fashion, seek out fashion featured in the media, and report spending more time in the stores of those fashions publicized. Highly involved fashion consumers also seemed to seek products that had style and were less interested in shopping for bargains or sales. While income seemed to explain some consumer behavior, other demographic variables such as education and age were not as useful as involvement.

Although there are several involvement scales, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) as well as Zaichkowsky (1985) are widely reviewed and cited relating to the development of involvement scales in the Handbook of Marketing Scales because these scales met certain relevant criteria

#### **2.6.4. Fashion involvements – construct and model**

Consumer involvement is a consequence of multiple factors including risk perception, importance of the products, positioning of the person's self-image, and the consumer's motivation (Khare & Rakesh, 2010).

The popular definition of involvement by Rothschild (1984: 217) "is an observation state of motivation arousal or interest" to seek information and processing and decision-making.

In the next section, this researcher will focus on involvement with clothes and dress, analyzing the factors and types of results, and relate to fashion involvement.

Fashion and clothing is a collective behavior of social conformity according to the individual's self-image. Clothing reflects the individual personality, helps to enhance personal characteristics, improves self-esteem and expresses high self-esteem (Solomon & Rabolt 2004). Fashion clothing is considered important in communicating a sense of well-being, and is consumed publicly. Clothing communicates a range of meanings and helps to enhance personal characteristics of the individual. As involvement relates to the activities, motivation and interests evoked by stimulus or situational (O'Cass, 2004), fashion clothing has been cited as a product category likely to induce high Involvement and can be defined as the perceived personal relevance or interest by the consumer regarding fashion clothing (Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 2005). The more attention the consumer has towards clothing so does his involvement with the product increase.

Fashion involvement implies that people often have a great impact on fashion style and emphasize their clothing. High fashion involvement indicates that the consumers are important to fashion researchers and marketers, and are highly motivated to devote time and attention to fashion. For them, fashion clothing is most symbolic in terms of status and importance of the consumer (Tigert et al, 1976; Goldsmith, Moore & Beaudoin, 1999; Belleau, McFatter, Summers, Yingjiao, Xu. & Garrison, 2008).

Belleau et al. (2008) used a questionnaire, mailed to 800 fashion professionals in eight regional fashion centers and found the following characteristics of fashion leaders: they take more risks; are less traditional; they are less cost conscious; they have much more fashion information, are greater media users; and they have greater interest and joy in shopping.

Results indicate that fashion leaders had a more favorable attitude towards exotic leather apparel products, had greater intentions to purchase such products, had higher cognitive motivation, and had a different shopping orientation from followers. Leaders enjoyed shopping more and were not as cost-conscious, traditional, or conservative as followers (Goldsmith et al. 1999; Belleau, 2008). Fashion involvement can be defined as the consumer's perceived importance of fashion clothing, and equally, by O'Cass (2001) or by Davis (1994) as a code of clothing style influenced over time. Such codes are unique to different areas or languages. Fashion may be defined as a "broadly based behavioral phenomenon evidenced in the variety of material and non-material context" (Sproule & King, 1973:463-467).

A generalized definition of fashion has been constructed to reflect the generalized concept represented in a wider realm of non-material, as well as consumer behavioral, phenomena. Fashion may be conceptualized both as an object and as a behavioral process (Tigert et al., 1976). Clothing has been recognized as a product category likely to induce high involvement. A fashion involvement continuum can be defined based on the aggregate of a variety of important fashion behavioral activities (Tigert et al., 1976). Their model, based on personal involvement, suggested the five continuous dimensions of fashion involvement describing a wide spectrum of involvement of fashion consciousness. Each dimension can be measured using five individual questions, each field testing one dimension. The five fashion involvement dimensions include (Sproules & King 1973; Tigert et al., 1976):

1. Fashion innovativeness and time of purchase: The continuum ranges from the early adopting and experimenting consumer to the late buying, conservative consumer;

2. Fashion interpersonal communication: A continuous dimension which describes the relative communicative and influential power of the consuming population at conveying fashion information;
3. Fashion interest. A continuum ranging from the relatively highly interested fashion consumer to the totally non-interested buyer;
4. Fashion knowledge ability. Consumers range from those who are relatively knowledgeable about fashions, styles and trends to those who have no insight into the fashion arena;
5. Fashion awareness and reaction to changing fashion trends: A continuum ranging from the consumer who is very actively monitoring the style trends to the totally non-aware individual.

Tirget et al., (1976) use ten years of tradition research in fashion segmentation, developing the "index of fashion involvement". Interviewing 1000 husband -wife pairs concerning their fashion dimension, they find that a different level of fashion involvement is expressed in different levels of each of the five dimensions. In a high level of fashion involvement, for example, the consumer is the fashion leader in innovativeness, early trial and interpersonal communication of fashion information. The heavy fashion involvement consumer represents an important market as heavy buyers of clothing. Their model refers to involvement as a personal involvement in the concept of his or her innovative, awareness, knowledge, interest and communication.

Fashion involvement means different things to different people. The intensity and nature of consumers' attachment and the influence of fashion involvement are varied. Fashion involvement is a motivated state of interest defined as the perceived personal relevance or interest by the consumer in fashion clothing ( Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 2005). The more important fashion clothing is in a consumer's life, the greater the involvement with the product. This high involvement may be because fashion clothing's continual and cyclical nature implies that consumers are often drawn into the style or fashion of the moment, or that they are people who attach a great deal of importance to their clothing (O'Cass, 2000, 2004).

Fashion involvement consumption is a growing research trend associated with how important, meaningful and relevant fashion clothing is to the lives of consumers. It aims to explain how fashion clothing is related to consumption behaviors (O'Cass, 2000, 2004; Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012). Fashion involvement is not typical for all consumers and it represents the differences between individuals on a continuum from high involvement to fashion clothing, doing many activities before and during consumption, to very low involvement of buying clothes automatically (O'Cass, 2004). Based on these differences fashion Involvement can be defined as "the extent to which a consumer views the related fashion [clothing] activities as a central part of their life" (O'Cass, 2004). Using Petty and Cacioppo's (1984) Elaboration Likelihood Model in terms of fashion clothing, highly involved consumers use a central route to their fashion clothing decision making.

In high fashion involvement products the consumer is highly motivated to process the information in the central positive or negative attitude change using cognitive structure and logical arguments. The message must link directly to the subject and will be influenced by cognitive initiated changes.

In the low involvement products the consumer process using the peripheral structure is influenced by emotional advertising and adjusting temporal attitude unproductive of behavioral (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012).

Clothing can fulfill a number of functions beyond mere functional performance including warmth or protection. Clothing can tell others about the status of the individual - his professional personality or his identity. This is how involved the person can be in the consumption of clothing (O'Cass, 2000; Choy, 2008; Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012). Involvement argued here refers to the extent to which the consumer views the focal object as a central, meaningful, engaging and important part of life (O'Cass 2000). By using this definition he implicates the four forms of involvement (product involvement to clothes, advertising of clothes, purchase decision regarding clothes and consumption involvement with clothes) as synthesized towards a conceptual form of the CIP. Each type is bonded or attached to an object (consumer±object relationship).

Using our four involvement types or dimensions O'Cass (2000) & Choy (2008) have developed models to measure the relationship between four types of involvement and the higher order construct of consumer involvement. The second-order construct of consumer involvement is a composition of the four first order constructs, representing basic types related to the consumer's environment (O'Cass, 2000). O'Cass (2000) based his model on the situational involvement of the product and the person himself, suggesting that the consumer can be involved not only with the product but also with the communication (advertising) about it, the consumption of the product and the purchase decision (figure no, 6). Together these four types of involvement can form the overall consumer involvement profile (Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile)

1. *Product involvement*

The first dimension of the consumer involvement profile is the involvement with the product, i.e. with the fashion clothes themselves. It is viewed as a construct link to the interaction between the person and the product, where different types of involvement refer to different objects or products (Mittal & Lee, 1989; O'Cass, 2000).

Based on Mittal and Lee (1989) product involvement reflects the place the product is occupied in the consumer's life and interest, and represents the combination of the consumer's perception of the product with the temporary situation encountered. The involvement with the product is stable while the involvement with the situation can vary with the circumstances (buying a gift or buying for oneself).

2, *Advertising involvement*

Advertising involvement the second type of consumer involvement profile CIP) referring to the ways the individual experiences and is influenced by the mass media for example on the radio, television, internet and magazines, etc. It is defined according to Krugman (1965) as "the number of conscious 'bridging experiences' connections or personal references per minute that the viewer makes between his own life and the stimulus". Krugman (1965) defines two categories of advertising, each having a different influence on the individual. Television advertising has a passive effect in that people do not evaluate the ads on television and print, defined as media, and has an active effect on viewers who consciously

.evaluate the advertisements.

Advertising involvement refers to the consumer's interest in the processing where having a low advertising level will use little capacity and extract information. A high involvement level requires greater capacity and results in increasing durable cognitive and attitudinal effects (Greenwald & Leavitt, 1984). While with regard to a low involvement product the consumer will pay high attention to the attractiveness of the source, with respect to a high involvement product he will be influenced by the message and the arguments pertaining to the meaning.

The effect of cross channels of advertising and personal involvement is reported by Wang (2009). He shows that consumers having a high level of personal involvement will be motivated and will be more committed to the product represented by cross-channel integration of advertising messages. Participants watched television, visited web sites and then answered a questionnaire with ten items regarding tennis players to measure PII (Zaichkowsky, 1994). In his study, participants with higher personal involvement who were exposed to cross-channel advertising, had greater commitment than participants who did not have cross-channel advertising (Wang, 2009).

Using manipulation of flashing 25 flashes per second while showing advertisements for four new brands, and instructions to raise hands whenever participants saw one or two light flashes, Mitchell (1999) suggests a different level of advertising involvement causes a different evaluation process of information. In cases where the consumer's involvement for the product is high, the advertising involvement is high as well, the consumer is highly interested in the advertisement and increasing attention is paid to the information processing. On the other hand when the consumer's involvement with the product is low the advertising's involvement level will be low as well: the person will have low attention and limited interest to evaluate the information in the ads

The relationship between consumer involvement and advertising involvement was discussed in studies (Zaichkowsky, 1985, 1986; Te'eni-Harrari et al.2009) showing that the higher the product importance is for the consumer the higher is the attention the consumer pays to the advertisement .

3. *Consumption involvement:*

The third type of Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (CIP) is consumption involvement. The consumer can be involved not only in the product or advertising (or communication) but also involved with the process of the purchase consumption including wearing the fashion (O'Cass, 2000). Consumption involvement refers to the procedure itself, information collection, adopting new brands, information evaluation, the number of stores visited etc.

Fashion is been treated as encompassing the product of fashion and the process of purchasing leading and adopting fashion (Tirget, et al., (1979) encompassing 1) The fashion object product meaning the dress or clothing, and 2) The fashion process of buying the product represents the purchase decision process.

Based on this theory the fashion object refers to a specific object, such as a particular dress, an architectural style - notice the work style - or a particular style of child-rearing. On the others hand the fashion process is the process by which a potential fashion moves from its points of origination to public acceptance. The fashion process is characterized by the introduction of a fashion innovation, by its early adoption by fashion leaders, by the diffusion of the fashion object throughout a particular socio-cultural network and by the eventual decline in acceptance of the fashion object. Fashion clothing is a process measured by the behaviors, opinions, and attitudes of the consumers to fashion dressing (Tirget et al., (1979).

Consumer research in fashion and clothing purchasing do not follow the rational purchasing model because dressing is important in consumer identity.

Although there are some cultural differences, substantive differences were not found with fit, style, quality and price having top priority and brand and country of origin being less important (ibid).

4. *Purchase decision involvement:*

Even after a consumer has collected information about alternative brands, evaluated them, and decided which is the most desirable, the decision process still is not complete. The consumer must now decide where to buy the product. The fourth and last type of CIP is the purchase decision defined as behavioral change in decision strategy and the resulting choice only when the consumer sees the

purchase or consumption situation as personally relevant or important. It refers to the self-relevance of purchasing activities to the individual (Zaichkowsky, 1985). A purchase decision involvement refers to the self-relevance of the individual's purchasing activities. Involvement with purchase decisions is conceptualized as a behavior change in decision strategy and the resulting choice that occurs only when the consumer sees the purchase or consumption situation as personally relevant or important (Zaichkowsky, 1986; O'Cass, 2000).

The situation or the reason for the purchase also causes a level of consumer involvement where social pressure, gift purchasing or time committed to the buying (leisure vs. time limit) also affects the involvement level and perceived risk.

According to Mittal and Lee (1989:150) purchase decision involvement is “the extent of interest and concern that a consumer brings to bear upon a purchase-decision task”. He argues that purchase decision is the most important form of involvement concerning marketers, since it affects the interest of the consumer in making a brand selection (Mittal & Lee, 1989). Consumers with high purchase decision involvement seem to act more seriously in brand choice. Purchase decision involvement represents situational involvement where routine purchases, such as chocolate bars, are not necessarily described as low involvement since the brands are indifferent (Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008). When the product has a low level of involvement the consumer can be aware of differences. Purchase involvement is influenced by the purchase situation, thus it matters if the product is bought routinely or bought as a gift or for self-use (Mittal, 1989; Michaelidou & Dibb, 2008).

The difference between purchase decision involvement and product involvement derives from purchase decision involvement being a factor related to purchasing activities of the people, and the product was a product involvement concern regarding the connection between product and person (O'Cass, 2000). For example, a person can have low involvement in a product (jeans) but high involvement in the purchasing itself because he intends to use it for a special occasion.

O'Cass (2000) indicates that advertising, product, purchase decision and consumption

involvement constitute the dimensions of overall consumer involvement with the product category (clothing) and that overall involvement is greater than the sum of its parts. Based on the research the higher the consumer's involvement in clothing, the greater will be his involvement in the product. He will spend more time and interest in the purchase and in the evaluation of the different brands.

Bloch (1981) explains that involvement with the product is not purchase dependent since high involvement at the time of purchase is not the same as enduring involvement. The consumer may experience high enduring involvement for more than one product and low purchase involvement for another. Product involvement is related to purchase decision behavior in a way that a person with high involvement with the product will visit more shops, collect more information and pay greater attention to advertising when purchasing the product (Lawlor 1988).

The four forms of involvement represent basic types related to consumer's involvement. Developing the model of second-order involvement enabled creating measurement scales of product involvement and represents the degree to which consumers were involved with fashion clothing.

In his study O'Cass (2000) proposes that the dimensions of fashion involvement labeled consumer involvement. His model aims to explain the consumer involvement construct as shown in figure no. 6, where this is the best construct that is underpinned by the four forms of involvement. It is the best model that appears to be a meaningful representation of the theory and data related to fashion clothing involvement. Thus, we could, in reality, use such an approach to calculate the CIP based on measures of product, purchase decision, advertising and consumption involvement (O'Cass 2000).

Using this model he shows a significant relationship between age, gender, and income and each of the four types of involvement where female respondents are highly involved in fashion clothing, its purchase; advertising and wearing as compared to male respondents. The younger respondents were more involved than older respondents. Age showed a negative relationship across the four types of involvement; as age increased, each type of involvement decreased. The result suggested that the issue of

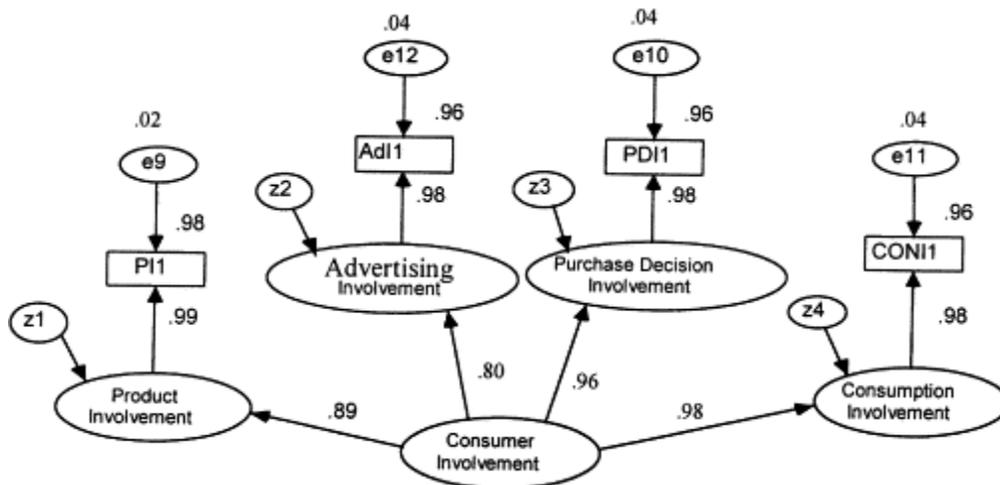
age and gender are important to consider when investigating fashion clothing involvement. The higher the consumer's income, the greater his involvement in each of the four types of involvement.

The model by O'Cass (2000) as well as that by O'Cass and Choy (2008) show that the forms of involvement are applicable to the definition of enduring ongoing involvement as a central part of the consumer's life, being a meaningful and important part of it.

Having a baby, especially for the first time, is a meaningful important transition in the consumer's life cycle related to high enduring involvement regarding the new born. Based on O'Cass (2000), the consumer will have high advertising involvement in fashion clothes to the process but will not necessarily to the product or to the advertising about the product. Each of the involvement's dimension stands alone and is separate from each other.

The second-order factor model incorporating the construct of consumer involvement and four first-order constructs of product, purchase decision, advertising and consumption involvement will fit the data better than the other model's suggestions. In the other models proposed by O'Cass (2000) the product involvement acts as an antecedent to purchase decision involvement, consumption involvement and advertising involvement

Each of the four types of involvement in the second order construct of O'Cass (2000) have the same weighting building the consumer involvement but is treated differently from each other, determining using different questions and measure by a different scale .(figure no. 6) .



**Figure no 6: The second order factor model of consumer involvement (the relationship between the four types of involvement)**

Source: O'Cass (2000).

### 2.6.5 Predictors of consumer fashion involvement

in this section I will present demographic variables as well as personality traits, price perception and media usage find to be the most significant variable predict fashion involvement

#### 2.6.5.1. Demographic variables predicting fashion involvement

Among the antecedents of involvement, person-related antecedents are the needs, aspirations, values and characteristics affecting the involvement profile and including the demographic variables such as age, gender, income, education and work status (Prendergast & Wong, 2003; Story, Davies & Farrell, 2005; Sridhar, 2007). The above demographic variables have considerable influence on high involvement products such as televisions, with only age and gender the key variable influences on low involvement products such as toothpaste or toilet (Sridhar, 2007).

Consumers use fashions to differentiate themselves from others, manage and exhibit their group affiliations by selecting clothes which are approved by social and cultural norms (Banister & Hogg 2006). Consumer fashion involvement is associated with

differences in sensitivity to social surroundings. Individuals desiring greater acceptance in groups are active in understanding and gathering information about the latest fashion cues (Khare, Mishra & Parveen (2012). They are motivated to seek “cues” which ensure group acceptance and avoid the “wrong” cues which associate them with undesirable groups. Women’s attitudes towards clothing are based on their personal interests, values, and perceptions of appropriate dress and they use clothes to assert their multiple identities. Adopting clothing styles and fashions according to group norms helps consumers to conform to socially acceptable codes of behavior and conferring social identity (Khare, Mishra & Parveen (2012). Since clothes represent “symbolic consumption” and help consumers negotiate certain qualities they might want to possess or endorse (Shim et al. 1991; Hunt & Miller 1997). Hence women are more involved in fashion clothing compared to men (Zaichkowsky 1985; O’Cass 2000, 2004) as clothes help in identity construction (Belk 1984; Banister & Hogg 2006). Women are conscious of their physical appearances and self-identity (Hansen & Jensen 2009). Banister and Hogg (2006) posit that young women use fashion clothing for improving their self-image and social identity, while fashion was relevant for the younger generation. Some researchers hold a contradictory opinion and propose that elderly women are also involved in fashion clothing (Szmigin & Carrigan 2006) and women’s involvement in fashion clothing does not diminish with age (Kozar & Damhorst 2008). Thomas and Peters (2009) posit that elderly women are guided by family and close friends in their apparel selection decision which is focused towards enhancing self- esteem and social image.

- *Gender*: Examining fashion involvement amongst affluent females, Belleau et al. (2008) use regression analysis to understand the stronger linkage between involvement and age and education (i.e. fashion involvement increases as age and education decrease and as income increases) while the linkage between fashion involvement and public self-consciousness is weak and unimportant.

Gender identity has been tested and found to be an important variable influence on the enjoyment and time spent on Christmas shopping behavior. Women were more excited and had greater involvement in Christmas shopping than men (Fischer & Arnold 1994). Age and gender are important factors to be considered when studying

fashion involvement, having a negative relationship with each of the four types of fashion involvement (O'Cass 2000; Fu Shiang- Yang 2008) where female and younger respondents were highly involved in fashion clothing, in the advertising, purchasing, and wearing compared to male and older respondents.

The behavior of men and women are different as regards clothing. Women treat clothing as improving self-image using clothes to express a target group's desire image. They better understand fashion clothing and spend more time on purchasing clothing than men (Guthrie, Kim & Jung 2008).

Testing 397 Indian women of various ages, marital status, working status, and education, Khare, Mishra and Parveen (2012) shows that age is the only demographic predictor for fashion involvement. Income, marital status, or working status, as well as education, have no significant relationship with fashion involvement amongst Indian women. Since the identity of the individual is dependent on social groups, family, culture and clothes help to exhibit social position and affiliation. The research suggests that both high and low income or educated Indian women will use clothing as their identity and will have the same fashion involvement with clothes regardless of the above parameters.

Handa & Khare (2011), using a scale developed by O'Cass (2000) show that gender can participate as a moderating variable between materialism and fashion involvement amongst Indian young men and women, in a way that young women were more involved in both fashion clothing and materialism, where men differ between both cases.

Referring to materialism as the acquisition of products in the pursuit of happiness, Richins and Dawson (1992) and Handa & Khare (2011) studied 254 young men and women (aged 18-24). They show that gender moderates between materialism and fashion involvement suggesting that the influence of materialism on fashion involvement is higher among young women than it on young men.

Work status of the individual was shown to be related to differentiation in consumption but as regards high involvement products like television, where for a low involvement product like toilet soap there was no difference in the level of involvement within different work status. These results advise marketers

to plan strategies for high and low involvement products with the relevant variables (Sridhar 2007).

- *Education:* Educated consumers tend to find more information about their products and purchase better quality products. Higher education is related to higher income; social class and highly educated consumers will have different and more rational consumption behavior, will better understand the information related to the new products increasing or decreasing risk aversion (Fernandez-Polanco, Luna, & Sanchez 2008).

Verbeke & Vackier (2004) find four clusters of consumers with different involvement with meat and its advertising (straightforward meat lovers, cautious meat lovers, indifferent meat consumers and concerned meat consumers). Variance exists within demographic variables including age, gender or income. They develop a model showing that the young and female consumers will have higher involvement for the product compared to older male consumers. The difference was not relevant to educational level, and levels were not found to differ significantly between meat involvement segments (ibid).

McFatter (2005) tested 1,200 women over the age of 21 on their fashion involvement. He found that there is a negative relationship between education and involvement as the more educated the consumer is, the lower fashion involvement they have. Also tested were 239 women with less than a high school diploma.

Belleau et al. (2008) find a negative relation between education and fashion involvement showing that the consumer under college education has higher fashion involvement .

- *Family life cycle:* Story, Davies & Farrell (2005) show that by adding a new member to the household the transition is from personal young single or singles consumption to family-oriented consumption, and this transition increases the involvement and concern in the buying. Purchasing a new car includes both factors and their high level of consideration together with highly involved, high risk, high interest, and high symbolic and hedonic value for the consumer.

Major events in the consumer's life cycle affect the reaction and consumption behaviors (Schiffman & Kanuk 2002:22). Having a child or getting married are changes creating new behaviors in the consumer's life. Becoming a mother (Prendergast, Phau & Wong 2003) reveals that consumption of luxury clothes for infants is based on the assumption that luxury brands make the children look nice and are well-designed. Only a small part of the sample suggests that luxury goods are an indicator of the ability to buy luxury items, or that there is no difference between the motives to consume luxury high involvement goods and social consumption motivation

- *Age:* Another demographic variable affecting consumer involvement is the age of the mothers which affects the consumer's concept and life style by determining different behaviors in media usage, shopping centers, and product consumption, and influencing the level of involvement (Sridhar 2007) Age as well as income were shown to have high influence on high involvement products, where the influence of low involvement products was moderate (Hochgraeffe, Faulk & Vieregge 2009). On high involvement products such as hotel services, older consumers aged 26-35 had high involvement compared to younger consumers aged 18-25. Research by O'Cass (2000) testing involvement in fashion clothing products shows that age and gender have a significant effect on the consumer's involvement, while both females and younger respondents have stronger involvement (product and purchase decision involvement) compared to older respondents (older than 35 years of age) and men.
- *Income:* The study by Im, Bayus & Mason (2003) shows a positive relationship between the adoption of new products and personal characteristics of the individual, where work status lacked high effectiveness on adopting one product. The author analyzed the consumers' adopting behavior regarding electronics as related to personal characteristics and consumer innovation. They find that income and younger and high income consumers will adapt more quickly to new products compared to older and low income consumers. The person's income provides the ability to purchase the products but the education and work status are direct

variables that explain them (Jain & Sharma 2002). Income can explain consumer involvement showing that females with a low income will purchase low involvement groceries based on habit, showing low loyalty to products and motivated only by money for benefit. In contrast, high income women had high loyalty towards high involvement products (Gbadamosi 2009).

