SELECTED ANTECEDENTS, ATTITUDES AND WILLINGNESS TO PURCHASE COUNTERFEIT SPORTSWEAR PRODUCTS BY STUDENTS AT A SELECTED HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION

by

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DEDICATION

I am grateful to God Almighty for granting me the strength to finish this study timeously and passionately. I give all the glory, thanks to Him.

This study is dedicated to:

- My late mother, Martha Mokoena. Your teachings and guidance made me who I am today.
- My late brother, Tsietso Mokoena, I wish you were here. Your sacrifices in life so that I could have better things in life did not go unnoticed. You always believed that I am destined for better things in life.
- My children, Mpho and Kingsley. You are the pillars of my strength. Even when I feel like giving up, I remember that you look up to me and regard me as your perfect role model.
- To my sister, Paulina Ntsala, you are my rock.

DECLARATION

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

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STATEMENT 1

This dissertation is being submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Management: Marketing.

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STATEMENT 2

This dissertation is the result of my own independent work / investigation, except otherwise stated. Other sources are acknowledged by giving explicit references. A list bibliography is appended for this purpose.

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I hereby give consent for my dissertation, if accepted, to be available for photocopying and for interlibrary loans, and the title and summary to be made available to outside organisations.

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ABSTRACT

Key Words: counterfeit; intellectual property rights; sportswear; theory of planned behaviour; HEI; materialism; hedonic, utilitarian, novelty-seeking; personal gratification; attitudes; behaviour.

Counterfeiting is a global phenomenon in developed and developing countries, causing a threat to national economies and societies. It negatively harms new investment and progressively endangers public health and safety as well. Known and famous brands are often targeted for counterfeiting. This phenomenon is primarily driven by consumers' aspiring attitudes, social media pressures and the need to differentiate oneself. The aim of the study is to examine the influence of materialism, hedonic consumption motive, utilitarian consumption motive, personal gratification and novelty-seeking on attitudes and the influence of attitudes on willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear products at a selected HEI.

The study is grounded within the positivist philosophy, in which a quantitative research approach was followed, since positivists prefer an analytic and factual interpretation of quantitative data. An online structured questionnaire was used to collect data through an online survey. The study sample was conveniently selected from a population of registered students at a selected HEI in Southern Gauteng in the 2020 academic year. Data were collected on demographic variables, materialism (MAT), hedonic motivation (HED), utilitarian motive (UTL), personal gratification (PGT), novelty-seeking (NOS), attitude towards counterfeits (ATC) and willingness to purchase (WTP) counterfeit sportswear. A total of 327 questionnaires were completed and used in the final data analysis. Descriptive statistics techniques, correlations and regression analysis were used to evaluate perceptions and relationships between the study constructs.

The research results revealed the existence of significant positive associations amongst the study constructs. Of the five antecedents, two of the five predictor variables, namely, UTL and NOS showed significant predictive relationships with attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear purchases. Attitudes towards counterfeits (ATC) also emerged as a significant predictor of students' WTP counterfeit sportswear.

Since NOS and UTL seem to predict a positive attitude towards counterfeit sportswear, the study recommends that brand owners develop awareness about ethical purchasing behaviour. They should also educate consumers on the social and economic downside of buying counterfeit products and that seeking novelty when purchasing counterfeit products may soon wane and wear off,

leading to regret and cognitive dissonance. Further, brand marketers should also emphasise the utility value inherent in the purchase of authentic branded products instead of buying counterfeits. Since consumers cannot often readily distinguish between genuine and fake sportswear, it is therefore critical for marketers of branded products to promote the contrast of originals and fakes and to underline the quality, longevity, and dependability of their authentic products in the market.

These results make a valuable contribution to academics, brand managers and marketers, as the results reveal that consumer buying can be influenced by personality and social interests of different individuals. The study notes that laws only cannot prohibit the sale and purchase of counterfeit products. It requires the stricter implementation thereof. Further, there is a need for behavioural change strategies to counter the effects of counterfeiting. Nudges such as promotions and loyalty programmes may encourage the purchase of authentic products as opposed to the purchase of counterfeits.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACRONYM	MEANING
$	United States Dollar
€	Great British Pound
ATC	Attitude towards counterfeits
BASCAP	Business Action to Stop Counterfeiting and Piracy
BERA	Business Research and Economics Advisor
BN	Billion
CGA	Counterfeit Goods Act
CK	Calvin Klein
CoJ	City of Johannesburg
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EPL	English Premier League
EUIPO	European Union Intellectual Property Office
FTZ	Free trade zones
GACG	Global Anti-Counterfeiting Group
GDP	Gross domestic product
GIPC	Global Innovation Policy Centre
HED	Hedonic
HEI	Higher Education Institution
IBM	International Business Machines Corporation
ICC	International Chamber of Commerce
IDC	Industrial Development Corporation
IP	Intellectual property
IT	Information Technology
IV	Independent variables
KMO	Keyser-Meyer Olkin
LMS	Learning Management System
LVMH	Moët Hennessy Louis Vuitton
MAT	Materialism
NOS	Novelty-seeking

OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation Development
PGT	Personal gratification
RM	Malaysian Ringgit (Currency)
SA	South Africa
SAFLIA	South African Leather and Footwear Industries Association
SAIIPL	South African Institute of Intellectual Property Law
SAPS	South African Police Services
SAR	South African Rand
SARS	South African Revenue Services
SCA	Supreme Court of Appeal
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
TRIPS	Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights
US	United States
USD	United States Dollar
UTL	Utilitarian
VAT	Value added tax
VOCFM	Voice of Cape frequency modulation
VUT	Vaal University of Technology
WTO	World Trade Organisation
WTP	Willingness to purchase

CHAPTER 1:
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKROUND

The emergence of counterfeiting is not new, with recent evidence showing its prevalence within a broad spectrum of product categories (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD 2009:2; OECD 2016:50), driven largely by consumers' aspiring attitudes, social media pressures and the need to differentiate oneself (Bian & Moutinho 2011:192; Cheng, Fu & Tu 2011:278). It has become a global phenomenon in developed and developing countries, causing a threat to economies and societies (Bian & Moutinho 2011:192; Quoquab, Pahlevan, Mohammad & Thurasamy 2017:837). Trade in counterfeit goods is widespread, growing in scope and magnitude and causing a significant amount of damage to a free market economy (OECD 2018:13).

Counterfeit products are described as any unauthorised product that infringes upon intellectual property rights (IPR) (Swami, Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham 2009:820) through unlawful copying and production of a product (Darmayanti & Boediono 2012:122). Counterfeit products are reproductions of a trademark brand, which are closely similar or identical to genuine products that may include similarities in packaging, labelling and trademarks to intentionally pass off as the original (Chacharkar 2013:13). Counterfeit goods are generally made from lower quality components in an attempt to sell a cheap imitation of similar goods produced by brands that consumers know and trust (Sonderholm 2010:1109; Quoquab *et al.* 2017:837).

Counterfeiting is a serious threat to the world trade ecosystem. According to OECD (2009:1), in 2007 estimated trade involving counterfeit products was worth USD250 billion. In 2016, counterfeit and pirated goods amounted to as much as USD509 billion, which represents 3.3% of the world trade (OECD-EUIPO 2019:11). It can be noted that of all seizures by the US Customs in relation to IPR infringements, counterfeit sporting goods accounted for 10% of all goods seized in 1994 (OECD (1998:15). Magwaza (2012) confirms that during the 2011 financial year, the South African Revenue Service (SARS) made 20 000 seizures of illegal goods to the value of almost R1 billion. OECD (2016:49) reports that China is by far the biggest country of origin of counterfeit products, followed by India, Malaysia, Pakistan, and Turkey.

Counterfeit products are sometimes purchased by consumers who are unaware that they are not genuine (deceptive counterfeiting), where consumers purchase counterfeits believing they have purchased the genuine product. (Chiu & Leng 2016:24). However, there are those consumers who knowingly purchase counterfeit products, which is considered non-deceptive counterfeiting (Chiu & Leng 2016:24). In this study, only non-deceptive counterfeiting is examined. Chaudhry and Stumpf (2011:140) postulate that counterfeit products are sold illegally and blame consumers for being willing to purchase these illegal products and making the practice acceptable in society.

Although counterfeiting seems to appear in a broad spectrum of product categories, the demand for sports apparel and sport footwear categories, where lower levels of technology is required to produce them (OECD 2009:3), appears to be the highest, driven by lower prices compared to their genuine counterparts (Chiu & Leng 2016:23). Wood (2018) points out that sportswear is not just a fashion choice but essential for the young and middle-aged generation. In order to curb consumer demand for counterfeit sportswear, it is necessary to have a deeper understanding of what drives the consumer purchasing decision between an original branded product and a counterfeit (Shunmugam 2015:3).

1.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Literature in the domain of counterfeiting suggests that the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) has been most widely used and supported among researchers to underpin counterfeiting (Chiu, Lee & Won 2014:618; Chiu & Leng 2016:26). According to the TPB, purchase behaviour is triggered by an attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control by a consumer (Ajzen 1985:12). Therefore, a positive attitude towards buying counterfeit sportswear is expected to affect the willingness to purchase of customers positively (Yoo & Lee 2009:284). The theory postulates that a person's intention to perform (or not to perform) behaviour is the immediate determinant of that action (Ajzen 1985:12).

The TPB was developed as an extension to the Theory of Reasoned Action (Chiu & Leng 2016:26). It is an appropriate theoretical framework for studies involving counterfeit products as it allows for the examination and prediction of behaviours that are not under complete volitional control of consumers (Chiu & Leng 2016:26). The TPB predicts an individual's intention to engage in a behaviour at a specific time and place (Ajzen 1991:181) and suggests that individual behaviour is driven by behavioural intentions, where behavioural intentions are a function of three determinants: an individual’s attitude toward behaviour; subjective norms; and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen 1991:181).

1.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review for this study is restricted to the antecedents that may have the propensity to trigger attitudes that in turn activate actual purchase behaviour. The literature review for the study is alluded to in the preceding section.

1.3.1 Materialism

Materialism is the importance people attach to tangible goods (Shunmugan 2015:17) and is also conceptualised as a set of attitudes that regard possessions as symbols of success, where possessions occupy a central part of life, which include holding the belief that more possessions lead to more happiness (Chan & Prendergast 2007:214). Materialism is a consumer value embedded in possessions, which play a role in consumer lives (Richins & Dawson 1992:307).

At its high level, materialism epitomises possessions, which assume a central place in a person’s life and are believed to provide the greatest sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Belk 1984:291). Belk (1984:291) developed a scale to measure materialism and identified three sub-traits within the construct: envy, non-generosity, and possessiveness. Envy refers to the displeasure that one experiences due to witnessing success, happiness and possession of others. Non-generosity is the unwillingness to share one’s possessions with others, and possessiveness refers to the tendency of one to maintain possession of one’s things and unwillingness to give things away.

Focusing on Belk’s idea, Richins and Dawson (1992:307) developed a new, value-oriented scale to measure materialism, which consists of three components: acquisition centrality, acquisition as the pursuit of happiness, and possession-defined success. Acquisition centrality refers to the notion that materialistic individuals place possessions at the centre of their lives. Possessions are of the utmost importance to materialistic individuals. The concept of acquisition as the pursuit of happiness refers to the idea that materialistic individuals view their possessions and acquisition of possessions as necessary for satisfaction and happiness in their lives. The third component, possession-defined success, refers to the idea that materialistic individuals judge the success of others as well as themselves based on possessions attained (Richins & Dawson 1992:307).

As acquisition and possession are components of materialism, consumers who are materialistic may find that counterfeit goods serve as an adequate mechanism to satisfy their desire for goods that they might not otherwise be able to afford to possess (Kirkwood-Mazik 2014:76). Although often studied as a predictor of willingness to purchase, materialism as an antecedent to attitude toward counterfeit products represents a relationship that has not been widely studied in the marketing literature (Kirkwood-Mazik 2014:76).

Hence, based on the foregoing argument, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H1: Materialism has a significant relationship with consumer attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear.

1.3.2 Hedonic consumption motive

Hedonic consumption is a facet of consumer behaviour that relates to the multisensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of product usage experience (Hirschman & Holbrook 1982:92). Totawar and Nambudiri (2014:319) point out that hedonic or intrinsic motivation gives immediate need satisfaction, and an intrinsically motivated act is valued for its own sake and appears to be self-sustaining. McReynolds (1971:157) adds that hedonic or intrinsically motivated behaviours are carried out because such behaviours themselves have an appeal or are enjoyable; therefore, aspects such as shopping behaviour are recreational, pleasurable and stimulation-oriented motivations.

Hedonic motivation stimulates consumers to shop because shopping entails a certain amount of pleasure, and therefore they do not pay attention to the utility of the goods they have bought (Aldaning & Achmad 2018:18). According to Babin, Darden and Griffin (1994:646) hedonic shopping value suggests that consumers shop for seeking value according to pleasure, recreational consumption and high-arousal stimuli. Aldaning and Achmad (2018:22) found that the effect of hedonic motivation toward buying influences the decision that can be caused by a desire to raise prestige or just to follow recent trends. Hedonic motivation will force consumers to act, which may activate a buying decision (Schiffman & Kanuk 2004:72).

Hedonic consumption motivation consists of six principal dimensions, namely, adventure, gratification, role, value, social, and the idea (Shunmugan (2015:17). These dimensions are associated to shopping which, in turn, may have the propensity to influence consumers to fulfil hedonic desires that can subsequently easily sway them to purchase counterfeit sportswear products.

Based on these affirmations, the following hypothesis is set:

H2: Hedonic consumption has a significant relationship with consumer attitude to purchase counterfeit sportswear.

1.3.3 Utilitarian consumption motive

The utilitarian consumption motive to purchase a product is driven by its functional utility and its practical uses based on consumers' needs (Totawar & Nambudiri 2014:319). From the utilitarian perspective, consumers are motivated to purchase products with an efficient and timely expenditure of resources (Workman 2010:126). Hoffman and Novak (1996:52) posit that utilitarian motivation is relevant to the task-specific use of learning, such as purchase deliberation, that is, considering the product, service and price before the actual purchase.

The utilitarian aspect of an attitude toward a behaviour relates to usefulness or utility value as perceived by consumers (Hirchman & Solomon 1984:429). Their interactions are transactional as they trade between similar choices based on their perceptions of relative value propositions (Bradt 2016). Sportswear as utility goods are items that are purchased frequently and are a regular part of a consumer's life, which allows the consumer to be more price-sensitive towards these goods because they are purchased and used frequently. Hence, such goods may serve their utility value and may trigger a positive attitude towards their purchase.

Hence, based on the foregoing argument, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: Utilitarian consumption motivation has a significant relationship with consumer attitudes to purchasing counterfeit sportswear.

1.3.4 Personal gratification

Gratification is the pleasurable emotional reaction of happiness in response to the fulfilment of a desire or goal (Ang, Cheng, Lim & Tambyah 2001:224). Ang *et al.* (2001:224) define personal gratification as an individual's need for social recognition seeking a great accomplishment in one's life, and striving for a comfortable living. Phau, Teah and Lee (2008:7) allude that personal gratification is linked to the need for a sense of accomplishment, social recognition and the enjoyment of the finer things in life.

Most counterfeit products do not provide similar levels of quality compared to genuine product, yet consumers who buy counterfeit products are willing to sacrifice quality and forego any product warranty associated with the original product (Ang *et al.* 2001:224). They do so because they do not value as much the pleasure of owning a better quality product but have a sense of accomplishment and social recognition that comes with enjoying the product. Bloch, Bush and Campbell (1993:30) narrate that consumers who do not buy counterfeit products have been observed to be less confident, less successful, and having lower perceived status. The characteristics are often associated with individuals who seek accomplishment and a higher standard of living associated with social recognition (Ang *et al.* 2001:224).

If consumers believe that buying merchandise is a means of personal gratification, self-representation and status, then they are likely to hold a favourable/unfavourable attitude toward buying counterfeit sportswear products, depending on the level of social recognition (Thurasamy, Mohamad, Jantan, Chow & Nasirin 2002:5).

Based on these affirmations, the following hypothesis is set:

H4: Personal gratification has a significant relationship with consumer attitudes to purchase counterfeit sportswear.

1.3.5 Novelty-seeking

Novelty-seeking is the internal motivation or internal drive of an individual to explore novel information (Hirschman 1980:285). Novelty-seeking refers to the fact that individuals keep on storing new information for future uncertainty, and based on this information, they keep on trying new things (Hirschman 1980:285). Phau and Teah (2009:18) identified novelty-seeking consumers as those who seek variety and differences when purchasing a product.

With an array of counterfeit products, many novel designs and versions of original brands provide a chance for consumers to calm their urges and explore new products (Rishi & Mehra 2017:6). Counterfeit products are low in price, and many versions of original branded products are available; therefore, consumers buy them to fulfil their need for experimentation and curiosity (Rishi & Mehra 2017:6). It is evident that novelty seekers are more concerned with satisfying their internal motivation of experimentation rather than the product itself for the benefits it entails (Wang 2017:247). Abid and Abbasi (2014:171) affirm that lower prices of counterfeit products motivate consumers to satisfy their curiosity and enhance the need for experience. Generally, the abundance of novel designs is available in counterfeit sportswear compared to original brands (Abid & Abbasi 2014:171).

Based on these notions, the following hypothesis is set:

H5: Novelty-seeking has a significant relationship with consumer attitudes to purchase counterfeit sportswear.

1.3.6 Attitude towards counterfeit products

Attitude is a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object (Fishbein & Ajzen1991:188). Raza, Ahmed, Ali and Qureshi (2019:4) consider attitude to be a feeling and thinking in a settled way, which denotes an individual's ability to react in a positive or negative way in a particular situation. According to Liao and Hsieh (2013:413), the most widely accepted definition of attitude conceives it as an evaluation, such as psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour. Therefore, an attitude can be used to predict an individual's intention of performing a specific behaviour e.g., buying a product. (Yoo & Lee 2009:280).

An individual's evaluating process of behaviour toward purchasing any product can be favourable or unfavourable (Raza *et al.* 2019:4). Therefore, attitudes will be influenced by beliefs about the disadvantages and advantages of performing a specified behaviour, such as engaging in the purchase of counterfeit products (Bupalan, Rahim, Ahmi & Rahman 2019:974). Accordingly, consumers who have knowledge about counterfeits may have a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward counterfeit consumption (Moon *et al.* 2018:804).

The study will assume that when the attitude towards a counterfeit product is favourable, it is likely that students will buy counterfeit sportswear; however, if the attitude towards counterfeit products is unfavourable, they may not buy counterfeit sportswear (Chiu & Leng 2016:25; Quoquab 2017:840; Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:8).

Based on these affirmations, the following hypothesis is set:

H6: Attitude towards counterfeit sportswear has a significant relationship with willingness to purchase.

1.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The framework in Figure 1.1 illustrates the relationship between the independent variables (materialism, hedonic motive, utilitarian motive, personal gratification and novelty-seeking) that may have an effect on the attitude towards counterfeit products that leads to willingness to purchase among university students.