Mayer (2002) shows that the influence of parental income on the children's well-being is significant. Income gains have the potential to make a big difference in the children's lives. Families with low income suffer from depression and anxiety or other psychological problems, physical health problems, low cognitive skills, drug and alcohol use and so on..

Another relationship was found in the study by Akir & Othmans (2010) showing that low income consumers are quality conscious, buy products in a special situation such as in sales promotion, and prefer international brands in high involvement products such as personal computers, perfumes and fashion clothes. On the other hand, low income consumers will prefer low involvement products such as instant noodles and instant coffee at low prices and will buy them weekly or monthly, will focus on the price of the product as well as conforming to the wife's choices.

A positive relationship between income and fashion involvement was seen in the study by McFatter (2002) showing that the higher the income of 1,200 females selected from eight metropolitan statistical areas that are regarded as primary fashion centers of the United States the higher their fashion involvement. On the other hand, searching 397 Indian women regarding their fashion involvement Khare, Ankita and Parveen (2012) show that income as well as education cannot predict fashion involvement, and low or high income as well as low or highly educated Indian women have the same fashion involvement with dressing.

#### 2.6.5.2. Price perception as regards fashion involvement

Price perception relates to both prestige sensitivity and price/quality referring to the perception of the consumer of the product's quality, and indicates his beliefs regarding the high quality of the product and its status (Xu, 2000; McFatter 2005).

Price perception has a positive influence on purchasing behavior in a way that consumers will buy products within the portfolio price and budget that has high positioning and prestige in the belief that the high price of the product implies its high quality (Lichtenstein & Netemeyer, 1993; McFatter 2005).

Price perception/prestige sensitivity relates to socially visible behaviors and to the tendency to make attributions about other consumers on the basis of the price level, where price perception /price-quality refers to the quality of the product implied by the product's price (McFatter 2005).

Consumers have different price perceptions of different products, where upper middle class women prefer expensive products thinking price indicates quality of the product. They are willing to pay a high price for the product - high prestige image (Chinwe 2009). Price /quality and prestige sensitivity are the two main components of price perception. Price is a parameter of quality; a high price is perceived by women with a high income as a product of high quality, and they are therefore prepared to pay a high sum in order to announce their higher quality image.

#### 2.6.5.3. Media usage and fashion involvement

Mass media includes internet, television, radio, magazines, newspapers, movies and books and is a phenomenon in today's culture, with great power on dressing and appearance (Hiew Shu & Tee 2012).

Studies indicate that fashion clothing involvement has a significant influence and relationship with the consumer's perception of knowledge in terms of how much the consumer knows or thinks he knows about fashion or her involvement as related to fashion products (Gill et al. 1988; O'Cass, 2004; Vieira, 2008).

The media been used as an important source of knowledge, beliefs and ideas in everyday life, including fashion in the style of dressing and appearance. In 2003, for example 51% of the African American young students aged 18-24 used the internet for 10.1 hours daily spending five hours listening to television and radio concerning fashion

and clothing (Dixon 2007). The increasing time the person will be exposed to media channels the higher fashion involvement he or she will have relate to fashion (Hiew Shu & Tee, 2012)

Focus groups compiled by Cardoso and Santos (2008) show that advertising in magazines and by word of mouth causes the social group and store environment to be the main factors influencing clothing purchasing behavior. Moreover young consumers prefer to shop alone because it gives them greater freedom of movement and more independence in choice. The young consumers select clothes that fit the image they have of themselves.

Magazines and catalogues seem to have considerable influence on dressing appearance because they are tangible and last long. An example of this is 51% of Asian consumers (Korea, Taiwan and Hong Kong) 40% in France 31% in Columbia and 44% in Germany use magazines to enhance their dressing consumption (Hiew Shu & Tee 2012).

Using focus groups amongst young students (aged 20-24) in Portugal and Greece concerning their fashion sources shows that with no differences between the two Mediterranean countries advertising in magazines (because they are tangible items) word of mouth, and social groups are the most significant sources influence clothing purchasing (Cusic, 2001).

Since when women shop they spend much time gathering information, and taking the experience and knowledge of others into consideration, the traditional media is usually not enough and they will use other women, their friends or associates for advice.

Women are good researchers, will use a wide spectrum of information for balance, and will give credibility to persons considered to be leaders in the field (Fu-Shiang Yang 2008). The print media is more tangible and long lasting than the internet or other electronic media (Cusic, 2001). The new deals and styles of fashion will be first introduced and promoted by designers in magazines. Television is a primary "at home" medium used by young college students because of the combination between audio and visual channels.

#### 2.6.5.4. Personality traits and fashion involvement

The involvement theories help explain how when and where the consumers have high fashion involvement, will purchase sooner than others, and will encourage them to purchase as well (McFatter, 2005). The person's characteristics and ability to influence others is essential in studying consumer behavior regarding clothing (O'Cass, 2000, McFatter, 2005).

Personality traits including self-confidence and anxiety were reported to affect life styles and consumer intention regarding behavioral clothing. Consumer personality traits have been found to significantly influence fashion involvement as well as fashion intention and knowledge, enthusiasm and interests (Hye-Shin 2005, Dixon 2007). Personality traits, including self-confidence and public self-consciousness, been shown to influence consumer involvement regarding consumer purchase intentions and product choice decisions. They have been found to influence individual attributes of consistent and pervasive relationship and have served as a better indicator of consumer profile behavior (Wells & Tigert, 1971; Horton, 1993; Gutman & Mills, 1982; Vieira & Slogo 2006).

O'Cass (2001, 2004) shows a positive relationship between product image and self-image congruence (cognitive matching between a product and a consumer's self-concept suggesting that the higher the brand image the greater the person's involvement in fashion.

On the other hand regression results in McFatter's (2005) study show that media usage was positively and significantly related to fashion involvement. This indicates that personality traits (self-confidence and public self-consciousness) were not significant predictors of fashion involvement and there is no relationship.

Self-confidence described as a personality trait that provides understanding of a person related to self, plays a key role in leadership (Dixon 2007). It is defined as the capability to successfully accomplish something based on perception and can be changed due to the person's accomplishments (ibid).

Casill and Drake (1987) studied choices of employment clothing in relationship to lifestyles, and found the relationship between consumers having goods, high self-confidence and having high quality clothing enhanced their physical attractiveness. Dixon (2007) determines that the relationship between self-confidence and its ability to predict the appearance and clothing among African American students shows that the greater a person's self-confidence the greater his capability to be a fashion leader.

Investigating 346 males from generation Y aged 18-24, Bakewell, Mitchell and Rothwell (2006) categorize their fashion and style decision-making process. They find that fashion conscious consumers are not eager to accept new styles, and spend much time in fashion shops, have high interest in styles, and care about their clothes. Male consumers with low fashion consciousness spend less time in fashion shops, do not talk or interest themselves in fashion, and use leader's opinion concerning style and the appearance of their clothes.

Self-consciousness is conceptualized as consistent attention directed by the self, one's behavior and acute awareness of the self to the social object (Fenigstein 1987). Private self-consciousness refers to a general awareness of the self to the inner thoughts and feelings; public self-consciousness refers to the general awareness of the self as a social object affecting others (e.g. "I'm very concerned about how I present myself"). Public self-consciousness is defined as the awareness of the self as a social and public object, measuring the extent to which people are concerned about their appearance, life style, and clothing behavior, and their impact on others (Gould & Bark 1987). Fashion consciousness been related to the knowledge, interest, and attention of the consumer regarding the amount of information the consumer espouses (Walsh et al. 2001). Based on this study fashion conscious refers to the pre-existing interest in clothing were heavy spenders are interest in fashion, visit many shopping stores, they are having higher desire to up-to-date changes, frequent implementing of fashion styles and pleasures shopping experience (Walsh et al., 2001).

Public self-consciousness requires an audience, social others or thoughts about being in the company of others and close attention from others. Fashion consciousness is defined as being both motivated and highly capable of shopping. The greater the consumer's consciousness, the greater his understanding and knowledge about stores, fashion values and look (Angelo 2010).

The relationship between clothing and public self-consciousness was tested in many studies. Miller, Davis and Rowold (1982) and O'Cass (2000) show a positive relationship between fashionability, fashion leader, clothing interest, clothing conformability and public self-consciousness where consumers have a high social self-ideal and self-image.

Since clothing plays a different role for communicating the identity and an important role in manifesting self-expression, identity and image, it can be used as motivation to achieve the "ideal" self whether in private or in a social context (Evans, 1989). Clothing may be a non-verbal form of communication reflecting the wearer's identity and the self-concept. Self-monitoring reflects the degree to which a person observes and controls his appearance, where wearing the "right" clothes is affected by beliefs and values (O'Cass, 2001).

Consumers with high fashion involvement (highly involved in advertising, purchase decision, in fashion clothing and in its wearing) are likely to be a unique segment spending more money and time on apparel, reading more information and more interested in fashion clothing. They are the opinion leaders affecting the clothing appearance and fashion, crucial to the success or failure of products.

Fashion consciousness describes the person's involvement with fashion clothing, his styles and innovation in fashion clothing and high involvement. The more fashion-conscious the person, the more stylish the clothes he will wear, the more information used and the more time will be spent on shopping.

In sum since clothing as a form of verbal communication reflects the wearer's identity, his or her self image and self expression, wearing the "right" clothes can indicate the references to the "right" social group (O'Cass 2001a). The fashion involvement associated with the sensitivity of the social surrounding and is highly sensitive to the consumer. The models examine shopping fashion involvement interacting with price perception, personality traits, media usage as well as demographic variables. The fashion shopping model is responsiveness on multidimensional construct models containing involvement with the product, the advertising, the consumption process and purchase decision all together.

## **Chapter 3: Development of the Research Hypotheses**

### **3.1 The research rationale**

Consumer involvement plays a significant role in the process of consumer behavior influencing time, attention motivation and the effort the consumer will make before during and after the process.

Transition to motherhood as a significant stage during the life cycle, results in new behavior, new products and services the mother has for her newborn. Since clothing is a significant product influencing the consumer's positioning and status, it is worth searching the factors correlating with the fashion involvement of the new mother regarding her newborn's clothes.

Many studies relate to fashion involvement of old and young women globally (Tirgert et al. 1976; O'Cass, 2000; Banister & Hogg, 2006; Michaelidou & Dibb, 2006), but few, if any, on women as mothers,

The studies examine the factors affecting the involvement - its level and its types include involvement in the product, advertising and the process. In addition, there are many studies relating to the behavior of the new mother after transition to motherhood and her involvement in the baby's school, his pram and so on). Yet, little has been discussed regarding the new mother's involvement in the baby's clothes. However, the baby clothes market is growing rapidly (\$3.5 billion in 2006 accounting for 20% of the turnover in fashion clothing shops (<http://www.1mother.net/index>)). Marketers must know the factors influencing the attention and motivation of the new mother in order to increase her ability to meet her needs.

The disparity in the literature also relates to fashion involvement of women amongst single vs. partnered mothers. As a result of the birth rate amongst solo mother births which has risen three-fold over the last 25 years (almost 10% of the births in Israel in 2004) as well as the endorsement of having a baby alone (by choice or necessity) it is very motivating and interesting to explore the solo mother sector in consumer behavior. The studies on solo mothers often focus on their poverty, income and neediness, but fewer studies if any, have been conducted on their consumer behavior as a different segment. Few studies deal with the consumer profile as a construct embracing four different types of involvement, thus it will be remarkable to find what factors relate to each type. Price perception, personality traits, media usage, and demographic variables have been tested regarding fashion involvement but not many study the relationship between each involvement's types.

It will be beneficial to the marketers to find out what factor influences each type, what they should use in the media in order to increase the advertising involvement, or what price or prestige they should give the baby's fashion clothes in order to improve the product involvement of the new mother. Thus there are forces having a positive or a negative influence on each of involvement's dimensions as presented in the following model.

### **3.2 The research hypotheses**

The research hypotheses are presented below and thereafter analyzed individually.

- **Hypothesis 1a** :A negative relationship will be found between age of the mother and her fashion involvement regarding baby's clothes .Therefore the younger the new mother is, the higher fashion involvement in baby's clothing she will have and vice versa.
- **Hypothesis 1b**: Marital status moderates the relationship between age and fashion involvement of the new mother so a different relationship will be found between fashion involvement and age base on marital status of the new mother

- **Hypothesis 2a:** A difference in each type of the fashion involvement of the first time mothers regarding her baby's clothes will be found according to their work status. Employed new mothers will have higher fashion involvement in baby's clothing in comparison to unemployed new mothers.
- **Hypothesis 2 b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between work status and fashion involvement of the new mother for her baby's clothes so a different relationship will be found between work status and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother
- **Hypothesis 3a:** A positive relationship will be found between the mother's income and her fashion involvement for baby clothes. The higher the new mother's income, the more fashion involved she will be in the baby's clothing and vice versa.
- **Hypothesis 3b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between income and fashion involvement of the new mother regarding baby's clothes, so a different relationship will be found between income and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother
- **Hypothesis 4a:** A positive relationship will be found between education and fashion involvement of the new mother regarding her baby's clothes. The higher the new mother's education, the more fashion involved she will be in the baby's clothing and vice versa.
- **Hypothesis 4b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between education and fashion involvement., so a different relationship will be found between education of the mother and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother
- **Hypothesis 5:** A difference in fashion involvement to baby's clothes will be found according to mother's marital status. Thus partnered new mothers will have higher fashion involvement in baby clothing in comparison to solo new mothers.
- **Hypothesis 6a:** A positive relationship will be found between price /quality of the new mother's and fashion involvement for baby clothes. Thus the higher the fashion involvement of the new mother, the higher the price perception purchases will be and vice versa.

- **Hypothesis 6b** Marital status moderates the relationship between price/quality and fashion involvement of the new mother so a different relationship will be found between price /qualtiy and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother
- **Hypothesis 7a:** A positive relationship will be found between prestige sensitivity of the new mother and fashion involvement for baby clothes Thus the higher the new mother's fashion involvement, the higher the price prestige will be found and vice versa.
- **Hypothesis 7b** Marital status moderates the relationship between prestige sensitivity of the new mother and fashion involvement of the new mother. so a different relationship will be found between price prestige and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother
- **Hypothesis 8a:** A positive relationship will be found between media usage of the new mother and fashion involvement for baby's clothes. Thus the higher the fashion involvement of the new mother, the more information the mother will use and vice versa.
- **Hypothesis 8b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between media usage and fashion involvement of the new mother. so a different relationship will be found between media usage of the new mother and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother
- **Hypothesis 9a:** A positive relationship will be found between self-confidence of the new mother and fashion involvement for baby clothes Thus the higher the new mother's self-confidence, the more fashion involved she will be and vice versa.
- **Hypothesis 9b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between self-confidence of the new mother and fashion involvement. so a different relationship will be found between self-confidence and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother

- **Hypothesis 10 a:** A positive relationship will be found between public self-consciousness of the new mother and fashion involvement for baby's clothes. Thus the higher the new mother's public self-consciousness the new mother, the higher her fashion involvement and vice versa.
- **Hypothesis 10b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between public self-consciousness of the new mother and fashion involvement so a different relationship will be found between public self-consciousness and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother
- **Hypothesis 11.** The new mother's age moderates the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement for baby clothes. .so a different relationship will be found between marital status and fashion involvement base on the new m other's age
- **Hypothesis 12:** The new mother's self-confidence moderates the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement for baby clothes so a different relationship will be found between marital status and fashion involvement base on the new mother's self confidence

Most of the hypothesis are based on the literature cited in this paper and refers especially to dependent and independent variables. Yet, the researcher could not find literature resembling the moderating effect of marital status on demographic variables in relation to fashion involvement. All the studies were conducted on the demographic or other independent variables affecting fashion involvement types, but none demonstrated the difference between married and single mothers.

The researcher found studies using marital status as an independent variable not treated as moderating variable.

### 3.3. The models of the study

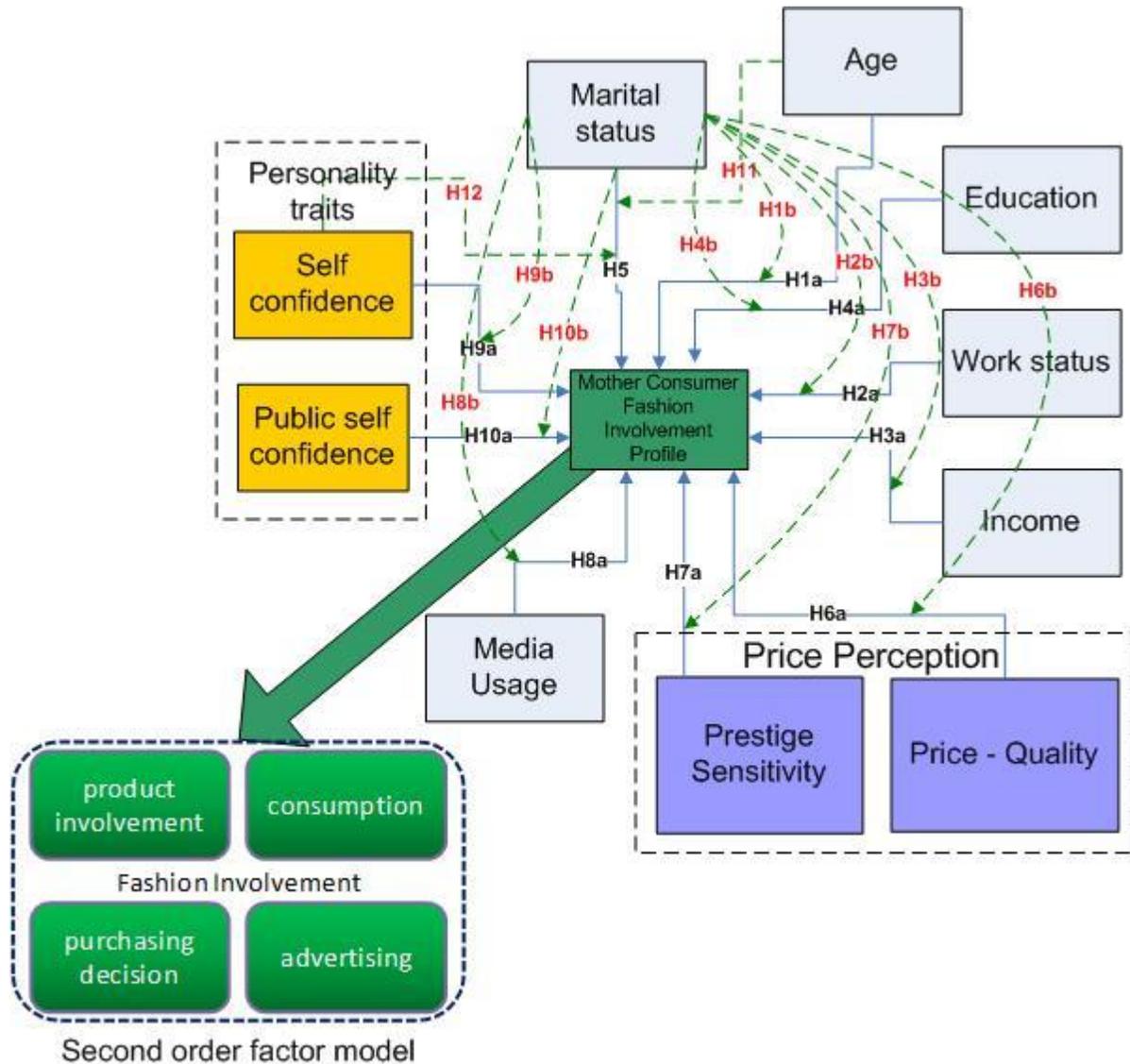


Figure no, 7: Models of the study

This model represents the author wishes to predict the fashion involvement of the new mother using demographic variables, personality traits, price perception and media

usage of the new mother. Within the highest level this model is trying to moderate the relationship using marital status, age and self confidence of the new mother.

The model is based on the fact that fashion involvement of the new mother is a construct based on the literature using the four following dimensions: advertising involvement, product involvement, purchase decision involvement and consumption involvement as presented by O'Cass (2000) regarding the Second Order Factor Model of Consumer Fashion Involvement

### **3.4 The research relationships**

#### **3.4.1 Age and fashion involvement**

Demographic variables were found to be related to selective media and fashion involvement as a combination of age income and education (O'Cass, 2000, 2001; Goldsmith, 2002).

In Israel 13% of the new births were of mature age mothers aged 35 and older (National Center for Health Statistics 2007) with a good financial situation since they have the financial status of mature age new mothers, paying greater attention to financial security prior to having the first child (Chi-Ching, 1995; Powell & Powell, 2001).

Age influences the transition to motherhood in mature aged mothers having a wider range of opportunities for spending on family and baby needs however they have more financial stress and issues to deal with to maintain their career because of their new role (Powell & Powell, 2001).

As Hand (2005) mentions older new mothers up to 35 years of age are more organized in their workplace, more educated and are have more money compared to younger new mothers. Oláh (2008) shows that in Hungary and Sweden the device mechanism of late transition to motherhood is biological aspects of being single not in a cohabitating relationship; higher educated women with a better economic position at work allow her to cope with issues of care and childbearing compared to partnered new mothers.

Selected demographic variables of first time mothers will have a significant positive effect on involvement in baby fashion clothing and research has shown that high fashion involvement expressed and relate to materialism, age, gender, media usage, self monitoring and motives (Tigret et al., 1976; O'Cass, 2000, 2001, 2004; Xu, 2001; Goldsmith, 2002 ).

Scholars have demonstrated that personality traits including age and gender, materialism and consequent elements including information search and time spent have a positive interaction with fashion involvement (Summers et al. 1992; Angelo 2010) Age has been identified as an important dimension for fashion clothing attached to use and affect, where younger people have a more central position to fashion than older people and are more involved in fashion. O'Cass (2000, 2004) has shown that age has a significant negative effect on fashion clothing involvement and that younger mothers are more influenced and involved in fashion clothes.

Gender has a negative relationship with all four types of involvement. Scholars such as O'Cass (2000, 2001) show that female and young respondents are more highly involved in fashion clothing , its purchase decision, its advertising, its consumption involvement and its product involvement which lead to the conclusion that age and gender are important criteria affecting fashion in involvement.

Also testing the subjective age (the age related to the subject and identifies aspirations through its face (Sghaier & Gharbi, 2012) have a negative influence on the interest and pleasure involved with fashion clothing. The finding suggests that younger consumers tend to have higher involvement and knowledge ability regarding fashion dress and the more they will be involved, the more they will tend to consider themselves younger and more involved in fashion clothing.

Fashion clothing involvement is defined as a general interest in fashion and awareness of changes in fashion apparel. Tigert et al. (1976) note that "The consumer heavily involved in fashion is also a large buyer of fashionable clothes. It predicts primarily

behavioral variables associated with apparel products including involvement with the product, purchasing behavior and consumer characteristics".

As indicated before in the discussion of involvement, the studies stand for involvement with respect to differentiation of involvement within all four first –order forms of involvement as a second order construct (O'Cass 2000). This approach is based on Zaichkovsky's (1985) proposal of involvement profiles. Still instead of seeing the profile constituted by one or more antecedents, the profile used in this study is built by profile of form of involvement that is different forms of product, purchase decision, advertising and consumption forms of involvement. This study was based on the notion that the consumers will be differentially involved in these four forms and thus they constitute a profile.

These findings led to the hypotheses mentioned above:

- **Hypothesis 1a:** A negative relationship will be found between age of the mother and her fashion involvement for baby's clothes. Therefore the younger the new mother is, the higher fashion involvement in baby's clothing she will have and vice versa.

Studies also indicate differences between single and married parents related to elementary products like school or teacher evaluation for their children (Epstein 1984). Data from 1269 parents of whom 24% were single parents indicates that more pressure is involved in more learning activities with their children and are more involved assisting their school and teachers.

Using marital status as a moderated variable to study whether there is a difference in age and fashion involvement in solo versus partnered mothers is explored in the next hypothesis.

- **Hypothesis 1b: Marital** status moderates the relationship between age and fashion involvement of the new mother so a different relationship will be found between fashion involvement and age base on marital status of the new mother

### **3.4.2. Work status and fashion involvement**

Returning to work during and after pregnancy is influenced by the mother's salary and income. The higher the new mother's earnings the greater the likelihood she will keep her work status continue to work during and after pregnancy and will come back to her work status after giving birth (Toledano, 2007; Laughlin, 2011).

Work status was found to have a positive relationship with fashion involvement where unemployed women were more involved than housewives and retired women (Summers et al., 1992; Tirget et al., 1980).

Employment status was found to significantly relate to shopping involvement. Fashion consumption by full time employed women was more involved amongst housewives and retired women, yet employed women were also found to be more involved in shopping for apparel than retired women. No relationship was found between shopping involvement and education, marital status, or income.

Using 134 new mothers searching their consumption behavior towards luxury clothes for their baby Prendergast, Phau and Wong (2003) show quality is the main criterion the mothers seek when choosing brand clothing. Statements like "luxury brands have good designs" or "Specific luxury brands can show my children's character" indicate the most important criteria for the mothers for buying luxury brands for their infants. The study presents the positive relationship between materialism and expenditure on luxury clothes i.e. the higher expenditure on luxury for infants, the more materialistic are the parents.

Children, especially those who are very young, may not always influence the purchase of products destined for their use. Rowley (1997) suggests five main roles in the decision making process. They are namely: (1) users, who actually use the product or service; (2) influencers, particularly those with previous experience of the service; (3) deciders, the actual decision makers in the use/purchase decision, such as parents for children, or children for parents; (4) approvers who finally authorize the decision within

an organization and (5) buyers, those with the formal authority to buy and act as gatekeepers for purchasing. Users, in the case of infants/babies, are not capable of making their choice of apparel. They have no direct influence on the decision process of the decision-makers, that is the parents. This means the decision process totally lies with the parents.

For children's apparel, the wife is seen to play a dominant role from the information search to the final decision (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1999) yet children may still influence the purchase process.

The scale planned by O'Cass (2000) to measure each of the four involvement's types is established in the following hypothesis.

- **Hypothesis 2a:** A difference in each type of the fashion involvement of the first time mothers regarding her baby's clothes will be found according to her work status. Employed new mothers will have higher fashion involvement in baby's clothing in comparison to unemployed new mothers.

Women these days are more educated deeply integrated in their work place, earn more money than before, are often financially independent and control most of the spending in the household (Barletta, 2003).

Using marital status as a moderated variable to study whether there is a difference in work status and fashion involvement in solo versus partnered mothers it will be interesting to explore the next hypothesis:

- **Hypothesis 2b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between work status and fashion involvement of the new mother for her baby's clothes.

### **3.4.3. Income and fashion involvement**

Based on Barletta (2003) women are now responsible for 83% of the purchase behavior consumption. Today, women are independent financially: they not only work but earning a high income allows them to use and buy much of the household Silverstein et. al. (2003)

Testing 206 young Thai students regarding their luxury fashion behavior shows that the higher pocket money (monthly income) the students had, the higher intention and consumption power the person has (Tovikkai & Jirawattananukool, 2010). The popular literature shows that income influences family consumption in terms of education products, health services and clothing or the new born where the new mother's high income affords high saving assets she will have for the baby especially where single mothers have less income and therefore will have less luxury expenses ( Xieao, 1996). A positive relationship between income and fashion involvement was seen also in Magie and Ashlock's (2008) study that tested 440 male and female consumer on demographic variables and their significant relationship to fashion involvement. The study finds a significant relationship with respect to gender (female teens have greater involvement than male teens) and to the consumer's income where the higher income he or she has the higher the fashion involvement they will have.

- **Hypothesis 3a:** A positive relationship will be found between the mother's income and her fashion involvement for baby's clothes. The higher the new mother's income the more fashion involved she will be in the baby's clothing and vice versa. Moreover, since it has not been found in the literature it will be very interesting to explore whether marital status moderates the influence between income and involvement so the following hypothesis is reviewed.
- **Hypothesis 3b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between income and fashion involvement of the new mother regarding baby's clothes, so a different relationship will be found between income and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother

#### **3.4.4. Education and fashion involvement**

Education was tested as a relative variable influencing the women's income whereas the higher education the women has the higher income she will potential have. Despite this logical assumption the study Best et al., (2008) show a negative relationship between education and fashion involvement. Nevertheless, the researcher based her hypothesis on the research showing that educated consumers will search for and better

understand the information regarding the new products (Sridhar, 2007; Fernandez-Polanco, Luna & Sanchez, 2008).

- **Hypothesis 4a:** A positive relationship will be found between education and fashion involvement of the new mother regarding her baby's clothes. The higher the new mother's education, the more fashion involved she will be in the baby's clothing and vice versa.

Using marital status as a moderated variable to study whether there is a difference in education and fashion involvement in solo versus partnered mothers it will be interesting to explore the next hypothesis.

- **Hypothesis 4b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between education and fashion involvement., so a different relationship will be found between education of the mother and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother

#### **3.4.5. Marital status and fashion involvement:**

Studies by Keum –Hee and Rucker (1995) as well as Mukoko (2011) have studied fashion interest of married and single\_women in clothing finding that single women have more involvement in fashion clothes compared to married women because they have more free income and need to be more attractive than married women (Mukoko 2011) Time spent on reading (purchase decision involvement) the latest fashion in clothing and updating on fashion was higher in single students compared to married students as well as time spent on shopping and response to new changing fashion.

These studies lead us to the following hypothesis:

- **Hypothesis 5:** A difference in fashion involvement in baby's clothes will be found according to the mother's marital status. Thus partnered new mothers will have higher fashion involvement in baby clothing in comparison to solo new mothers.

#### **3.4.6. Price perception and fashion involvement**

Consumer price perception can be viewed as related to the consumer's behavior in a positive or negative way (Xu 2000; McFatter, 2004). High price in a positive way can indicate high quality and prestige style. Other consumers may view price negatively

decreasing their financial resources. Prestige sensitivity and price/quality are the two factors used to represent the positive role of price (Xu, 2000);

Prestige sensitivity refers to the tendency to acknowledge other customers or to be sensitive to the attribution made by other customers. It is related to socially visible behaviors where price/quality perception influenced by cues reinforces validity of using a price indicator for quality. A strong price/quality perception indicates the firm belief that price indicates the product's quality. All items are scored on seven-point Likert-type scales ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree (Xu, 2000).

Based on popular scholarship (McFatter, 2004; O'Cass, 2000) price perception is a good predictor for fashion clothes involvement but can be a positive or negative relationship. In McFatter's (2004) study having high price perception does not indicate high quality but can predict positive prestige sensitivity where respondents were concerned with prestige associated with high price (high price indicates high prestige but not necessarily high quality).

The influence of price perception on quality is different in different ages. Shang (2009) saw that young residents aged 18-21 had a positive price perception where they associate high priced textile leather and fur with high quality products.

Testing 400 males in two Indian cities (Akarte & Amishi, 2012) showed that people are willing to pay a premium price for fashionable clothing and consumers pay a higher price for a brand have a positive attitude and note higher symbolic benefits from the product.

Consumer buying and the willingness to pay a premium is an important concept along with product involvement as they are involved with a specific product like fashion clothing

This led to the following hypotheses:

- **Hypothesis 6a:** A positive relationship will be found between price /quality of the new mothers and fashion involvement for baby clothes. Thus the higher the fashion involvement of the new mother, the higher the price perception purchases will be and vice versa
- **Hypothesis 7a:** A positive relationship will be found between prestige sensitivity of the new mother and fashion involvement for baby's clothes Thus the higher the new mother's fashion involvement, the higher the price perception purchases will be and vice versa.

Also as regards prestige sensitivity, the researcher hypothesizes whether there is moderation between prestige sensitivity and fashion involvement types by marital status and wishes to explore whether marital status moderates the relationship between personality traits and fashion involvement of the new mother to baby clothing . The follow hypothesis was tested:

- **Hypothesis 6b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between price/quality and fashion involvement of the new mother so a different relationship will be found between price /quality and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother
- **Hypothesis 7b** Marital status moderates the relationship between prestige sensitivity of the new mother and fashion involvement of the new mother, so a different relationship will be found between price prestige and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother

#### **3.4.7. Media usage and fashion involvement**

Consumers use friends or mass media who have sources of knowledge for their products and are basing their behaviors, values, attitudes or skills through observation of other individuals or watching print or electronic media (O'Cass, 2001; Ribeiro, Tsourvakas & Santos, 2008).

Media usage is related to time spent on consumption behavior, and the amount of Information the consumer is using during his consumption behavior.

Based on Bronfenbrenner's (1986) ecological theory, researchers on the transition to parenthood emphasize the interplay between individuals, families, and the larger social context. The ecological model assumes that individuals develop two systems relevant to their role: the micro-system refers to the nearest surrounding and the macro system. In the new mother's identity the micro-system refers to the partner and her child and interaction at home and macro system refers to the interactions with other mothers and the outside. Blogging internet and other social networking as well as magazines and televisions are used as guides to improve the macro-system interaction of the new mother explaining the increasing in using mass media after having a child (Bronfenbrenner, 1986; McDaniel, Coyne and Holmes, 2012.).

Involvement is an intermediate variable in information processing in a way that higher involvement is the higher media the consumer will use. The higher involvement the consumer has, the more media the consumer uses including the number of magazines, number of shops, the adventure in the online web or TV, and movies he or she will use during the purchasing procedure (O'Cass, 2001).

Based on two focus groups including young Greek and Portuguese respondents Ribeiro, Tsourvakas and Santos (2008) find that advertising in magazines, word of mouth, the social group and store environment are the main factors that influence clothing purchasing. Interviewees in both countries were similar showing that the favorite consumer behavior was using shopping as a free information source. In fashion clothes mass communications as well as word of mouth communication influences the purchasing decision especially among young consumers aged 20-24.

Media usage was described as a predictor for fashion involvement for affluent females. Participants were asked about their usage of fashion information including magazines, TV shows, movies, Internet movies and catalogs and their fashion involvement in all dimensions (knowledgibility).

There is a positive relationship between media usage and fashion involvement and scholars can say that media usage, time and amount of information a person is collecting about fashion clothes predict its involvement meaning the more information the higher involvement (McFatter 2005).

Within the literature time search behavior was measured relative to time spent, the number of stores visited, the number of product alternatives and the number of friends consulted (Punj & Staelin 1983; Spiekermann, Strobel & Temme 2001).

Studies have shown the relationship between purchase involvement and time spent: the more involvement the person has the more information he or she will use both offline and online markets meaning the more stores visited the more alternatives searched and the more pages the consumer will seek in the Internet (Bar Zuri 2009). The importance of the data sources during the evaluation stage is a variable concerning the data source the new mother uses.

These studies lead us to the following hypothesis:

- **Hypothesis 8a:** A positive relationship will be found between media usage of the new mother and fashion involvement for baby's clothes. Thus the more media usage the new mother is using the higher is her fashion involvement and vice versa

Partnered and solo new mothers use the internet and MOMMI blogs after birth for advice, comments and information (Coyne Erin & Holmes 2012). New mothers spend approximately three hours on the computer each day, with most of this time spent on the Internet. Since the frequency of blogging is related to the extended family it is

interesting to see if single mothers will spend more time blogging and searching for information from the internet and other mass media compared to partnered mothers.

- **Hypothesis 8b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between media usage and fashion involvement, so a different relationship will be found between media usage of the new mother and fashion involvement base on the marital status of the new mother

#### **3.4.8. Personality traits and fashion involvement**

The personality traits included in the analyses are the consumer's self-confidence and public self-consciousness. Self-confidence refers to the inner tendency to focus attention on the self and the way a person view his motives, feelings and inner part of himself. Public self-consciousness refers to the person as a social object concerned with how others view the self and the impression one makes on others (Scheier, Buss & Buss, 1978). Self-confidence is described as measurement of the perception of oneself as a leader having confidence where public self-consciousness is defined as the extent to which people are concerned about their appearance, style of behavior and general impression they make (Wells & Tigert, 1971).

Clothing brands often have identities and images. Customers seek clothes that match their self-image and social context (Evans, 1989). The individual self-image and expression of identity in particular, especially reflect the "right "clothes and stores the consumer is seeking. This clothing behavior is influenced by the group's norms and is a means of communication. The group influence is very important in addressing the way the consumer has an "accurate" impression and "acceptance" in the group (O'Cass, 2001).

Personality traits can predict fashion involvement in a way that consumers having higher self-confidence and public self-consciousness will have higher fashion involvement (McFatter, 2005). Fashion clothing involvement gives people the opportunity to express themselves and to fulfill values such as acquisition and

happiness, assist in portraying acceptable images and help them to express to others an ideal self and become means for impression and social acceptance.

Self-confidence and public self-consciousness are two parts of personality traits that are seen as affecting the consumer behavior. Different consumers have different self-perception, different attitudes or response to fashion clothing products while persons having high self confidence in fashion, for example, are often considered to be the fashion leaders and consumers having low self-confidence, and are often led and influenced by the role leader (Goldsmith, 1998; Guttman & Mills, 1982). Fashion leaders are among of the first to purchase the products, playing a model role for all the other customers, and their reaction influences the success or failure of the product. Fashion leaders spend more money, time, and interest on shopping for new products and enjoy shopping more than followers (Xu, 2001; Srivastava et al., 2012).

Wells and Tigert (1971) show that personality traits (self-confidence public self-fashion consciousness) are related to consumer behavior and those who have a high level of involvement in fashion may have generally high leadership abilities, measured by self-confidence and high relationship with fashion consciousness and shopping enjoyment (Angelo 2010).

The results lead to the following hypotheses:

- **Hypothesis 9a:** A positive relationship will be found between the new mother's self-confidence and fashion involvement for baby clothes Thus the higher the new mother's self-confidence, the more fashion involved she will be and vice versa.
- **Hypothesis 10a:** A positive relationship will be found between public self-consciousness of the new mother and fashion involvement for baby clothes. Thus the greater the new mother's public self-consciousness, the greater her fashion involvement and vice versa.

Using marital status as a moderating variable the researcher wished to explore the following hypotheses.

- **Hypothesis 9b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between the new mother's self-confidence and fashion involvement. Thus a different relationship will be found between self-confidence of the new mother and fashion involvement based on the marital status of the new mother.
- **Hypothesis 10b:** Marital status is a variable moderating the relationship between public self-consciousness and fashion involvement for baby clothes, so a different relationship will be found between public self-consciousness of the new mother and fashion involvement based on the marital status of the new mother.

#### **3.4.9. Age as a moderating variable**

Since age and gender were found to be important and significant influences on product and purchase decisions regarding fashion involvement, the researcher was curious to discover whether age has a moderating influence on the diversity between young single and partnered mothers compared to older single and partnered mothers. Because age has a significant negative influence on fashion involvement and it can be used as a moderating variable with the new mother's marital status, the researcher wished to test the following:

- **Hypothesis 11.** The new mother's age moderates the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement for baby clothes. .so a different relationship will be found between marital status and fashion involvement based on the new mother's age.

#### **3.4.10 Self-confidence as a moderating variable**

Self confidence, especially self-confidence relating to the amount of confidence a person has when making a specific purchase decision is considered to affect the risk perception and involvement. The greater a person's self confidence, the greater the product involvement he or she feels for the product. Since self-confidence influences the product involvement it is interesting to discover if solo and partnered new mothers with high self-confidence will have lesser diversity when self confidence is high, and high and significant diversity between the two groups will exist when self confidence is low. This leads to the following hypothesis:

- **Hypothesis 12:** The new mother's self-confidence moderates the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement for baby clothes so a different relationship will be found between marital status and fashion involvement base on the new other's self confidence

## **Chapter 4: Empirical Research**

### **4.1 The research population**

The research population includes 247 first time mothers in Israel who had their first child within the last two years. It included many new mothers aged 18-24 with between low education (not completing high school) and high education (having a first degree and higher) new mothers with high and low income and a variety range of work status. It only includes Jewish mothers because of their high percentage in the population and the fact that Arab mothers is more traditional. The study includes religious and non religious mothers all living in Israel. The population was from all over Israel - Jerusalem, North, South, and the Center of Israel.

### **4.2. The research sample and data collection**

In order to determine a credible and reliable study (Guba & Lincoln, 1985; Hirschman 1986) the sample included 247 first time Jewish mothers of whom 141 are in a partnered relationship and 106 are solo new mothers. In both samples the baby's age was 0-24 months. The sample included new mothers aged 18-24 with between low education (not completing high school) and high education (having a first degree and higher) new mothers with high and low income and a variety range of work status

This study focused on solo new mothers including single mothers, widows or divorced mothers regardless of the reason they are alone. Even so, this researcher presumes that only a few mothers, if any, will divorce while becoming a mother, hence she expects the sample to include single or widowed new mothers only. The sample included only non-religious Jewish mothers because of the differentiation between this segment and the Arabic or religious mothers.

In order to create a reliable and dependable study that meets all the required and registered criteria (Guba & Lincoln, 1985; Hirschman, 1986) reduced questions were used to assure that this is the firstborn baby.

The source for the data sample was the Family Health Care Center for Mothers and Infants in each city in Israel that helps and assists new mothers. Before or after a medical examination (usually before) the mother was asked for her agreement to answer the questionnaire, thus affording the group of willing mothers.

Approximately 85% of the new mothers were willing to answer the personal questionnaire which lasted about 25 minutes.

The filtered question enabled the researcher to identify only the new mothers of first babies aged 0-2. She found 106 solo mothers from choice and 141 in a partnered relationship 138 of whom were partnered and three of whom were in a relationship without an institutionalized connection.

The questionnaire was based on O'Cass (2000, 2001) Viera and Slongo (2006) McFatter (2002) and Yang and Chuang (2008). The questionnaire (see appendix no 8.3) developed through reviewing the existing measures for the present research. Instead of seeing the profile as constituted by one or more antecedents, fashion involvement of the new mother profile (Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (MCFIP) was measured and designed specifically to underpin the four forms proposed including the following types:

- 1.1 The product involvement scale includes nine items that represent the degree to which the consumer is involved in fashion clothing.
- 1.2 The purchase decision construct contains ten items that represent the degree to which the consumer is involved in the purchase decision of fashion clothing.
- 1.3 The consumption involvement construct contains three items that represent the degree to which the consumer is involved in the consumption of or wears fashion clothing.
- 1.4 The advertising involvement construct contains eight items representing the degree to which the consumer is involved in advertising communications concerning fashion clothing.

For each type of involvement the researcher used the seven-point Likert scale wherein 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree. The respondents were asked relate their marital status their price perception personality traits, media usage and demographic variables.

The results were tested using Spearman correlation, Pearson correlation, MANOVA test and one-step regression.

### **4.3 The research variables**

#### **4.3.1. Independent variables**

##### **4.3.1.1. Selected demographic characteristics**

###### **a. Household income**

The researcher wanted to test if the monthly average income of the mother is higher, similar to or lower than the typical income of families in Israel. The respondent were asked to answer question using the Likert scale were 1- means income lower the average and 5 means higher income above the average

By using the income variable she could attain the mother's total monthly income from her work from capital, pensions, social insurance funds and from allowances and assistance including the partner's income if there was such.

The average net money income in Israel 2012 is about 12.939 NIS (equal to U.S. \$4000) per household (CBS 2012 table 5.28) where:

- A family with a net monthly income of less than 12,939 NIS is considered a low income
- A family with a net monthly Income of more than 12939 NIS is considered a higher income than average.

The sources for net income can be from work, from capital, from pensions, social insurance funds and from allowances and assistance  
([http://www.cbs.gov.il/shnaton63/st05\\_28x.pdf](http://www.cbs.gov.il/shnaton63/st05_28x.pdf))

b. Age of the new mother

The respondents in this study were aged 18-43 and categorized themselves in one of the three categories:

- 1) Aged 8-24
- 2) Aged 25- 34
- 3) Aged 35-43

c. Education of the new mother

In Israel, by the law, people must complete 12 years of high school sponsored by the government. Even though about 15% do not finish high school, 10 -12 years of schooling are considered low education (CBS 2004, table 2 (A1.2a).

After completing compulsory military service at the age of 21, the young adult may continue studying at university for academic degrees. Another choice of higher education can refer to studying in a professional college for high-education equal to a university degree.

d. Work status of the new mother

The mothers asked in related to their work status using three categories base on the Ministry of Industry of Israel Trade and Labor labor law (1993). The first category refers to mothers working full time i.e. between 30-40 hours a week or 150- 200 hours a month. The second category is part time work of between 10-30 hours a week (i.e.50-150 hours a month). The third category includes mothers with no job or working randomly for a maximum 10 hours a week

4.3.1.2. Price perceptions: The mothers were asked related to their price perception including both price quality and price prestige. Two validated indices, developed by Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netermeyer (1993) were used to measure price/quality and sensitivity to prestige.

Since price perception contains both price quality and price prestige each was measured with different items:

- The price perception prestige sensitivity contained eight items measuring the new mother's price prestige and her values and beliefs related to high priced

products For example: Buying a high price brand makes me feel good about myself.

- The price perception price/ quality contained four items measuring the new mother's appreciation for price as predicting quality. For example: Generally speaking, the higher the price of the product, the higher the quality.

All the items

A seven-item index used to measure the items were 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree (Xu, 2000) Using Alpha Cronbach the reliability the two items was tested: price quality -0.87 and price prestige - 0.91) ..

#### 4.3.1.3 Media usage

Based on Verbeke and Vackier (2004) the decision making was scored on four items with 5 –point scales ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” for both spending time, comparing alternatives, using information sources, consulting with others, and impacts from mass and personal information. The sources included commercial sources (internet, television radio, magazines, newspapers, advertising and government information) and personal sources (professional, friends' and relative's opinions). The purchasing behavior was relevant to socio-demographic variables including age, income, education and marital status of the new mother. Participants were asked to indicate their usage of the above fashion information

The media usage contains seven items representing the new mother's exposure to mass media, internet, blogs etc. Each item was measured on a five-point scale, with 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree The reliability of the items was tested showing high reliability(0.90)

#### 4.3.1.4. Personality traits

The personality traits included in the analyses are the consumer’s self-confidence and public self-consciousness.

Since personality traits contain self-confidence and public self-consciousness each was measured using different items using seven-point scale, with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree (Xu 2000; Angelo2010).:

- The new mother's self-confidence represents her secure assurance, as a mother, and was measured using six items. For example: "As a mother I am more independent than most mothers".
- The public self-consciousness represents her awareness and the good impression the new mother wish to make and includes seven items For example "As a mother I'm self-conscious about the way my baby looks".

- 

Wells and Tigert (1971) confirm the self-confidence index to measure consumers' perceptions of themselves as confident leaders One item was reverse coded to follow the same order. Fenigstein, Scheier and Buss's (1975) index was used to measure public self-consciousness. The seven-point Likert-type scale measured the degree to which a person expresses an awareness of self as a social object with an effect on others. Each item in both scales was summed to produce two personality totals: self-confidence score and public self-consciousness.

#### **4.3.2. Dependent variables**

Fashion involvement: The validated fashion involvement index developed by Tigert et al. (1976) was used to measure consumers' traditional attitude toward fashion products. Four dimensions were included in the index as follows: fashion innovativeness and time of purchase, fashion interpersonal communication, fashion interest, fashion knowledge ability, fashion awareness and reactions to changing fashion trends.

The response options for two of the items measuring fashion involvement (fashion innovativeness and time of purchase, and, fashion awareness and reaction to changing fashion trends), were ordered in a reverse direction from the other three items of the fashion involvement index. These two variables were reversed in the coding procedure. Each of the first four dimensions was measured by a single item on a three-point scale with 1 = least fashion involved and 3 = highest fashion involved. A five-point scale for a single item was used to measure the fifth dimension with 1 = least fashion involvement and 5 = highest fashion involvement. Reliability analysis produced a Cronbach's alpha

of 0.76 indicating high intra-correlations among the five items used to measure fashion involvement (Xu 2000). In the current study, the responses measuring fashion involvement were standardized and then summed to form a single fashion involvement score. The seven scales of the fashion involvement's items were statistically significant and correlated to each other with scores of between .34 and .65. This further confirms the reliability of the scale (ibid).