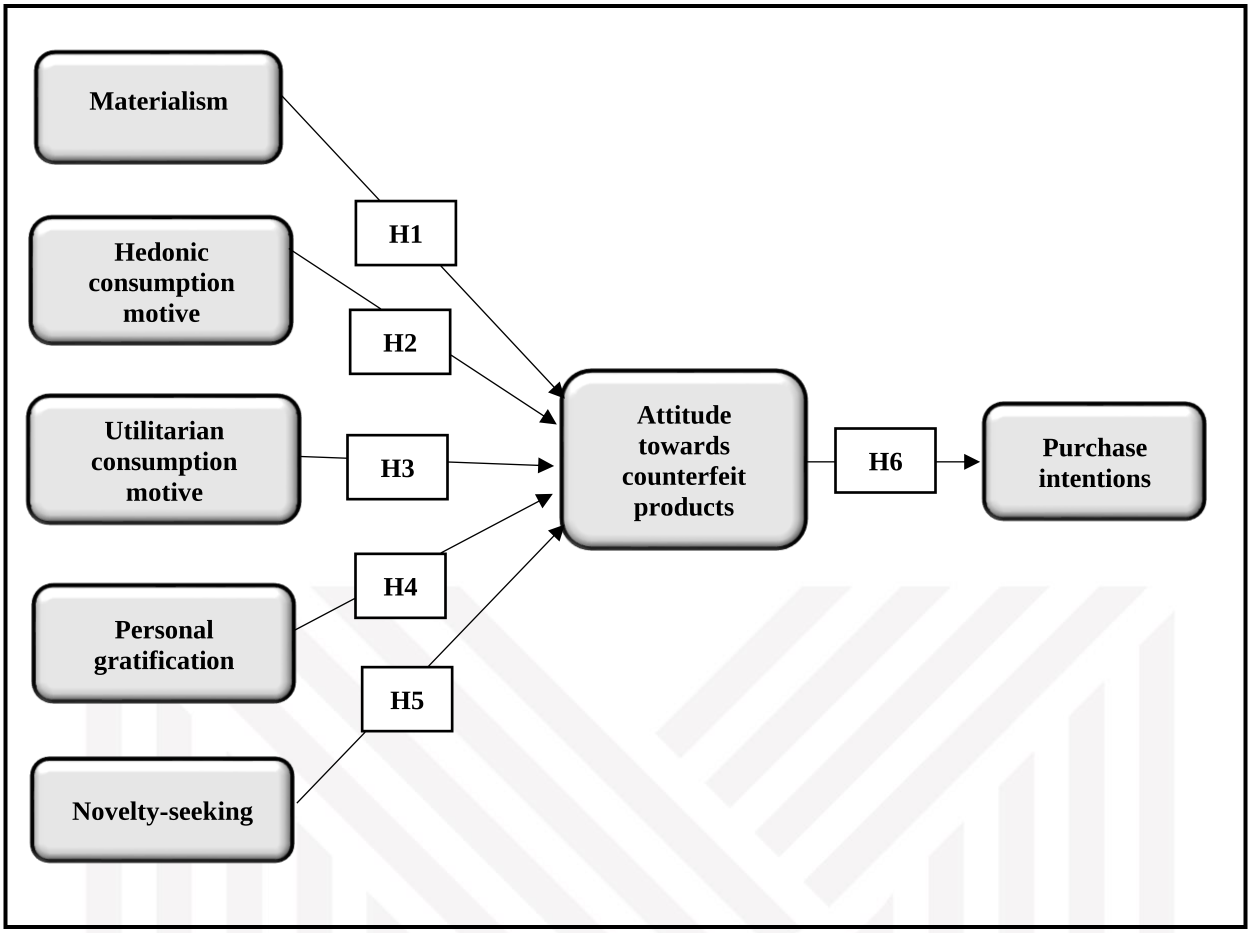

Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework

1.5 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Although counterfeiting as an industry is growing, few studies in this area have focused on consumer attitudes towards the purchase of counterfeit products in a South African context. Moreover, despite the popularity of sporting apparel, counterfeiting in sporting goods have not received much research attention (Chiu, Lee & Won 2014:616; Chiu & Leng 2015:24). Recent reports suggest that the market for counterfeit products in this category is growing in many countries. For example, the National Football League in the USA recently reported that UDS40 million worth of counterfeit sporting goods were recovered since 2012 (Umar 2015), which illustrates the gravity of counterfeiting.

Reasons for the growth of this trade, according to Ramara and Lamont (2012), is that counterfeiting activities in South Africa are regarded as a victimless offence and one that is viewed as a chance to get a desired branded product at a far lower price than that of the authentic product. Ramara and Lamont (2012) indicate that in 2010 a projected 14,400 South Africans lost their jobs in the textile industry because of counterfeit clothing brought in from other countries. Magwaza (2012) affirms that in the 2011 financial year, 20,000 seizures were made by the South African Revenue Service, with 750,000 pieces of clothing being seized to the value of R483 million. Additionally, in August 2019, counterfeit products worth over R15 million were seized by the police in the central business district of Johannesburg (North-Eastern Tribune, 2019:1). This high value of goods seized is a strong indication that there is a demand for counterfeit goods in the country.

Government regulations in the form of the Counterfeit Goods Act (37 of 1997) and coercive measures such as seizures have largely failed to address the problem of counterfeit products (Shunmugan 2015:5). In order to have a holistic understanding of the counterfeiting phenomenon, Bian and Moutinho (2011:195) urge marketers to strive to understand the critical factors that drive the demand for counterfeit goods. In the same vein, Shunmugan (2015:3) denotes that the majority of research on counterfeiting has predominantly focused on issues of supply rather than the factors influencing willingness to purchase such goods from a demand-side perspective. The demand side is considered a key driver of the counterfeit market. This study focuses on the demand side of counterfeiting by examining some of the antecedents of consumer perceptions of non-deceptive counterfeiting in South Africa.

Hence, it is timely to examine the influencing factors, attitudes and willingness to purchase counterfeit sports goods. Thus, the examination of this product category may yield a further understanding of the consumption of counterfeit products beyond the current body of knowledge. Given that earlier studies have established that the younger and the lower-income demographic segments are more prone to purchase counterfeit products and that sporting apparel is a popular fashion choice among the young, it is also appropriate to examine the willingness to purchase counterfeit sporting goods among this cohort of consumers (Cordell, Wongtada & Kieschnick 1996:50). This willingness might be influenced by attitudes triggerd by consumer behaviour motivations that are selected for the purpose of this research. It can also be noted that motivation plays an important role in the construction of consumer’s willingness to purchase toward counterfeit products (Hendriana, Mayasari, & Gunadi 2013:63).

1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.6.1 Primary objective

The primary objective of this study is to examine the influence of materialism, hedonic consumption motive, utilitarian consumption motive, personal gratification and novelty-seeking on attitudes and the influence of attitudes towards counterfeit products on students' willingness to purchase counterfeit products at a selected HEI.

1.6.2 Theoretical/secondary objectives

The following theoretical objectives have been developed for the study:

1) to provide a theoretical overview of the following variables: materialism, hedonic, utilitarian, personal gratification and novelty-seeking;
2) to provide a review of the literature on consumers' attitude toward counterfeit products; and
3) to conduct a literature review on consumers' willingness to purchase counterfeit products.

1.6.3 Empirical objectives

The following empirical objectives have been formulated for the study with reference to HEI students in Gauteng South:

1) To examine perceptions of students at a selected HEI with regards to materialism, hedonic and utilitarian consumption motives, utilitarian consumption motives, personal gratification and novelty-seeking towards counterfeit sportswear among students;
2) to assess the attitudes of students at a selected HEI towards counterfeit sportswear purchases;
3) to explore perceptions of students at a selected HEI towards their willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear;
4) to determine relationship between the various antecedents (materialism, hedonic consumption motives, utilitarian consumption motives, personal gratification and novelty-seeking) and attitudes towards the purchase of counterfeit sportswear;
5) to establish the relationship between attitudes and their willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear;

6) to analyse the predictive relationships between the various variables (materialism, hedonic consumption motives, utilitarian consumption motives, personal gratification and novelty-seeking) on attitudes to purchase counterfeit sportswear; and
7) to examine the predictive relationship between attitudes towards counterfeit products and the willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Research methodology comprises research questions, study aims and objectives, which guide the research methodology and design for conducting a study (Bilau, Witt & Lill 2018:599). Dhurup (2019:19) postulates that methodology is a framework for conducting a research project and guides in selecting a plan that is appropriate to collect and analyse data, while Saunders and Tosey (2012:4) posit that the research design is the strategy of the study coherently put together to address the problem the researcher identifies to investigate. It is the roadmap for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. Malhotra, Nunan and Birks (2017:9) endorse that the chosen research methodology should acquire a reasonable basis for empirically grounded conclusions in a certain discipline.

A research design is a framework or blueprint for conducting a marketing research task that incorporates the procedural steps of obtaining and retrieving relevant information to address specific research objectives (McDaniel & Gates 2013:42). Methodology is a framework/plan for conducting a research project (Dhurup 2019:22). It guides the researcher in selecting a plan which is appropriate to collect and analyse data. The research methodology ensures that the study becomes relevant to the problem and uses economically sound procedures.

A descriptive research design **is** built on the supposition that the prevailing relationships amongst the study variables are already known (Feinberg, Kinnear & Taylor 2013:578). In this vein, a descriptive research design was applicable. Specifically, a cross-sectional research design was employed since data was gathered only once from one sample group of respondents (Burns & Bush 2014:103) to understand and describe the broad characteristics of those selected antecedents that influence attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear among university students.

Initially, a comprehensive review of literature on the nature of counterfeit products, as well as attitudes towards counterfeits, was conducted. Various available literature from Internet sources, textbooks, journal articles, online information and government publications was reviewed to provide a theoretical background of the study.

1.7.1 The empirical research design

Descriptive research designs usually follow a quantitative approach (Dhurup 2019:22). Quantitative research seeks to establish relationships between variables by using hypothesis testing (Mourad, Serag & Ahmed 2012:522). With quantitative research, the methodology seeks to quantify data and typically applies some form of statistical analysis. The study is deductive, concerned with testing the hypotheses. In quantitative research, findings are usually expressed in numbers, and it is often possible to estimate how reliable the findings are. With this disposition, a quantitative research approach was followed.

1.7.2 Target population

The target population is defined as a specific group of people or objects for which questions can be asked or observations made to develop required data structures and information (Shiu, Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2009:63). The target population entails individuals, groups, organisations, documents and companies (Shiu *et al.* 2009:63), which entail the entire group of individuals or objects to which researchers are interested in by generalising the conclusions. In this study, the target population comprised students from a selected HEI in Southern Gauteng. The current student population at the HEI is 20800 Higher Education Data Analyser (HEDA, 2020).

1.7.3 Sample frame

A sampling frame is a complete list of all eligible sampling elements from which a sample can be drawn (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2016:277). This implies that the sample frame is a master plan of the entire population. For the purpose of this study, students registered and studying at the selected HEI based in Southern Gauteng during the 2020 academic year was used to draw potential respondents.

1.7.4 Sampling method

Sampling method is the process of selecting participants from the population (Malhotra 2010:369). Two broad sampling methods are identified in research, namely, probability and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling, each element of the population has a fixed probabilistic chance of being selected for the sample (Malhotra 2010:376). Non-probability sampling relies on the personal judgement of the researcher rather than the chance to select the sample elements (Malhotra 2010:376). A convenience (non-probability) sampling method was used in the study. The selection of sampling units is left primarily to the researcher and based on convenience. With convenience sampling, respondents are selected because they happen to be in the right place at the right time (Malhotra 2010:377). The laws of probability are not followed. (Dhurup, 2019:34). Convenience sampling was selected because, despite the availability of a sampling frame, access to the students was difficult since most of them were not readily available to participate in the study due to COVID-19 related lockdown restriction in 2020.

1.7.5 Sample size

Sample size refers to the number of sample elements for inclusion in a study (McDaniel & Gates 2013:284). In this study, the sample size was pegged at 400 participants determined by using previous studies as a point of comparison from similar studies. Moreover, the study followed multivariate regression analysis (EFA) where a bigger sample of 250 – 400 is recommended. Further details are explained in Chapter Three of this dissertation.

1.7.6 Data collection and measuring instrument

Data was collected through the distribution of an online survey questionnaire to students at the selected HEI. According to Shiu, Hair, Bush and Ortinau (2009:329), a questionnaire is a formalised framework consisting of a set of questions and scales designed to generate primary data. The questionnaire for this study consisted of structured questions and scaled questions. Structured questions are closed-ended questions that require the respondent to choose from a predetermined set of options. Scale questions are used to measure the attitudes of respondents (Shiu *et al.* 2009:421).

The questionnaire comprises two sections: Section A and Section B. Section A included participants' demographic and general information. Section B consisted of seven sub-sections that encompass questions on individual study constructs that include materialism, hedonic shopping, utilitarian motives, personal gratification, novelty-seeking, attitude towards counterfeit, and finally, willingness to purchase counterfeit products. Further details of scale adaption and their sources are reported in Chapter Three of this dissertation.

1.8 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Upon the collection of the data, the researcher codified and recorded the data in an Excel spreadsheet. This allowed for preliminary data preparation through editing checks, cleaning and coding (McDaniel & Gates, 2013:326).

The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25.0. For hypothesis testing, regression analysis was applied.

1.9 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Reliability and validity are the key indicators of the quality of measuring instruments applied in this study. Reliability is the degree to which measures are free from random error and therefore provide consistent data (McDaniel & Gates 2013:251). Reliable instruments can provide stable measures at different times under different conditions (McDaniel & Gates 2013:251). The Cronbach's alpha was utilised as a form of internal consistency reliability assessment.

Validity refers to the extent to which differences in observed scales reflect true differences among objects on the characteristic being measured rather than systematic or random errors (Malhotra 2010:370). Three types of validity, namely, content validity, construct validity, and predictive validity, were tested in the study. Details of the various types of validity are discussed in Chapters Three and Four of the current dissertation.

1.10 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

The study is presented in the current dissertation, which is divided into the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction and background

This chapter provides an introduction and background to the study, highlighting the research problem statement and research objectives. A brief description of the methodology is outlined.

Chapter 2: Literature review on selected antecedents, attitudes and willingness to purchase counterfeit products

This chapter provides a literature review on the underlying theories of the study as well as literature on the variables on the study, namely, materialism, hedonic consumption motive, utilitarian consumption motive, personal gratification, novelty-seeking, attitudes towards counterfeits and willingness to purchase on counterfeits.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

This chapter emphasises the design and methodology of the study, target population, sample frame, sampling technique, sample size, data collection method, and how the data was analysed.

Chapter 4: Analysis and interpretation of research findings

This chapter focuses on the analysis, interpretation and evaluation of the research findings.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendation of the study

This chapter provides conclusions as well as recommendations emanating from the research findings.

CHAPTER 2:
COUNTERFEITING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

An array of counterfeit goods has been manufactured and sold worldwide in the last two decades, and this market has become one of the fastest-growing economies in global markets (Sapahin 2014:1). Counterfeiting of goods is primarily regarded as the 21st century's global phenomenon (Kirk-Mazik 2015:1). The availability of counterfeit goods such as perfume, software, sportswear and other types of clothing, jewellery, handbags, pharmaceuticals and music, is high in both developing and the developed economies, which is attributed mainly to its affordable, accessible and close approximations of the genuine versions (Lang 2017:315). Overall, apart from affecting the global economy, counterfeiting also infringes trademarks, copyrights, patents and design rights.

This chapter reviews the literature on counterfeiting. To establish a comprehensive understanding of counterfeiting on sportswear, it is essential to provide a background of counterfeiting from a South African perspective. Such a background would expound on why consumers tend to purchase counterfeit products willingly. It is also essential to review the literature on the aspects that will aid in achieving the theoretical objectives formulated at the beginning of this study. In view of this, Section 2.2 provides the background of counterfeiting, after which the literature on both international and South African backgrounds is reviewed. Section 2.3 reviews the literature on the background of counterfeiting in the sports industry. This is followed by Section 2.4, which deals with a literature review on TPB and TRA theories, which are two attitude-behaviour models mainly employed in counterfeit consumption studies. Section 2.5 reviews the literature on the study constructs that can influence consumer buying behaviour. The chosen constructs for the study include materialism, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation, personal gratification, novelty-seeking, attitudes towards counterfeit products, willingness to purchase, linking attitude with study variables and attitude as a mediator between study variables and willingness to purchase. A chapter conclusion is provided in Section 2.6

2.2 COUNTERFEITING BACKGROUND

Counterfeit goods infringe trademarks, copyrights, patents or design rights (OECD 2019:20). These are also the goods that beara logo identical to or is indistinguishable from, a trademark registered to another party, thereby infringing the rights of the holder of the trademark (Sun, Huang & Lin 2015:26). A counterfeit is created to look identical to an existing product made by a third party's brand and depicts that brand's trademarked names, logos, symbols and other forms of intellectual property without authorisation, with the intention of deceiving customers into thinking the counterfeit is an official item from the genuine brand (Williams 2018:1). Carrara and Soavi (2010:414) maintain that a product is a counterfeit only if it has been produced with the intention to convince someone else that it has historical property, which it actually does not possess.

Counterfeit goods fabrication and subsequent trade are not new phenomena as they have prevalence in numerous countries (Kirk-Mazik 2014:01). Their presence was noticed in the 1970s (Bupalan *et al.* 2019:973) and primarily precipitated through fake coins which were common in the Roman era (Saeed & Paracha 2019:211). Counterfeiting has grown steadily over the years in the last decade, which took control over markets with a high growth rate compared to genuine products (Phau & Teah 2009:16). From the wine stoppers, medicines and to the newest technological inventions in the marketplace, counterfeiting has become the norm of the day (Kirk-Mazik 2014:2). However, not all counterfeited products are manufactured to influence the consumer that they are buying the original product and, or the trademark product (Singh 2016:10). Improved quality of counterfeits makes it harder for consumers to identify them (Stravinskiene, Dovaliene, Ambrazeviciute 2013:762). Even for those consumers who have knowledge and experience in goods, counterfeit copies are presented and sold as originals. Depending on whether the consumer is aware or unaware of the purchased goods being counterfeits, it is important to understand and separate counterfeiting into deceptive and non-deceptive goods (Quoquab *et al.* 2017:838). When consumers do not know whether the purchase is a genuine product or fake (Haseeb & Mukhtar 2016:15) without being conscious of the violation of intellectual property (Hussain, Kofinas & Win 2017:334), they become victims of deceptive counterfeiting (Penz & Stottinger 2005:568). Conversely, when a customer is acquiring a fake product (Husain *et al.* 2017:334) knowingly, he/she engages in non-deceptive counterfeiting (Haseeb & Mukhtar 2016:15).

The rapid growth of counterfeit products is attributed to the willingness of consumers to purchase counterfeit products even though they know the consequences associated with such a purchase (Bupalan *et al.* 2019:973). These consumers purchase counterfeit goods to accomplish several goals and psychological needs such as self-esteem, status and social needs (Phau & Teah 2009:16; Amaral & Loken, 2016:485; Rosely, Yusof, Hashim, & Adzharuddin 2019:833) due to the fact that in some instances, the inability to attain goals through genuine material objects lead to the feelings of self-frustration and disappointment (Rosely *et al.* 2019:833).

The invention of the Internet has further widened the distribution network for counterfeit goods, intensifying the problem and bringing counterfeit trade to new levels (Kirk-Mazik 2014:2) by providing an easy, unregulated way of reaching the market for unscrupulous sellers (Lambkin & Tyndall 2009:35). Additionally, Williams (2018:11) adds that social media, found on the Internet, share the blame for spreading counterfeit goods as the actual sales of activewear take place far more commonly on online marketplaces. Accordingly, the Global Counterfeiting Report (2018), estimates that the losses suffered due to online counterfeiting globally has amounted to 323 billion USD in the year 2017, and losses incurred by luxury counterfeit brands on sale through the Internet accounted to 30.3 billion USD. Estimated losses on high-end consumer goods that include clothing, textile, footwear, handbags and watches due to counterfeiting amounted to 98 billion USD, which includes counterfeiting from online mediums.

The above is in line with the findings of Lambkin and Tyndall (2009:35) that Moët Hennessy Louis Vuitton (LVMH), the luxury goods provider, won a legal challenge against Google in June 2006, which may have been a first for this medium. The Paris Court of Appeals ordered Google to pay LVMH €300,000 for misleading advertising, unfair competition and trademark infringement. LVMH and its sister company, Christian Dior Couture, have since filed another suit against eBay, claiming €37 million in compensation for loss of sales. This suit alleges that 90 per cent of the goods sold on eBay as Dior and Louis Vuitton from 2001 to 2005 were fakes (Lambkin & Tyndall 2009:35). In the same vein, the findings by Red Points marketing, concludes that Facebook and Instagram have an influence on counterfeit products as the platforms account for a huge proportion (45,2 per cent) of the sportswear IP infringements (Williams 2018:14).

In theoretical literature, counterfeiting is discussed as illicitly copying authentic goods with a brand name (Yao 2005:96). Whereas counterfeit goods are manufactured illegally and are sometimes referred to in the literature as illicit goods, Albers-Miller (1999:274) augments that there is an excess of terms used to describe and discuss counterfeit products within literature. Other terms that are (sometimes curiously) used interchangeably with counterfeits are: knock-offs, fakes, copies, bogus, copycat, overruns, pirated goods, and imitations (Kirk-Mazik 2014:21).