The four dimensions of involvement represent basic types that related to a consumer's environment. Involvement was maintained as an enduring relationship between a consumer and an object rather than a temporary or situational one. O'Cass (2000) develops scales to measure each "first-order" involvement and uses preliminary tests of the involvement scales to determine the internal reliability of the model. The product involvement scale contained items that represent the degree to which the consumer was involved in the product of fashion clothing. Instead of seeing the profile as constituted by one or more antecedents, fashion involvement of the new mother profile (Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (MCFIP) was measured and designed specifically to underpin the four forms proposed including the following types (O'Cass 2000 2001):

- Product involvement - a consumer's level of interest in a particular product (Solomon et. al. 2004). The scale includes nine items that represent the degree to which the consumer is involved in fashion clothing. For example: "I am very interested in fashion clothing"
- Purchase involvement - a consumer's measure of personal significance relating to purchasing activities (Slama & Tashchian, 1985). The scale included ten items that represent the degree to which the consumer is involved in the purchase decision of fashion clothing. For example "I think a lot about my choices when it comes to fashion clothing for my baby".
- Advertising involvement - a consumer's interest in processing marketing communications (Solomon et al 2004). The scale contains eight items representing the degree to which the consumer is involved in advertising communications

concerning fashion clothing. For example "I pay a lot of attention to ads for fashion clothing for babies"

- Consumption involvement refers to the procedure itself, information collection adopting new brands. the scale contains three items that represent the degree to which the consumer is involved in the consumption of or wears fashion clothing. For example "Buying fashion clothing for my baby is one of the most satisfying and enjoyable things I do".
- All four dimensions were asked using Likert Scale (1-7) and the internal consistency was tested producing high reliability of the product involvement(0.97), advertising involvement (0.9), the purchase decision involvement(0.94) and consumption involvement(0.91) The internal consistency of the mix dimension CFIP was also high( 0.97).
-

## **Chapter 5: Findings and Analysis**

Each returned questionnaire was coded and entered into an SPSS data file. The data were cross-checked and corrected. Frequency analyses were employed to verify that the data were normally distributed. Descriptive statistics were conducted to examine respondents' expected means and ranges were used to interpret the results of the frequency analyses because normative scores for the variables do not exist

To test hypothesis 1, 3-4, 6-10 Pearson's and Spearman's correlation analyses were used to determine if a strong relationship exists between fashion involvement and the independent variables.

To test hypothesis 2, 5, 11, 12 one way MANOVA test were made using Hotelling Trace Chapter Number 5 includes the findings and consist three parts that incorporate the flow of information from one to another.

### **5.1: Sample composition – general characteristics**

This section describes the demographic variables of the mothers' research sample according to the following characteristics: continuous variable :baby's age, time living with a partner, new mother's age, income, and education, and discrete variables including marital status and work status each for partnered and solo new mothers. The research included 247 new mothers whose first baby is aged 0-2 years of age, according to table no. 4-1.

**Table no. 4.1: Sample – general characteristics**

| Variable    | Variable Segmentation                                      | Partnered Mothers | Solo Mothers |       |
|-------------|--|-------------------|--------------|-------|
|             |  | n<br>%            | n            | %     |
| Number      |  | 141<br>72.68      | 106          | 41.92 |
| Age         | 18-24  | 17<br>12.06       | 10           | 9.43  |
|             | 25-34  | 99<br>70.21       | 34           | 32.08 |
|             | 35-42  | 23<br>16.31       | 58           | 54.72 |
|             | Up to 42 years old   | 2<br>1.42         | 4            | 3.77  |
| Education   | Low education (high school) up to 12 years                 | 31<br>21.99       | 36           | 33.96 |
|             | High education /first degree (12-15 years of studying)     | 77<br>54.61       | 46           | 43.40 |
|             | High education /second degree and more (15 years and more) | 33<br>23.40       | 24           | 22.64 |
| Income      | Low income   | 65<br>46.10       | 68           | 64.15 |
|             | Average income   | 51<br>36.17       | 24           | 22.64 |
|             | High income  | 22<br>15.54       | 10           | 9.44  |
| Work status | Not employed   | 22<br>15.60       | 8            | 7.50  |
|             | Part time job  | 48<br>34.00       | 32           | 30.20 |
|             | Full time job  | 66<br>46.80       | 61           | 58.50 |
|             | Not mentioned  | 5<br>3.50         | 4            | 3.80  |

As can be seen from table no 4.1, about 70% of the sample are aged 25-34, 54% of whom have higher education (first degree) and 46% have an income lower than the average.

The sample characteristics resemble those in the population (CBS, 2008) showing the average age of the mother is 26.5-29.3 years, and 54% of the Israel population has at least a first degree.

### **Marital status distribution**

Table no. 4.2 represents the distribution between new mothers' marital status showing that 57.08% of the new mothers have a partner and 43% are solo not in a relationship . Out of the partnered mothers 98% are partnered and the rest (2%) are in a cohabiting relationship

All the single mothers are single mothers by choice.

**Table no. 4.2: Distribution of the new mothers based on their marital status (n=247)**

| <b>Variable segmentation</b> | <i>n</i> | %     |
|------------------------------|----------|-------|
| Partnered mothers            | 141      | 57.08 |
| Partnered                    | 138      | 97.87 |
| Living with a partner        | 3        | 2.12  |
| Solo mothers                 | 106      | 42.92 |
| Single by choice             | 106      | 100   |

### **Residential area distribution**

Table no. 4.3 represents the distribution of the new mothers based on their place of residence, showing that most of the survey (37% partnered and 18% solo new mothers) live in central Israel. This distribution is a mirror of the same distribution within the population (CBS 2000, table 12:5).

**Table no. 4.3: Distribution of the new mothers based on residential area and marital status**

| Residential area categories | PARTNERED MOTHERS |            | SOLO MOTHERS |            |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|                             | <i>n</i>          | %          | <i>n</i>     | %          |
| <b>Residential Area</b>     | <b>141</b>        | <b>100</b> | <b>106</b>   | <b>100</b> |
| Jerusalem                   | 13                | 9.22       | 2            | 1.89       |
| Northern Israel             | 7                 | 4.96       | 14           | 13.21      |
| Haifa                       | 16                | 11.35      | 8            | 7.55       |
| Central Israel              | 53                | 37.59      | 20           | 18.87      |
| Southern Israel             | 10                | 7.09       | 6            | 5.66       |
| Judea and Samaria           | 9                 | 6.38       | 0            | 0          |
| Not noted                   | 33                | 23.40      | 56           | 52.83      |

Table no. 4.4 describes the distribution of continuous demographic variables: the new baby's age and period of time living with a partner as related to the marital status of the new mother

The findings also suggests a statistical significant difference between partnered and solo mothers as related to the new mother's age or date of birth ( $t=5.29^{***}$ ). Also, the new baby's age was significantly different between solo mothers' baby (the average age

of 12.85 months old) and partnered mothers whose baby was of 12.49 months old ( $t=2.50^{***}$ ).

**Table no.4.4 Continuous probability distribution of the new mothers and their baby's age and period of time living with a partner**

| VARIABLE                   | PARTNERED MOTHERS |          |           | SOLO MOTHERS |          |           | DIFFERENCE |          |
|----------------------------|-------------------|----------|-----------|--------------|----------|-----------|------------|----------|
|                            | <i>n</i>          | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>n</i>     | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>df</i>  | <i>t</i> |
| Years with partner         | 106               | 4.95     | 2.545     | 8            | 2.31     | 1.580     | 112        | 0.69     |
| Baby's age (month)         | 133               | 12.49    | 8.07      | 100          | 12.35    | 12.85     | 231        | 2.50*    |
| Date of arriving to Israel | 24                | 1987.96  | 19.36     | 10           | 1989.00  | 11.77     | 32         | 0.11     |
| Date of birth              | 108               | 1983.71  | 4.00      | 50           | 1976.68  | 6.36      | 53         | 5.29***  |

\*  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$

### Distribution of education

Table no. 4.5 describes the discrete probability distribution of the new mother's education as related to marital status, showing there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups as regards marital status. Most of the mothers (more than 50% of partnered mothers and 43% of the solo mothers) have a higher education of between 12-15 years (B.A.).

**Table no. 4.5 : Distribution of the new mother's education as related to marital status**

| <u>Education categories</u>                                | PARTNERED MOTHERS |              | SOLO MOTHERS |            |
|--|-------------------|--------------|--------------|------------|
|  | <i>N</i>          | %            | <i>n</i>     | %          |
|  | <b>141</b>        | <b>100.0</b> | <b>106</b>   | <b>100</b> |
| Low education (high school) up to 12 years                 | 31                | 21.99        | 36           | 33.96      |
| High education /first degree(12-15 years of studying)      | 77                | 54.61        | 46           | 43.40      |
| High education /second degree and more (15 years and more) | 33                | 23.40        | 24           | 22.64      |

### Distribution of the work status

Table no. 4.6 describes the discrete probability distribution of the new mother's work status as related to marital status. It demonstrates that most of the partnered new mothers (46.80%) and 56.80% of the solo mothers work full time and only 30% approximately, of the solo and partnered new mothers work part time. These differences are not significantly different and both solo and partnered mothers are distributed in the sample as they are in the population More than half of the mothers (58% of the solo mothers and 54.7% of the partnered mothers) work full time, and 33% of solo and 28.9% of the partnered mothers work part time (<http://www.newfamily.org.il/en/2010>

**Table no. 4.6: Distribution of the working status of the new mother**

| Working status' categories       | PARTNERED MOTHERS |            | SOLO MOTHERS |            |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|                                  | n                 | %          | n            | %          |
|                                  | <b>141</b>        | <b>100</b> | <b>106</b>   | <b>100</b> |
| Other (0)                        | 9                 | 6.38       | 4            | 3.77       |
| Student                          | 12                | 8.51       | 2            | 1.89       |
| Employed                         | 55                | 39.01      | 24           | 22.64      |
| Unemployed                       | 7                 | 4.96       | 8            | 7.55       |
| Not seeking work                 | 8                 | 5.67       | 4            | 3.77       |
| Self-employed                    | 10                | 7.09       | 2            | 1.89       |
| Low management position          | 5                 | 3.55       | 4            | 3.77       |
| Intermediate management position | 2                 | 1.42       | 2            | 1.89       |
| Not stated                       | 33                | 23.40      | 56           | 52.83      |
| <b>Work Status</b>               | <b>141</b>        | <b>100</b> | <b>106</b>   | <b>100</b> |
| Unemployed                       | 22                | 15.60      | 8            | 7.50       |
| Part time job                    | 48                | 34.00      | 32           | 30.20      |
| Full time job                    | 66                | 46.80      | 61           | 58.50      |
| Not stated                       | 5                 | 3.50       | 4            | 3.80       |

- **Income distribution**

Table no. 4.7 describes the discrete probability distribution of the new mother's income as related to marital status. This demonstrates that most of the partnered new mothers (36.17%) have an average income and only 22.64% of the solo mothers have an average income. About 64% % of the solo mothers and 46.4 % of the partnered mothers are having low or far below income and only 10 % solo and 14 % partnered mothers are having high income.

The average income in Israel is 8000 NIS based on CBU 2009 table no. 4.3.

**Table no. 4.7: Distribution of income categories**

| Income's categories | PARTNERED MOTHERS |       | SOLO MPTHERS |       |
|---------------------|-------------------|-------|--------------|-------|
|                     | 141               | 100   | 106          | 100.0 |
| No income           | 0                 | 0     | 2            | 1.89  |
| Far below average   | 26                | 18.44 | 38           | 35.85 |
| Below average       | 39                | 27.66 | 30           | 28.30 |
| Near average        | 51                | 36.17 | 24           | 22.64 |
| Above average       | 18                | 12.77 | 8            | 7.55  |
| Far above average   | 4                 | 2.84  | 2            | 1.89  |
| Other               | 3                 | 2.13  | 2            | 1.89  |

### **Religious distribution**

Table no. 4.8 represents the distribution of solo and partnered and religious new mothers showing that most of the new mothers (75.9 % of partnered mothers and 47.20% of the solo mothers) are Jews. The others did not mention any religious attitudes important to them. The survey was defined as non-religious mothers.

**Table no. 4.8: The distribution of the new mothers' religious attitudes, segmented according to the mother's family status**

| <b>Religious status' categories</b> | <b>PARTNERED MOTHERS</b> |            | <b>SOLO MOTHERS</b> |            |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|------------|---------------------|------------|
|                                     | <i>n</i>                 | %          | <i>n</i>            | %          |
|                                     | <b>141</b>               | <b>100</b> | <b>106</b>          | <b>100</b> |
| Jewish                              | 107                      | 75.90      | 50                  | 47.20      |
| No religion                         | 1                        | 0.71       | 0                   | 0          |
| Not stated                          | 33                       | 23.40      | 56                  | 52.80      |

### **Age categories distribution**

Table no. 4.9 represents the distribution of solo and partnered new mothers and their age categories, showing that most of the partnered mothers (approximately 70%) are aged 25-34 years and most of the solo mothers (60%) are aged 35-42 years. These findings are not statistically significantly different, and represent the age distribution in the population (CBS 2000, Table 12:5). The mother's age median was 25-34.

**Table no. 4.9: The distribution of age groups as related to the segmentation of the mother's family status**

| Age group's categories | PARTNERED MOTHERS |       | SOLO MOTHERS |       |
|------------------------|-------------------|-------|--------------|-------|
|                        | 141               | 100.0 | 106          | 100.0 |
| 18-24                  | 17                | 12.06 | 5            | 5.43  |
| 25-34                  | 99                | 70.21 | 34           | 32.08 |
| 35-44                  | 23                | 16.31 | 67           | 59.72 |

## **5.2 Description of the research continuous variable**

This section examined the research hypotheses and showed how they were examined using regression analysis, MANOVA test, Pearson, Spearman, and Fisher Z for moderation.

The analysis used the SPSS statistical software packages, and each returned questionnaire was coded and entered into SPSS data file. The data were cross-checked and corrected. In order to verify that data were normally distributed, and frequency analyses were conducted. Before testing hypotheses, verification of the reliability and dimensionality of the constructs was needed. Therefore, the first step of data analysis was to purify the measurement scales and to identify their dimensionality. For the purpose of purification coefficient alpha. techniques were used: factor analysis, item-to-total correlation.

- (1) To confirm the dimensionality of the construct, principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted.
- (2) Item-to-total correlation was used to identify the extent of the common core that a variable belongs to the domain of the concept (i.e. the dimension). Cronbach alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of each

In the next step, in order to test hypothesis number five Pearson's and Spearman's correlation analyses were used to determine if a strong relationship exists between fashion involvement and the independent and demographic variables. (Pearson when the variable was linear dependent and Spearman for nonparametric variables and can be described using a monotonic function). In the following step, the relationships between research variables were assessed. The following statistical techniques were employed to test the hypotheses:

- (1) Analysis of variance and multivariate analysis of variance were adopted to distinguish the differences among variables or groups. The F-ratios were calculated to tell whether there were differences among various comparison groups. If it showed that the differences were statistically significant, so Scheff's multiple range comparison tests were used to discover the differences among groups.
- (2) To test hypotheses, a two-step hierarchical regression was used to assess which, if any, variables were statistically significant in predicting fashion involvement. The first step used the selected-demographic were entered into the analysis.

### **5.3 Statistical inference - examination of research hypotheses**

In this section multiple regression was conducted to predict which variables are the most significant, and their impact on Mother Consumer Involvement. The researcher conducted stepwise hierarchic regression for all the variables both in solo and in partnered mothers within all the variables of the model.

In the next section I present the analysis of the research hypotheses and describe how they were examined both amongst partnered and solo mothers.

#### **5.3.1. Statistical test**

The tests been used in this chapter include Pearson correlation, Spearman correlation, MANOVA, ZFisher, hierarchic stepwise regression and Bonferroni correction. The researcher used the Pearson correlation for all the ordinal variables: age of the mother, income and education.

#### 5.3.1.1 Spearman correlation

The Spearman correlation coefficient, often denoted by the Greek letter  $\rho$  (rho) or as  $T_s$ , is a statistical measure of the strength of monotonic relationship between paired data and in order to use Spearman correlation the sample must contain interval or ordinal ratio, and monotonic related between paired data,

Spearman correlation can range from +1 to -1 when

$T_s=+1$  means strong positive relationship between the data and

$T_s=-1$  reflect to negative correlation between the data and

$T_s=0$  its implies no (monotonic) correlation

In this study the researcher used Spearman correlation between each type of fashion involvement and dependent ordinal variables including: mother's age, her income and her education.

The results indicate the correlation between the variables and its significance.

#### 5.3.1.2 Pearson correlation (r)

The Pearson Product Moment correlation refers to as the PPMCC or PCC or Pearson's (r) for a degree of linear relationship between two variables and reflects the degree to which the variables are related. Pearson correlation assumes the following: 1) interval or ratio level between the variables; 2) linear related; and 3) bivariate normally distributed.

The Pearson correlation ranges from +1 to -1 where

$r=+1$  means there is perfect positive linear relationship between the two variables

$r=-1$  means that the correlation is perfect negative linear relationship between the two variables and its correlation

When the coefficient  $r=0$  it means there is no linear relationship between the two variables.

The researcher used the Person correlation to measure linear correlation between fashion involvement types (product involvement, purchase decision involvement, consumption involvement, advertising involvement and the consumer involvement that is the MCFIP) with the following independent interval variables: media usage by the mother, her prestige sensitivity, price/quality perception, and personality traits including self-confidence and public self-consciousnesses. Those are all interval variables having an interval range.

The results suggest the relationship, if any, between the variables and imply its significance.

#### 5.3.1.3 Fisher's Z

When the sample distribution for Pearson's was not normally distributed, the researcher used Fisher transformation - the "Fisher's Z" - that converts Pearson to normally distributed variables Z'. The two attributes of the Z Fisher distribution are 1) it is normal and 2) has standard error of. The Z Fisher is been used for computing confidence intervals on Pearson's correlation and for confidence intervals on the difference between correlation

In this study the researcher used Z Fisher within Pearson coefficients between prestige sensitivity and the fashion involvement's dimensions and between Pearson coefficients between public self-consciousnesses of the new mother and her fashion involvement dimensions (product, advertising, purchase decision, consumption involvement and the consumer involvement MCFIP).

#### 5.3.1.4 One way MANOVA Hotelling Trace

MANOVA Multivariate Analysis of Variance is a statistical procedure for comparing multivariate (population) means of several groups. One way MANOVA is used when the difference between the two groups is in one variable for example difference between young and old mothers as related to marital status. The MANOVA is used when the variable is nominal for example marital status.

For this reason the researcher used MANOVA to relate to the nominal variable marital status of the new mother as correlated to fashion involvement. She also used one way MANOVA analysis to determine the relationship with fashion involvement when testing age and self-confidence as moderate variables within the different marital status groups finding if there is a difference between partnered and solo as related to different self-confidence and to different ages. MANOVA was used to compare between solo and partnered mothers.

#### 5.3.1.5. Stepwise hierarchic regression

In order to calculate the variables that predict fashion involvement both in solo and on partnered mothers the researcher used stepwise hierarchic regression, that focuses on what best combination of independent variables would predict the dependent. In stepwise regression. The predictor variables are entered to the equation one at a time based on statistical criteria where at each step the most contribute variable step in first. The variable that increase the most contribution in terms of increasing the multiple correlation R in entered first the process continue as long as an additional variable is adding anything meaningful statistically. When there are no additional predictor variables meaningful for the regression equation, the analysis stops. In other words, not all the variables will enter the equation in stepwise regression. This tool was used in this search in order to predict the most meaningful variables predicting fashion involvement both in solo as well as in partnered mothers.

#### 5.3.1.6. Bonferroni correction

The Bonferroni correction is an adjustment made to P values when several dependent or independent statistical tests are performed simultaneously on a single data set. To perform a Bonferroni correction, divide the critical P value ( $\alpha$ ) by the number of comparisons being made. For example, if ten hypotheses are being tested, the new critical P value would be  $\alpha/10$ . The statistical power of the study is then calculated based on this modified P value.

The Bonferroni correction is used to reduce the chances of obtaining false-positive results (type I errors) when multiple pair wise tests are performed on a single set of

data. Put simply, the probability of identifying at least one significant result due to chance increases as more hypotheses are tested.

### 5.3.2 Examination of the hypothesis and results

#### Age and fashion involvement

The first hypothesis wanted to see whether there is negative relationship between age and fashion, involvement as young new mothers would have higher involvement in baby's clothes as compared to older new mothers.

The researcher categorized the mother's age into three categories:

- 1) Aged 18-24
- 2) Aged 25-35
- 3) Aged 35-43

The median category was around 30 years of age.

- **Hypothesis 1a:** A negative relationship will be found between the age of the mother and her fashion involvement regarding baby's clothes. Therefore the younger the new mother is, the higher fashion involvement in baby's clothing she will have and vice versa.

The hypothesis was explored using Spearman correlation showing a negative relationship between the age of the mother, involvement in baby's clothing as seen from table 4.10. The hypothesis was completely confirmed, and all four types of consumer fashion involvement as well as consumer type had a negative statistically significant relationship between age and involvement :

**Table no. 4.10: Spearman correlations between mother's age and fashion involvement's dimensions**

| VARIABLE                   | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement to baby's clothes |
|----------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Mother's age (by category) | -0.24**             | -0.18*                        | -0.26***                | -0.26***                | -0.25**  |

*p* < 0.01; \*\*\* *p* < 0.001 \*\*

***Hypothesis 1a was confirmed***

- **Marital status moderates the relationship between age and fashion involvement**

The following hypothesis examined if there is a moderating influence of marital status on the relationship between age and involvement and is there is a difference between solo and partnered mother as related to age.

- **Hypothesis 1b:** Marital status will moderate the relationship between age and fashion involvement of the new mother, Therefore the younger the new mother is, the higher fashion involvement in baby's clothing she will have and vice versa.

Based on table no. 4.11 we can see that using the Spearman correlation the hypothesis was partly confirmed. Marital status moderated the relationship between age and involvement: purchase decision involvement, consumption involvement, advertising involvement and product involvement. As related to product involvement marital status does not moderate the relationship between age and involvement

In partnered mothers, there is a significant negative relationship between age and purchase decision involvement, consumption involvement, and advertising involvement also in the profile fashion involvement (CFIP). As regards to product involvement marital status doesn't moderate the relationship between age and product involvement.

**Table no. 4.11: Spearman correlations between mother's age and fashion involvement's dimensions in related to the mother's marital status**

| VARIABLE                                      |                                   | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement in baby clothes |
|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Mother's age (by category)                    | Amongst solo mothers (n=87)       | -0.26*              | -0.07                         | -0.15                   | -0.22                   | -0.16  |
|   | Amongst partnered mothers (n=136) | -0.24**             | -0.25**                       | -0.27**                 | -0.25**                 | -0.28***                                     |
|   | Z Fisher                          | 0.13                |                               |                         |                         |  |
| ^ $p < 0.1$ ; ** $p < 0.01$ ; *** $p < 0.001$ |                                   |                     |                               |                         |                         |  |

In order to test if the negative correlation between age and product involvement is different in each group, Fisher's z-distribution test was used showing no significant difference between two categories and both in solo as well as partnered mothers there is a negative correlation between age and fashion involvement ( $Z_{Fisher} = -0.13$ , *n.s.*).

Marital status moderates the relationship only between age and advertising involvement, purchase decision, consumption involvement and mother's involvement. Only in partnered mothers there was negative relationship between age and product involvement advertising involvement and age and mother's involvement. In solo mothers there is no relationship between age and product, advertising, consumption and purchase involvement in solo mothers

***Thus the hypothesis 1b was partly confirmed.***

### **Work status and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis wanted to find if there is a positive relationship between the new mother's work status and her involvement in baby clothes and to find if in a different work status, the mother (not working, part time job and full time job) has different involvement.

**Hypothesis 2a:** A difference in each type of the fashion involvement of the first time mothers will be found according to their work status, so employed new mothers will have higher fashion involvement in baby clothing compared to unemployed new mothers.

To test this hypothesis the researcher performed one-way multivariate analysis of variance (one-way MANOVA) using Hotelling's Trace Criteria.

The results described in table no. 4.12 indicate that there is no statistical significance influence of the mother's employment situation on each of the four types of fashion involvement ( $F_{(8,358)}=0.36, n.s.$ )

Also, in table number 4.12 we can see that the finding is repeated when testing multivariate analysis of variance to distinguish the differences among variables or groups. The MANOVA produces an F-statistic, the ratio of the variance calculated among the means to the variance within the samples, that shows a statistically significant difference between CFIP and employment status ( $F_{(2,184)}=0.67, n.s.$ ) with each of the four types of involvement and  $F_{(2,184)}=0.67, n.s.$  for the MFICP.

**Table no. 4.12: Analysis of the differences in work status of the mother in related to fashion involvement's dimensions**

| Types of involvement          | Employment situation | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | $F_{(2,235)}$ |
|-------------------------------|----------------------|----------|----------|-----------|---------------|
| Product involvement           | Does not work        | 26       | 3.45     | 1.56      | 0.58          |
|                               | Works part time      | 64       | 3.06     | 1.72      |               |
|                               | Works full time      | 96       | 3.11     | 1.56      |               |
| Purchase decision involvement | Does not work        | 26       | 4.07     | 1.37      | 0.42          |
|                               | Works part time      | 64       | 3.78     | 1.55      |               |
|                               | Works full time      | 96       | 3.78     | 1.49      |               |
| Advertising involvement       | Does not work        | 26       | 3.77     | 1.29      | 0.66          |
|                               | Works part time      | 64       | 3.40     | 1.48      |               |
|                               | Works full time      | 96       | 3.45     | 1.43      |               |
| Consumption involvement       | Does not work        | 26       | 3.88     | 1.78      | 0.84          |
|                               | Works part time      | 64       | 3.33     | 1.88      |               |
|                               | Works full time      | 96       | 3.53     | 1.84      |               |

**Hypothesis no. 2a was not confirmed** and there is no significant statistical relationship between work status of the mother and all fashion involvement's dimension for new baby's clothes.

- **Marital status moderates the relationship between work status and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis related to marital status as moderating the relationship between fashion involvement and working status and it was interesting to search whether there is a difference between solo and partnered mothers.

- **Hypothesis 2b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between age and fashion involvement of the new mother

The finding presented in table no. 4.13 shows that marital status doesn't moderate the relationship between involvement and work status.

Using one way MANOVA the results show no significant difference between solo and partnered mothers.

In partnered mothers the MCFIP is significantly different (  $F_{(2,133)}=1.00$  n.s ) as well as the solo mothers the MCFIP criteria is not significant ( $F_{(2,48)}=0.08$ , n.s.).

There is no difference between the two groups and both in solo as well in partnered mothers employed mothers will have higher involvement for baby's clothes.

**Table no. 4.13: One way MANOVA relationship between mother's work status and fashion involvement dimensions as related to the mother's marital status**

| Marital status by category | Variables                     | Working status        | <i>n</i>  | <i>Median</i> | <i>SD</i>   | <i>F</i> <sub>(2,78)</sub>  |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|---------------|-------------|-----------------------------|
| <b>Solo mothers</b>        | Product involvement           | Not working           | 4         | 3.19          | 1.62        | 0.01                        |
|                            |                               | Working part time job | 16        | 3.08          | 1.84        |                             |
|                            |                               | Working full time job | 30        | 3.11          | 1.75        |                             |
|                            | Purchase decision involvement | Not working           | 4         | 3.40          | 1.24        | 0.20                        |
|                            |                               | Working part time job | 16        | 3.74          | 1.66        |                             |
|                            |                               | Working full time job | 30        | 3.91          | 1.67        |                             |
|                            | Advertising involvement       | Not working           | 4         | 2.75          | 1.06        | 0.28                        |
|                            |                               | Working part time job | 16        | 3.37          | 1.48        |                             |
|                            |                               | Working full time job | 30        | 3.33          | 1.60        |                             |
|                            | Consumption involvement       | Not working           | 4         | 3.17          | 1.50        | 0.34                        |
|                            |                               | Working part time job | 16        | 2.96          | 1.89        |                             |
|                            |                               | Working full time job | 30        | 3.46          | 2.05        |                             |
| <b>Partnered mothers</b>   |                               |                       |           |               |             | <i>F</i> <sub>(2,133)</sub> |
|                            | Product involvement           | Not working           | 22        | 3.50          | 1.58        | 0.65                        |
|                            |                               | Working part time job | 48        | 3.06          | 1.70        |                             |
|                            |                               | Working full time job | 66        | 3.11          | 1.48        |                             |
|                            | Purchase decision involvement | Not working           | <b>22</b> | <b>4.19</b>   | <b>1.38</b> | <b>0.89</b>                 |
| Working part time job      |                               | 48                    | 3.80      | 1.53          |             |                             |

|  |                         |                       |    |      |      |      |
|--|-------------------------|-----------------------|----|------|------|------|
|  |                         | Working full time job | 66 | 3.72 | 1.41 |      |
|  | Advertising involvement | Not working           | 22 | 3.95 | 1.26 | 1.21 |
|  |                         | Working part time job | 48 | 3.41 | 1.50 |      |
|  |                         | Working full time job | 66 | 3.50 | 1.35 |      |
|  | Consumption involvement | Not working           | 22 | 4.02 | 1.82 | 0.74 |
|  |                         | Working part time job | 48 | 3.46 | 1.87 |      |
|  |                         | Working full time job | 66 | 3.57 | 1.75 |      |

**Hypothesis 2b was not confirmed** and marital status does not moderate the relationship between work status and fashion involvement of the new mother

### **Income and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis explored the relationship between income and fashion involvement assuming a positive relationship between the two variables.

The hypothesis was intended to explore if there is a significant influence of income on fashion involvement of the new mother with the newborn's clothes in all the dimensions of involvement.

- **Hypothesis 3a:** A positive relationship will be found between income of the mother and her fashion involvement in baby clothes. The higher the new mother's income, the more fashion involved she will be in the baby's clothing.

Spearman's rank relationship coefficient as represented in table 4.14 shows that there is no relationship between income and involvement in all dimensions as well as in the consumer profile fashion involvement

**Table no. 4.14: Spearman coefficients between the categories of the family/mother's income and baby fashion involvement dimensions**

| VARIABLE                           | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement in related to baby's clothes |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|---|
| Family/mother's income by category | 0.02                | 0.05                          | 0.02                    | 0.10                    | 0.05  |

***Hypothesis number 3a was not confirmed***

- **Marital status moderates the relationship between income and fashion involvement.**

The next hypothesis related to marital status as a moderating variable between income and involvement. In this hypothesis the researcher wanted to study if there is a difference between solo and partnered mothers as related to income and if there is moderating influence of marital status.

- **Hypothesis 3b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between income and fashion involvement of the new mother regarding baby clothes. Single mothers with different income will have different involvement versus partnered mothers.

Spearman coefficient were used between income level and t fashion involvement's level and Z test was used to find if the relationships are significant.(Table no 4.15)

Based on the results there is no statistically significant relationship between income and fashion involvement regarding marital status and both in solo as well as partnered mothers the relationship between income and fashion involvement is not significant

**Table no. 4.15: Spearman coefficient between the family/mother's income and fashion involvement dimensions as related to the mother's family status**

| variable                 |                             | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| Family's/mother's income | Amongst solo mothers (n=90) | -0.13               | -0.10                         | 0.02                    | -0.01                   | -0.08                        |
|                          | Amongst partnered (n=133)   | 0.02                | 0.06                          | -0.05                   | 0.07                    | 0.03                         |

**Hypothesis 3b was not confirmed** and marital status does not moderate the relationship between income and fashion involvement dimensions. Based on these results the relationship between income and fashion involvement is not influenced by marital status.

### **Education and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis studied the relationship between the new mother's education and her involvement level in all the dimensions. In this hypothesis the researcher wanted to see if there is any significant correlation between education and involvement to baby clothes.

- **Hypothesis 4a:** A positive relationship will be found between education and fashion involvement of the new mother regarding her baby's clothes. Thus the higher the new mother's education, the more fashion involved she will be in the baby's clothing and vice versa.

The findings explored the relationship between education and involvement based on Spearman and are presented in table no. 4.16 showing that there is a negative significant relationship between education and product involvement and education and purchase decision involvement.

Based on table no. 4.15, low educated mothers will have a higher fashion profile, product and purchase decision involvement for their baby's clothes compared to highly-educated mothers.

Based on the results presented in table no. 4.16 the more educated the mother is the lower fashion involvement she will have with the product ( $r = -0.17^*$ ) and with the purchase decision process ( $r = -0.14^*$ ) as well as the MCFIP ( $r = -0.14^*$ ).

These findings presented in table no. 4.16 also demonstrate that there are no relationships between education and advertising involvement ( $r = -0.10$ ) or education and consumption involvement ( $r = -0.10$ ) and in both low and high educated mothers the involvement to the advertising and to the consumption process are the same.

**Table no. 4.16: Spearman correlations between the mother's education and the fashion involvement dimensions**

| Variable                    | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement in related to baby's clothes |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|---|
| Mother's level of education | -0.17*              | -0.14*                        | -0.10                   | -0.10                   | -0.14*  |
| * $p < 0.05$                |                     |                               |                         |                         |   |

***Hypothesis number 4a was partly confirmed.***

- **Marital status moderates the relationship between education and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis was related to marital status as a moderating variable influencing the relationship between education and mother's fashion involvement with baby clothes

- **Hypothesis 4b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between education and fashion involvement of the new mother where there will be a different relationships between education and fashion involvement base on their marital status

Spearman coefficient was used between education and each of the fashion involvement's dimensions and Z test was made to test the significant differences between the two groups (Table no 4.17) .

As shown from table no. 4.17 using the Spearman correlation, marital status is partially moderate both in solo as well as in partnered mothers. There are no significant relationships between education and purchase decision, education and consumption involvement and education and d advertising involvement in both solo and partnered mothers.

Only within solo mothers there is negative relationship between education and product involvement ( $r = -0.33$ ) as well as between education and consumer profile involvement ( $r = -0.24$ )

Within the rest of the involvement types (purchase decision, advertising and consumption involvement) the marital status does not moderate the relationship and there is no different relationship between education both in solo as in partnered mothers. (Table 4.17)

**Table no. 4.17: Spearman correlation coefficient between the mother's education and the fashion involvement dimensions in related to mother's family status**

| VARIABLE                           |                                       | PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT | PURCHASE DECISION INVOLVEMENT | ADVERTISING INVOLVEMENT | CONSUMPTION INVOLVEMENT | MOTHER'S FASHION INVOLVEMENT WITH BABY CLOTHES |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| <b>Mother's level of education</b> | Amongst solo mothers ( $n=95$ )       | <b>-0.33*</b>       | <b>-0.17</b>                  | <b>-0.15</b>            | <b>-0.19</b>            | <b>-0.24*</b>                                  |
|                                    | Amongst partnered mothers ( $n=136$ ) | -0.11               | -0.14                         | -0.09                   | -0.08                   | -0.11  |
| * $p < 0.05$                       |                                       |                     |                               |                         |                         |  |

***Hypothesis 4b was partly confirmed***

- Marital status and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis sought a correlation between marital status and involvement and if solo new mothers have different involvement in product, advertising, consumption or purchase decision process as related to baby clothes.

- **Hypothesis 5:** A difference in fashion involvement with baby clothes will be found according to the mother's marital status. Thus partnered new mothers will have higher fashion involvement in baby clothing in comparison to solo new mothers.

This hypothesis examine the relationship between marital status and fashion Involvement and was tested using MANOVA multiple variables.

The findings presented in table no. 4.18 show that there is no significant difference between the involvement's dimensions ( $F_{(4,232)}=1.35$ , not significant) regarding marital status, neither did the Manova show a statistically significant difference.

**Table no. 4.18: Analysis of the differences in the dimensions of involvement in baby fashion according to the mother's family status**

| TYPE OF INVOLVEMENT           | FAMILY SITUATION  | <i>N</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | $F_{(1,232)}$ |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|----------|----------|-----------|---------------|
| Product involvement           | Solo mothers      | 95       | 3.11     | 1.73      | 0.03          |
|                               | Partnered mothers | 136      | 3.15     | 1.57      |               |
| Purchase decision involvement | Solo mothers      | 95       | 3.81     | 1.61      | 0.01          |
|                               | Partnered mothers | 136      | 3.82     | 1.45      |               |
| Advertising involvement       | Solo mothers      | 95       | 3.30     | 1.51      | 1.08          |
|                               | Partnered mothers | 136      | 3.54     | 1.39      |               |
| Advertising involvement       | Solo mothers      | 95       | 3.27     | 1.94      | 1.15          |
|                               | Partnered mothers | 136      | 3.60     | 1.80      |               |

***Hypothesis 5 was not confirmed***

- **Price perception - Price /Quality and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis explored the relationship between price perception variables and fashion involvement.

Since in the literature (McFatter, 2002) price /quality and prestige sensitivity are the two major components of price perception, the researcher chose to separate the hypothesis into two hypotheses, each exploring another feature of price.

For each item price /quality and prestige sensitivity were measured on a seven-point scale, with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree (Xu, 2000). One item was reverse coded to follow the same order.

- **Hypothesis 6a:** A positive relationship will be found between price /quality of the new mothers and fashion involvement for baby clothes. Thus the higher the fashion involvement of the new mother, the higher the price perception purchases will be and vice versa

To test this hypothesis, the researcher used the Pearson correlation coefficient between price /quality and each of the fashion involvement's dimension. As shown in table no. 4.19 the hypothesis is entirely confirmed and price /quality has a positive relationship with all dimensions of involvement as well as with the consumer fashion involvement profile.

Based on this hypothesis as the perception of price /quality of the new mother is high then , the product involvement, purchase decision involvement, advertising involvement, consumption involvement and the consumer fashion involvement increase

**Table no. 4.19: Pearson correlations between price/quality and fashion involvement's dimensions**

|               | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement to baby's clothes |
|---------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Price/quality | 0.29***             | 0.31***                       | 0.27***                 | 0.32***                 | 0.32***  |
|               |                     |                               |                         |                         | *** $p < 0.001$                                |

***Hypothesis 6a was confirmed***

- **Marital status moderates the relationship between price /quality and fashion involvement**

In this hypothesis the researcher wanted to explore if marital status moderates the relationship between price/quality and fashion involvement dimensions.

- **Hypothesis 6b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between price/quality and fashion involvement of the new mother so different relationship will be between these two variables base on the marital status of the mother.

Pearson coefficient was made to evaluate the relationship between price quality and fashion involvement's dimensions and Fisher's z-distribution test was used to confirm was used to test the significant of the relationships.

The hypothesis' results as shown in table no. 4.20 indicate that marital status moderate the relationship between price quality and fashion involvement's dimensions as follow: In partnered mothers the relationship is significant stronger between price quality and advertising involvement( $r= 0.30^{**}$ )

In solo mothers the relationship is stronger between price quality and product involvement ( $r= 0.39$ ), price quality and purchase decision involvement ( $r= 0.39$ ), price quality and consumption involvement ( $r= 0.46$ ), and also between price quality and consumer fashion involvement ( $r= 0.38^{**}$ )

**Table no. 4.20: Pearson correlation coefficient between mother's price/quality and the fashion involvement's dimensions in related to the mother's family status**

|  |                                       | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement to baby's clothes |
|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Price/quality                                | solo mothers ( $n=95$ )               | 0.39**              | 0.39**                        | 0.22                    | 0.46***                 | 0.38**   |
|  | Amongst partnered mothers ( $n=135$ ) | 0.29**              | 0.27**                        | 0.30***                 | 0.26**                  | 0.29***  |
| Difference between the relationship          | $Z_{FISHER}$                          | 1.67*               | 1.79*                         |                         | 2.36*                   | 1.60*  |
| $\wedge p < 0.1; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001$ |                                       |                     |                               |                         |                         |  |

**Hypothesis 6b was confirmed**

- **Price perception/prestige sensitivity and fashion involvement**

The second element of price perception is prestige sensitivity tested in the following hypothesis

- **Hypothesis 7a:** A positive relationship will be found between prestige sensitivity of the new mother and fashion involvement with baby clothes Thus the higher the new mother's fashion involvement, the higher the price perception purchases will be and vice versa.

As presented in table no. 4.21 we conclude a significant positive relationship between prestige sensitivity and the construct of fashion involvement in all dimensions where the higher prestige sensitivity the new mother has regarding baby clothes, the greater will be her involvement with the product, purchase decision, consumption process and advertising.

**Table no. 4.21: Pearson coefficients between prestige sensitivity and the fashion involvement's dimensions**

|                      | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement to baby's clothes |
|----------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Prestige sensitivity | 0.58***             | 0.52***                       | 0.57***                 | 0.58***                 | 0.61***  |
| *** $p < 0.001$      |                     |                               |                         |                         |  |

**Hypothesis 7a was confirmed** and there is a significant positive relationship between prestige sensitivity of the new mother and each of the fashion involvement dimensions.

- **Marital status moderates the relationship between prestige sensitivity and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis relates to marital status as a moderating variable on the relationship between prestige sensitivity and fashion involvement.

- **Hypothesis 7b:** Marital status moderates relationship between prestige sensitivity of the new mother and her fashion involvement where there will be a difference in fashion involvement between solo and partnered mothers having different sensitivity.

Pearson coefficient was made to evaluate the relationship between price quality and fashion involvement's dimensions and Fisher's z-distribution test was used to confirm was used to test the significant of the relationships.

As presented in table no. 4.22 marital status does moderate the relationship between prestige sensitivity and consumption involvement's of the new mother ( $Z_{FISHER} = 1.73^*$ ) and in solo mothers the relationship is significant compare to partnered mothers. As to the other dimensions there is no significant different relationship between prestige sensitivity and involvement of the new mother base on her marital status.

**Table no. 4.22: Pearson correlations coefficient between the index of the prestige sensitivity and the fashion involvement's dimensions in related to mother's family status**

|                                   | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement to baby's clothes |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Amongst solo mothers (n=102)      | 0.64***             | 0.60***                       | 0.58***                 | 0.69***                 | 0.67***  |
| Amongst partnered mothers (n=135) | 0.55***             | 0.48***                       | 0.57***                 | 0.54***                 | 0.59***  |
| $Z_{FISHER}$                      | 1.32                | 1.56                          | 0.09                    | 1.73*                   | 1.13   |

**Hypothesis 7b was partially confirmed.**

- **Media usage and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis relates to the use of the media effect on fashion involvement for baby clothes.

**Hypothesis 8a:** A positive relationship will be found between media usage of the new mother and fashion involvement for baby clothes. Thus the higher the fashion involvement of the new mother, the more media usage the mother will make.

Using Pearson's coefficient the result revealed significant positive correlation between media usage and of fashion involvements dimensions. so the more the media usage, the higher the new mother's fashion involvement's dimensions to baby clothes. The results in table no, 4.23 shows that the new mother's involvement increases as media usage increases.

**Table no. 4.23: Pearson correlations between media usage and fashion involvement dimensions**

|                 | PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT | PURCHASE DECISION INVOLVEMENT | ADVERTISING INVOLVEMENT | CONSUMPTION INVOLVEMENT | MOTHER'S FASHION INVOLVEMENT TO BABY'S CLOTHES |
|-----------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Media usage     | 0.74***             | 0.57***                       | 0.71***                 | 0.64***                 | 0.73***  |
| *** $p < 0.001$ |                     |                               |                         |                         |  |

***Thus hypothesis number 8a was confirmed.***

In order to see where new mothers are having different media usage ANOVA tests and made on the questions dealing with the media usage of the mothers base on their marital status.

Table no. 4.24 distribution of media usage by channels in solo and partnered mothers using repeated measures ANOVA

**Table no. 4.24: Distribution of media usage by channels in solo and partnered mothers using repeated measures ANOVA**

| Question   | 1.00 single woman (n=97) |           | 2.00 In a relationship (n=135) |           | overall (n=232) |           |
|--|--------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------|
|  | <i>M</i>                 | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i>                       | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i>        | <i>SD</i> |
| I often buy baby clothing that is advertised on the internet, television radio, magazines newspapers, advertising and government information |                          |           |                                |           |                 |           |
| I buy more babies' clothing items if I have seen these worn or used by a celebrity.  | 1.56                     | 0.97      | 1.67                           | 1.01      | 1.64            | 1.00      |
| I tend to notice baby clothes in the movies  | 1.88                     | 1.27      | 1.97                           | 1.08      | 1.95            | 1.13      |
| I notice baby clothing in television shows   | 2.02                     | 1.33      | 1.99                           | 1.10      | 1.99            | 1.16      |
| I notice the baby clothing in magazines.   | 2.34                     | 1.38      | 2.49                           | 1.34      | 2.45            | 1.35      |
| I seek out the latest fashions of baby clothing in the Internet  | 2.04                     | 1.37      | 1.92                           | 1.17      | 1.96            | 1.22      |
| i like to buy baby clothes from upper-scale catalogs.  | 1.72                     | 1.18      | 1.60                           | 0.92      | 1.63            | 0.99      |

**Bonferroni analysis** was made to find the following differences are found in relate to the marital status of the mother (tables no. 4.25, 4.26).

As shown in tables nos. 4.25, 4.26 a different media usage is been used by solo and partnered mothers

Partnered mothers are mostly use magazines internet and television compare to catalogs television and celebrities.

Single mothers mostly search for information in the following channels:, magazines, television movies and the internet and less usage of the catalogs and celebrities.

| <b>Table no 4.25: Media channels distribution in solo mothers</b> |                          |                              |                             |                            |                             |
|---|--------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
|   |                          |                              | Magazines<br>2.34<br>(0.20) | Internet<br>2.04<br>(0.19) |                             |
|   |                          | Television<br>2.02<br>(0.19) |                             | Internet<br>2.04<br>(0.19) |                             |
|   | movies<br>1.88<br>(0.18) | Television<br>2.02<br>(0.19) |                             | Internet<br>2.04<br>(0.19) | Catalogue<br>1.72<br>(0.17) |
| celeb<br>1.56<br>(0.14)   | Movies<br>1.88<br>(0.18) |                              |                             |                            | Catalogue<br>1.72<br>(0.17) |

[F(1,180)=3.63, p < 0.05].

Note: In each row, the difference is significant

| Table no 4.26 Media channels distribution amongst partnered mothers |                          |                              |                             |                            |                             |
|---|--------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
|   |                          |                              | Magazines<br>2.50<br>(0.12) |                            |                             |
|   | Movies<br>1.97<br>(0.09) | Television<br>1.98<br>(0.09) |                             | Internet<br>1.92<br>(0.10) |                             |
| Celebrities<br>1.68<br>(0.09)                                       |                          |                              |                             | Internet<br>1.92<br>(0.10) |                             |
| Celebrities<br>1.68<br>(0.09)                                       |                          |                              |                             |                            | catalogue<br>1.61<br>(0.08) |

[F(1,180)=3.63, p < 0.05].

Note: In each row, the difference is significant

As the results indicate, minor differences are found in the media usage between solo and partnered. Both samples show preference of magazines as a significant channel, then internet television and movies. Celebrity catalogues have less influence.

- **Marital status moderates the relationship between media usage and fashion involvement**

The next assumption was that marital status moderates the relationship between fashion involvement and media usage.

- **Hypothesis 8b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between media usage and fashion involvement of the new mother, there will be different relationships between media usage and fashion involvement's dimensions base on marital status of the mother..

Person coefficient were used between media usage and fashion involvement's level and Z test was used to find if the relationships are significant.(Table no 4.27)

Based on table no. 4.27 we can conclude that there is no difference in the relationship between media usage and fashion involvement's dimensions base on marital status and both in solo as well in partnered mothers the relationship are the positive and the more media the mother is use the higher her fashion involvement to the product, advertising, purchase decision and consumption involvement.

**Table no. 4.27: Pearson correlations coefficient between media usage and the fashion involvement's dimensions as related to mother's family status.**

|                                 |                                   | PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT | PURCHASE DECISION INVOLVEMENT | ADVERTISING INVOLVEMENT | CONSUMPTION INVOLVEMENT | MOTHER'S FASHION INVOLVEMENT IN BABY CLOTHES |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| media usage                     | Amongst solo mothers (n=97)       | 0.78***             | 0.63***                       | 0.70***                 | 0.70***                 | 0.76***                                      |
|                                 | Amongst partnered mothers (n=135) | 0.73***             | 0.55***                       | 0.72***                 | 0.62***                 | 0.72***                                      |
| Difference between relationship | $Z_{fisher}$                      | 0.69                | 1.23                          | -0.24                   | 1.14                    | 0.82   |
| *** $p < 0.001$                 |                                   |                     |                               |                         |                         |  |

***Hypothesis number 8b was not confirmed***

- **Personality traits / self-confidence and fashion involvement**

The next hypotheses relate to the correlation between fashion involvement and personality traits.

Based on the research, personality traits relate to self-confidence and public self-consciousness measuring each personality trait (self-confidence and public self-consciousness) using seven point Likert scale.

The first hypothesis related to self-confidence of the mother and its relationship to fashion involvement for the baby clothes.

- **Hypothesis 9 a:** A positive relationship will be found between self-confidence of the new mother and fashion involvement for baby clothes Thus the greater the new mother's self-confidence, the more fashion involved she will be and vice versa.

The results in table no. 4.28 indicate a positive significant relationship only between purchase decision involvement and self-confidence of the new mother ( $r=0.15^*$ ) where in all the rest of the involvement dimensions as well as in the consumer fashion involvement profile there is no significant relationship to self-confidence.

**Table no. 4.28: Pearson correlations coefficient between the mother's self-confidence and the fashion involvement's dimensions**

|                          | PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT | PURCHASE DECISION INVOLVEMENT | ADVERTISING INVOLVEMENT | CONSUMPTION INVOLVEMENT | MOTHER'S FASHION INVOLVEMENT TO BABY CLOTHES |
|--------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Mother's self-confidence | 0.01                | 0.15*                         | 0.04                    | 0.04                    | 0.07   |
| * $p < 0.0$              |                     |                               |                         |                         |  |

**Hypothesis number 9a was partially confirmed**

- **Marital status moderates the relationship between self-confidence and fashion involvement**

In the following hypothesis the researcher wanted to establish whether marital status will moderate the relationship between fashion involvement and self-confidence and if there is a difference between the two samples: partnered and solo mothers

- **Hypothesis 9b:** Marital status moderates the relationship between the new mother's self-confidence and fashion involvement. There is a relationship between self-confidence and fashion involvement base on the mother's marital status.