Counterfeiting and piracy are sometimes used interchangeably (Kirk-Mazik 2014:17). However, McDonald and Roberts (1994:55) reason that the terms are not related. They posit that piracy takes place as when products have been copied and sold without the permission of the rightful manufacturer, or products that are also copies of items, but produced with the knowledge that the customer will be aware that the items are not legit, so they are usually sold at a fraction of the price of the copied goods. In that manner, piracy differs from counterfeiting in that this act contravenes copyrights, whereas counterfeiting violates both copyrights and trademarks (Brauneis & Schechter, 2009). Seemingly, the Agreement on Trade-related aspects on Intellectual Property Rights (the TRIPs Agreement) matches counterfeiting and piracy and puts emphasis that: 'counterfeit trademark goods' shall mean “any goods, including packaging, bearing without authorisation a trademark which is identical to the trademark validly registered in respect of such goods, or which cannot be distinguished in its essential aspects from such a trademark, and which thereby infringes the rights of the owner of the trademark in question under the law of the country of importation” (Lambkin & Tyndall 2009:35). Regardless of the term used, the principal concept is the same (Kirk-Mazik 2014:21); counterfeiters use someone else’s intellectual property for financial gain. Table 2.1 provides a taxonomy of counterfeiting.

Table 2.1: Classification of counterfeiting

Term	Description	Source
Piracy	When products have been copied and sold without the permission of the rightful manufacturer - usually used to discuss counterfeiting of technology -copyright infringement	McDonald & Roberts, (1994:55)
Fake/Bogus/Copy/ Copycat/Imitation	Products that are not quite identical to the original, but they are similar in nature to an authentic, original good; an imitation of the original good	Lai & Zaichkowsky (1998:180)
Illicit good	A counterfeit good	Albers-Miller (1999:273)
Overrun	Goods for which authentic manufacturers produce extra amounts of merchandise, likely using a “ghost shift” and then utilize unauthorized channels to distribute the products	Gentry, J. W., Putrevu, S., Shultz, C., & Commuri, S. (2001:259)
Pirated brand	Products that are also copies of items, but they are produced with the knowledge that the customer will be aware that the item is a fake, so it is usually sold at a fraction of the price of the copied good - usually used in the discussion of counterfeited technological products	Prendergast, Chuen & Phau (2002:406).
Counterfeiting	Illegally copying authentic goods with a brand name - trademark and copyright infringement	Grossman & Shapiro, (1988:60); Yao (2005:96)
Knock-off	Those products that do not impersonate the brand but merely copy the design and appearance of premium labels	Commuri (2009:86)

Source: Adapted from Kirk-Mazik (2014:22)

There are many intellectual property rights set in place which aim to remedy the failure of markets due to counterfeits (Fink, Maskus & Qian 2015:3), but it is easier for counterfeiters to operate, especially in countries that have weaker law enforcement, incapable of preventing these products from being distributed into the supply chain. A short inference can be made that rules and regulations mainly restrict and hit the supply side of the counterfeits (Fink *et al.* 2015:3). However, there will be supply whenever there are demands (Xi & Cheng 2017:14), as specific brands among the diverse selection of infringed trademarks seem to be more intensely targeted by counterfeiters (OECD 2019:36). Sapahin (2014:1) opines that well known and famous products are often targeted to be counterfeited due to the high demand for these famous products.

Whilst only a majority of products are seen as counterfeit, these are mostly due to the inaccessibility of these products through the price or limitation of the luxury brand, producing it at a restricted rate in order to gain more customer attraction (Singh 2016:15). King (2016) adds that firms which produce luxury goods are highly likely to encounter their products being counterfeited due to the brand’s high reputation and celebrity endorsements, which increase the demand within the general public, but with a lower supply it allows the counterfeiters to produce these products quicker. This is in contrast with items that do not have trademarks, as they are less engaging. The most popular counterfeit market is clothing, followed by shoes, watches, leather goods, and jewellery (Yoo & Lee 2009:280). Counterfeit of clothing, both fashion and sportswear, are very rampant and is one of the most commonly and easily imitated products in the sports industry (Perumal & Sapihan 2017:77). In earlier years, OECD (1998:13) denotes that large-scale counterfeiters of sportswear generally target only a few brands that are market leaders, such as Adidas and Nike. While these companies have in-house facilities to deal with counterfeits (OECD 1998:13) there is no formal agreement within the industry to join forces in combating counterfeiting. Perumal and Sapihan (2017:77) add that the growth of the sports economy and the globalisation of sporting codes, such as rugby, soccer and cricket, has also seen growth in counterfeits of leading sportswear brands.

Although many organisations that have been established to counter the counterfeiters and various law enforcement agencies attempt to deal with the problem, counterfeit consumption continues to soar to new limits (Kirk-Mazik 2014:2) because as long as there is a demand for such products, there will continue to be a supply. According to OECD (2018:21) there are factors that drive counterfeit trade that include demand and supply.

The demand for counterfeit and pirated products is driven by drivers related to:

- ✓ The product itself (e. g., its price or perceived quality).
- ✓ The individual consumer characteristics (e. g., attitude towards counterfeiting and piracy).
- ✓ The institutional environment in which the consumer operates.

The supply of counterfeit and pirated products is driven by factors related to:

- ✓ Market opportunities.
- ✓ The technological and distribution challenges associated with an undertaking.
- ✓ The risks involved.

The production, distribution and technological factors have been proposed as drivers of counterfeit activities (OECD 2007:11). There are also risk factors that drive counterfeit activities. One such factor is the low risk of being discovered as a counterfeiting firm. Since counterfeit goods encompass the black market, manufacturers of such items are generally concealed from public view. Another risk factor is the lack of established legal regulation (OECD 2007:11). Kirk-Mazik (2014:11) is of the view that the following factors influence counterfeiting activities: the moderate need for investment; moderate technological requirements; unproblematic distribution and sales; high ability to conceal operations; and ease of ability to deceive consumers.

There are reasons why some economies emerge as hubs for trade-in counterfeits (OECD-EUIPO 2019:15). Five main drivers that determine an economy's propensity to become an active actor in the trade of counterfeits are identified. These are classified as follows:

- ✓ **Governance:** High levels of corruption and poor intellectual property fortification are factors that greatly stimulate the degree of exports of counterfeits from an economy.
- ✓ **Free trade zones (FTZs):** The existence, number and size of FTZs in a country correlate with increases in the value of counterfeit and pirated products exported by that country's economy. An additional FTZ within an economy is associated with a 5.9 percent increase in the value of these knotty exports on middling.
- ✓ **Production facilities:** Low labour costs and poor labour market guidelines are important drivers of trade in counterfeit pirated goods.
- ✓ **Logistics capabilities and facilities:** Factors that include low shipping charges; fast, simple and foreseeable customs formalities; good quality trade and transport-related infrastructure. (e. g., ports, railroads, roads and information technology) are inclined to be much more important drivers in economies that are highly fraudulent.
- ✓ **Trade facilitation policies:** Other factors tend to encourage counterfeit trade, such as advance rulings (i. e. where the administration asks traders about the classification, origin, valuation methods, etc., applied to specific traded goods) and the possibility of appealing to administrative decisions by the border agencies. Prominently, the factors that potentially encourage counterfeit trade tend to particularly manifest in highly corrupt economies (OECD/EUIPO 2019:16).

The study subscribes to the literature regarding demand-side investigations, specifically non-deceptive counterfeit goods consumption. For this purpose, the demand for counterfeit products narrates to sportswear. Consumer characteristics in this instance transmit to students' attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear that will be determined by various variables to be measured in Chapter Four of this research. The institutional environment in which the consumer operates is one selected higher education institution in Southern Gauteng.

The next sections attempts to expound on counterfeiting at international and SA backgrounds.

2.2.1 Counterfeiting: an international background

Nowadays, there is a thin line between a genuine and an imitated product as counterfeits have flooded markets around the world with comparable levels of quality (Hashim, Shar & Omar 2018:608). While counterfeit products can be traced all around the world (Ang, Cheng, Lim & Tambyah 2001:221; Bupalan *et al.* 2019:973) it is apparent that Asia is famously considered as the most exceedingly awful violator of intellectual property rights. However, most researchers across the years (Lambkin & Tyndall 2009:35; Singh 2016:24; Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:2), reason that the first place that comes to mind is China, for they have been involved with mass production of counterfeit products over the last two decades. The problem of knockoffs and fakes is so pervasive in China that the fakes are being copied, with the copiers believing they are copying the original (Stottinger, Penz & Khan 2015:282). Thus, the pirates themselves are being pirated.

China provides not only a large base of customers open to buying counterfeits but continues to be one of the largest producers of counterfeits, accounting for 62 per cent of the US value of seizures in 2011, followed by Hong Kong with 18 per cent (Stottinger *et al.* 2015:283). Moreover, Hardy (2019) reported that China emerged as the primary origin of counterfeits imported into the European Union. This is in line with US customs seizures data, which shows that in 2013, 52 per cent of seized counterfeit imports into the United States originated from China (Hardy 2019). Additionally, Bian and Veloutsou (2007:213) indicate that China exports counterfeits globally to Europe, Russia, the Middle East and the United States of America, thus indicating that their target markets are vast.

Other than China, several countries have been notorious for counterfeiting business, such as Brazil, India, and Indonesia (Xi & Cheng 2017:13). Likewise, Malaysia is also known as one of the origins of piracy and counterfeit besides Thailand, China, and India (Xi & Chen 2017:13). Consistently Hashim *et al.* (2018:608) concur that Malaysia, in particular, has been regarded as one of the world's worst violators of intellectual property and named as "home for piracy" alongside China, Thailand, and India, due to the magnitude of counterfeit offenders. According to Bupalan *et al.* (2019:973), indicators made by Havocscope Global Market uncovered that Malaysia has a counterfeit and piracy market estimated at RM464 million. Not only are counterfeits widely available in these markets, but these countries are also well known as important producers and key transportation ports and/or transit for the transportation of infringements (Stottinger, *et al.* 2015:283).

Consistent with the above disclosures, OECD (2019:48) posits that while virtually all economies can be the origin of counterfeit and pirated goods, some economies tend to dominate global counterfeiting and piracy. OECD (2019:48) validates the above with results that suggest that five economies, namely, China, Hong Kong (China), India, the United Arab Emirates and Singapore, together exported almost 73 per cent of fake goods traded worldwide in 2016. Table 2.2 provides such estimates below.

Table 2.2: Estimates of main provenance economies for counterfeit and pirated goods, 2016

Provenance economy	Share in world export of fakes (%)	Value of fake exports (USD billion)
China	**47.0**	**239.0**
Hong Kong (China)	**16.4**	**83.2**
India	**3.4**	**17.4**
United Arab Emirates	**3.0**	**15.5**
Singapore	**2.6**	**13.1**

Source: OECD 2019:48

In the study previously concluded in OECD in 2008, the international trade in counterfeit and pirated goods could have accounted for up to USD 200 billion in 2005 (OECD (2009:1). The updated estimates, based on the growth and changing composition of trade between 2005 and

2007, suggest that counterfeit and pirated goods in international trade grew steadily over the period 2000 – 2007 and could amount to up to USD 250 billion in 2007. Figure 2.1 illustrates the evolution of trade and the comparison curve for growth in counterfeit and pirated products during the period 2000 to 2007.

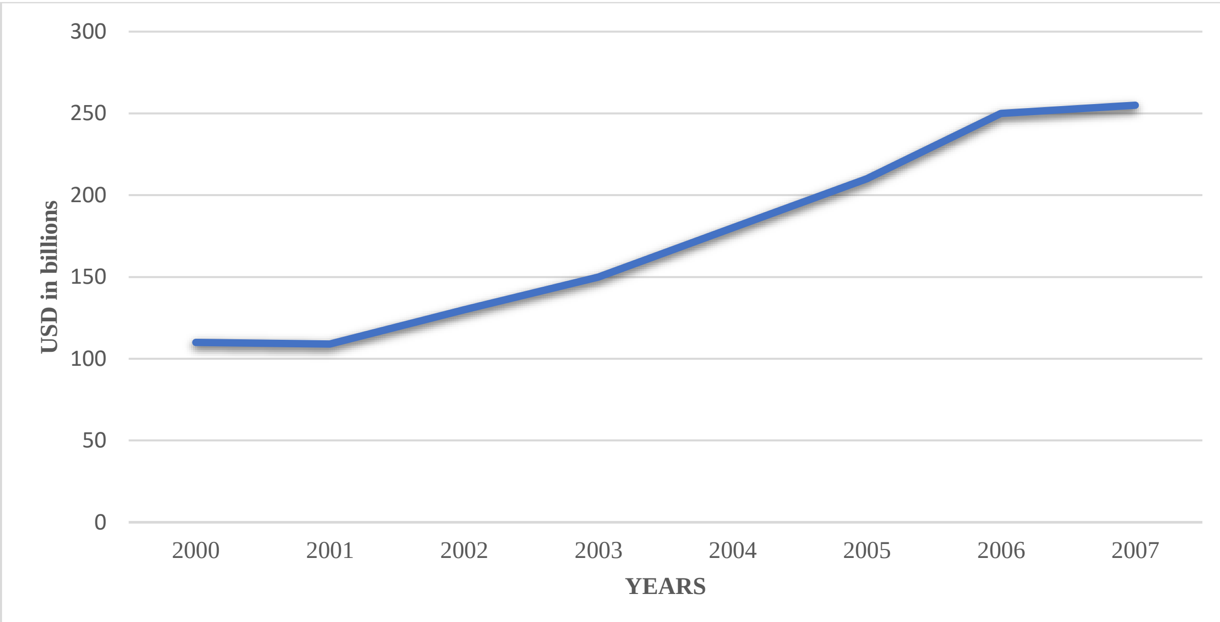

Figure 2.1: Evolution of trade in counterfeit and pirated products

Source: OECD (2009:1

Figure 2.1 reflects that counterfeited and pirated products appear to have increased their share in total world trade from 1.85 per cent in 2000 to 1.95 per cent in 2007, (OECD 2009:1). Given the growth in international trade in 2000 - 2007, these results suggest that trade in counterfeit and pirated products grew steadily over the period 2000 – 2007, and in particular, between 2005 and 2007, it grew by more than 25 per cent. However, Chaudhry and Zimmerman (2013:149) contend that in 2007 the global volume of counterfeit trade might have been $200 billion per year, but after observing the fact that no one knows the exact magnitude of this trade as the US government has reported this at $500 billion per year, which comprised seizing over 15,000 different shipments encountering counterfeit products in 2006. This leaves a big question mark as to how large is this trade, and who knows the exact scale of these trades.

To supplement the magnitude of counterfeiting, OECD (2019:48) reveals that world trade in genuine goods has declined more after 2014 and the global value of trade in fakes has barely increased. Figure 2.2 shows the mounting global trade in counterfeit and pirate trade during the period 2013 to 2016.

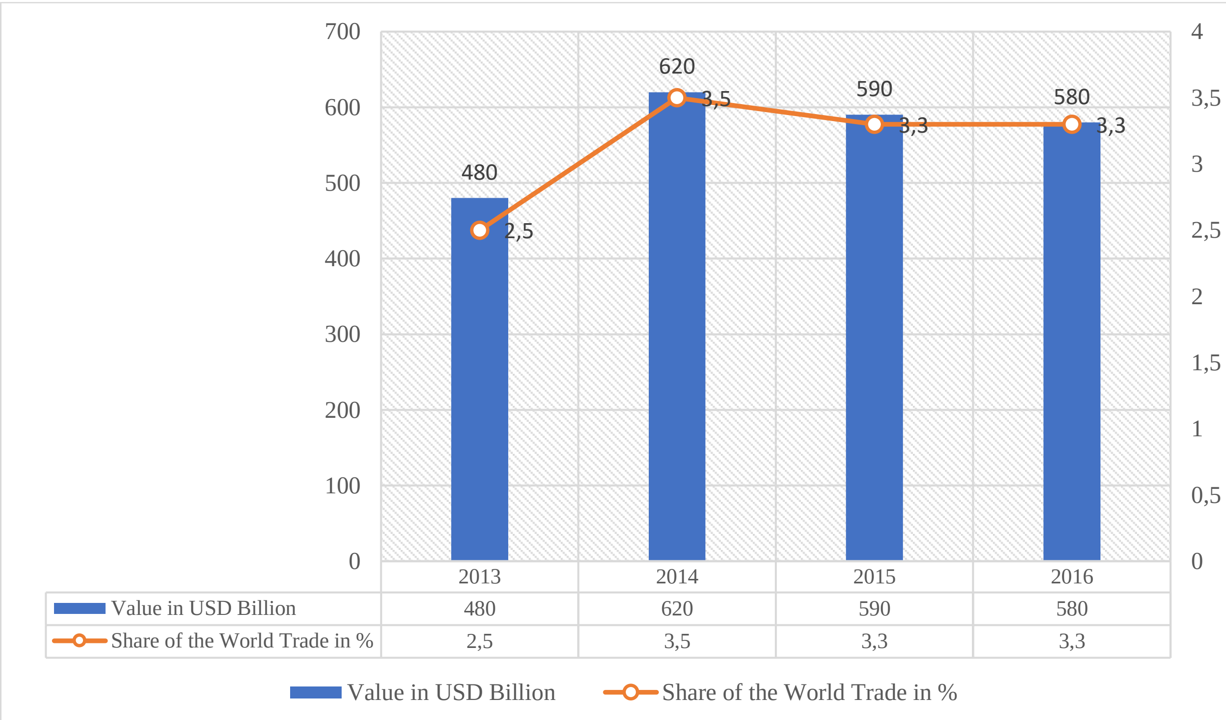

Figure 2.2: Global trade in counterfeit and pirate trade during the period 2013 – 2016

Source: OECD 2019:4

Counterfeiting along with piracy are rife and prevalent across countries and sectors, representing a multi-billion-dollar industry globally, that continues to grow (Hardy 2017). Hence, this growth in trade and technology has positively affected many markets and industries across the world but along with that, it has some major adverse effects as well. The Global Counterfeiting Report (2018) discloses that the amount of total counterfeiting globally has reached 1.2 trillion USD in 2017 and is bound to reach 1.82 trillion USD by the year 2020. In the same vein, Intellectual Property US (2010) outlines that industries affected by counterfeiting and sporting goods is no exception. Equally, the Chamber of Commerce’s Global Innovation Policy Centre (GIPC 2018) accounts that counterfeiting on the global sporting goods and sportswear market reached 50 billion USD in 2018. Frontier (2017:8) finds significant effects on the job market through the displacement of legitimate economic activity by counterfeiting and piracy, where global job losses in 2013 lie between 2 and 2.6 million USD. Additionally, Frontier (2017:8) forecasts further for job losses of 4.2 to 5.4 million by 2022.

The economic impact of counterfeiting is a global problem that affects a wide range of industries and business organisations that spend much money, time and resources on protecting their brand and trademarks (Global Counterfeiting Report 2018). Corporations and industry associations have also increased their cooperation through the establishment of new anti-counterfeiting coalitions and working groups in various countries, including China, Russia, India, Vietnam and Brazil (Lambkin & Tyndall 2009:38). The issue of counterfeiting is so ubiquitous that even governments had to set up initiatives and associations (anti-counterfeiting) to combat counterfeiting and piracy. Resulting from the debate and policy coordination regarding international rules for strengthening strategies against counterfeit goods, Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) became one of the important areas for discussion (Kumagai 2008:1). The TRIPS Agreement came into force as part of the WTO Agreement in January 1995. Its purpose is to establish a uniform set of rules across the globe that would provide adequate standards of protection for intellectual property, providing greater predictability and stability in international economic relations (Subhan 2006:153). However, Kumagai (2008:3) maintains that TRIPS covers the issues of protection of intellectual property in trade-related areas to a significant degree and is seen as a comprehensive framework that prescribes standards of intellectual property protection.

There is an initiative to control counterfeiting by the International Chamber of Commerce (ICC), along with Business Action to Stop Counterfeiting and Piracy (BASCAP). Frontier (2017:6) reflects that ICC works to promote a balanced and sustainable system for the protection of intellectual property. It believes that IP protection encourages innovation and the development of knowledge-based industries, stimulates international trade, and creates a favourable climate for foreign direct investment and technology transfer. ICC launched BASCAP to connect the global business community across all product sectors in an effort to stop the counterfeiting of goods and IP piracy (Frontier 2017:2). Furthermore, the Global Anti-Counterfeiting Group (GACG) is the international network of national and regional IPR enforcement and protection organisations, covering more than 50 countries. GACG is responsible for the co-ordination of all anti-counterfeiting activities (above-mentioned also included) and objectives with international business groups. The main objectives are to share best practices and information and participate in appropriate joint activities to solve international IPR enforcement challenges (GACG 2020). Among others, the Bonafi (formerly known as Group Project) defends all brands, protects consumers and gets rid of counterfeiting in the fashion industry. This company has devised an ingenious solution in the form of Crypto-Tag™ by implementing a fail-safe authentication system using blockchain technology (Bonafi 2018).

Counterfeit consumption varies across countries due to differences in the governments' commitment to enforcing intellectual property protection (Chiu & Leng (2015:27). In countries where the government has economic and political interests to enforce copyright protection, it is more likely that they will have comprehensive legal institutions and infrastructure for copyright protection and the resources provided for law and judicial enforcement (Chiu & Leng 2015:27). This is in line with Moon, Javaid, Kiran, Awan and Farooq (2018:804), who opine that all governments and policymakers should collaborate and strengthen anti-counterfeiting organisations and quality control authorities for the eradication of counterfeiting. They should introduce strict laws and impose penalties or prosecute the manufacturers, retailers and consumers of counterfeit apparel products.

All in all, the prospects of curbing the supply of counterfeit goods are looking better than they have ever done before, although there is still a long way to go (Lambkin & Tyndall 2009:39). Although many organisations have been established to counter the counterfeiters and various law enforcement agencies attempt to deal with the problem, counterfeit consumption continues to soar (Kirk-Mazik 2014:2). This is due to the fact that the counterfeit market is booming rapidly (Global Counterfeiting Report 2018), with the global sporting goods and sportswear markets surging to almost $50 billion each year (GIPC 2018).

2.2.2 Counterfeiting: a South African background

As one of the biggest economies in Africa, South Africa is a prime target of counterfeit products (Cant, Wiid & Manley 2014:177). Consequently, counterfeiters have targeted South Africa as a dumping ground for their counterfeit products (SAIIPL 2018). The counterfeit industry in SA is considered one of the fastest-growing counterfeit markets globally (Shunmugan 2015:5) and is estimated to be worth R362-billion (Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:02). South African Revenue

Services data from 2018 point out that of the goods worth more than R1.7-billion were confiscated during the first half of 2018, over 80 per cent by value were counterfeit (Spoor & Fisher 2019), with most of the counterfeited goods coming from China and India (Ramara 2019).

This is consistent with the concern raised by IDC (2010:6), that Eastern countries flood SA markets with continuous low-priced imports, especially from China. Additionally, South Africa has strong trade relations with China, which is regarded as the major producer of counterfeit products (Haman 2010:345). Counterfeiters find it easier to gain access for their counterfeit goods the country's major ports of Cape Town and Durban (Mchunu 2018). Seemingly, the Kosi Bay border post (North-Eastern border) is also targeted for being a hotspot of smuggling due to lack of controls (Herald 2017). The latter positions that in 2017 seizures of counterfeit clothing and footwear with a value of R1.2-million was made at the border post. Consequently, counterfeiters target big cities, namely; Durban, Cape Town and SA's economic hub of Johannesburg (Mchunu 2018).

The City of Johannesburg released crime statistics during December 2019 (CoJ 2019). Of all the statistics released, more than R80-million worth of counterfeit goods have been confiscated in Johannesburg in November 2019. In another operation, "Buya Mthetho", a joint operation of all key Johannesburg City departments, seized counterfeit goods including footwear, clothing and watches worth an estimated R24-million in December 2019 from just three buildings in the inner city. Further, in just two years (2018 & 2019), Johannesburg Metro Police Department (JMPD) uncovered goods worth R250-million. The counterfeit goods included footwear, clothes and watches of well-known brands such as Adidas, Nike, Puma, Tom Ford and Gucci were confiscated (CoJ 2019). SAPIIL (2019) revealed that between 1997 and 2001, counterfeit goods worth in excess of R600-million had been seized. In contrast, this figure is far higher than the figure for the whole of the United Kingdom during the corresponding period (SAPIIL 2019). Herald (2017) adds that more than R97-million worth of fake clothing was seized by the South African Revenue Services (SARS) in its crackdown on illegal clothing and textile imports in 2017, while customs investigations show nearly 75 000 counterfeit shoes were confiscated in the same period.

Recently, counterfeiters have extended their activities to more sophisticated markets (SAPIIL 2019). The more popular the brand is and attached to an important event, the more the industry becomes susceptible to counterfeiting. While counterfeiters copy everything, the industry with most counterfeit seizures continues to be footwear and clothing (Spoor & Fisher 2019). Competing for ignominy together with luxury brands is another frequently copied category of sports brands. News24 (2011) reported that a few weeks before the Rugby World Cup was hosted in South Africa, the South African Revenue Services (SARS) seized a total of 66 000 replica rugby jerseys, with an estimated value of R43-million. Additionally, during the period 01 April 2017 to 31 March 2018, counterfeits products with an estimated value of R2,3 million were seized by the SARS with sportswear (footwear and apparel) amounting to over R500-million (Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:2). This reflects the magnitude of counterfeiting, especially with sportswear products.

2.2.2.1 The economic impact of counterfeiting in South Africa

It is impossible to calculate the precise losses in sales of genuine products attributable to counterfeiting (SAIIPL 2019). However, Spoor and Fisher (2019) augment that the IP theft creates an enormous drain on the economy, denying it billions in legitimate economic activity while facilitating an "underground economy" that deprives the government of revenues, forces job losses and puts products in the hands of consumers that are unreliable and dangerous.

The South African Revenue Services (SARS) reported that the rapid growth in illicit trade such as counterfeit goods, continually erode South Africa's revenue base and is the main cause of closure of clothing and textile factories and numerous job losses (Industrial Development Corporation - IDC 2010:6). Additionally, the South African Leather and Footwear Industries Association (SAFLIA) testified that labour statistics from the National Bargaining Council reflected a decrease of 1.4 per cent in employment in 2008, compared to 2007 (IDC 2010:6). With the latter being just the tip of the iceberg, Research and Markets (2019) report that SAFLIA figures show that local market demand for footwear was 264 million pairs in 2018, with local production accounting for less than one-quarter of demand. While local production decreased by nearly 9 million pairs or 13.3 per cent in 2018, imports grew by 3.3 million pairs or 1.6 per cent. This is in line with Research and Markets (2020) findings that employment in the labour-intensive industry continues to decline as the textiles, clothing, leather and footwear sectors are identified as being critical to the industrial development of the South African economy.

Counterfeit goods impact South Africa's economy negatively, and SA loses a large portion of its GDP every year to the illicit economy, which includes counterfeit goods (Spoor & Fisher 2019).

Moreover, there is a loss of income generated by SARS for the reason that counterfeits are imported in millions of rands worth, but no value-added tax (VAT), taxes or duties are paid. Subsequently, Spoor and Fisher (2019) raised a concern that many consumers overlook the economic implications of the counterfeit industry, failing to recognise how these implications take its toll on the functioning of the local economy as this is exacerbating poor economic conditions of SA. However, it is the consequence of this struggling economy that consumers cannot afford to purchase legitimate, often expensive luxury goods (VOCFM 2019).

Reasons for the growth of this trade is that counterfeiting activities in South Africa are regarded as a victimless offence and one that is viewed as a chance to get a desired branded product at a far lower price than that of the authentic product (Ramara & Lamont 2012). Therefore, SA needs to stand up and fight the problem of counterfeit goods as it has the potential to destroy the economy and lead to unemployment in the country (Mchunu 2018). In an attempt to combat counterfeiters, the South African government has implemented effective counterfeit laws through its Counterfeit Goods Act (Jones 2019).

2.2.2.2 Counterfeit Goods Act 37 of 1997

South Africa is one of the few countries in Africa that has implemented effective counterfeit laws through its Counterfeit Goods Act (Jones 2019). In 1997, this Act (CGA) was proclaimed and came into force in South Africa on 1 January 1998. It provides the owner of various intellectual property rights with effective enforcement mechanisms against counterfeiters (SAIIPL 2019). Jones (2019) stipulates a basic understanding of counterfeit law in SA. Three commonly used remedies to take action against counterfeiters are as follows:

i. ***Action by the South African Police Services (the SAPS) or an Inspector appointed by the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI).*** Intellectual property owners that identify counterfeit goods in the market can immediately take action by conducting what is known as a discrete "test purchase" which serves as proof that the infringer is in fact dealing in counterfeit goods. Thereafter, a complaint that an offence of dealing in counterfeit goods has been committed can be lodged with the SAPS or an Inspector. The official will apply to the relevant Court having jurisdiction over the matter for a search and seizure warrant if such official is convinced that the complaint of offence has been committed. Should the warrant be granted, the goods will be confiscated from the identified premises and stored at a counterfeit goods depot until the case is finalised. Hereafter, criminal and/or civil proceedings can commence.

ii. ***Action by Customs*** – An intellectual property owner seeking to protect a brand may apply to the Department of Customs and Excise to record such intellectual property rights on the Customs' "watch" database. Customs will then be alerted to identify and seize all suspect counterfeit goods imported and exported through South African borders, airlines and harbours and report such suspect goods to the intellectual property holder or its legal representatives to clarify whether such goods are in fact counterfeit. Again, criminal and/or civil proceedings may commence hereafter.

iii. ***Civil Action by Intellectual Property Rights Owners*** – Application by an intellectual property right owner may be made to the relevant judge to obtain an order directing the sheriff (or any other authorised official) to search, seize and confiscate counterfeit goods and documents relating thereto as evidence of counterfeit activities. The relevant judge will need to satisfy himself/herself that the owners' rights to inspecting goods or documents will be prejudiced in that they may be destroyed if action is not taken on an urgent basis.

While South Africa is a party to TRIPS by virtue of its membership of the World Trade Organisation, the provisions of TRIPS do not form part of their municipal law (SCA 2010:4). Therefore, the Counterfeit Good Act No 37 had not been effective in decreasing the surge of counterfeit products (Shunmugan 2015:5). For that reason, counterfeit products continue to flood the markets (Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:2).

The background of the counterfeit sports industry is discussed in the next section.

2.3 BACKGROUND ON COUNTERFEIT SPORT INDUSTRY

Whereas the earlier decades were in the French fashion houses' glamour and beauty salons, recent decades are in health and fitness, which has been promoted at all levels, including everything from healthy eating, fitness centres and hiking holidays (OECD 1998:13). The sportswear industry recognised this trend early and has spent large amounts of money on marketing a "sporty" lifestyle for their clothes (OECD 1998:13). Sports clothing and some footwear often offer such a multiple use-value or can be worn during general leisure-time activities that do not involve sports (Andreff 2006:27); therefore, sportswear and the size of their market segments is somewhat larger than the one for more specialised sports goods.

The expansion and development of sporting business events by economic enterprises have been achieved in the form of using sport as a means for ensuring the prosperity and development of business and commercial activities (Abdolmaleki, Mirzazadeh & Ghahfarokhhi 2018:42). This expansion of sporting events is developed worldwide so as to access international markets. For this reason, the sports industry has quickly become global in its reach, and its domain has developed and expanded across the world for the use of billions of people (Funk, Filo, Beaton & Pritchard 2009:129). The sports industry has grown exponentially as a result of global market forces such as corporates and sponsors, envisaging extensive economic opportunities and hosting a mega-event has also been economically attractive for cities and countries (Mills 2010:1).

The sports industry is a big business around the world where millions and millions of dollars are spent at sporting events and on sports-related equipment and apparel (Business Research and Economics Advisor - BERA 2016). According to charts based on data from the National Sporting Goods Association and published in the 2012 Statistical Abstract of the United States, sales for all athletic and sports clothing and equipment for 2009 were almost $70 billion dollars (BERA 2016). As a result, the inevitable drawback with the expansion of the sports industry is that it attracts counterfeiters (OECD 1998:13). Consequently, counterfeiting is continuously growing as an illegal industry, posing impacts on many sectors (Xi & Cheng 2017:14). Counterfeited goods are no longer limited to one industry but has spread to include a number of sectors (Mchunu 2018). The sports industry has been grappling with the challenges posed by counterfeit and unauthorised goods for many years (Collins 2017) and the increasing global popularity of competitions such as the English Premier League (EPL) makes this market an obvious and lucrative target. The sportswear industry is booming and is set to hit all-time high sales of US$231.7 billion by 2024, largely driven by growth in nations experiencing higher incomes, an expanding middle class and more positive attitudes towards sports (Williams 2018:1). The consequence of this process is the further integration of sports with the economy in various forms. This integration has caused the sporting economy to become more important (Rahulana 2013:164).

The sports industry contributes one per cent of the global GDP (GIPC 2018:5). Therefore, counterfeit sporting goods and sportswear have a substantial and detrimental impact on economies that deprive leagues and athletes of economic gains. GIPC (2018:6) estimates that the direct economic impact of counterfeiting on the global sporting goods and sportswear markets is almost $50 billion each year. According to Kollmannová (2012:25), T-shirts and sweaters are the most frequent fake goods, followed by sportswear and sport shoes. Figure 2.1 reflects the percentage of predominant counterfeit products.

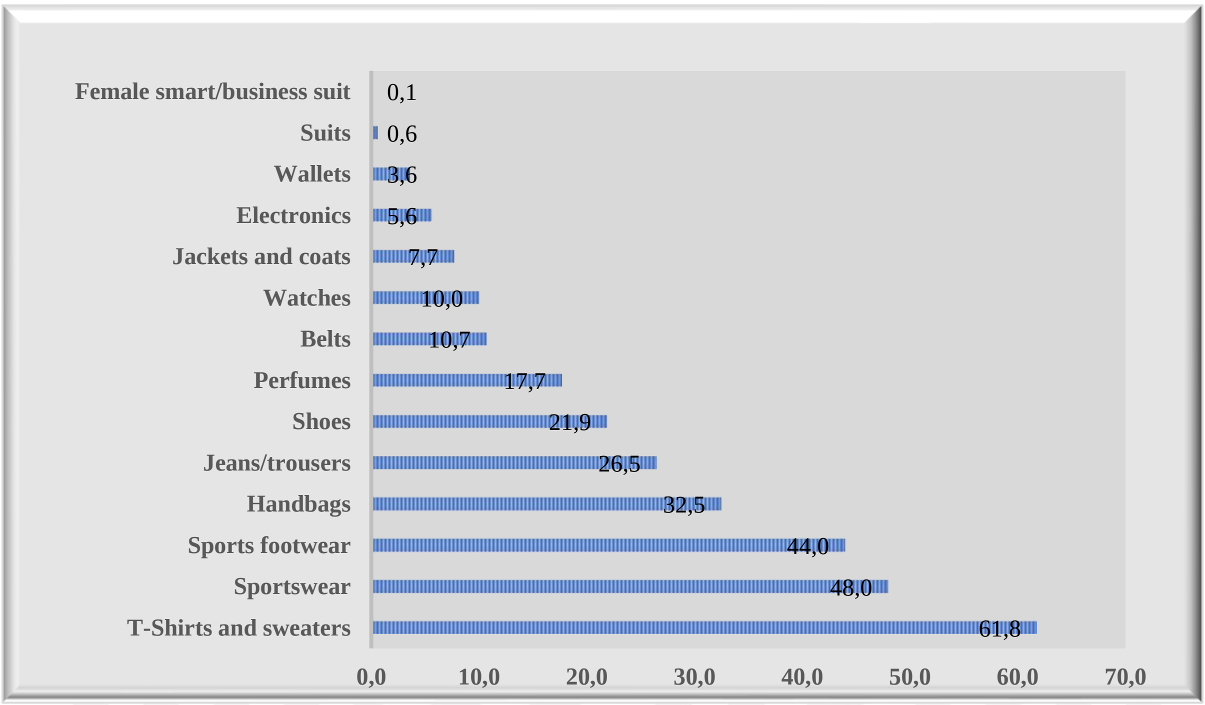

Figure 2.3: Most counterfeited goods

Source: Kollmannová (2012:25)

One major reason for the growth of the sportswear industry is allied to the sportswear industry turning into a fashion industry (Perumal & Sapihan 2017:77). Additionally, more growth stems from a variety of factors, including an increasing level of fitness consciousness, rising income levels in developing countries, the growing popularity of sports apparel for women as well as the trend toward stylish and comfortable sportswear (Stottinger, Penz & Khan 2015:284). Whereas some of the consumers like sports products to be based on fashion and status symbols, others consider them as threats or opportunities (Abdolmaleki *et al.* 2018:57). As a result, this has attracted counterfeiters, which is the issue why the demand for the counterfeit sportswear such as jerseys, shoes and others still increase (Abdolmaleki *et al.* 2018:57).

There are other reasons for the upsurge in demand for counterfeit sportswear (Perumal & Sapihan 2017:77). The demand for counterfeit sportswear is mostly from the young generation because they are the ones who are most likely to buy fake sportswear. Stottinger *et al.* (2015:284) revealed that the less the consumers rate the possible health damages that a fake product may do, the more likely it is that they buy counterfeit versions of sports clothing that bears a lower health risk.

The literature domain underpinning the theories of the study follows in the subsequent section.

2.4 RESEARCH THEORIES

Research on counterfeit product's purchases has a rarity of sound theoretical backing. The two theories, that of the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and theory of reasoned action (TRA) are two attitude-behaviour models, mostly employed in previous counterfeit products consumption studies (Moon *et al.* 2018: 795). Conversely, literature in the domain of counterfeiting suggests that the TPB has been most widely used and supported among researchers (Chiu, Lee & Wong 2014:618; Chiu & Leng 2016:26; Chuchu, Chinomona & Pamacheche 2016:326; Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:4). TPB is widely used to expound the motivating factors that affect an individual to execute specified acts (Sjahrifa & Fathia, 2019:277). However, the TRA has proved to be effective while consumer demand is one of the key drivers for the growth and sustenance of counterfeiting behaviour (Bian & Moutinho 2011:192), for understanding consumer behaviour and consumer intentions behind purchasing motives (Basu, Basu & Lee 2015:52).

According to TRA, the individual's attitude about subjective norms and behaviour develops behavioural intention, which turns into actual behaviour (Haseeb & Mukhtar 2016:15). Based on this theory, the higher the individual's purpose towards a particular behaviour, the higher the probability that the response will be performed (Sjahrifa & Fathia, 2019:277). Therefore, TRA helps determine a relationship between the consumers' purchasing patterns and the popularity of counterfeits (Basu *et al.* 2015:52). Consequently, willingness to purchase on counterfeit sportswear can be explained by an individual's subjective norm and attitude towards counterfeit sportswear (Xi & Cheng 2017:14). This denotes an individual would develop high willingness to purchase on counterfeit sportswear if their attitude towards sportswear is positive and vice versa (Xi & Cheng 2017:14). Therefore, a positive attitude towards buying a counterfeit product is expected to affect a customer’s willingness to purchase positively (Haseeb & Mukhtar 2016:15), based on the concept of behavioural intention, which posits that an individual’s willingness to be involved in certain behaviours is defined by attitude (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1985:12; Ajzen 1991:181).

The study focuses on the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), which is an extended version of Fishbein and Ajzen’s (1985:12) Theory of Reasoned Action (Chiu & Leng 2016:26). TPB seems more applicable than the TRA as temptations to consume are strong, given the often-tremendous price advantages of fake compared to original products (Penz & Stottinger 2005:568). Ajzen (1991:1) provides a brief description of the TPB. According to the TPB, human behaviour is guided by three kinds of considerations: beliefs about the likely consequences and experiences associated with the behaviour (behavioural beliefs); beliefs about the normative expectations and behaviours of significant others (normative beliefs); and beliefs about the presence of factors that may facilitate or impede the performance of the behaviour (control beliefs). In their respective aggregates, behavioural beliefs produce a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the behaviour; normative beliefs result in perceived social pressure or subjective norm; and control beliefs give rise to perceived behavioural control or self-efficacy. The effects of attitude toward the behaviour and subjective norm on intention are moderated by the perception of behavioural control (Ajzen 1991:1). The TPB is presented in Figure 2.3.