Based on table no. 4.29 using Pearson correlation we can conclude that marital status moderates the relationship between self-confidence and purchase decision involvement only amongst partnered mothers regarding purchase decision involvement ( $r=0.20^{**}$ )

Thus, the positive relationship between self-confidence and purchase decision involvement is only in the partnered mothers. As to the other involvement dimensions marital status doesn't moderate the relationship between self-confidence and involvement.

**Table no. 4.29: Pearson correlations coefficient between the mother's self-confidence and fashion involvement's dimensions as related to the mother's status**

|                          |                                       | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement to baby's clothes |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Mother's self-confidence | Amongst solo mothers ( $n=90$ )       | -0.01               | 0.04                          | -0.05                   | -0.09                   | -0.02  |
|                          | Amongst partnered mothers ( $n=135$ ) | 0.01                | 0.20**                        | 0.09                    | 0.10                    | 0.11   |

\*  $p < 0.05$

**Hypothesis no. 9.b was partially confirmed**

- **Personality traits /public self—consciousness and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis tested if there is relationship between personality traits public self-consciousness and fashion involvement of the new mother to baby clothes.

- **Hypothesis 10 a:** A positive relationship will be found between public self-consciousness of the new mother and fashion involvement for baby clothes. Thus the greater the new mother's public self-consciousness, the greater her fashion involvement and vice versa.

Based on the results represented in table no. 4.30, there is a significant positive relationship between each of the fashion involvement dimensions and public self-consciousness, i.e., the higher the mother's public self-consciousness, the greater the involvement for baby clothes. The positive correlation between public self-consciousness and fashion involvement will be discussed in the next chapter.

**Table no. 4.30 Pearson correlations between the degree of Public self-consciousness and fashion involvement's dimensions of the new mother**

|                                     | Product involvement | Purchase decision involvement | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | Mother's fashion involvement |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| Degree of Public self-consciousness | 0.53***             | 0.60***                       | 0.46***                 | 0.55***                 | 0.59***                      |
| *** $p < 0.001$                     |                     |                               |                         |                         |                              |

**Hypothesis number 10a was confirmed.**

## **Marital status moderate the relationship between public self-consciousness and fashion involvement**

Next hypothesis relate to marital status as moderate variable between fashion involvement and public self-consciousness

- **Hypothesis 10b:** Marital status is a moderating variable moderate the relationship between public self-consciousness and fashion involvement for baby's clothes thus there will be different relationships between public self-consciousness and fashion involvement's dimensions base on the marital status.

- 

Based on table no. 4.31 using Pearson correlation we can conclude that marital status moderates the relationship between public self-consciousness and purchase decision involvement only amongst partnered mothers regarding purchase decision involvement ( $r=0.20^{**}$ )

As presented in table no. 4.31 both in solo and partnered mothers the relationship between public self-consciousness and fashion involvement is positive Using Z Fisher correlation the difference is not significant. Thus marital status doesn't moderate the relationship between public self-consciousness and fashion involvement's dimensions (product, advertising, purchase ' consumption and consumer fashion involvement) of the new mother.

**Table no. 4.31: Pearson correlations coefficient between the degree of Public self-consciousness and fashion involvement's dimensions in related to mother's family status**

|                                     |                                  | PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT | PURCHASE DECISION INVOLVEMENT | ADVERTISING INVOLVEMENT | CONSUMPTION INVOLVEMENT | MOTHER'S FASHION INVOLVEMENT IN BABY CLOTHES |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Degree of public self-consciousness | Amongst solo mothers (n=90)      | 0.60***             | 0.55***                       | 0.46***                 | 0.54***                 | 0.59***                                      |
|                                     | Amongst partnered mothers (=135) | 0.49***             | 0.63***                       | 0.45***                 | 0.56***                 | 0.59***                                      |
| Differences between relationship    | $Z_{Fisher}$                     | 1.12                | -0.72                         | 0.07                    | -0.17                   | 0  |
| *** $p < 0.001$                     |                                  |                     |                               |                         |                         |  |

**Hypothesis no. 10b was not confirmed**

- **Age moderating the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement**

The next hypothesis tested age as moderating the relationship between fashion involvement and marital status.

**Hypothesis 11.** The new mother's age moderates the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement for baby's clothes. Thus the relationship between fashion involvement's dimension and marital status is different base on the age categories of the mother.

This hypothesis suggests that age influence the relationship between involvement's dimensions and the marital status of the other.

The mother's age was categorized into two groups based on the median ( $Md=2$ , at the age 25-34).

In each of the group's age a MANOVA using Hotelling-Lawley Trace criteria was used in order to find out the significant relationship. The results represented in table number 4.32 shows no significant difference in related to age of the mother and both young mothers ( $(F_{(4,111)}=0.79n.s.)$ ) as well as old mothers ( $(F_{(1,130)}=0.97n.s.)$ ) the relationship between marital status and involvement's dimensions are the same. ( $F_{(1,130)}=0.83n.s$  using one way ANOVA)

**Table no 4.32: Differences in fashion involvement dimensions as related to the mother's family status segmented moderate by the mother's age**

| \  | TYPE OF INVOLVEMENT                          | FAMILY STATUS                 | N                 | M    | SD   | $F_{(1,149)}$ |      |
|--|--|-------------------------------|-------------------|------|------|---------------|------|
| <b>Amongst young women<br/>18-30 years old</b> | Product involvement                          | Solo mothers                  | 40                | 3.69 | 1.83 | 0.90          |      |
|  |  | Partnered mothers             | 111               | 3.32 | 1.57 |               |      |
|  | Purchase decision involvement                | Solo mothers                  | 40                | 4.02 | 1.84 | 0.01          |      |
|  |  | Partnered mothers             | 111               | 3.98 | 1.43 |               |      |
|  | Advertising involvement                      | Solo mothers                  | 40                | 3.66 | 1.66 | 0             |      |
|  |  | Partnered mothers             | 111               | 3.69 | 1.41 |               |      |
|  | Consumption involvement                      | Solo mothers                  | 40                | 3.87 | 2.08 | 0.03          |      |
|  |  | Partnered mothers             | 111               | 3.79 | 1.76 |               |      |
|  | <b>Amongst older women<br/>30+ years old</b> | $F_{(1,83)}$                  |                   |      |      |               |      |
|  |  | Product involvement           | Solo mothers      | 60   | 2.72 | 1.58          | 0.46 |
|  |  |                               | Partnered mothers | 25   | 2.42 | 1.40          |      |
|  |  | Purchase decision involvement | Solo mothers      | 60   | 3.68 | 1.46          | 0.17 |
| Partnered mothers                              |  |                               | 25                | 3.15 | 1.35 |               |      |
| Advertising involvement                        |  | Solo mothers                  | 60                | 3.05 | 1.37 | 0.67          |      |
|  |  | Partnered mothers             | 25                | 2.91 | 1.15 |               |      |
| Consumption involvement                        |  | Solo mothers                  | 60                | 2.88 | 1.77 | 0.81          |      |
|  |  | Partnered mothers             | 25                | 2.76 | 1.80 |               |      |

***Hypothesis no 11 was not confirmed***

## **Self-confidence moderating the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement**

Hypothesis no. 12 tested the relationship between fashion involvement and marital status using self-confidence as a moderate variable

- **Hypothesis 12:** The new mother's self-confidence moderates the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement for baby's clothes. Thus the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement of the new mother is different based on the self-confidence of the new mother.

Self-confidence was categorized into two groups (Md=4) and in each of the group (low and high self-confidence) Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) tests have been done using Hotelling-Lawley trace factor as was examined in hypothesis no 5.

As shown in table 4.33 the hypothesis was not confirmed since no significant relationship between self-confidence and fashion involvement was found in relation to solo and partnered mothers. The relationship between marital status and fashion involvement was not statistically significant both in high as well as in low self-confidence's level.

No significant effect in high self-confidence's mother was found between marital status and fashion involvement dimensions ( $F(4,138)=0.29$ , n.s. .] as well as low self-confidence mothers there was no significant influence of self-confidence on the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement's dimensions ( $F(4,97)=1.27$ , n.s. .] .

These results in table no. 4.34 indicate that self-confidence does not moderate the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement dimensions and both in high and low self-confidence the relationship is the same.

**Table no. 4.33: Examination of the differences in the involvement dimensions in baby fashion according to the mother's marital status segmented moderated by the mother's self-confidence.**

| Mother's self-confidence | Involvement's types           | Family status                 | <i>n</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | $F_{(1,138)}$ |
|--------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|---------------|
| Low Self-confident       | Product involvement           | Mothers not in a relationship | 54       | 3.16     | 1.62      | 0.02          |
|                          |                               | Mothers in a relationship     | 86       | 3.11     | 1.48      |               |
|                          | Purchase decision involvement | Mothers not in a relationship | 54       | 3.73     | 1.51      | 0.04          |
|                          |                               | Mothers in a relationship     | 86       | 3.67     | 1.24      |               |
|                          | Advertising involvement       | Mothers not in a relationship | 54       | 3.31     | 1.40      | 0.15          |
|                          |                               | Mothers in a relationship     | 86       | 3.42     | 1.25      |               |
|                          | Consumption involvement       | Mothers not in a relationship | 54       | 3.33     | 1.76      | 0.09          |
|                          |                               | Mothers in a relationship     | 86       | 3.44     | 1.55      |               |
| High self-confidence     |                               |                               |          |          |           | $F_{(1,93)}$  |
|                          | Product involvement           | Mothers not in a relationship | 46       | 3.05     | 1.90      | 0.18          |
|                          |                               | Mothers in a relationship     | 49       | 3.25     | 1.73      |               |
|                          | Purchase decision involvement | Mothers not in a relationship | 46       | 3.91     | 1.76      | 0.24          |
|                          |                               | Mothers in a relationship     | 49       | 4.13     | 1.72      |               |
|                          | Advertising involvement       | Mothers not in a relationship | 46       | 3.28     | 1.65      | 1.46          |
|                          |                               | Mothers in a relationship     | 49       | 3.78     | 1.61      |               |
|                          | Consumption involvement       | Mothers not in a relationship | 46       | 3.20     | 2.17      | 1.67          |
|                          |                               | Mothers in a relationship     | 49       | 3.91     |           |               |

***Thus hypothesis 12 is not confirmed***

The next tables summarize the research hypothesis results using the Spearman and Pearson correlation (table no. 4.34) and using Manova analysis (table no. 4.35).

**Table no. 4.34: Review of the results of the hypothesis representing the correlation between age, income, education, personality traits, media usage and price sensitivity as predictors of fashion**

| <b>Variables</b>                        |                     | Product involvement | Purchase decision | Advertising involvement | Consumption involvement | MCFIP           |
|---|---------------------|---------------------|-------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|
| <b>Mother's age (H1 a H1b)</b>          | In general          | -0.24**             | -0.18*            | -0.26***                | -0.26***                | -0.25**         |
|   | Solo (n=87)         | -0.26*              | -0.07             | -0.15                   | -0.22                   | -0.16           |
|   | Partnered (n=136)   | -0.24**             | <b>-0.25**</b>    | <b>-0.27**</b>          | <b>-0.25**</b>          | <b>-0.28***</b> |
|   | Z Fisher            | 0.13                |                   |                         |                         |                 |
| <b>Mother's income (H 3a H 3b)</b>      | In general          | 0.02                | 0.05              | 0.02                    | 0.10                    | 0.05            |
|   | Solo (n=90)         | -0.13               | -0.10             | 0.02                    | -0.01                   | -0.08           |
|   | Partnered (n=133)   | 0.02                | 0.06              | -0.05                   | 0.07                    | 0.03            |
| <b>Mother's education (H4a,H4b)</b>     | In general          | -0.17*              | -0.14*            | -0.10                   | -0.10                   | -0.14*          |
|   | Solo (n=95)         | -0.33*              | -0.17             | -0.15                   | -0.19                   | -0.24*          |
|   | Partnered (n=136)   | -0.11               | -0.14             | -0.09                   | -0.08                   | -0.11           |
| <b>Mother's Price/quality (6a, H6b)</b> | In general          | 0.29***             | 0.31***           | 0.27***                 | 0.32***                 | 0.32***         |
|   | solo (n=95)         | 0.39**              | 0.39**            | 0.22                    | 0.46***                 | 0.38**          |
|   | Partnered (n=135)   | 0.29**              | 0.27**            | 0.30***                 | 0.26**                  | 0.29***         |
|   | Z <sub>FISHER</sub> | 1.67*               | 1.79*             | -                       | *2.36                   | 1.60            |

|   |                   |         |         |         |         |         |
|---|-------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| <b>Prestige sensitivity (H7a, H7b)</b>                | In general        | 0.58*** | 0.52*** | 0.57*** | 0.58*** | 0.61*** |
|   | Solo (n=102)      | 0.64*** | 0.60*** | 0.58*** | 0.69*** | 0.67*** |
|   | Partnered (n=135) | 0.55*** | 0.48*** | 0.57*** | 0.54*** | 0.59*** |
|   | $Z_{FISHER}$      | 1.32    | 1.56    | 0.09    | 1.73*   | 1.13    |
| <b>Mother's Media usage (H8, H8b)</b>                 | In general        | 0.74*** | 0.57*** | 0.71*** | 0.64*** | 0.73*** |
|   | Solo (n=97)       | 0.78*** | 0.63*** | 0.70*** | 0.70*** | 0.76*** |
|   | Partnered (n=135) | 0.73*** | 0.55*** | 0.72*** | 0.62*** | 0.72*** |
|   | $Z_{fisher}$      | 0.69    | 1.23    | -0.24   | 1.14    | 0.82    |
| <b>Mother's self-confidence (H9a, H9b)</b>            | In general        | 0.01    | 0.15*   | 0.04    | 0.04    | 0.07    |
|   | Solo (n=90)       | -0.01   | 0.04    | -0.05   | -0.09   | -0.02   |
|   | Partnered (=135)  | 0.01    | 0.20*   | 0.09    | 0.10    | 0.11    |
| <b>Mother's Public self-consciousness (H10a H10b)</b> | In general        | 0.53*** | 0.60*** | 0.46*** | 0.55*** | 0.59*** |
|   | Solo (n=90)       | 0.60*** | 0.55*** | 0.46*** | 0.54*** | 0.59*** |
|   | Partnered (=135)  | 0.49*** | 0.63*** | 0.45*** | 0.56*** | 0.59*** |
|   | $Z_{Fisher}$      | 1.12    | -0.72   | 0.07    | -0.17   | -       |

**Table no 4.35: One way MANOVA correlations between mother's work status, marital status, fashion involvement dimensions and using age and self-confidence a moderating variable (Hypotheses nos. 2a, 2b, 5 , 11, 12)**

|  |                      | Working status<br>(Hypothesis 2a, |                     |                     | Marital<br>status<br>(Hypothesi<br>s 5) | Age moderate<br>(Hypothesis<br>11) |       | Self-<br>confidence as<br>moderate<br>(Hypothesis<br>12) |      |
|--|----------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---|------------------------------------|-------|--|------|
|  |                      | F                                 |                     |                     |   | F                                  | F     | F  | F    |
|  |                      | Not<br>working                    | Part<br>time<br>job | Full<br>time<br>job |   | Young                              | Older | Low  | High |
| <b>Product involvement</b>               | In general           | 0.58                              |                     |                     | 0.03                                    | 0.9                                | 0.46  | 0.02   | 0.18 |
|  | Solo                 | 0.01                              |                     |                     |   |                                    |       |  |      |
|  | Partnered<br>mothers | 0.65                              |                     |                     |   |                                    |       |  |      |
| <b>Purchase decision<br/>involvement</b> | In general           | 0.42                              |                     |                     | 0.01                                    | 0.01                               | 0.17  | 0.04   | 0.24 |
|  | Solo                 | 0.2                               |                     |                     |   |                                    |       |  |      |
|  | Partnered<br>mothers | 0.89                              |                     |                     |   |                                    |       |  |      |
| <b>Advertising involvement</b>           | In general           | 0.66                              |                     |                     | 1.08                                    |                                    | 0.67  | 0.15   | 1.46 |
|  | Solo                 | 0.28                              |                     |                     |   |                                    |       |  |      |
|  | Partnered<br>mothers | 1.21                              |                     |                     |   |                                    |       |  |      |
| <b>Consumption<br/>involvement</b>       | In general           | 0.84                              |                     |                     | 1.15                                    | 0.3                                | 0.81  | 0.09   | 1.67 |
|  | Solo                 | 0.34                              |                     |                     |   |                                    |       |  |      |
|  | Partnered<br>mothers | 0.74                              |                     |                     |   |                                    |       |  |      |

### **5.3.3 Multiple stepwise hierarchic regression to predict mother's consumer fashion involvement according to all the variables**

In order to predict the important dependent variables that influence the MCFIP both in solo and in partnered mothers a Stepwise hierarchic regression was performed, to calculate the consumer involvement both for solo and partnered mothers to calculate the fashion involvement according to all the variables.

The sample was categorized into two groups: partnered mothers that are in a relationship and solo mothers who are not in a relationship and for each group the researcher entered the independent variables including the new mother's age, income, marital status, education level, media usage the price/quality perception, price sensitivity, self-confidence and public self-consciousness (tables nos. 4. 36, 4. 37).

The results presented in table no. 4.36 pertain to solo not in a relationship new mothers and in table no. 4.37 for partnered in relationship new mothers

- **Solo mothers**

The next table analyzes the most significant factors influencing fashion involvement for baby clothes amongst solo mothers.

**Table no. 4.36: Multiple regressions to predict fashion involvement by all the variables in the model amongst solo mothers (n=93)**

| Step number             | Predictor variable        | B    | S.E  | $\beta$ | T      | $\Delta R^2$ | $R^2$  |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|------|------|---------|--------|--------------|--------|
| 1                       | Media usage               | 0.90 | 0.31 | 0.76    | 2.90*  | 0.58*        | 0.58*  |
| 2                       | Media usage               | 0.89 | 0.18 | 0.75    | 4.93** | 0.30*        | 0.88** |
|                         | Price/quality             | 0.36 | 0.10 | 0.55    | 3.62*  |              |        |
| 3                       | Media usage               | 0.87 | 0.11 | 0.74    | 7.74** | 0.08*        | 0.96** |
|                         | Price/quality             | 0.24 | 0.07 | 0.36    | 3.16*  |              |        |
|                         | Public self-consciousness | 0.55 | 0.18 | 0.34    | 2.96*  |              |        |
| * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01 |                           |      |      |         |        |              |        |

The results presented in table no. 4. 36 for the group of new mothers with no relationship shows that new solo mothers' fashion involvement for baby clothes are significantly influenced by media usage ( $\beta = 0.76$ ) and price/quality sensitivity ( $\beta = 0.55$ ). We can further see that the predictor is public self-consciousness of the new mother having significant relationship on the fashion involvement ( $\beta = 0.34$  ). All the other variables have no significant influence on the fashion involvement of the new mother with baby clothes amongst the solo mothers.

- **Amongst partnered mothers:**

The next table analyzes the most significant factors influencing fashion involvement for baby clothes of partnered mothers.

**Table no. 4.37 Representation of the multiple regression to predict fashion involvement by all the variables in the model amongst partnered mothers (n=135)**

| Step number                            | Predictor variable        | B    | S.E  | $\beta$ | t       | $\Delta R^2$ | R <sup>2</sup> |
|--|---------------------------|------|------|---------|---------|--------------|----------------|
| 1                                      | Media usage               | 1.23 | 0.13 | 0.68    | 9.23*** | 0.47***      | 0.47***        |
| 2                                      | Media usage               | 1.01 | 0.13 | 0.56    | 7.76*** | 0.09***      | 0.56***        |
|  | Public self-consciousness | 0.72 | 0.16 | 0.33    | 4.57*** |              |                |
| 3                                      | Media usage               | 0.89 | 0.13 | 0.49    | 6.90*** | 0.05***      | 0.61***        |
|  | Public self-consciousness | 0.62 | 0.15 | 0.28    | 4.04*** |              |                |
|  | Price /quality            | 0.24 | 0.07 | 0.24    | 3.41*** |              |                |
| 4                                      | Media usage               | 0.97 | 0.13 | 0.54    | 7.46*** | 0.02*        | 0.63***        |
|  | Public self-consciousness | 0.50 | 0.16 | 0.23    | 3.20**  |              |                |
|  | Price/quality             | 0.24 | 0.07 | 0.23    | 3.45*** |              |                |
|  | Self confidence           | 0.36 | 0.15 | 0.16    | 2.43*   |              |                |
| 5                                      | Media usage               | 0.99 | 0.13 | 0.55    | 7.77*** | 0.02*        | 0.65***        |
|  | Public self-consciousness | 0.47 | 0.15 | 0.22    | 3.06**  |              |                |
|  | Price/quality             | 0.23 | 0.07 | 0.23    | 3.44*** |              |                |
|  | Self confidence           | 0.38 | 0.15 | 0.17    | 2.59*   |              |                |
|  | Baby's age                | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.14    | 2.27*   |              |                |
| * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001 |                           |      |      |         |         |              |                |

The regression's result in table no. 4.37 in the partnered mother category indicates the following variables have a significant influence on fashion involvement for baby clothes amongst partnered mothers: media usage ( $\beta = 0.68$ ) and public self-consciousness ( $\beta = 0.33$ ). Price /quality ( $\beta = 0.23$ ) is also highly predictor of fashion involvement and also

self-confidence of the new mother ( $\beta = 0.16$ ); the baby's age is the last predictor with  $\beta = 0.14$

The other independent variables including education, mother's age, her income, marital work status and price sensitivity as well as dummy variables have no predictive influence on fashion involvement of the partnered mother.

## **Chapter 6: Conclusions and Discussion**

Every year 46,000 new babies are born in Israel increasing the baby clothing market to almost \$1 billion spent on infant clothing (up to 3 years of age) (Danziger, 2003).

This study aimed to determine the consumer involvement of new mothers in their baby's clothes and to predict their involvement based on independent variables.

The unique contribution of this study lies in the fact that, for the first time, research has examined solo new mothers versus partnered new mothers regarding consumer behavior for their baby's fashion.

Conclusions are based on the results of statistical analyses of survey results: partnered (in a relationship) new mothers and solo new mothers having their first baby (up to two years of age).

Much has been discussed in the literature review about fashion involvement as related to young or adult females (McFatter, 2002; Belleau et al., 2008) but little, if any, reference has been made to new mothers' purchase and attitude to baby clothes amongst solo and partnered mothers.

In this study the researcher surveyed the relationship to fashion involvement followed by transition to first-time motherhood in these categories according to the following variables: media usage, personality traits (self-confidence and public self-consciousness), price perceptions (price/quality and prestige sensitivity), and selected demographic characteristics. In each different sector of marital status of the new mothers, the researcher studied the relationship between independent variables including income, age, education, personality traits, media usage and price perception and their relationship with fashion involvement of the new mother. The importance and significance of becoming a mother is interesting and fascinating as regards the change and adaptation in consumer behavior as to her new identity as a person and as a consumer.

The first section discusses whether the important variables predict and influence fashion involvement, and the reasons and consequences of this. The second section relates to recommendations and applications for the baby industry and marketers based on the results.

The third section deals with the study's limitations and the last part with recommendations for future research.

The fourth and last part of the discussion will deal with the recommendation for the future studies.

### **6.1 The variables influencing the CMFIP (Consumer's Mother Fashion Involvement Profile) regarding baby clothes**

The theory tested and the model examined in this work relate to involvement and consumer behavior of new mothers regarding the first child. Becoming a mother alone or in a cohabiting relationship is a dramatic and important transition during life cycle influencing the new mother's behavior, possible self and desires (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Robinson, 2003). Changing from one familiar role to another new and unknown role is associated with many desires, fears, behaviors and self-esteem as well as new anticipation, while adapting new possible selves and especially doing things and actions showing the environment how great mother one is (Sevin & Ledwin, 2007).

Consumption of products for the new baby is often related to the concept of embracing a role, and awareness that liminal consumers rely on consumption as a symbolic approach to a desired motherhood identity. Purchasing new things for the newborn can

- (1) Support identity construction, because of their signal value or because of their potential to provide the consumer with a certain experience of self,
- (2) Enable residence in either a public or in a more private domain
- (3) Be a vehicle for the maintenance as well as the acquisition of the consumer's new role (Thomeson & Sorenson, 2006).

In Israel in 2004 there were around 145,207 new births, 8.3% of which were by first time new mothers, and 3,500 by solo mothers due to divorce or losing a spouse (40%), or solo mothers never married by choice (60%). (CBS, 2008, table no. 1331).

Delaying the age of marriage, an increase in the divorce rate, an increase in the proportion of births outside of marriage, a decline in the centrality of marriage and the possibility of economic autonomy facilitated creating an alternative, informal, and non-normative type of single-parent family with the mother usually raising a child alone (Swirski, et al., 2003).

The new mother aged 27-30 in Israel is highly educated (49% have higher education) (CBS, 2008). In the US as well as in western society, trends in motherhood are becoming familiar. The higher proportion of college-educated mothers stems both from rising birth rates and from women's increased educational attainment. New births to unmarried mothers is also on the rise and tripled itself (from almost 28% of births in 1990 to 41% in 2008) (Livingston & Cohn, 2010) due to the delay in starting a career and the ability to have children on one's own.