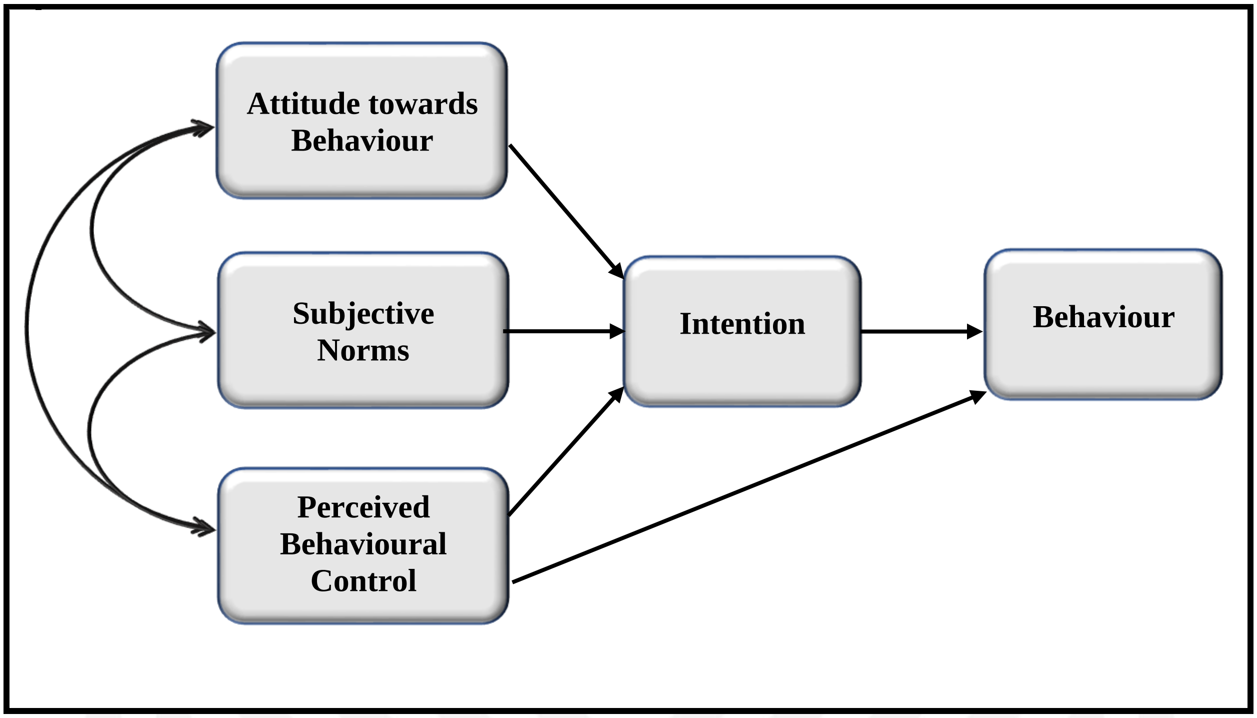

Figure 2.4: Theory of planned behaviour

Source: Ajzen (1991:182

TPB incorporates the amount of control one has over one's own behaviour and elucidates its influence on it (Penz & Stottinger 2005:569). It is an appropriate theoretical framework for studies involving counterfeit products as it allows for the examination and prediction of behaviours that are not under complete volitional control (Chiu & Leng 2016:26). The TPB predicts an individual's intention to engage in a behaviour at a specific time and place (Ajzen 1991:181) and suggests that individual behaviour is driven by behavioural intentions, where behavioural intentions are a function of three determinants: an individual's attitude toward behaviour; subjective norms; and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen 1991:181).

Based on the foregoing discussion and consistent with the TPB, the proposed conceptual model of this study postulates that materialism, hedonic motive, utilitarian motive, personal gratification and novelty-seeking behaviours will directly influence attitude towards counterfeits. In turn, attitude towards counterfeits is expected to influence willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear products.

The literature review underpinning the study constructs follows in the subsequent sections.

2.5 STUDY CONSTRUCTS

One of the common features of all people, regardless of education level, income level, place of living and so on, is that all of them are consumers, and it is of utmost importance to understand the consumer's consumption behaviour (Abdolmaleki *et al.* 2018:44). While buying counterfeit products has legal implications and a negative impact on the economy, many consumers are more prone to buy these products (OECD-EUIPO 2019:38), as the buyers here try to legitimise and justify their behaviour. To understand reasons why some of the consumers consume counterfeits, the study will explore selected antecedents that may have the propensity to trigger attitudes that, in turn, activate actual purchase behaviour. It can also be noted that motivation plays an important role in the construction of a consumer's willingness to purchase towards counterfeit products (Hendriana, Mayasari, & Gunadi 2013:63). The types of motivation can be divided into utilitarian and hedonic shopping motivation. They are included as part of the literature review for the study constructs, as alluded to in the preceding sections.

2.5.1 Materialism

The fields of marketing and psychology have been captivated with the concept of materialism and the influence it has on consumer purchasing decisions (Shunmugan 2015:17). Richins and Dawson (1992:307) define materialism as a "consumer value, balanced as the role that possessions play in consumer lives and the importance that a person places on possessions and their acquisition as a necessary, desirable form of conduct to reach desirable states, including happiness". According to Belk (1984:291), materialism is the importance a consumer attaches to worldly possessions. At the highest levels of materialism, such possessions assume a central place in a person's life and are believed to provide the greatest sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Belk 1985:265). In that manner, materialism can be described as a compelling desire to own goods (Flynn, Goldsmith & Pollitte 2016:7640) and a value system that is preoccupied with possessions and the social image they project (Bauer, Wilkie, Kim & Bodenhausen 2011:516). Materialism is a broad construct that reflects a value system that places material goods at its centre (Flynn *et al.* 2016:764) and views them as essential to their satisfaction and well-being in life (Richins & Dawson 1992:304).

Materialism influences consumer behaviour (Richins 2011:146) by its relationship with status consumption (Flynn *et al.* 2016:773). Status consumption involves a social ranking or recognition that a group would award to an individual (Teah, Phau & Huang 2015:177). For many people, social status is defined by possessions and thus may produce an endless drive to acquire ever more impressive belongings while attempting to derive a sense of self-worth from materialistic pursuits (Bauer *et al.* 2011:516). According to Flynn *et al.* (2016:761), status consumption is one of the important aspects of materialism for consumers in buying goods for the status they confer. Accordingly, low-income status-conscious individuals are likely to indulge in the purchase, use and consumption of counterfeit branded products to gain status among peers and society (Moon *et al.* 2018:797). The primary goal of material possessions is to impress others rather than themselves and view material goods and money as important for personal happiness and social progress (Türk & Erciş 2017:445). Richins (2011:143) posits that materialistic people appear to believe that acquiring goods will transform their lives and that this mechanism partially explains why they buy so much (Flynn *et al.* 2016:773).

Previous studies associate the formative influence of self-esteem as a contributor to materialism, which consequently links to increased intensity in consumer spending behaviour (Richins (2011:147); Flynn *et al.* (2016:7730); Matos, Vieira, Bonfanti & Mette (2019:94). Consumers with lower self-esteem are more likely to engage in a materialistic orientation, i. e. make purchases to improve satisfaction with the self, especially because possessions and the purchase experience *per sé* might work to improve one's self-image by buying clothes and accessories (Matos *et al.* 2019:97). This is consistent with Fitzmaurice and Comegy's (2006:289) assertion that materialists are more likely to use purchases to enhance their social status, a form of self-transformation.

Materialists are looking to both express and comfort themselves through branded consumer goods, and drive satisfaction with products, especially status signalling products because it is the luxury brands that are the most coveted for their labels and for the cachet of wealth and success that they display (Flynn *et al.* 2016:761). However, both counterfeit and luxury products bring about a similar effect which complements the consumer's physical vanity and owning a product from a specific brand enhances self-image and societal status based on the consumer's symbolic perception of the product (Shunmugan 2015:17).

Metaphors of materialism are usually associated with, among other traits, the desire for status, self-monitoring, self-esteem and attention to social comparison through buying (Flynn *et al.* 2016:773).

Generally, materialistic consumers have these common characteristics. They especially value acquiring and showing off possessions (Schiffman & Kanuk 2014:112); they have a strong desire to accumulate wealth as a display of their social status, and they tend to demonstrate selfish behaviour (Shunmugan 2015:17) because materialism distinguishes individuals who regard possessions as essential to their identities and their lives from those who regard possessions as secondary (Schiffman & Kanuk 2014:112).

Materialism is an important variable for explaining purchase intent and has proved to be a significant predictor variable of willingness to purchase of both counterfeits as well as luxury goods (Kirk-Mazik's 2014:32. Therefore, consumers who purchase counterfeit products based on their materialistic character traits tend to make purchases on social recognition and the social status that the counterfeit product brings, without the high costs associated with the product (Shunmugan 2015:17). Studies align with the notion that materialism has a direct effect on the use of counterfeit products (Chuchinprakarn 2003:53; Xi & Cheng 2017:22). According to Rosely *et al.* (2019:841), consumers are not willing to sacrifice much money on material objects for temporary usage as fashion goods. They are concerned with trends and styles which easily fade and find counterfeit goods as the best alternative to keep up with trends without having any post-purchase dissonance on spending too much money.

It can be assumed that some materialistic consumers, in this case, university students, cannot afford to buy very expensive brands. The only way they can fulfil their desires of possessing these brands is by purchasing their counterfeit versions at a much lower price (Sharma & Chan 2011:608). The construct of materialism is relevant to this study, as materialism is prevalent in the youth market (Schiffman & Kanuk 2014:113) of young adults and the middle-aged (Chuchinprakarn 2003:49). Perumal and Sapihan (2017:77) posit that young generations cause an upsurge in demand for counterfeit sportswear based on the notion that counterfeit apparels are of such high quality that it is difficult for consumers to identify fake products (Moon *et al.* 2018:804).

2.5.2 Hedonic motive

The term hedonic, of Greek origin, means relating to or characterised by pleasure (Kim, Kim & Wachter 2013:364). Hedonic consumption is a facet of consumer behaviour that relates to the multisensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of product usage experience (Hirschman & Holbrook

1982:92). It can be associated with fun and playfulness rather than task completion and is therefore driven by the fun associated with consumption of the product, and the criteria for success is essentially appealing in nature (Cardoso & Pinto 2010:540). Hedonic needs are subjective and experiential; that is, consumers may rely on a product to meet their needs for excitement, aesthetic impression, the symbolic associations, self-confidence and fantasy (Firati, Kutucuoglu, Saltik & Tuncel 2013:190). As a result, consumers are more likely to engage in impulse buying when they are motivated by their desires and hedonic reasons, such as fun, fantasy, and social or emotional satisfaction (Tambuwun 2016:10).

From the hedonic perspective, consumers are motivated by the shopping experience itself as fun, enjoyable, and entertaining, regardless of whether a purchase is planned or made (Workman 2010:126). Pleasure and enjoyment drive hedonic value as consumers consider these shopping experience activities intrinsic (personal) to them (Kim *et al.* 2013:364). As a result, hedonic or intrinsic motivation gives immediate need satisfaction, and an intrinsically motivated act is valued for its own sake and appears to be self-sustaining (Totawar & Nambudiri 2014:319). Hedonic or intrinsically motivated behaviours are carried out because such behaviours themselves have an appeal or are enjoyable, and aspects such as shopping behaviour are recreational, pleasurable and stimulation-oriented motivations (McReynolds 1971:157). Subsequently, hedonic motivation stimulates consumers to shop (Aldaning & Achmad 2018:18), because shopping is a certain pleasure, and therefore they do not pay attention to the utility of the goods they have bought. For this reason, Babin, Darden and Griffin (1994:646) harmonise that hedonic shopping value suggests that consumers shop for seeking value according to pleasure, recreational consumption and high-arousal stimuli. Additionally, Aldaning and Achmad (2018:22) found that the effect of hedonic motivation toward buying influences the decision that can be caused by a desire to raise prestige or to follow recent trends. Thus, hedonic motivation will force consumers to act, which may activate a buying decision (Schiffman & Kanuk 2004:72).

Since hedonic motivation is related to transaction utility that refer to shopping enjoyment (Hendriana *et al.* 2013:63), this motivation may lead consumers to purchase counterfeit products based on interactions, experiences and emotions. Some studies focus on the impact of emotions on consumers' purchase decision and their positive emotions (Chaudry & Stumpf 2011:140; Penz &

Stottinger 2012:583; Hedriana *et al*. 2013:63) created by counterfeit purchase experiences is believed to influence consumers to repurchase without the high costs associated with the product.

Hedonic motivation is a shopping motivation that is based on the emotional needs of individuals, which are primarily intended for pleasure and comfort (Pancaningrum & Wardani 2019:57) and enjoyable and interesting shopping experiences (Sarkar 2011:58). This is in line with Arnold and Reynolds (2003:80), who developed six principal dimensions of hedonic shopping consumption motivations, namely, adventure, gratification, role, value, social and the idea that shopping may have the propensity to influence consumers to fulfil hedonic desires that can subsequently easily sway them to purchase counterfeit sportswear products. These categories are expanded as sub-sections as follows:

2.5.2.1 Adventure shopping

Adventure shopping refers to shopping for stimulation, adventure, and the feeling of being in another world (Arnold & Reynolds 2003:80). Consumers who enjoy shopping exhibit brand consciousness and fashion traits associations. They will spend their time shopping but also spend frivolously and without monetary concern. Ozen and Engizek (2014:81) concur that these shopping motives, due to stimulation, can arouse passion; they feel that shopping is an experience, and by shopping, they can feel that they have their own world. This means that consumers in this category are very happy and enjoy the atmosphere of shopping adventures, the pleasure of discovering new things (products, scenery, atmosphere). Consumers will just try the latest brands in deciding to purchase counterfeit products as they only want to explore whether the latest brand of counterfeit models are suitable for purchase (Pancaningrum & Wardani 2019:61).

2.5.2.2 Gratification shopping

Gratification shopping involves shopping to reduce stress, to alleviate a negative mood, and a special treat to oneself (Arnold & Reynolds 2003:80). This can be interpreted as relaxation shopping conducted by consumers who buy and use branded counterfeit products more for a means to improve mood because consumers (students) cannot afford to buy genuine brand products (Pancaningrum & Wardani 2019:61).

2.5.2.3 Role shopping

Arnold and Reynolds (2003:80) define role shopping as the enjoyment that shoppers derive from shopping for others, the influence that this activity has on the shoppers' feelings and mood, and the excitement and intrinsic joy felt by shoppers when finding the perfect gift for others. When consumers want to fulfil their buying desires, they can be easily swayed to purchase counterfeits, regardless of the quality of the products (Shunmugan 2015:17).

2.5.2.4 Value shopping

Value shopping is described as shopping for sales, looking for discounts, and hunting for bargains (Arnold & Reynolds 2003:80). Shoppers compare the prices of products and look for the best price or deal before purchasing, which provides a great level of shopping enjoyment and a sense of accomplishment. Finding a price cut or a good deal may direct consumers to pleasure from personal accomplishment. In online stores, consumers are more likely to find bargains and discounts, especially with the counterfeit purchases without the high costs associated with the product, which may lead consumers to make sudden, unplanned shopping purchases (Pancaningrum & Wardani 2019:57).

2.5.2.5 Social shopping

Social shopping is the enjoyment of shopping with friends and family, socialising and bonding with others while shopping (Arnold & Reynolds 2003:80). Therefore, the time spent during shopping with friends or family members is seen as a treasure by a lot of people, and they also think that they are deriving the benefit from social activities while shopping (Ozen & Engizek 2014:82). This means that consumers decide to purchase branded counterfeit products when shopping with friends, where opinions or suggestions from friends when shopping is done can also encourage consumers to make decisions about purchasing branded counterfeit products (Pancaningrum & Wardani 2019:61).

2.5.2.6 Idea shopping

According to Ozen and Engizek (2014:82) idea shopping can be defined as shopping activities undertaken by consumers to follow the latest trends and fashions and to see product innovations on the market. Pancaningrum and Wardani (2019:61) received positive responses from respondents "buying a counterfeit product from Nike shoes to make it look fashionable". This can be interpreted as the idea of shopping carried out by consumers who buy counterfeit products only to support their appearance to make them look fashionable, so they do not look out of date and at the same time to be seen able to keep up with existing trends.

2.5.3 Utilitarian motive

Utilitarian consumer behaviour can be defined as a rational approach involving a purchase that is efficiently made, even if the shopping itself may not provide any fun (Cardoso & Pinto 2010:539). Utilitarian shopping value relates to the functional, instrumental and practical benefits of the shopping experience, which is dominated by the cognitive element (Batra & Ahtola 1991:160). From a utilitarian perspective, consumers are motivated to purchase products with an efficient and timely expenditure of resources (Workman 2010:126). Therefore, utilitarian motivation presents the acquisition utility that emphasises the economic benefits from the purchase, and it assumes that consumers are value-conscious and they purchase a product based on its functionality and benefits (Hendriana *et al.* 2013:63). Zeeman (2013:57) agrees that consumers with utilitarian motivations evaluate a shopping experience with reference to the achievement of the planned goal, and the acquisition of products is important to these consumers as they are typically non-emotional, focused on completing a specific task. Unlike hedonism, utilitarian shoppers see shopping as a functional activity and do not give importance to its gratificational aspects (Cardoso & Pinto 2010:554).

In utilitarian situations, people make decisions cognitively, based on instrumental reasons, while thinking about the expectations of the consequences (Kim, 2016:388). Therefore, a consumer would patronise usage of product and service offerings or brands that are rewarding in terms of the usage experience they provide (Sahney 2020:6). Batra and Ahtola (1991:160) view consumers with the utilitarian shopping value as more efficient and rational, who shop with a focus on task completion. Kim (2006:58) defines two dimensions of utilitarian motivation, namely, efficiency and achievement.

2.5.3.1 Efficiency

Efficiency in the buying process refers to consumers who buy products in order to save time and money during the shopping process (Pancaningrum & Wardani 2019:57). According to Zeeman (2013:41), efficiency is a consumer means satisfying the projected needs swiftly to save time and resources. Efficiency is when the needed items can be bought easily and fast (Semeuel & Sampurno 2019:13). The importance of efficiency and convenience is expressed when consumers have quick access to products that help them save time, money and energy when shopping (Parker & Wang 2016:493).

2.5.3.2 Achievement

Achievement refers to a goal related shopping motivation where success in finding specific products that were planned for at the outset of the trip is important (Kim 2006:58). Pancaningrum and Wardani (2019:57) view achievement as the accomplishment of shopping goals in the form of the discovery of products that are more specific than previously planned; that is, the achievement is a success in finding the desired product that turns out to be more than what was previously thought. Consumers who are achievement-oriented may usually shop for specific purposes; i. e. there is always a purpose behind the shopping activity (Parker & Wang, 2016:494). The most important part of shopping is getting the items that have been targeted before by consumers (Semeuel & Sampurno 2019:12). Zeeman (2013:40) defines these consumers as individuals who perceive shopping as being a task to fulfil or a job to be completed.

Based on the foregoing deliberations, sportswear as utility goods are items that are purchased frequently and are a regular part of the consumer's life, which allows the consumer to be more price-sensitive towards these goods because they are purchased and used frequently. Hence, such goods may serve their utility value and trigger a positive attitude towards their purchase. Thus, both variables, hedonic and utilitarian, may exist at the same time as a complement (Viera, Santini & Araujo 2018:428). It is proposed that a consumer may discover a counterfeit sportswear product that motivated the shopping journey at an exceptionally low price at the first store visited (utilitarian), and that this pleasure-shopping journey (hedonic) creates both types of values.

2.5.4 Personal gratification

Gratification is the pleasurable emotional reaction of happiness in response to the fulfilment of a desire or goal (Ang, Cheng, Lim & Tambyah 2001:224). Like all emotions, it is a motivator of behaviour and thus plays a role in the entire range of social systems (Hanzaee & Taghipourian 2012:1149). Personal gratification refers to the requirement for a sense of perfection and social perception and the desire to get the better things in life (Nguyen & Tran 2013:13). Phau, Teah and Lee (2008:7) further state that personal gratification is linked to the need for a sense of accomplishment/ social recognition and the enjoyment of the finer things in life.

While the majority of counterfeit goods are not comparable to the original goods in terms of quality, many consumers who buy counterfeit products are willing to sacrifice quality and forego any product warranty associated with the original product (Rahpeima, Vazifedost, Hanzaee & Saeednia 2014:61; Hamtana & Giantari 2018:376). They do so because they do not value as much the pleasure of owning a better quality product but have a sense of accomplishment and social recognition that comes with enjoying the product (Rahpeima *et al.* 2014:61).

If consumers believe that buying merchandise is a means of personal gratification, self-representation and status, then university students are likely to hold a favourable attitude toward buying counterfeit sportswear products. This is consistent with De Matos, Ituassu and Rossi (2007:44); Rahpeima *et al.* (2014:64), that consumers who seek to have a sense of accomplishment and high level of social recognition have positive attitudes towards counterfeits.

For the purpose of this study, consumers are students who might seek gratification in counterfeit sportswear to save money due to their limited financial resources (Pancaningrum & Wardani 2019:62).

2.5.5 Novelty-seeking

Novelty refers to uniqueness, newness and new experiences (Shafique, Ahmad, Abbass & Khurshid 2015:30). The term novel denotes it is the degree of contrast between present perception and past experiences, making it the opposite of familiarity (Assakera, Vinzi & O'Connor 2011:891). It serves as a type of internal drive or motivating force that activates consumers to look for novel information on purchase decisions. Novelty-seeking consumers try to seek for uniqueness whereby they desire new experiences, look for and try new products, services and ideas (Khare, Singh & Khare 2010:167; Shafique *et al.* 2015:30). Within the domain of counterfeits, novelty-seeking consumers find counterfeit products that satisfy the consumer`s curiosity and motivate them to satisfy their internal desire to try new products (Liao & Hsieh, 2013:12). According to Tierney (2012), novelty-seeking is associated with compulsive spending. Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:111) maintain that consumers with high variety-seeking scores are more likely to be attracted to brands that claim to have novel features.

In the next section, attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear are discussed.

2.5.6 Attitude towards counterfeit products

Attitude is defined as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object (Fishbein & Ajzen1991:188). Attitude is defined as an underlying mental state capable of influencing a person’s choice of action and maintaining consistency across those actions in buying decisions (Parasuraman 1986:15). Raza, Ahmed, Ali and Qureshi (2019:4) consider attitude to be feeling and thinking in a settled way, which denotes an individual’s ability to react in a positive or negative way in a particular situation. According to Liao and Hsieh (2013:413), the most widely accepted definition of attitude conceives it as an evaluation, such as psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour. Therefore, an attitude can be used to predict an individual’s intention of performing a specific behaviour,for example, buying a product. (Yoo & Lee 2009:280).

An individual’s evaluating process of behaviour toward purchasing any product can be favourable or unfavourable (Raza *et al.* 2019:4). Therefore, attitudes will be influenced by beliefs about the disadvantages and advantages of performing a specified behaviour such as engaging in the purchase of counterfeit products (Bupalan, Rahim, Ahmi & Rahman 2019:974). Accordingly, consumers who have knowledge about counterfeits may have a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward counterfeit consumption (Moon *et al.* 2018:804).

2.5.6.1 Cognitive components of attitude

The cognitive component of an attitude represents an individual's awareness, beliefs and knowledge about an object, product or person and their characteristics which can be made salient by requiring persons to list the reasons for liking or disliking an attitude object (Webb 2002:159). Moon *et al.* (2018.796) add that cognitive attributes refer to the functionality of the product, which consumers use as cognitive cues in decision making. This is consistent with Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:197) that the consumer believes that the attitude object possesses various attributes and that specific behaviour will lead to specific outcomes. This consists of consumers beliefs, thought, and knowledge about an attitude object, that is, counterfeit sportswear. For example, the belief and knowledge a student has towards counterfeit sportswear may assist them in developing a favourable or unfavourable attitude with time (Pulka, Rikwentshe & Ibrahim 2014:3). Cognitive attributes of a product may be consumer-oriented such as a consumer's prior encounter with a brand/product or the knowledge about the product and its functionality (Moon *et al.* 2018:796). Therefore, in the context of counterfeit consumption, past experience and product knowledge are taken as cognitive attributes. The consumer may focus on the cognitive aspects of counterfeit purchase behaviour as an acquisition utility (Sharma & Chan 2011:605).

2.5.6.2 Affective component of attitude

A consumer's emotions or feelings about a particular product or brand constitute the affective component of an attitude (Schiffman & Kanuk 2014:197). Sharma and Chan (2011:605) suggest that the affective component of attitude is a relatively stable psychological trait that is different and can lead to counterfeit proneness. In the context of counterfeit consumption, product appearance and novelty-seeking are taken as affective attributes (Moon *et al.* 2018:796). These attributes may be consumer as well as product-oriented, which may relate to joy, entertainment, fun, pleasure and enjoyment extracted from purchase activity of product (Moon *et al.* 2018:796). As a result, consumers seek to try out new and innovative products without focusing on the functional value of the product.

2.5.6.3 Conative (behavioural) component of attitude

In marketing and consumer research, the conative component is frequently treated as an expression of the consumer's intention to buy (Schiffman & Kanuk 2014:199). It is the way in which individuals responds or react to a specific set of attitudinal objects (in this case counterfeit product). When consumers develop favourable attitudes towards the acquisition and consumption of counterfeits, there is a possibility that they will buy such products (Chiu & Leng 2016:25). Numerous studies have investigated the relationship between people's attitudes concerning counterfeit goods and their likelihood of purchasing counterfeit goods (Liao & Hsieh 2013:420; Shafique *et al.* 2015:32; Albarq 2015:825; Chiu & Leng 2016:31; Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:8) and found that attitudes toward counterfeits are positively related to willingness to purchase of counterfeit products.

The study assumed that when the attitude towards a counterfeit product is favourable, it is likely that students will buy counterfeit sportswear; however, if the attitude towards counterfeit products is unfavourable, the students may not buy counterfeit sportswear (Chiu & Leng 2016:25; Quoquab 2017:840; Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:8).

2.5.6.4 Willingness to purchases

Intentions can be defined as subjective evaluations of a person toward a particular object in order to respond to a specific behaviour (Moon *et al.* 2018:796). The effort to purchase under conscious planning (Kei, Osman & Bakar 2017:108), the willingness and readiness of an individual to buy certain products or services, is defined as willingness to purchase (Ajzen 1991:181). Therefore, willingness to purchase represent a decision to act out a behaviour (Krishnan, Hisyam, Ramlan, Diyana, Salihah & Atiqa 2017:30).

The TPB is usually used to foresee the intention of some human activity in product purchases. It likewise foresees that behaviour is an intention based on people's lifestyles (Bupalan *et al.* 2019:974). According to the TPB willingness to purchase is a good determinant of purchase behaviour, in which the willingness to purchase is in turn determined by attitudes (Phau & Teah, 2009:17; Rizwan, Ali, Anjum, Naseer, Majeed, Ali & Anwar 2014:37). Therefore, an individual's intention of obtaining a particular product increases as favourable attitudes and subjective norms increases (Ajzen 1991:182). Some of the previous studies have found that if the perceived product attributes between the genuine products and the counterfeit products are similar in terms of quality, willingness to purchase will be higher (Penz & Stottinger 2005:572; Nordin 2009:22). The more favourable consumers' attitudes towards counterfeiting are, the higher the chances those consumers will purchase counterfeits. Similarly, the more unfavourable consumers' attitudes towards counterfeiting are, the less likely are the chances of purchase (Nordin 2009:22; Kei *et al.* 2017:108; Abdolmaleki *et al.* 2018:55). In their study, Kei *et al.* (2017:114) found more than half of the respondents were aware that the product is not authentic; however, possessing knowledge of the authenticity of the product at the time of purchase was considered important in order to engender willingness to purchase towards the counterfeit product. This is in line with Musnaini, Astuti, Sukoco and Yacob (2017:499) that high intention to purchase depends on benefit and value functions of counterfeit branded products. Accordingly, if consumer product evaluation is high and positive, the higher the willingness to purchase the person has of a product (Hamtana & Giantari 2018:371).

Functions served by attitudes toward one object – that is, luxury brands, can influence consumers' preferences for other, albeit related objects – that is, counterfeit brands (Wilcox, Kim & Sen (2009:256). Triandewi1 and Tjiptono (2013:29) state that consumer intention to buy originals positively affects consumer intention to buy counterfeits. The authors suggest that even though consumers are willing to buy originals, they do not hesitate to purchase counterfeits. Whenever they could not get the originals, they would find counterfeits as good substitutes. Additionally, even though the genuine brands are available in the market, if the price difference between the genuine and the counterfeit is significant, they may choose the counterfeit product (Lisa & Turunen 2015:134).

2.5.7 Linking selected variables that influence purchase behaviour with attitude towards counterfeits

There are numerous studies that associate the anticipated positive effect on attitudes towards counterfeit products (Penz & Stottinger 2005:32; Wilcox, Kim & Sen 2009:254; Shafique *et al.* 2015:32; Chiu & Leng 2016:32; Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:4). The relationship between materialism and attitude towards counterfeits was found to be significant (Yoo & Lee 2009:285; Xi & Cheng 2017:22) and further support that those who are materialistic would favour counterfeit sportswear because it fulfils their desire to portray themselves as prestigious and wealthy within a limited budget. Studies have also shown that hedonic benefit evokes a positive attitude in a consumer and is associated with the consumer buying a counterfeit to improve their self-image (Shunmugan 2015:64; Saeed & Paracha 2019:218) while Musnaini *et al.* (2017:506) revealed that having fun or enjoying glamour and experience adventures are also important and have a positive attitude towards counterfeits.

A utilitarian attitude is concerned with functional and instrumental evaluations; as a result, consumers who have the utilitarian attitude toward a counterfeit product will evaluate counterfeit products on a functional basis (Moon *et al.* (2018:798). Ang *et al.* (2001:231); Hanzaee and Taghipourian (2012:1152) found that personal gratification was not a significant predictor of attitude. Results from Sun *et al.* (2015:28) found that personal gratification has a negative effect on attitudes toward counterfeits of luxury brands. In contrast, de Matos (2007:45); Rizwan *et al.* (2014:42); Zeashan, Pirzada, Haider and Abbas (2015:12) found that personal gratification is a significant predictor of attitude and has a positive influence on consumer attitude towards counterfeit. This means that consumers who attempt to have a sense of accomplishment had more favourable attitudes towards counterfeits.

Novelty-seeking may increase due to the attitude of consumers' interest with attributes of products. This is attested by some scholars who, in their findings, revealed that novelty-seeking consumers have positive attitudes s towards counterfeit products (Abid & Abbasi 2014:173; Liao & Hsieh 2013:418).

2.5.7.1 Attitude: a mediator between selected study variables and willingness to purchase

Willingness to purchase is influenced by attitudes (Kei *et al.* 2017:108), and attitude towards counterfeits is a significant predictor of willingness to purchase (Ang. *et al.* 2001:229). Previous studies in counterfeiting (Ang *et al.* 2001:232; Azwar *et al.* 2014:41; Teah *et al.* 2015:187; Amaral & Loken 2016:493; Wang 2017:503; Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:8) found a positive association between attitude and intentions to purchase counterfeit sportswear products.

Individual proposed study constructs are related to willingness to purchase through uniqueness or mediation of attitude. Materialism as a personal value may form a more favourable attitude towards counterfeits, which in turn lead to willingness to purchase (Xi & Cheng 2017:22; Saeed & Paracha 2019:218). In their study, Shunmugan (2015:66) and Triandewi and Tjiptono (2013:29) could not find adequate evidence to suggest that consumers' intention to buy counterfeits can be attributed to materialism. Materialistic consumers found original luxury products to be more attractive than counterfeits. The more materialistic a consumer is, the less likely he/she will buy a counterfeit. This may be due to the prestige and status associated with the original (Triandewi & Tjiptono 2013:29).

A hedonic motivation dimension has an important role in purchasing decisions (Pancaningrum & Wardani 2019:63). Shunmugan (2015:64) revealed that consumers' attitudes towards the hedonic benefits of a product are positively associated with willingness to purchase of counterfeits. However, Triandewi and Tjiptono's (2013:29) study found that there is no significant effect of hedonic benefits of counterfeit purchase on attitudes toward counterfeit purchases.

Personal gratification has a positive influence on consumer attitude toward counterfeits' purchase (Triandewi & Tjiptono's 2013:29), and novelty-seeking is also dominant in influencing consumers to purchase counterfeit products through the mediation of attitude (Albarq 2015:826).

Based on the above findings and relationships revealed by various researchers, it can be confirmed that various constructs can be predictors of attitude, and attitude is a predictor that has an effect on consumer purchasing behaviour. However, there are also accompanying contrary results revealed by previous researchers regarding the study constructs. Hence this study may provide new perspectives on the relationships among the study constructs within a university student domain.

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter provides an examination of the literature that is relevant to counterfeiting. A detailed background and classification of counterfeiting in a global and South African context was provided. Additionally, the background of the sports industry was also alluded to. With respect to the classification of counterfeiting, the literature showed that there is an excess of terms like knock-offs, fakes, copies, illicit products, copycats, overruns, pirated goods and imitations are used interchangeably with counterfeiting. The TRA and the TPB provided a theoretical lens for the study because these are two attitude-behaviour models. TRA has been effective for understanding consumer behaviour and intentions behind purchasing motives, and TPB assisted in bringing sense to the motivating factors that affect the consumer to engage in the purchasing intention. Research constructs included materialism, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation, personal gratification and novelty-seeking of counterfeit products, attitude and its components, linking attitude with study variables. Finally, willingness to purchase of counterfeit products, along with relationships and links among all the above-mentioned constructs, were explored. The literature highlighted that behaviours influence (positive or negative) consumers' attitudes towards counterfeits, and in turn, attitudes towards counterfeits directly influence a willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear products.

Chapter Three provides a discussion of the research methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The current chapter aims to introduce the research methodology employed in the study. It reviews the specific research design and methods applied in this study. Primarily, a review of the literature was made with the purpose to provide a background of the counterfeit sporting goods industry and its influence on consumers' attitudes and willingness to purchase counterfeits in the previous chapter. Similarly, an overview of the underlying theory that postulates that a person's intention to perform (or not to perform) a behaviour was considered. This theoretic lens provided a starting point with which to hypothesize the key variables in this research.

The chapter commences by providing the scope of the study in Section 3.2 of this dissertation, which clarifies the demarcations of the work to the reader. Thereafter, Section 3.3 follows with an overview on the specific methodology that was followed in the empirical section. A viewpoint on the research design, approach and strategies applied is presented in Sections 3.4, 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7, respectively. Sections 3.8 and 3.9 reflects the information collected from the subset of population elements. Moreover, an outline is given on both questionnaire administration and development and research ethics that are relevant to this work under Sections 3.10 and 3.16, respectively. The process of scale evaluation by expounding on the reliability and validity issues pertaining to this research is reviewed in Section 3.13. Consequently, a perspective on the data preparation steps to be applied prior to conducting the statistical analysis is explicated in Section 3.11. Section 3.12 reviewed the methods applied to the sample data to show how data were statistically analysed. In addition, a discussion on regression analysis is delineated in Section 3.14 of this dissertation to present the statistical application for this work.

3.2 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study focuses on counterfeit sportswear products. The scope of this study is to gain an understanding of the motives behind and reasons that consumers, in this case, students at a higher education institution, purchase counterfeit sportswear goods knowingly. This will also help to assess perceptions and attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear purchases.

This study further elected to focus on sportswear specifically. The rationale for choosing this category is due to fitness consciousness, the growing popularity of sports apparel, as well as the trends toward stylish and comfortable sportswear among university students (Riso 2015:234). This could also account for the increase in the demand for sporting apparel. The rise in the price of sports apparel undoubtedly creates a demand for cheaper, affordable alternatives, namely counterfeit goods, which cost consumers only a fraction of the original.

This study focuses on willingness to purchase adoption as the outcome variable. Whilst a surfeit of scholars established that attitude towards counterfeit products and purchases intentions are related (Tang, Tian & Zaichkowsky 2014:17; Krishnan, Hisyam, Ramlan, Diyana, Salihah & Atiqa 2017:38), limited research has investigated the intention to purchase sporting goods among the young consumers at an institution of higher learning.

A discussion on the chosen methodology for this study follows.

3.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM

A research paradigm is simply a belief system (or theory) that guides the way people do things, or more formally establishes a set of practices (Dhurup 2019:25) as much as it a philosophical worldview, assumptions, beliefs, values and methods within which research is conducted (Cresswell 2015:16). In the same vein, a research paradigm is defined by Guba and Lincoln (1994:200) as a set of beliefs that define the nature of the world, the individual's place in it and the possible relationships to that world and its parts. This denotes that the choice of a research paradigm is instrumental in influencing beliefs about what is considered legitimate or justifiable in any research (Mazibuko 2019:111). The main research paradigms that dominate contemporary literature include positivism, post-positivism, constructivism and pragmatism (Creswell 2009:6; McMillan & Schumacher 2010:4). In this study, a positivist paradigm was followed. The positivist research paradigm is a scientific empiricist method that is designed to yield pure data and facts that are not influenced by bias or human interpretation (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2016:136). Positivist view gathers that predictions can only be made based on previously observed and explained reality (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:159). Bryman (2016:21) is of the same view that positivist research strives to explore, confirm and forecast law-like sets of behaviour. Additionally, positivists believe that there is a single reality, which can be measured and known, and therefore they are more likely to use quantitative methods to measure this reality. Dhurup (2019:27), as well as Wilson (2014:13), posit that a majority of the research that seeks to test theory and hypotheses is inclined towards the positivist paradigm.

Assumptions about the nature of reality in research paradigms can be characterised through:

- **Ontology – What is reality?**
- **Epistemology – How do you know something/ How can you know?**
- **Methodology – How do you go about finding it out?**
- **Axiology – What do you do about it (action)? More subjectivity to the research (**Dhurup 2019:26).

Firstly, **ontology** is the study of the nature and form of reality that which is or can be known (Maree 2007:52) and refers to the researcher's perceptions of what constitutes knowledge and the nature of reality (Bryman 2016:20) as much as it is concerned with pronouncing the nature of reality (Wilson 2014:11). Bryman (2016:21) denotes that the positivist paradigm is hinged upon laws and theories which provide the basis of explanation, prediction and anticipation of social phenomena. According to Mazibuko (2019:112), positivists endorse pro-theoretic reasoning, assume that reality and independent, and provides an objective view of the researcher. This is in line with Maree's (2007:52) view that the positivist perspective is based on the ontological assumption that the social world is external to individual cognition and is a real-world made up of hard, tangible and relatively fixed phenomena.

Secondly, **epistemology,** also known as the "theory of knowledge", identifies the ontological question as "what is the form and nature of reality and what can be known of it?" (Dhurup 2019:26). Wahyuni (2012:69) defines epistemology as the belief system that informs the generation of what constitutes acceptable and valid knowledge in a study. In this regard, epistemology is concerned with how individuals understand knowledge or considers how one comes to know reality. Thus, epistemology followed by positivists is that only observable phenomena can provide credible data and facts (Denscombe 2014:2) and is reduced to simple elements by focusing on causality and law generalisations that depict truth statements about the universe (Saunders & Tosey 2012:58; Bilau *et al.* 2018:600).

Thirdly, **axiology** is the influence of the researcher's values in research execution (Wahyuni 2012:70). Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie (2015:94) define it as a philosophical position that examines an individual's judgements of values, as they act as the guiding factor of human action. In the positivist paradigm, research is undertaken in a value-free way, whereby the researcher is neutral and independent of the data (Saunders *et al.* 2016:136). In a nutshell, the researcher takes the judgement of the viewer/observer only.