Transition to motherhood relates to recalibrating a woman's sense of agency, with the emphasis shifting from autonomy and control to responsibility for another. The transition is a very public one, with dramatic changes in body shape heralding the change in a woman's status and identity (Bailey, 1999; O'Malley, 2006; The Voice, 2012). The new mother tries to fit the new role and society's expectation by purchasing things for the baby.

Motivated to be the best possible mother by doing the "right" things and providing nice clothes for the baby has been shown as the mother's dedication to the baby - not just a matter between the mother and child, and not just about love and tender care, but about children's clothing (and other goods around the child) that play an important role for the mother's ascribed status in society (Andersen, Sorensen & Kjaer, 2008).

As involved as the female is in her own clothes and dressing, the aim of this dissertation was to study if the new mother is involved in clothes and fashion for the new born. Fashion involvement is considered a "consumer's perceived importance of fashion clothing "(O'Cass, 2001) and implies the way people are affected by their style and

dress (Engle, Blackwell & Minard, 2005). The more important the involvement and relevance of a person's dress, purchase decision and ads related to fashion are to him, the more importance the consumer will have for his clothes and style (O'Cass, 2004). The consumer fashion involvement profile (CFIP) is a construct including the following four dimensions of involvement (O'Cass, 2000).

Clothing involvement serves as a main driver for consumers to develop knowledge and expertise regarding apparel products and thus, the ability to make decisions during the process of apparel consumption. Therefore, as clothing-involved consumers tend to have greater knowledge and expertise regarding fashion and the apparel industry, it may make it tougher for them to engage in unethical returning practices ( Su Yun Bae 2012).

The fashion involvement construct used in this study is founded on O'Cass (2000) and McFatter (2005) showing the following four dimensions of involvement as a basis for the MCFIP in general. Product involvement refers to the involvement in dress itself, consumption involvement refers to the process of shopping research; advertising involvement to the ads and commercials; and information evaluation and purchase decision involvement relates to decisions and the choice the consumer made.

In this study the researcher used the O'Cass (2000) questionnaire to determine each of the dimensions of involvement amongst solo and partnered first time mothers as regards their first baby's clothes.

### **6.1.1 Age and fashion involvement**

The researcher hypothesized a negative relationship between age and involvement where younger new mothers will have greater involvement for their baby's clothes. Clothing and appearance play important part in the physical, cognitive, emotional, and social identity. High self-esteem and body image was found to relate to a perceived low clothing appearance. The younger the women is (teenage for example) the more

important and emotional she is regarding her body image, and therefore her self-esteem is less stable.

The study's results support the hypothesis showing that the younger the new mother, the higher her fashion involvement in all four dimensions, as well as in the consumer profile involvement.

The hypothesis, that marital status moderates the relationship between age and fashion involvement, was partial confirmed.

Young women use clothing to ratify the self and improve self-esteem. They have a high presence awareness, are more sensitive to the group's approval and are usually more conscious of their body image than older females (Meyer & Anderson, 2000; Lee, 2006). This study supports the negative relationship between new mothers' age and fashion involvement, but this relationship between age and involvement is significant in partnered mothers for all fashion involvement dimensions (product, advertising about the fashion, the consumption decision process, to the purchase itself and the consumer involvement). As to solo new mothers there is negative relationship only between solo status and product involvement. The partnered mothers have the same relationship as in the literature (negative with age) while amongst solo mothers fashion and age is partially correlated. These results show that age correlates with fashion involvement amongst partnered but not solo mothers, which can be explained by the lack of time the solo mother has. The study's results also emphasize that marital status does indeed moderate the relationship between age and fashion involvement in purchase decision involvement, consumption involvement, advertising involvement and also in the profile fashion involvement, but as regards product involvement both solo and partnered mothers have the same negative relationship with age.

### **6.1.2 Income and fashion involvement**

The researcher hypothesized that there is positive relationship between income and fashion involvement where the lower income the new mother has, the greater will be her involvement with baby clothes.

Looking at the results we can see that income does not predict the fashion involvement for baby clothes among new mothers and has no significant relationship with her involvement. The researcher also hypothesizes that marital status will moderate the relationship between fashion involvement and income. This hypothesis was not confirmed: there is no difference between solo and partnered new mothers as regards income and fashion involvement for the baby's clothes.

The results indicate marital status does not moderate the relationship between fashion involvement and income. This can be explained by the study by Sorenson and Thomsen (2006) showing that prams as well as other expensive brands for the new born have a symbolic meaning for the mother's new identity and regardless of her income she will lack certainty regarding inexpensive brands and will prefer expensive brands using price as an indicator for the product's quality (Sorenson & Thomson, 2006).

The results also correlate with Solomon's study (1983) showing luxury clothing reflects wealth and symbolic status of the new mother regardless of her income or financial assets. Based on the results we can assume that solo as well as partnered mothers are not influenced by their income and both samples make purchasing decisions and follow a consumption process for the new baby regardless of their income.

### **6.1.3 Education and fashion involvement**

The research hypothesis proposed a positive relationship between the mother's education and fashion involvement: the more educated the mother is, the greater her involvement in her baby's clothes.

The results of this study are contrary to the hypothesis showing a negative relationship between education and fashion involvement of the new mothers with product involvement purchase decision involvement. As regards the purchase decision involvement and advertising involvement, no relationship with education was found.

The next hypothesis, related to marital status as moderating the relationship between education and fashion involvement, was not confirmed and did not show any relationship between education and involvement both for solo as well and for partnered mothers.

The results of the study are also dissimilar to the hypothesis. Based on the study there is a negative relationship between product and consumer involvement only amongst solo mothers, and had no significant relationship at all partnered mothers. Based on this study, the more educated the new solo mother is, her product involvement and consumer involvement profile for newborn clothes decreases.

Perhaps the educated solo mother, deciding to have a baby on her own, does not need treat the baby clothes as a status or symbol.

#### **6.1.4 Marital status and working status of the new mother**

The researcher's hypothesis was that there is different involvement of mothers of different marital status and the fashion involvement of new mothers with different working status. Based on the literature she assumes that solo and partnered mothers, as well as mothers working full time, part time, or not at all, will have different fashion involvement towards their baby's clothes.

The study results indicate that, like income, also the mother's marital and working status cannot predict fashion involvement. The new mother's marital as well as her working status have no influence, positive or negative, on the new mother's types of fashion involvement, and, based on this study, cannot be seen as involvement predictors. The fact that fashion involvement is not influenced by the mother's income, marital, or

working status has been supported by other researchers such as Banister and Hogg (2004) or Khare and Ankita (2012), showing that age is the significant demographic variable with fashion involvement. As regards other demographic variables there is no relationship with the women's fashion involvement. On the other hand, many other researchers, such as Mayer (2002), McFatter (2002), O'Cass (2004), Magie and Ashlock (2008), and Mukoko (2011), show that single students have more knowledge and involvement in fashion, but the less income the women has, the less involvement she will have in fashion. Surprisingly, based on this study, as related to baby clothes it does not matter if a person is solo or partnered, or what kind of job a person has: involvement with new baby clothes will be unaffected. The results of this study were not predictable given the fact that 66% of the sample has no income, or their income is below or far below the average income, and yet they do not have lower fashion involvement in their baby's clothes.

As for the demographic variables income, marital status and work status cannot predict involvement; age can influence fashion involvement amongst solo and partnered mothers, and education can be a predictor only amongst solo mothers.

#### **6.1.5 Price perception and fashion involvement**

The first hypothesis related to price perception, averring that there is a positive relationship between price perception regarding both price /quality and prestige sensitivity with fashion involvement by the new mother.

The results show a positive relationship between price quality and all types of involvement dimensions amongst new mothers. The results also show a positive relationship between prestige, sensitivity, and fashion involvement by the new mother.

The following hypothesis asserts that marital status moderates the relationship between price perception and fashion involvement, especially regarding price/quality, where the difference between solo and partnered mothers was significant. Solo mothers

had a more significant relationship between price, product, consumption, advertising and purchase involvement and price quality compared to partnered mothers.

As the price quality sensitivity of the solo mother increase her involvement in baby clothes increases.

On the other hand, there is no difference between partnered and solo mothers as regards the consumer involvement profile and price quality. As to prestige sensitivity, results indicate that marital status moderates the relationship between involvement and consumption decision only amongst solo mothers, and they have a significant relationship between prestige sensitivity and consumption decision involvement compared to partnered mothers. The positive relationship between advertising fashion involvement and price quality did not occur amongst solo mothers, due, perhaps, to the fact that solo mothers lack time, as was shown by Sanik and Mauldin (1986) and Carrigan and Szmigin (2004). Forcing them to skip clothes advertising and focus on the product and its purchasing decision process, studies show that the new mother's perception of the baby's pram, for example, is uncertainty and ambivalent consumption. Her purchase choice is based on the idea that an expensive, well-known, brand is better and of higher quality than an inexpensive pram (Sorenson & Thomsen, 2006). Possible selves represent new anticipation, hopes and fears the mother has that are transmitted to her new role as a protective mother accepted by the social environment, where the quality and the product she will buy for her baby implies her new role and her mother's identity as a "good mother" (Sevin & Ladwein, 2007). The new mother is expected to have the best things for her newborn and the higher price perception she will have as to the baby's clothes will increase her involvement both to the product and to the process and advertisement.

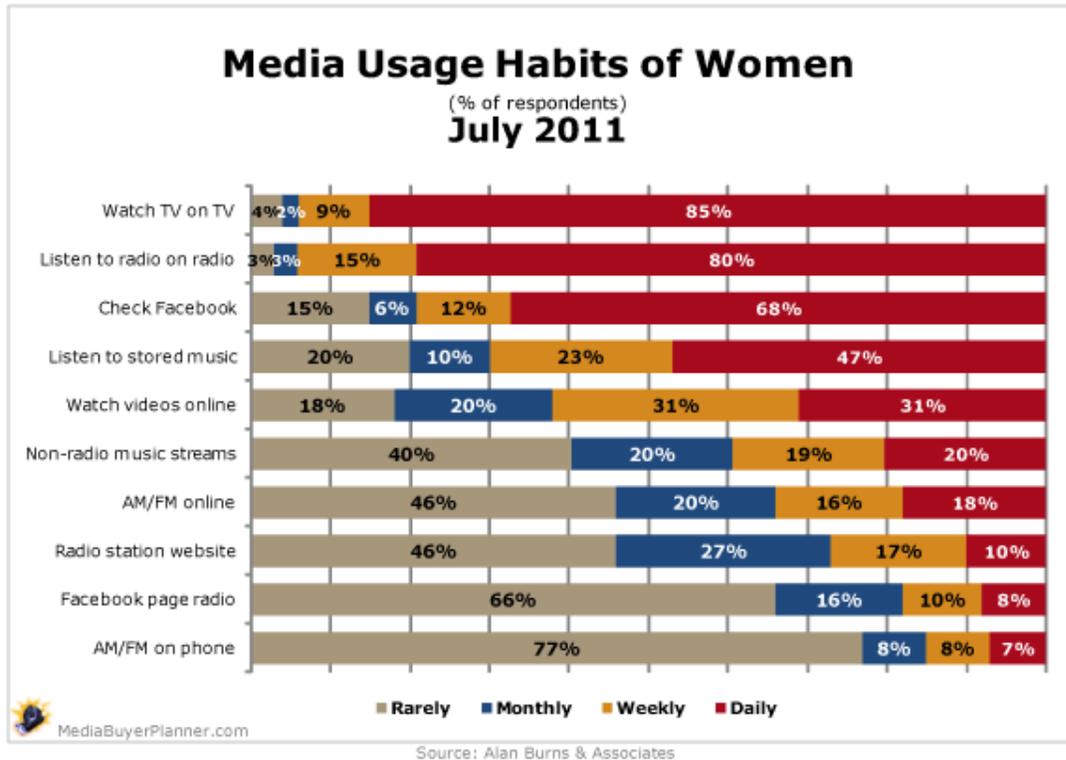
### **6.1.6 Media usage and fashion involvement**

Studying media usage relates time spent on consumption behavior, and the amount of information the consumer uses during his consumption behavior.

The researcher hypothesized there is a positive relationship between media usage and fashion involvement. The higher the new mother's fashion involvement the more media channels she will use and more media variety she will have ( i.e. magazines, television, internet etc.).

Based on the literature, the rate of women using the internet and Facebook increased rapidly but most of the women prefer television (85%) or radio (80%). Due to a positive relationship between exposure to information and higher fashion involvement (as described by O'Cass (2001) and Spikermann et al.,(2001) because the new mother is expected to be well-acquainted and familiar with her new role, she will increase her awareness and involvement by looking for as many advertisements and commercials "explaining" what clothes she must buy in order to fulfill the new role. McDaniel, Coyne and Holmes (2012) and Kemp (2013) maintain that women's use of digital devices increases dramatically when they become new mothers. Internet usage after becoming a mother increases by 45%, email by 31%, and mobile phone usage by 28%, while magazine readership declines by 55%, and TV viewing slumps by 36% (figure no. 7).

It is not just media consumption habits that change when children arrive: 68% of women change their purchase criteria for everything, including clothing, beauty products and cars. These results are supported by this study, showing that new mothers who are highly involved in the product will spend more time exposed to media information.



**Figure no. 7: Media usage habits of women.**

Source: Alan Burns Association(2011)

The significant positive relationship between media usage and fashion involvement found in the review (McFatter, 2005) is explained by higher consumer involvement affording the greater attention he or she will put into the product, the advertising sources the consumption decision and the purchase process (Bar Zuri, 2009).

The results indicate that new mothers are most influenced by the following media channels: magazines television, internet while movies celebrities and superior catalogues are of less influence.

Media usage influence fashion involvement both amongst solo and partnered mothers and there is no difference between the two segments. Both solo as well as those in partnered positive relationship between media usage in terms of media channels variety and fashion involvement, suggesting that when the new mother is more involved in her newborn's clothes she will uses more channels information sources regardless of her

marital status. These results are supported by the researcher, showing that the media, including internet, television, radio magazines, newspapers, movies, and books have considerable impact on dress and appearance (McFatter, 2002; O'Cass, 2004; Dixon, 2007; Hiew Shu & Tee, 2012). Advertising in magazines and mass media sources are the main factors that influence clothing purchases (Cardoso & Santos, 2008).

### **6.1.7 Personality traits and fashion involvement**

The hypothesis of the study supposes a positive relationship between personality traits, including self-confidence and public-self-consciousness of the new mothers and fashion involvement. The results indeed indicate a positive relationship between public-self-consciousness and all dimensions of the new mother's fashion involvement but a positive relationship only between self-confidence and consumption decision involvement. That is, the greater the new mother's involvement, the greater the time, effort, and energy she will spend during her purchase decision.

The following hypothesis relates to marital status as a moderating factor between personality traits and fashion involvement, and showed no difference between solo and partnered mothers as regards public self-consciousness and fashion involvement. In other words, solo as well as partnered mothers have the same relationship between involvement and public self-consciousness. Still, there is a significant difference between solo and partnered mothers as seen in the purchase decision involvement and self-confidence.

Only amongst partnered mothers was there a positive relationship between self-confidence and purchase decision involvements as compared to solo mothers. As the self-confidence of the partnered mother is high her purchase decision involvement increases. The positive relationship with a purchase decision indicates that amongst partnered mothers the higher confidence the new mother has the greater the involvement and time she will spend on her decision. The fact that there is no relationship between self-confidence and fashion involvement amongst the solo new mothers can be related of the fact that most of them are older women aged 38-41, with

solid confidence, well educated, and employed full time. Consequently, they do not need the baby's clothes in order to make an impression on their social group and have restricted involvement with the fashion of their baby's clothes.

On the other hand a significant positive relationship was found between public self-consciousness and fashion involvement amongst both solo and partnered mothers, supporting the statistic that the greater the mother's awareness for clothing and for her appearance, the greater the impression the new mother wants to have on others, and the greater her involvement regardless of her marital status.

Some of the literature refers to personality traits as having a positive relationship (Horton, 1979; Vieira & Slogo, 2006) and other sources indicate no significant relation at all (McFatter, 2002) but few, if any, claim that there is a difference between self-confidence and public self-consciousness regarding fashion involvement.

These interesting findings can be explained because of the fact that self-confidence refers to the person's degree of self-perception as a leader (Belleau et al., 2008) while new mothers often do not think of them as leaders regarding their baby's behavior or consumption. Thus new mothers often have little self-confidence and it has no effect on their involvement. Public self-consciousness, on the other hand, as related to the person's awareness of the other is high amongst new mothers adjusting to their new role, and increasing their involvement in the baby's products and their consumption (Horton, 1979).

To summarize the findings of the study: (table no. 5)

### **Negative relationship**

- Age has a negative relationship with fashion involvement of new mothers
- Education has a negative relationship with new mother's product , purchase decision and consumer fashion involvement

### **No relationship**

- Income and work status of the mother have no relationship with the product, purchase decision and the consumer fashion involvement of the new mother
- No significant relation was found between **age** and product involvement
- No significant relationship was found between **education** and advertising involvement and education with consumption involvement)

### **Positive relationship**

- Positive relationship was seen between *public self-consciousness* and fashion involvement's types
- *Self-confidence* and purchase have positive relationship with decision involvement
- Positive relationship between *media usage* and all types of fashion involvement
- *Price perception* (both *price quality* and *prestige sensitivity*) and all types of fashion involvement have positive relationship

### **Marital status as moderate variable**

Marital status moderate the relationship between

- Age and all dimensions of involvement are stronger in partnered mothers (besides product involvement)
- Education and product involvement and education and consumer involvement are stronger in solo mothers
- Price quality and all involvement dimensions are stronger amongst solo mothers except for advertising fashion involvement which is stronger in partnered mothers.
- Prestige sensitivity as the consumption decision involvement of the solo mother is stronger than partnered mothers
- Self-confidence and purchase decision involvement amongst partnered mothers is stronger compared to solo mothers

### **Age as a moderating variable**

- The age of the new mother does not moderate the results of the test and there is no different relationship between marital status and fashion involvement dimensions of the new mother based on age categories (young vs. old mothers) involvement but moderates all the other involvement dimensions

### **Self confidence as a moderate variable**

- The self confidence of the new mother does not moderate the results of the test and there is no different relationship between marital status and fashion involvement dimensions of the new mother based on her self confidence (high vs. low self confidence )

The differences between solo and partnered mothers are significant as regards age, price quality, price perception and self-confidence of the new mother.

**Table no. 5: Sum of the hypothesis, statistical tools and results of the study**

|                            | Hypothesis description  | Statistical tool   | Hypothesis result   |
|----------------------------|---|--|---|
| <b>1a<br/>age</b>          | Negative relationship will be found between Fashion Involvement Profile(MCFIP) and the age of the new mother                | Spearman correlation   | Hypothesis 1a is therefore confirmed<br>Negative relationship between age and fashion involvement of the new mother   |
| <b>H1b</b>                 | Marital status moderate the relationship between age of the new mother and Fashion Involvement Profile(MCFIP)               | Spearman correlation   | Hypothesis 1b is partly confirmed and marital status partially moderate<br>The relationship between age and all involvement's dimensions(expect product involvement) is stronger in partnered mothers and no relationship in solo mothers<br>The relationship between age and product involvement is the same and negative in solo and partnered. |
| <b>H2a<br/>Work status</b> | A difference in each type of the fashion involvement of the first time mothers will be found according to their work status | One-way multivariate analysis of variance (one-way MANOVA)<br>Hotelling's Trace Criteria           | Hypothesis no. 2a is not confirmed and there is no significant statistical relationship between work status of the mother and all the dimensions of fashion involvement   |
| <b>H2b</b>                 | Marital status moderate the relationship between work status and fashion involvement  | One-way multivariate analysis of variance (one-way MANOVA)<br>Hotelling' Trace Criteria<br>nominal | Hypothesis 2b is not confirmed and marital status does not moderate the relationship between work status and fashion involvement of the new mother<br>In solo as well as in partnered mothers there is no relationship between work status and involvement's dimensions   |
| <b>H3a<br/>income</b>      | A positive relationship will be found between Fashion Involvement Profile (CFIP) and the income of the new mother           | Spearman correlation   | Hypothesis no. 3a is not confirmed and there was no significant relationship between income and fashion involvement.  |
| <b>H3b</b>                 | Marital status moderates the relationship between income fashion involvement profile(MCFIP)                                 | Spearman correlation   | Hypothesis 3b is not confirmed and marital status does not moderate the relationship between income and fashion involvement   |

|   |  |  |   |
|---|--|--|---|
| <b>H4a<br/>Education</b>                  | A positive relationship will be found between each of the four dimensions (constructions) of the First time Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (CFIP) and the education of the new mother                               | Spearman correlation                   | Hypothesis no. 4a is partly confirmed. There is negative relationship between education and product involvement education and purchase decision as well as between education and consumer profile involvement<br>There is no relationship between education and other types of involvement(advertising and consumption involvement)   |
| <b>H4b</b>                                | Marital status moderates the relationship between education and fashion involvement for baby clothes   | Spearman correlation                   | Hypothesis 4b is partially confirmed Marital status moderate the relationship and stronger relationship was found between education and product involvement, as well as education and consumer profile involvement in solo mothers compare to partnered mothers.<br>Within the other dimensions (advertising, purchase and consumption decision) marital status doesn't moderate the relationship and both in solo as well as in partnered there is no relationship between educations. |
| <b>H5<br/>nominal</b>                     | A difference in each type of the all of the first time mothers will be found according to their marital status   | One way MANOVA using Hotelling's Trace | Hypothesis 5 is not confirmed and there is no significant relationship between marital status and fashion involvement for baby clothes.   |
| <b>H6a<br/>Price quality<br/>Interval</b> | A positive relationship will be found between each of the four dimensions (constructions) of the First time Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (CFIP) and the price perception of price/quality for the baby's clothing | Pearson correlation                    | Hypothesis 6a is confirmed and there is a positive relationship between price /quality and all the dimensions of fashion involvement of the new mother.   |
| <b>H6b</b>                                | Marital status is a moderate variable influencing the relationship between price/quality and constructions of First time Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile(MCFIP)  | Pearson correlation                    | Hypothesis 6b is partly confirmed Marital status moderate the relationship between price quality and all fashion dimensions (except advertising dimensions) having stronger positive relationship within solo mothers.<br>The relationship between price quality and advertising involvement is positive stronger only in partnered mothers.  |
| <b>H7a<br/>Price prestige</b>             | A positive relationship will be found between each of the four dimensions of the first time mother's fashion involvement to baby clothes and the price perception of prestige sensitivity for the baby clothing                  | Pearson correlation                    | Hypothesis 7a is confirmed and there is a significant positive relationship between prestige sensitivity of the new mother and each of the fashion involvement's dimensions   |

|   |   |                            |   |
|---|---|----------------------------|---|
| <b>H7b</b>                                | Marital status moderate the relationship between prestige sensitivity for baby clothing and all dimensions (constructions) of First time Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile(MCFIP)   | Pearson correlation        | Thus hypothesis 7b is partially confirmed and marital status moderates the relationship only between prestige sensitivity and consumption involvement and the relationship is stronger within solo mothers.<br>In al other dimensions (except consumption involvement) the relationship with prestige sensitivity is positive and the same. |
| <b>H8a</b>                                | A positive relationship will be found between each of the dimensions(constructions) of the Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile(MCFIP) and the media usage of the mother   | Pearson correlation        | Hypothesis number 8a is confirmed and there is a positive relationship between media usage and all the dimensions of fashion involvement for baby's clothes<br>The higher fashion involvement the more media usage the new mother will use.   |
| <b>H8b<br/>Media usage</b>                | Marital status moderate the relationship between media usage and dimensions(constructions) of First time Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile(MCFIP)   | Pearson correlation        | Hypothesis no. 8b is not confirmed and marital status does not moderate the relationship between media usage and involvement dimensions base on the marital status of the new mother.<br>The relationship is the same both in solo as well as in partnered mothers  |
| <b>H9a<br/>self-confidence</b>            | A positive relationship will be found between the Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile(CFIP) and self-confidence so the higher self-confidence the new mother will have, the more fashion involved she will be and vice versa. | <b>Pearson correlation</b> | Hypothesis number 9a is partially confirm and self-confidence is positive relate to only purchase decision involvement of the mother<br>Within the other dimensions there is no relationship with self confidence.  |
| <b>H9b</b>                                | Marital status moderates the relationship between self-confidence and all dimensions (constructions) of First time Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile(MCFIP)   | <b>Pearson correlation</b> | Hypothesis .9b is partially confirmed and marital status moderates only the relationship only between purchase decision and self-confidence and stronger in partnered mothers.<br>In other dimensions the relationship between prestige sensitivity and involvement are the same both in solo as well as in partnered mothers.              |
| <b>H10a<br/>Public self-consciousness</b> | A positive relationship will be found between public self-consciousness and the dimensions(constructions) of First time Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (MCFIP)   | <b>Pearson correlation</b> | Hypothesis no. 10a is confirmed and there is a positive significant relationship of public self-consciousness of the mother and her involvement to each involvement type for the newborn clothes  |

|             |  |                            |   |
|-------------|--|----------------------------|---|
| <b>10b</b>  | Marital status moderate the relationship between Public self-consciousness and all four dimensions (constructions) of First time Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (MCFIP) | <b>Pearson correlation</b> | Hypothesis no. 10b is not confirmed marital status doesn't moderate the relationship between public self-consciousness and fashion involvement's dimensions. Relationship is the same in both groups.   |
| <b>H 11</b> | The new mother's age will moderate the effect of the marital status on the construct of the First time Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (CFIP).                           | <b>One way MANOVA</b>      | Hypothesis no. 11 is not confirmed and there age doesn't moderate the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement's dimensions of the new mother<br>In all age categories the relationship between marital status and involvement is the same.  |
| <b>H12</b>  | The new mother's self-confidence will moderate the effect of the marital status on each type (constructions) of the First time Mother Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (CFIP).   | <b>One way MANOVA</b>      | Hypothesis 12 is not confirmed and self- doesn't moderate the relationship between marital status and fashion involvement's dimensions of the new mother (both high and low self confidence have the same relationship between marital status and involvement.) |

## **6.2 Conclusions and recommendations for baby clothing marketers**

The aim of this study was to determine if there is any the relationship between demographic variables, media usage personality traits and price perception and the consumer involvement profile of the new mother i.e., the Mother's Consumer Fashion Involvement Profile (MCFIP).