Finally, **methodology** captures the research methods that are employed in the study (Wahyumi 2012:70). The methodology in positivist thinking is conjured by developing tentative statements to the proven, termed hypotheses (Denscombe 2014:2). Thereafter, the researcher attempts to understand how theoretical facts about the marketing phenomena correspond with reality by testing the hypothesis empirically (Bryman 2016:24). The hypotheses testing and analysis might comprise field observations, whereby the phenomenon is reduced into simple elements (Iacobucci & Churchill 2010:84). The research is objective, structured and highly organised, wherein large samples are utilised. Positivists further believe that the right data gathering will produce truth for a given enquiry (Eriksson & Hovalainen 2016:270). In this regard, structured questionnaires may be used where the designated research strategy is experimental, quasi-experimental or survey-based (Bilau *et al.* 2018:600). The empirical findings are then linked with the hypotheses to obtain an enhanced understanding of the situation. Validation and confirmation of the hypotheses using accurate empirical analysis provide a valid generalisation of sample findings to the wider population of interest.

The study was grounded within the positivist philosophy since it was deemed to test specific suppositions (hypotheses) derived from the selected antecedents relating to consumers' attitudes to purchasing counterfeit sportswear willingly. Additionally, the empirical research objectives formulated in Section 1.6.3 were outlined in a measurable manner, assuming there are pre-determined predictive relationships among the study variables. Consistent to Shiu *et al.* (2009:63), the study used registered students from a selected HEI in Southern Gauteng to either confirm of refute the postulated relationships. During the empirical assessment, a detached, neutral and noninteractive position was maintained in view of perpetuating an objective and value-free interpretation of data (Bryman, Bell, Hirschson, Dos Santos, Du Toit, Masenge, Van Aardt & Wagner 2017:12). Moreover, a quantitative research strategy was followed in this study since positivists prefer an analytic and factual interpretation of quantitative data (Saunders *et al.* 2016:137).

The next section expounds on the different steps to be engaged in the marketing research process for this study.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is a framework or plan for conducting a research project and lays the foundation for the conduction of such a project (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:61). According to Kumar (2019:154), a research design is a framework or blueprint for conducting the marketing research project and created to find answers to research questions, and the researcher adopts this plan to answer questions validly, objectively, accurately and economically. In the same vein, Malhotra (2010:104) enunciates that a research design specifies the details of the procedures necessary for obtaining the information needed to structure or solve marketing research problems. The function of a research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables the researcher to effectively address the research problem logically and as unambiguously as possible (Dhurup 2019:04). Cresswell (2014:03) expounds on research designs as philosophical assumptions that the researcher brings to the study, i. e. procedures of inquiry and are classified into three basic types, namely, exploratory, descriptive and causal designs. The taxonomy of research design types follows in the subsequent sub-sections.

3.4.1 Exploratory research

As the name indicates, exploratory research is intended to explore a relatively unknown area of study, as it is necessary when more information and insight is required about a problem, opportunity or phenomenon, and especially to collect data that can contribute to more meaningful research questions (Wiid & Diggines 2015:66). Malhotra (2010:102) pronounces exploratory research as one type of research design, which has as its primary objective the provision of insights into the comprehension of the problem situation confronting the researcher. Hunter and Howes

(2019:1) suggest that exploratory research is designed to illuminate how a phenomenon is manifested and is especially useful in uncovering the full nature of a little-understood phenomenon. Exploratory research is used in cases when the researcher must define the problem more precisely, identify relevant courses of action, or gain additional insights before an approach can be developed (Malhotra 2010:103). Because the objective of an exploratory study is to acquire insight and develop understanding rather than to collect accurate, replicable data, it usually involves conducting in-depth interviews, case analyses, focus groups and literature searches (Wiid & Diggines 2015:66). It is for this reasoning that the work of Hunter and Howes (2019:6) revealed that possible research methods, which relate to exploratory research have been provided, although the flexibility thereof is also recognised, allowing researchers to be creative in their thinking.

3.4.2 Descriptive research

Descriptive research encompasses a variety of methodologies that are best suited to examining and trying to make sense of a situation or event as it currently exists in the world (Leedy & Ormord 2021:174). Salkind (2018:160) complements that the purpose of descriptive research is to describe the current state of affairs. This type of research attempts to address the who, what, when, where, why and how questions (Zikmund & Babin 2013:51). Put simply, this type of research often helps to describe various marketing segments by painting a picture of various objects, organisations, people and environments.

Descriptive research is a type of conclusive research that has as its major objective the description of something, usually market characteristics or functions (Malhotra 2010:106). Conclusive design is one that helps the researcher study the research problem in a conclusive form and then to choose a possible course of action from various alternatives; in that manner, a description of the characteristics of relevant groups, such as consumers, salespeople, organisations, or market areas may form part of the reasons for descriptive research to be conducted (Wiid & Diggines 2015:67).

Descriptive research designs are built on the supposition that the prevailing relationships amongst the study variables are already known (Feinberg *et al.* 2013:578). In the same vein, Malhotra (2010:106) adds that descriptive research is conducted to determine the degree to which marketing variables are associated and to make specific predictions. Therefore, descriptive research is assumed on the basis of a well-known prevailing nature of a research problem, even though this problem demands thorough motivation (Dhurup 2019:5). By and large, descriptive research does not involve changing or modifying a situation under investigation, nor is it intended to determine cause-and-effect relationships (Leedy & Ormrod 2021:174).

3.4.3 Causal research

Causal research is used to obtain evidence of cause-and-effect relationships (Malhotra 2010:1123). This type of research is appropriate to understand which variables are the cause (independent variables) and which variables are the effect (dependent variables) of a phenomenon. Dhurup (2019:06) notes that causal research designs try to identify cause-effect relationships and interactions between or among variables used in a study. Wiid and Diggines (2015:68) add that causal research is directly linked to predictive studies, it can reveal both opportunities and threats expected in the future. In the same vein (McDaniel & Gates 2010:50), reason that causal research is research that investigates whether one variable determines or is the cause of the value of another. This is tested to assess if there is a correlation or link between the two different variables (Manley 2013:94).

For the purpose of this study, a combination of a descriptive and causal research design was deemed appropriate using sample surveys that were representative of the target population. The descriptive research design was applied in addressing the first three empirical tests. Causal research was applied in addressing the final four empirical objectives, where predictive relationships between the various research constructs were measured.

Figure 3.1 provides a brief summary of research designs.

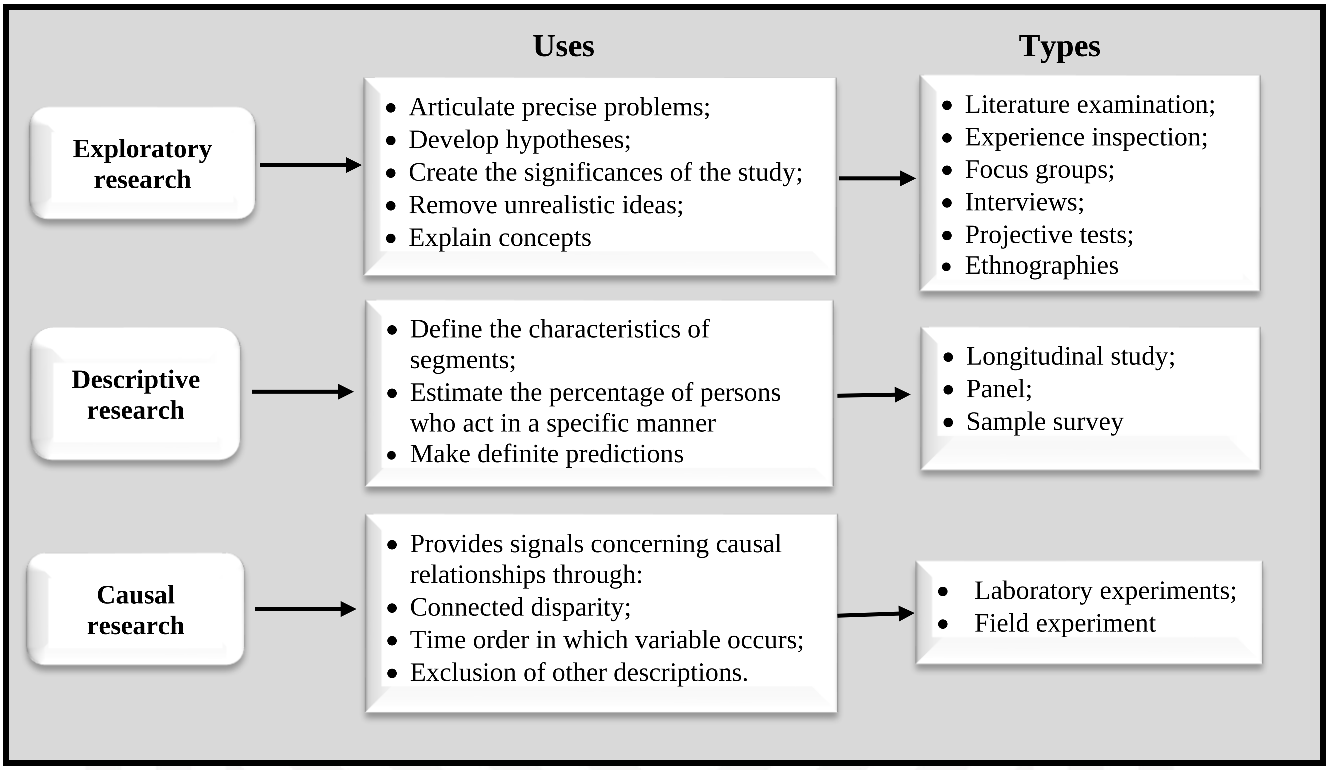

Figure 3.1: Types of research designs

Source: Iacobucci & Churchill (2010)as cited in Dhurup (2019:5)

3.5 TIME HORIZON

A time horizon in research refers to the time frame within which the project is intended for completion (Stayton 2020). There are two types of time horizons, i. e. longitudinals and cross-sectional studies (Iacobucci & Churchill 2010:86).

3.5.1 Longitudinal time horizon

A longitudinal time horizon refers to the collection of data repeatedly over an extended period (Stayton 2020). Longitudinal studies comprise data collection and analysis of the same sample elements (sample survey) over a period (Babbie & Mouton 2010:92-93). In other words, the process of measuring the sample with a longitudinal approach is that the procedure is repeated at various points in time, where the sample elements remain the same throughout (Kumar 2011:109). According to Wiid and Diggines (2015:66), there are two types of longitudinal studies. Those are **continuous or true panels** that rely on the repeated measurement of the same variables, and the

discontinuous or omnibus panels, where the information collected from the members of the panel varies.

3.5.2 Cross-sectional time horizon

The cross-sectional time horizon is when there is a pre-set time established for the collection of data (Stayton 2020). Cross-sectional studies include the gathering of data from the same sample elements only once (Burns &Bush 2014:104). In the same vein, Dhurup (2019:05) augments that the data collection process is not repeated like longitudinal research studies; moreover, this research pattern is found in two different designs, namely, the multiple cross-sectional design and the single cross-sectional design. As these studies involve only one contact with the study population, they are comparatively cheap to undertake and easy to analyse (Kumar 2011:107). Wiid and Diggines (2015:68) add that characteristics that distinguish cross-sectional studies from longitudinal studies are that a snapshot of the variable concerned is provided at a given point in time, and the sample of elements is representative of the target population. However, their most significant disadvantage is that they cannot measure change (Kumar 2011:107), i. e. to measure change, it is necessary to have at least two cross-sectional studies at two points in time on the same population.

A longitudinal design is much more reliable than a cross-sectional design for monitoring changes over time because it relies less on consumers' mental capabilities and more frequently monitors events as close to their time of occurrence as feasible (Shukla 2008:41). However, cross-sectional design provides a snapshot of the variables of interest at that point in time, as contrasted to the longitudinal study that provides a series of pictures which, when pieced together, provide a movie of the situation and the changes that are occurring (Shukla 2008:39).

For the purpose of this study, a cross-sectional research design was relevant since data was gathered only once from one sample group (Burns & Bush 2014:103) of respondents over a period of six months to understand and describe the broad characteristics of those selected antecedents that influence attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear among university students at a selected HEI in Southern Gauteng.

3.6 RESEARCH APPROACH

Research approaches are plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Cresswell 2014:03). The research approach determines the design of the research by one of the three methods, which is either qualitative, quantitative or multi (mixed) methods (Wiid & Diggines 2015:63). The following sub-sections clarify individual research approaches. Accordingly, Maylor and Blackmon (2005:149) maintain that the chosen approach needs to be adapted to the research questions and used consistently as it may limit the appropriate research methods.

3.6.1 Qualitative research approach

Qualitative research is about exploring issues, understanding underlying reasons and motivations (Wiid & Diggines 2015:64), and the quality thereof lies in its trustworthiness. Cresswell (2014:04) opines that the qualitative research approach is suited for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. Malhotra (2010:171) links qualitative research to unstructured exploratory research methodology based on small samples that provide insights and understanding of the problem setting. The process of qualitative research involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant's setting, data analysis inductively building from particular to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data (Cresswell 2014:4).

Qualitative research relates to trustworthiness (Wiid & Diggines 2015:64). This element of trust involves credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Malhotra (2010:172) classifies the type of research into direct and indirect approaches. The direct approach is the type of qualitative research in which the purposes of the project are disclosed to the respondent or are obvious, given the nature of the interview. The examples thereof are focus groups and depth interviews. The indirect approach is the type of qualitative research in which the purposes of the project are disguised from the respondents. Examples thereof are projective techniques that involved association, completion, construction and expressive techniques (Malhotra 2010:173).

3.6.2 Quantitative research approach

Quantitative research is a research methodology that seeks to quantify the data and, typically, applies some form of statistical analysis (Malhotra 2010:171). Cresswell (2014:04) concurs that quantitative research is an approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically with instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures. Quantitative research is either descriptive in nature or lends itself to determining the causal relationships between constructs (Berndt & Petzer 2011:47). In quantitative research, only a few variables to study are identified, and then data is collected specifically related to those variables (Leedy & Ormord 2021:114). Data are often collected from a large sample that is presumed to represent a particular population so that generalisations can be made about the population.

Quantitative research approaches are either descriptive in nature or lend themselves to determining the causal relationships between constructs (Berndt & Petzer 2011:47). As opposed to an exploratory study, descriptive research designs are built on the supposition that the prevailing relationships amongst the study variables are already known (Feinberg *et al.* 2013:578). Data from this approach are normally precise and can be captured at various points in time and in different contexts due to their link to a positivism paradigm, and usually result in findings with a high degree of reliability (Collis & Hussey 2014:130). In the same vein, Wiid and Diggines (2015:64) augment that the quality of quantitative research is determined by its reliability and validity as the study needs to be reliable and valid. According to Leedy and Ormord 2021:114), methods of assessing each variable are identified, developed, and standardised, with considerable attention given to the validity and reliability of specific instruments.

3.6.3 Mixed methods approach

Mixed methods is an approach to research in the social, behavioural, and health sciences in which the investigator gathers quantitative (closed-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, integrate the two, and then draws interpretation based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problems (Cresswell 2014:2). Accordingly, mixed-method approach involves the collection of analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study in which the data is collected simultaneously or sequentially (Cresswell & Plano-Clark 2018:3). The core assumption of this form of inquiry is that the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a more complete understanding of a research problem than either approach alone (Cresswell 2014:4).

While mixed-methods study requires both quantitative and qualitative research skills, it can be an especially challenging undertaking for a novice researcher (Leedy & Ormord 2021:292). The trickiest part of mixed-methods research is in combining the two methodological traditions and integrating the two kinds of data into a research endeavour in which all aspects substantially contribute to a single, greater whole (Leedy & Ormord 2021:292).

The current study made use of a quantitative approach. The quantitative research approach allowed the researcher to study the counterfeiting marketing phenomenon by using close-ended questions to determine the causal relationship between the variables. Moreover, as revealed in Table 3.1, the quantitative research approach seemed to explain and quantify the data typically to employ some form of statistical analysis and testing as well as drawing differences between the characteristics of quantitative and qualitative research approaches.

Table 3.1: Differences between qualitative and quantitative research approaches

QUESTION	QUANTITATIVE	QUALITATIVE
What is the purpose of the research	• To explain and predict • To confirm and validate • To test theory	• To describe and explain • To explore and interpret • To build theory
What is the nature of the research process?	• Focused • Known variables • Established guidelines • Pre-planned methods • Somewhat context-free • Detached view	• Holistic • Unknown variables • Flexible guidelines • Emergent methods • Context-bound • Personal view
What are the data like, and how are they collected	• Numerical data • Representative, large sample • Standardised instruments	• Textual and/or image-based data • Informative, small sample • Loosely structured or non-standardised observations and interviews
How are the data analysed to determine their meaning?	• Statistical analysis • Stress on objectivity • Primarily deductive reasoning	• Coding for themes and categories • Acknowledgement that analysis is subjective and potentially biased • Primarily inductive reasoning
How are the findings communicated?	• Numbers • Statistics, aggregate data • Graphs • Formal voice, scientific style	• Words • Narratives, individual quotes • Visual illustrations, non-numerical graphics • Personal voice, literary styles (in some disciplines)

Source: Leedy and Ormord (2021:113)

3.7 RESEARCH STRATEGY

A research strategy refers to the step-by-step plan of action that gives direction and helps the researcher choose the right data collection and the analysis procedure (Walia & Chetty 2020). The research strategy should be in line with the research philosophy and the research approach employed in the study (Saunders *et al.* 2016:164). Vintea (2018:42) adds that for optimal results, the research strategy should be created in a coherent manner so that the philosophy, research questions and objectives are linked with the research approach and purpose to create robust conclusions. Furthermore, careful considerations should include the time horizon resources available and access to contributors (Vintea 2018:42). There are several strategies available including case study, experimental, observational and survey.

3.7.1 Case study strategy

The case study design is based upon the assumption that the case being studied is typical of cases of a certain type and therefore, a single case can provide insight into the events and situations prevalent in a group where the case has been drawn (Kumar 2011:123). In a case study the focus of attention is the case in its idiosyncratic complexity, not on the whole population of cases. Leedy and Ormond (2021:260) agree that in a case study, sometimes called idiographic research, a particular individual, programme or event is studied in depth for a defined period of time. In selecting the case, the researcher usually uses purposive, judgemental or information-oriented sampling techniques (Kumar 2011:123). A case study may be especially suitable for learning more about a little known or poorly understood situation. It can also be appropriate for investigating how an individual or programme changes over time, perhaps as the result of certain conditions or events (Leedy & Omord 2021:261).

The case study, though dominantly a qualitative study design, is also prevalent in quantitative research (Kumar 2011:123). In the same vein, Cresswell and Plano-Clark (2018:199) concur that case study designs typically involve collecting both quantitative and qualitative data that help to provide evidence for a case or cases or to generate a case or cases. Cases can be descriptive (i. e., simply describing the case); exploratory (i. e. ending with a case); or explanatory (i. e. beginning with a case); depending on the study's various designs (Cresswell & Plano-Clark 2018:199).

3.7.2 Experimental strategy

Experimental research seeks to determine if a specific treatment influenced an outcome (Cresswell 2014:13). Experimental design is used to pin down cause-and-effect relationships in cases where the researcher wants to know what leads to what (Leedy & Ormord 2021:220). In the same vein, Cresswell (2014:156) adds that the basic intent of an experimental design is to test the impact of a treatment (or an intervention) on an outcome, controlling for all other factors that might influence that outcome. In such a design, many possible factors are considered that might cause or influence particular characteristics or other phenomena. All influential factors except those whose possible effects are the focus of investigations are controlled (Leedy & Ormord 2021:220).

The defining characteristics of experiments are the physical control and manipulation of the environment, which allow the empirical verification that the independent variable causes the dependent variable to react in a certain way (Loseke 2017:91). As a result, experiments include **true experiments**, with the random assignment of subjects to treatment conditions; **quasi-experiments** that use nonrandomised assignments (Cresswell 2014:13). Included within quasi-experiments are single-subject designs.