The mother's involvement profile was examined using the second order factor model of fashion involvement (O'Cass, 2000), showing that the CIP was based on the measures of product involvement, purchase decision involvement, advertising involvement and consumption involvement.

The sample in this study contains 106 solo new mothers and 141 partnered new mothers (in a cohabiting relationship) with their first baby aged of 12-24 months. Most of

the sample (more 60%) is highly educated working in a full time job (50%) and having an average or low income (40-60%).

A negative relationship between mother's fashion involvement and education or age was shown but a positive relationship between the media usage of the new mother as well as her personality traits.

Regardless of the mother's education or income, when she evaluates a high price for the product, or when her prestige price of the products is high, her involvement (both partnered and solo and amongst most of the involvement dimensions) increases.

The facts that most of the solo respondents make non-traditional decisions (having a child on their own) and the fact that most of them (over 60%) are older mothers aged 34 or older, and have higher education (first degree more) may influence the fact that self-confidence did not affect their involvement since solo educated older mothers do not need any approval from the society as regards baby clothes.

An important conclusion from the interviews by (Block, 2001) shows that the anxious thing of the solo mothers is answer the question, "How will I explain my decision to others?" Thus, the justification process is a very real part of these women's everyday worlds. Part of their management strategy is to tap into other cultural values (e.g., earning a living, being responsible, getting a good education, creating a family) that demonstrate their good citizenship. Clothing for the baby is not a part of it. The fact that single parents deal with the question of explaining their behavior to many people lowers the pressure and commitment to relate to fashion clothing as a condition of acceptance. Being a solo mother includes many conflicts related to the social facet. This may explain the fact that only partnered mothers had relationship with self confidence and in solo mothers self confidence has no significant effect on fashion involvement. This may cause the results that in the partnered mothers the relationship between self confidence and fashion involvement is stronger than amongst solo mothers.

Certainly the term single mothers by choice itself suggest collusion with the national ethos on responsible decision making by people with decent jobs. On the other hand partnered mothers may perhaps be more eager to receive approval from their and their partner's family, leading them to a significant positive relationship between self-confidence and product fashion involvement.

The regression also supports the results indicates that in solo as well as in partnered mothers media channel usage, Price/quality and public self-consciousness are the main important variables predicting fashion involvement of the new mothers and in partnered mothers self-confidence and the baby's age were also high correlated with fashion involvement.

Since an important aim of the research was to determine if there is any difference between solo and partnered mothers regarding fashion involvement it was interesting to see that this is not relevant to the marital status of the new mother but to her public self-consciousness, her media usage and her price perception. The significant positive relationship with media usage, and price perception can imply that first time motherhood is a significant transition connected with changing identity, new fears and anticipations, as well as the new mother's aspirations and anxiety (Banister & Hogg, 2006; O'Malley 2006). These new possible selves of the mother occur during pregnancy and increase with birth up to the baby's age of two years of age. The use of media usages increases their awareness and attention to baby products and consequently increases their involvement with baby clothes. Not knowing what brands are the best, new mothers will perceive the quality base according to price (the higher price indicting better quality) and will increase their prestige sensitivity for unknown products leading to higher involvement and attention to the unknown, unfamiliar baby products. Becoming a mother is a dramatic transition that drives women to the Web in search of advice and desire to connect with others in her shoes (Nielsen Spring 2009:10).

[http://www.nielsen.com/content/dam/corporate/us/en/newswire/uploads/2009/05/nielsen\\_powermoms.pdf](http://www.nielsen.com/content/dam/corporate/us/en/newswire/uploads/2009/05/nielsen_powermoms.pdf) -

Knowing the predictors influencing fashion involvement allowing marketers of baby clothing to modify the media channels, the messages, the price of the product as well as its better positioning for the target market

The results exemplify that income and working status do not predict fashion. This can be connected to the fact that new mothers are so unfamiliar and excited about purchasing new products for the newborn that their income and work status have no significant influence on their involvement and attention in the consumption of baby products for the first time.

It is logical to conclude that regardless of the mother's financial status, she will buy the high prestige quality of a high price for her newborn. She will use more media channels to approve her decision and use baby clothing as a new identity role to ensure her self-confidence and public self-consciousness as a mother.

Consumers who have high fashion involvement and are highly involved in dress, involved in its purchase, in advertising and in the consumption decision are among the first to purchase apparel when new styles appear in the market. Their action will be crucial to the product's adoption by the market (Goldsmith et al., 1999).

The results shows that solo and partnered mothers having high involvement are less cost conscious, spend much more time shopping and having more knowledge. They are more interested and are less traditional. Both new solo or partnered mothers with a high price perception, high usage of media, are young, aware, and conscious of the baby's clothing probably have high involvement and will act as fashion leaders for baby clothes.

Baby clothes is a subject that is hard to evaluate from the price perspective, especially as regards clothes for baby girls, as it is hard to face the temptations to dress them in diverse ways. The average expenditure by parents on clothing during the first year is between \$750-1000 (<http://www.1mother.net>). The baby clothing market grows rapidly (3 billion NIS per year). In view of the expenditure on baby clothes it is acceptable for

the marketers to find some new methods and strategies for entering that sector. High or low involvement influences the decision making process, its stages and information search, and the evaluation process is longer, actively moving through the internal route and using cognitive factors.

The marketers can apply each segment with different focus: in the solo mothers they can emphasize the positioning and image of the product controlling the mother's prestige sensitivity and her involvement. In partnered mothers the marketers can focus on the self-confidence of the new mothers controlling her fashion involvement. The influence of the mothers' self-confidence can be by combining the product to being "good mother" and increasing her confidence by buying the "right" product. In both segments the marketers should advertise and acknowledge new mothers through magazines, internet and television using passive media focus on the price quality of the baby's clothes. The results show that solo and partnered mothers with high involvement are less cost conscious, spend much more time shopping and having more knowledge. They are more interested and are less traditional. Both new solo or partnered mothers with a high price perception, high usage of media, are young, aware, and conscious of the baby's dressing probably have high involvement and will act as fashion leaders for baby clothes.

Fashion leaders affect the market and have great power to enter a new product to the market. Knowing that can help the marketers to target this mother's sector by developing gender-specific advertising and marketing strategies.

Based on this study, new mothers are interested in a profit valuable market because they are uncertain and insecure, and use clothes as status and positioning their being "good mothers".

### **6.3 The research limitations**

This section focuses on the research limitations and recommendations for further research in the future based on the findings. The study sample focused on Jewish mothers, ignoring the Arab and Druze population due to its small percentage in the population (5% of the new mothers in Israel are Arab or Druze). Another limitation was the difficulty to control the income and financial support of the new mother.

Even though the questionnaire concerned the average income for a family including salary and other forms of income, not all the mothers wanted to share their full financial support out of shame or confidentiality. This may affect the results and increase the real finance situation of the sample.

Another limitation was the fact that the study did not explore the mother's involvement in fashion before transition to motherhood or the mother's involvement in her fashion dressing itself. This may be a recommendation for future research.

The last limitation refers to the fact that the search was conducted during a period of economic depression in Israel, and which may influence the price sensitivity security.

### **6.4 Recommendations for future research**

A regression analysis indicates that the selected variables account for only a small part of the variance in fashion involvement. They have some influence on fashion involvement, but income, work, or marital status have no affect at all. The researcher recommends that future studies dealing with fashion involvement identify additional concepts that influence women's purchase behavior to better describe this market. New mothers are a very important and valuable sector not treated properly by the marketers. The researcher recommends exploring if there is difference between fashion involvement of the new mothers in baby clothes compared to fashion involvement with her own apparel and her own dress before motherhood to see if the transition to motherhood has any influence on involvement.

Since solo mothers is a growing phenomenon she suggests exploring whether there are unique and specific factors with an exclusive influence on the solo mother's fashion involvement.

The present study was limited to fashion involvement and its influence on purchasing behavior. There are, however, many other variables which have some influence on purchase behavior of new mothers like religious, cultural or ethnicity.

With cultural, social, and economic shifts in society, women as a group of consumers, have become the majority. Since a mother's purchase behavior is very unique, it is essential for businesses that target female consumers to make a corresponding shift in marketing strategies. Fashion involvement for baby clothes is one characteristic that can provide producers and marketers with additional information on how the mothers, as consumers, behave in the marketplace. If businesses that target mothers as consumers want to be successful, they will need to make transformational changes in their philosophies concerning marketing and promotion.

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# Appendices

## Appendix 1: Population data

|        | Total Population(6)(7) |         |        |         | (7)(6) |        |         |
|--------|------------------------|---------|--------|---------|--------|--------|---------|
| ..     | 1,891                  | 40,154  | 10,532 | 50,686  | 2,156  | 14,742 | 1955    |
| ..     | 2,105                  | 40,262  | 12,025 | 52,287  | 2,070  | 15,098 | 1956    |
| ..     | 2,104                  | 41,453  | 12,487 | 53,940  | 2,203  | 15,983 | 1957    |
| 764    | 1,845                  | 41,034  | 11,615 | 52,649  | 2,267  | 16,562 | 1958    |
| 736    | 1,674                  | 42,548  | 12,056 | 54,604  | 2,137  | 16,163 | 1959    |
| 720    | 1,754                  | 43,949  | 12,053 | 56,002  | 2,210  | 16,532 | 1960    |
| 756    | 1,598                  | 42,206  | 12,663 | 54,869  | 2,023  | 15,823 | 1961    |
| 754    | 1,840                  | 42,655  | 13,701 | 56,356  | 2,116  | 16,838 | 1962    |
| 859    | 1,636                  | 45,066  | 14,425 | 59,491  | 2,253  | 18,318 | 1963    |
| 875    | 1,970                  | 48,053  | 15,491 | 63,544  | 2,213  | 19,238 | 1964    |
| 951    | 1,811                  | 49,885  | 16,261 | 66,146  | 2,303  | 20,283 | 1965    |
| 854    | 1,755                  | 50,566  | 16,582 | 67,148  | 2,237  | 20,662 | 1966    |
| 861    | 1,685                  | 47,337  | 17,643 | 64,980  | 2,142  | 19,989 | 1967    |
| 844    | 1,731                  | 51,222  | 18,689 | 69,911  | 2,381  | 23,159 | 1968    |
| 816    | 1,733                  | 53,899  | 19,767 | 73,666  | 2,355  | 25,477 | 1969    |
| 856    | 1,765                  | 57,217  | 20,384 | 77,601  | 2,442  | 26,593 | 1970    |
| 899    | 1,960                  | 59,609  | 21,234 | 80,843  | 2,442  | 26,593 | (5)1970 |
| 920    | 1,977                  | 64,484  | 21,415 | 85,899  | 2,486  | 28,357 | 1971    |
| 843    | 2,067                  | 62,825  | 22,719 | 85,544  | 2,665  | 29,161 | 1972    |
| 823    | 2,017                  | 65,491  | 23,054 | 88,545  | 2,651  | 28,966 | 1973    |
| 823    | 2,017                  | 65,491  | 23,054 | 88,545  | 2,672  | 29,347 | (5)1973 |
| 929    | 2,186                  | 69,031  | 24,135 | 93,166  | 2,876  | 32,458 | 1974    |
| 966    | 2,192                  | 71,028  | 24,600 | 95,628  | 3,100  | 32,335 | 1975    |
| 914    | 1,986                  | 74,751  | 24,012 | 98,763  | 3,287  | 29,314 | 1976    |
| 841    | 1,700                  | 70,364  | 24,951 | 95,315  | 3,691  | 29,253 | 1977    |
| 739    | 1,596                  | 67,449  | 25,153 | 92,602  | 3,917  | 29,379 | 1978    |
| 599    | 1,552                  | 68,010  | 25,700 | 93,710  | 4,196  | 29,924 | 1979    |
| 490    | 1,471                  | 67,957  | 26,364 | 94,321  | 4,439  | 29,592 | 1980    |
| 590    | 1,467                  | 67,223  | 26,085 | 93,308  | 4,629  | 29,848 | 1981    |
| 562    | 1,364                  | 68,915  | 27,780 | 96,695  | 4,691  | 29,700 | (5)1982 |
| 585    | 1,357                  | 70,993  | 27,731 | 98,724  | 5,061  | 30,724 | 1983    |
| 544    | 1,261                  | 70,673  | 27,805 | 98,478  | 4,834  | 29,871 | 1984    |
| 569    | 1,183                  | 71,283  | 28,093 | 99,376  | 4,911  | 29,158 | 1985    |
| 511    | 1,136                  | 69,926  | 29,415 | 99,341  | 5,086  | 30,113 | 1986    |
| 558    | 1,099                  | 69,778  | 29,244 | 99,022  | 5,289  | 30,116 | (5)1987 |
| 552    | 1,013                  | 71,278  | 29,176 | 100,454 | 5,592  | 31,218 | 1988    |
| 507    | 1,014                  | 72,157  | 28,600 | 100,757 | 5,829  | 32,303 | 1989    |
| 438    | 1,026                  | 74,615  | 28,734 | 103,349 | 6,325  | 31,746 | 1990    |
| 484    | 975                    | 74,459  | 31,266 | 105,725 | 6,291  | 32,291 | 1991    |
| 508    | 1,038                  | 76,735  | 33,327 | 110,062 | 7,029  | 32,769 | 1992    |
| 450    | 876                    | 79,303  | 33,027 | 112,330 | 7,324  | 34,856 | 1993    |
| 478    | 863                    | 81,008  | 33,535 | 114,543 | 8,232  | 36,035 | 1994    |
| 509    | 799                    | 81,538  | 35,348 | 116,886 | 9,402  | 35,990 | 1995    |
| 434    | 774                    | 86,669  | 34,664 | 121,333 | 8,578  | 36,081 | 1996    |
| 429    | 802                    | 88,354  | 36,124 | 124,478 | 9,099  | 37,611 | 1997    |
| 510    | 774                    | 93,125  | 36,955 | 130,080 | 9,886  | 40,137 | 1998    |
| 557    | 769                    | 94,645  | 37,291 | 131,936 | 10,683 | 40,236 | 1999    |
| 245    | 748                    | 98,702  | 37,688 | 136,390 | 10,723 | 38,894 | 2000    |
| 595    | 700                    | 99,450  | 37,186 | 136,636 | 11,164 | 38,924 | 2001    |
| 549    | 752                    | 101,120 | 38,415 | 139,535 | 10,939 | 39,718 | 2002    |
| 532    | 717                    | 106,437 | 38,499 | 144,936 | 10,689 | 39,154 | 2003    |
| (3)462 | 670                    | 107,269 | 37,938 | 145,207 | 11,181 | 39,855 | 2004    |

**Appendix 2 : Marriages, divorces, live births, (CBS, 2008 table no 1331**

| Mother's Marital Status                                   | Unknown    | +45        | 40-44        | 35-39         | 30-34         | 25-29         | 20-24         | Up to 19     | Total          |
|---|------------|------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|----------------|
| <b>Absolute Numbers</b>                                   |            |            |              |               |               |               |               |              |                |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>65</b>  | <b>362</b> | <b>3,617</b> | <b>14,533</b> | <b>30,158</b> | <b>33,068</b> | <b>17,001</b> | <b>1,258</b> | <b>100,062</b> |
| Never-Married   | 1          | 62         | 279          | 701           | 901           | 643           | 518           | 204          | 3,309          |
| Married   | 11         | 268        | 3,088        | 13,079        | 28,493        | 31,974        | 16,391        | 1,050        | 94,354         |
| Divorced/Widowed  | 3          | 31         | 247          | 740           | 741           | 418           | 69            | 1            | 2,250          |
| Unknown   | 50         | 1          | 3            | 13            | 23            | 33            | 23            | 3            | 149            |
| <b>Rates per 1,000 women in the population aged 15-49</b> |            |            |              |               |               |               |               |              |                |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>2.3</b> |            | <b>23.9</b>  | <b>94.7</b>   | <b>167.2</b>  | <b>164.7</b>  | <b>83.9</b>   | <b>6.2</b>   |                |
| Never-Married   | 6.6        |            | 25.9         | 47.8          | 31.2          | 8.3           | 3.3           | 1.0          | 79.9           |
| Married   | 2.2        |            | 26.6         | 110.0         | 210.3         | 278.3         | 361.4         | 329.0        | 6.7            |
| Divorced/Widowed  | 1.1        |            | 10.2         | 37.4          | 46.8          | 50.3          | 39.9          | 24.5         | 144.3          |
|   |            |            |              |               |               |               |               |              | 22.7           |

**2004**

### **Appendix 3: The questionnaire**

Dear Miss /Madam,

As part of a doctoral research study, a field study has conducted among women who have recently had their first baby. The study aim is to improve the understanding of women's behavior in the period following their first birth. There is no right or wrong answer, and you are asked to reply according to your personal opinion only.

The questionnaire is concerning you're baby's clothing includes: dresses, sportswear, active sportswear, suits and coats, knitwear, swimwear, rainwear, pants, blouses, and jeans.

Completing the survey will only take you 10-15 minutes

The questionnaire is anonymous and will be used for research purposes only.

Thank you for your cooperation,

Iris Gertner Moryossef

Researcher

Question no 1: Regarding fashion clothing for your baby please circle your response to the following statements where 1 = extremely disagree and 7 = extremely agree....

|   | Extremely<br>Disagree    | Extremely<br>Disagree    | Quite Disagree           | Slightly                 | Mixed Feeling            | Slightly Agree           | Quite Agree              | Agree                    | Extremely<br>Agree       |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Fashion clothing product involvement</b>   |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |
| 1. Fashion clothing for my baby means a lot to me   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Fashion clothing for my baby is a significant part of my life  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. I consider baby's fashion clothing to be a central part of my life   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I am very interested in baby's fashion clothing  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5 Some mothers are completely involved with fashion clothing, attached to it, absorbed by it. For others Fashion Clothing is simply not that involving. How involved are you with Fashion | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Baby's fashion Clothing is important to me   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Baby's fashion Clothing or my baby is an important part of my life.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8 I would say baby's fashion Clothing is central to my identity as a person   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9 I am very much involved in/with baby's fashion clothing   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <b>Fashion clothing purchase decision involvement</b>   |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |
| 1. Making purchase decisions for baby's fashion clothing is significant to me   | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| Extremely Agree  | Quite Agree | Slightly Agree | Mixed Feeling | Slightly Disagree | Quite Disagree | Extremely Disagree |  |
|--|-------------|----------------|---------------|-------------------|----------------|--------------------|--|
| 2. Some mothers become completely involved or engrossed in making purchase decisions for baby's fashion Clothing. For others, purchase decisions for Fashion Clothing are not that involving. How involved do you feel in making purchase decisions for baby's Fashion Clothing? |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| I think a lot about my choices when it comes to Fashion Clothing for my baby   |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 4. I consider high significant in making the right decision when it comes to Fashion Clothing  |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 5. Purchase decisions for Fashion Clothing are very important to me  |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 6. Making a purchase decision for Fashion Clothing requires a lot of thought   |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 7. I attach great importance to purchasing Fashion Clothing for baby   |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 8. I like being involved in making purchases of Fashion Clothing for my baby   |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 9. The purchase of Fashion Clothing for my baby is important to me   |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 10. Purchasing Fashion Clothing for my baby is significant to me   |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| <b>Fashion clothing consumption involvement</b>  |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 1. The feeling of self-fulfillment I get from having Fashion Clothing for my baby is significant   |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 2. I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when I wear Fashion Clothing for my baby  |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 3. Buying Fashion Clothing for my baby is one of the most satisfying and enjoyable things I do   |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| <b>Fashion clothing advertising involvement</b>  |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |
| 1. Ads about fashion clothing for babies are of no concern to me   |             |                |               |                   |                |                    |  |

|   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 2. I pay a lot of attention to ads for Fashion Clothing for babies  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3. Some mothers become completely involved, absorbed or engrossed in ads for Fashion Clothing. For others, ads for Fashion Clothing are simply not that involving. How involved do you feel in ads for Fashion Clothing                     |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4. Ads about Fashion Clothing or babies are relevant to me  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5. Ads about Fashion Clothing for babies are important to me  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6. Ads about Fashion Clothing for babies are interesting to me  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8. Some mothers are completely involved or absorbed by in any information about fashion clothing or babies. For others information on fashion clothing is not at all involving. How involved are you in information about Fashion Clothing? |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 9. I have little or no interest in ads for baby's fashion Clothing  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

| <b>Price perception (4 items price /quality and 8 items price prestige)</b>                                  | <b>Disagree</b>          | <b>Extremely Disagree</b> | <b>Quite Disagree</b>    | <b>Slightly</b>          | <b>Mixed Feeling</b>     | <b>Slightly Agree</b>    | <b>Quite Agree</b>       | <b>Extremely</b>         |
|--|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Price perception - Price/quality (4 items)</b>  |                          |                           |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |
| 1. The old saying" you get what you pay for " is generally true  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. The price of a product is a good indicator of its quality.  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Generally speaking, the higher the price of the product, the higher the quality.                          | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. You always have to pay a bit more for the best.   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <b>Price perception / Prestige sensitivity ( questions no 5-12 :8 items)</b>                                 |                          |                           |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |
| 5. People notice when you buy the most expensive brand of a product.   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Buying a high price brand makes me feel good about<br>Myself  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Buying the most expensive brand of a product makes me<br>feel classy.                                     | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. I enjoy the prestige of buying a high priced product.   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. It says something to people when you buy the high price<br>version  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. Your friends will think you are cheap if you consistently buy the<br>lowest priced version of a product. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11. I think others make judgments about me by the kind of<br>products and brands I buy.                      | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/>  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| <b>Media usage (7 items)</b>   | Extremely Disagree       | Quite Disagree           | Slightly Disagree        | Mixed Feeling            | Slightly Agree           | Quite Agree | Extremely |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-------------|-----------|
| 1. I often buy baby's clothing that is advertised.                                     | <input type="checkbox"/> |             |           |
| 2. I buy more babies' clothing items if I have seen these worn or used by a celebrity. | <input type="checkbox"/> |             |           |
| 3. I tend to notice baby's clothes in movies.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |             |           |
| 4. I notice baby's clothing in television shows  | <input type="checkbox"/> |             |           |
| 5. I notice the baby's clothing in magazines.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |             |           |
| 6. I seek out the latest fashions of baby's clothing on the Internet.                  | <input type="checkbox"/> |             |           |
| 7. I like to buy baby's clothes from upper-scale catalogs.                             | <input type="checkbox"/> |             |           |

| <b>Please circle your response.</b><br><b>Personality traits( 6 items self confidence and 7 items Public self-consciousness )</b> | Extremely Disagree       | Extremely Disagree       | Slightly                 | Mixed Feeling            | Slightly Agree           | Quite Agree              | Agree                    | Extremely Agree          |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <b>Personality traits- Self-confidence (6 items)</b>  |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |
| 1. As a mother I have more self-confidence than most mother   | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. As a mother I am more independent than most mothers  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3 .As a mother I think I have a lot of personal ability.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. As a mother I like to be considered a leader.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5 As a mother I've never been really outstanding at anything.   |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |                          |
| 6. As a mother I often can talk others into doing something.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <b>Personality traits - Public self-consciousness (7</b>  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 1. As a mother I'm strongly concerned about my style of doing things  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. As a mother I'm concerned about the way I present my baby  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. As a mother I'm self-conscious about the way my baby look  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. . As a mother I usually worry about making a good impression.  | <input type="checkbox"/> |



Thank you for your time