3.7.3 Observational strategy

Observation is a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place (Kumar 2011:134). Loseke (2017:99) describes observation as simply observing people to generate data about behaviour as it is often combined with interviews and document analysis to produce a thick and detailed ethnographic description of a particular group or organisation. The strategy is appropriate in situations where full and/or accurate information cannot be elicited by questioning because respondents either are not cooperative or are unaware of the answers because it is difficult for them to detach themselves from the interaction (Kumar 2011:134).

There are two types of observation, participant and non-participant observation (Kumar 2011:134). **Participant observation** is when the researcher participates in the activities of the group being observed in the same manner as its members, with or without knowing that they are being observed. **Non-participant observation** is when the researcher does not get involved in the activities of the group but remains a passive observer, watching and listening to its activities and drawing conclusions from that. Participant observation is mostly used in qualitative studies (Cresswell 2014:190). Kumar (2011:125) argues that while participant observation is a strategy predominantly used for gathering information about social interaction or a phenomenon in qualitative studies, it is also used in quantitative research, depending upon how the information has been generated and recorded.

3.7.4 Survey strategy

A survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population (Cresswell 2014:155). Loseke (2017:95) describes a survey as a data generation technique that at least asks respondents a pre-determined list of questions. Leedy and Ormord (2021:181) agree that in survey research, a researcher obtains information about one or more groups of people, perhaps about their behaviour, opinions, attitudes or previous experience, by asking them questions and either directly tabulating or systematically coding their answers. Often, it involves collecting data about a sample of individuals that are presumed to represent a much larger population. Reduced to its basic elements, a survey is used with more or less sophistication in many areas of human activity and is quite simple to design (Leedy & Ormond (2021:118). The researcher:

- poses a series of questions to willing participants;
- systematically classifies and codes any complex responses to open-ended questions;
- summarises both the codes responses and participants' cut-and-dried, *it's-clearly-this-or-that* responses with percentages, frequency counts, or more sophisticated statistical indexes; and then
- draws inferences about a particular population from the sample participants' responses.

A survey research strategy is used to examine a variety of programmes and populations (Maliwa 2020:39). Characteristics of surveys are that it:

- generates numerical data that can be processed using statistical methods;
- delivers descriptive, explanatory and inferential information;
- controls key variables and factors to produce frequencies;

- the research instrument and questions are the same for all respondents participating in this study;
- determines correlations among variables;
- captures data from closed questions, multiple choice, test scores and observation schedules;
- generates accurate instruments through carrying out a pilot study; and
- relies upon large-scale data collection from a population that is huge to enable generalisations to be made concerning variables (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007:207).

This study is quantitative and descriptive in nature. Therefore, a cross-sectional survey strategy was chosen because data were collected once from the same sample. Additionally, the strength of surveys is that they are the only technique capable of generating large amounts of data that allow quantitative analysis and statistical generalisation of results (Loseke 2017:96). Another advantage of survey designs is the economy of the design and the rapid turnaround in data collection (Cresswell 2014:157). Accordingly, the purpose of the survey research is to generalise from a sample to a population so that inference can be made about some characteristic, attitude, or behaviour of a population. In this case, the selected antecedents that generate an impact on attitudes and behaviour (willingness) to purchase counterfeit sportswear was investigated from the population.

3.8 SAMPLING DESIGN PROCESS

The sampling process comprises any technique that draws conclusions based on measures of a portion of all the population elements (Babin & Zikmund 2016:337). This indicates that sampling involves examining parts of a defined population with the aim of making judgements about those parts of the population that have not been investigated (Mazibuko 2019:127). Accurate marketing research escalates the concept that a sample rather than a census is a more feasible approach for data collection (Malhotra 2010:372). Cresswell and Guetterman (2020:169) stipulate that there are five steps in the process of quantitative data collection. This process involves more than simply gathering information; it includes interrelated steps. It involves the steps of determining the participants to study, obtaining permissions needed from several individuals and organisations, considering what types of information to collect from several sources available to the quantitative research, locating and selecting instruments to use that will yield useful data for the study, and, finally, administering the data collection process to collect data. This is consistent with Malhotra (2010:372), who states that the sampling design process includes five (5) steps that include defining the target population, determining the sample frame, selecting a sample technique, sample size and execution of the sampling process. The steps are closely interrelated and relevant to all aspects of a marketing research project. These are outlined in the subsequent sub-headings. Figure 3.2 shows the sequential sampling design process.

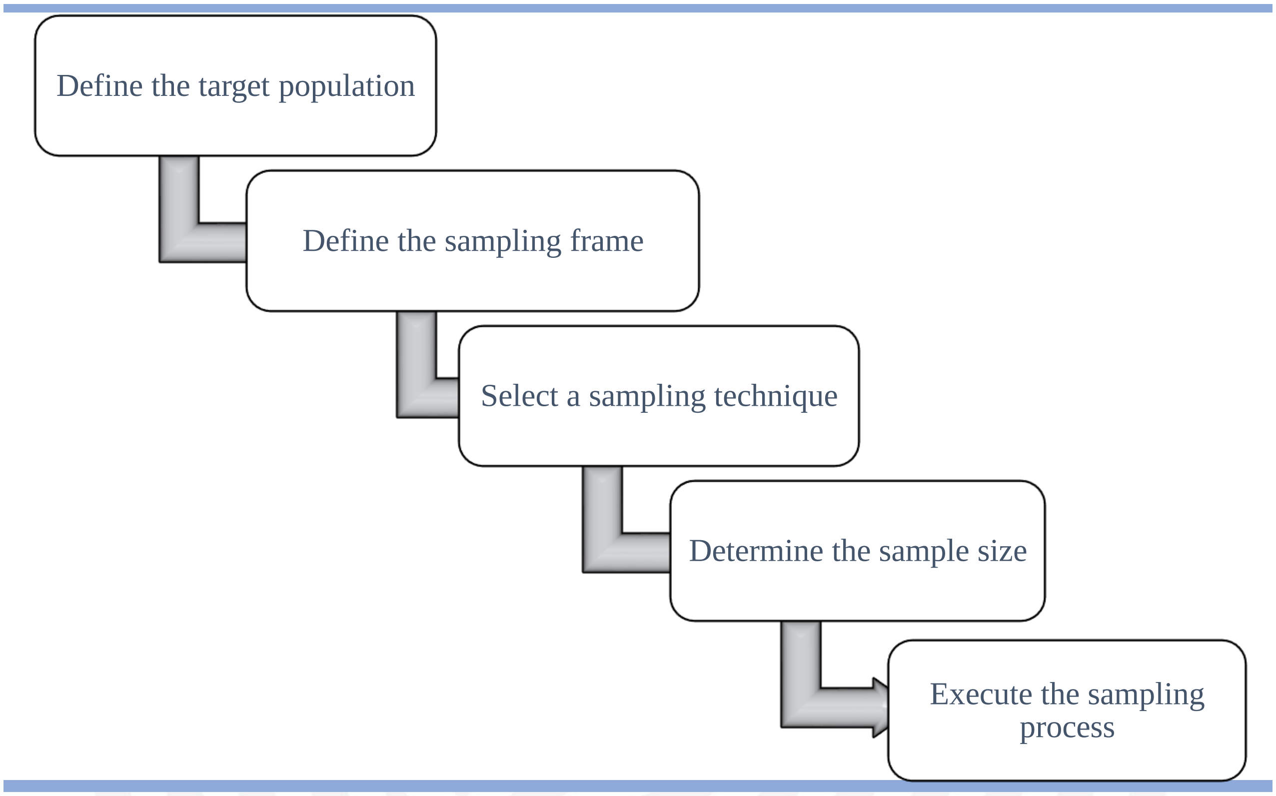

Figure 3.2: The sampling design process

Source: Malhotra (2010:372

3.8.1 Defining the target population

This is the level that addresses the question "who can supply the information that you will use to answer your quantitative research questions or hypotheses?" (Cresswell & Guetterman 2020:169). Cresswell and Guetterman (2020:169) refer to this level as the unit of analysis. According to Malhotra (2010:370), the target population is the collection of elements or subjects that possess the information sought by the researcher and about which inference are to be made. Consequently, the attributes of the population in which the project is interested must be described in an unambiguous manner (Webb 2002:48).

As designated in Section 1.7.2.1 of this research, the target population entails individuals, groups, organisations, documents and companies (Shiu *et al.* 2009:63), who comprise the entire group of individuals or objects to which researchers are interested in generalising the conclusions. In this study, the target population comprised students from a selected HEI in Southern Gauteng. The current student population at the HEI is 20800, as indicated by the Higher Education Data Analyser (HEDA, 2020).

3.8.2 Determining the sampling frame

A sample frame is a way of establishing the boundaries of the population, which contains all the elements and units necessary to fulfil the objectives of the research without key units being excluded or extraneous units being included (Webb 2002:49). According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016:277), a sampling frame is a complete list of all eligible sampling elements from which a sample can be drawn. This implies that the sample frame is a master plan for the entire population. As indicated in Section 1.7.2.3 of this study, records of the students registered and studying in 2020 of the academic year at an HEI located in the Southern Gauteng region was used as a frame to draw the potential respondents.

3.8.3 Selecting a sampling technique

In a broader sense, there are two main types of sampling, i. e. probability and non-probability techniques (Webb 2002:50; Quinlan 2011:209; Loseke 2017:116). In probability sampling, each unit (whether an individual or social artefact) in the population has an equal opportunity to be a part of the sample (Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis & Bezuidenhout 2014:136). This is consistent with Loseke (2017:11) that in probability sampling, the sample is selected in such a way that every element in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. The sample is a miniature of its population; it is representative of the population.

Non-probability sampling is used when it is nearly impossible to determine the elements in the entire population or when it is difficult to gain access to the entire population (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* 2014:137). In this manner, the relationship between the sample and its population is unknown (Loseke 2017:120). Therefore, this relies on the personal judgement of the researcher rather than the chance to select the sample elements (Malhotra 2010:376). Respondents are selected because they happen to be in the right place at the right time (Malhotra 2010:377). The laws of probability are not followed (Dhurup, 2019:34).

As already highlighted in Section 1.7.2.4, the non-probability sampling method was chosen and was narrowed to convenience sampling. This method was chosen because there was not a list of all the qualified respondents for a random selection in a probability sampling method. Samples from respective faculties needed to be represented to get a true reflection of the envisioned results. For that reason, and due to varying time-tables, practical sessions, work-integrated learning and the fact that students do not have classes on all days, the method was duly practical and effective.

3.8.4 Determining the sample size

Sample size refers to the number of sample elements for inclusion in a study (McDaniel & Gates 2013:284), and the sample must be large enough to represent the population (Du Plooy-Cillers *et al.* 2014:35) and allow for statistical analysis (Kirk-Mazik 2014:68). Taherdoost (2017:237) indicates that the sample sizes reflect the number of obtained responses and not necessarily the number of questionnaires distributed. Loseke (2017:112) posits that of all people in a specified population, a sample is composed of those who completed a questionnaire.

A sample size of 400 was chosen for this study. The decision was based on the sample size determination drawn from a three-way set of considerations. Firstly, the sample was determined by using previous studies as a point of comparison from similar studies (Shukla 2008:56). Table 3.2 outlines the previous studies considered.

Table 3.2: Sample size determination based on empirical evidence

Authors	Scope of the study	Sample	Sample size
Kirkwood-Mazik, H.L. (2014:69)	An enquiry into antecedents of consumer purchase of non-deceptive counterfeit goods	Online consumers	335
Chuchu, T (2015:34)	Student perceptions of the predictors of customer purchase intention on counterfeit products	University students	380
Shunmugan (2015:34)	Consumer intentions of purchasing authentic luxury brands versus counterfeit in SA	Consumers between 18-60 years	138
Haseeb & Mukhtar (2016:15)	Antecedents of consumer's purchase intention of counterfeit luxury product	Consumers from different sectors	400
Humtana & Gantari (2018:366)	Intention to repurchase counterfeit luxury product by adolescents in Denpasar City, Indonesia	Consumers over 18 years	210
Hashim *et al.* (2018:613)	Does counterfeit product quality lead to involvement and purchase intentions?	Consumers by mall intercepts	320
Dhurup & Muposhi (2020:6)	Stemming the sportswear counterfeit tide: Emerging market evidence of rational and normative drivers	Consumers over 18 years	390

Source: Researcher's compilation

Secondly, a minimum sample size recommendation for quantitative research is based on having a sufficient sample size to reduce the likelihood of convergence problems and to obtain unbiased estimates or standard errors (Dhurup 2019:36). Cresswell (2015:76) advises that it is important to select as large a sample as possible because there is less room for error in how well the sample reflects the characteristics of the population. In contrast, a sample size that is too small presents problems in that there is less certainty in identifying relationships (Kirkwood-Mazik 2014:68). Consequently, Taherdoost (2017:237) maintains that the most common and timely effective way to ensure minimum samples are met is to increase the sample size by up to 50% in the first distribution of the survey. As a result, larger sample sizes reduce sampling error but at a decreasing rate.

Thirdly, for this study, multivariate analysis was selected to be the principal method of analysis; therefore, special detail had to be given to determining the sample size. In this sense, the study was guided by a rule of thumb put forward by Pallant (2016:187), who recommends that a sample size above 300 respondents is *required* to attain a high degree of accuracy. Consistently, Pallant (2016:187) adds that sample sizes of 250 – 400 are recommended for multivariate analysis such as regression analysis (EFA) or a ratio of 5:1 or 10:1 cases to free parameters for exploratory factor analysis.

3.8.5 Executing the sampling process

Execution of the sampling process necessitates a detailed specification of how the sampling design decisions with respect to the population, sampling frame, sampling unit, sampling technique, and sample size are to be implemented (Malhotra 2010:315). The researcher distributed the online questionnaire link to academic staff members from the institution's respective faculties at the selected higher education institution to forward to their respective groups of students by e-mail and through the institution's Learning Management System (VuTela).

3.9 DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

Data collection is a systematic process of collecting information pertinent to the research problem (Berndt & Pletzer 2011:201). Cresswell and Clark (2018:173) concur that the basic idea of collecting data in any research study is to gather information to address the questions being asked in the study. The two methods of data collection, namely, secondary and primary data collection, are discussed in the foregoing section.

3.9.1 Secondary data collection

Secondary data is data that already exists, as the information had been previously gathered for some other purposes and not for the specific study and not for the problem at hand (Wiid & Diggines 2015:84). Examples of secondary data sources are records, cost information, distributors' reports, books, periodicals and government agencies' reports, online computer searches, syndicated data, computerised databases and publications. Although secondary data can be obtained more cheaply and quickly than primary data, it has some limitations (Schiffman & Kanuk 2014:26). Firstly, secondary information may be categorised in units that are different from those that the researcher wants. Secondly, some secondary data may have been collected for purposes other than the problem at hand, and their usefulness may be irrelevant or not be appropriate to the current problem. Thirdly, even if relevant, secondary data that may be outdated (Schiffman & Kanuk 2014:26).

In this study, the main secondary data collection method was the literature review. A literature review refers to sharing with the researcher the findings of other studies that are closely related to the one undertaken (Cresswell 2014:28). While a primary work of the literature review is summarising what already is known, the object is to offer s summary of existing research as a whole (Loseke 2017:67). The review of literature in this study is reported in Sections 1.3 and Chapter Two. The major topics covered in the literature review included counterfeiting, sports industry, study theories, study constructs that is, materialism, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation, personal gratification, novelty-seeking), attitude and intentions. This information was collected from sources such as published/reviewed articles, online articles/news, library/online books, completed theses and dissertations.

3.9.2 Primary data collection

Primary data was collected through a survey method. The survey method comprises the use of self-completion questionnaires or interviewers asking respondents direct questions about a variety of variables to produce responses. Malhotra (2010:145) defines a survey as a method of interviewing a large number of individuals with the use of a pre-designed questionnaire. This is in line with Schiffman and Kanuk (2014:37), who posit that for quantitative research, the primary data collection instrument is the questionnaire, which can be sent through the mail or online to selected respondents for self-administration or can be administered by field workers.

The survey was distributed through the institution’s Learning Multimedia System (VuTela) among students who were registered at the University in 2020.

3.10 QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

A questionnaire is a set of formalised questions created to acquire the data from respondents in accordance to the specific objectives of a research study (Wiid & Diggines 2015:164; Kumar 2019:220). Hair, Celsi, Ortinau and Bush (2013:188) augment that a questionnaire is a formal framework consisting of a set of questions and scales with the purpose of generating primary raw data. As questionnaires are the backbone of surveys, they require careful planning and execution

(McDaniel & Gates 1999:356). As a first step of the questionnaire design, the researcher must ask precisely what must be measured to satisfy the research objectives and to solve the original marketing problem (Singh 2017:792). As it usually consists of a number of questions that the respondent has to answer in a set format, a distinction is made between open-ended and closed-ended questions (Singh 2017:792). Open ended-questions ask respondents to formulate their own answers, unlike close-ended questions that require respondents to pick answers from a given number of options.

For the purpose of this study, a close-ended, structured self-administered questionnaire was developed as it was deemed easy to manage, cost-effective with a high response rate when compared to other forms of data collection (Wiid & Diggines 2015:164). A self-administered questionnaire allowed for data to be collected in an orderly and organised manner (Malhotra 2010:343. Since the study is cross-sectional in nature, data was collected once from the respondents. There were no repeats. The students were invited to take part on the survey link by means of e-mail and linked to the institution's Learning Multimedia System (VuTela). The designer from IT posted the link to the students' emails and Facebook page. The researcher forwarded the link to the Acting E-Learning Manager at VUT's Centre for Academic Development, selected academics from respective faculties for posting to VuTela so that all students registered across faculties could have an equal opportunity to access the survey link and complete the questionnaire online. A covering letter accompanied the questionnaire.

3.10.1 Questionnaire phrasing

The manner in which questions are formulated can result in respondents negating to answer them or answering erroneously, often because they have not understood the question (Wiid & Diggines, 2015:172). Questionnaires often use close-ended questions, checklists and rating scales (Du Plooy-Cilliers et al. 2014:158); as a result, they are useful as they are simple to answer and respondents are usually more willing to tick boxes than they are to write or type long answers. Furthermore, question-wording should be translated to the desired question content and structured into words that respondents can clearly and easily understand (Malhotra 2010:346). Additionally, in order to motivate respondents to take the time to respond, questionnaires must be interesting, objective, unambiguous, easy to complete and generally not be burdensome. This means that the questionnaire should be kept as short as possible, focus on questions and minimise the required time for information and use the simplest language necessary to avoid jargon and acronyms (Schiffman & Kanuk 2014:37). Cresswell and Guetterman (2020:212) advise that the most obvious approach is to have a good instrument that individuals want to complete and are capable of answering so that missing data will not occur.

The study questionnaire consisted of structured and scale questions. Structured questions are closed-ended questions that require the respondent to choose from a predetermined set of options. Scale questions are used to measure the attitudes of respondents (Shiu *et al.* 2009:421).

3.10.2 Questionnaire format and content

The format, spacing, and order of questions can have a significant effect on the results (Singh (2017:793). Therefore, the focus should also be on writing statements and questions, selection of appropriate measurement scales, coding, font style and size (should be attractive). Likewise, it is a good practice to divide the questionnaire into several parts that may be needed for questions pertaining to the basic information (Malhotra 2010:346).

Two sections were created in the questionnaire. Section A comprised respondents' demographic and general information. Section B consisted of 7 sub-sections that encompassed questions on individual study constructs. Likert scales are the most widely used scale as it provides an ordinal measure of a respondent's attitude (Maree 2007:167). Semantic differential scale is a 5 or 7-point rating scale with endpoints associated with bipolar labels that have semantic meaning (Malhotra 2010:310). Five-point scales (Likert and semantic differential) were used in Section B. The Likert scales used in this study ranged from 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree to a little extent, 3= to neither disagree nor agree; 4= to agree to some extent 5= to strongly agree. Four (4) sub-sections that used the Likert scale are materialism, novelty-seeking, attitude towards counterfeits and willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear. Three (3) sub-sections that used the semantic differential scales are hedonic shopping attitudes, utilitarian shopping attitudes and personal gratification. A combination of scales used assisted in addressing common method bias in studies. Table 3.3 provides an exposition of the various sections and the types of scales used in the study.

Table 3.3: Questionnaire format and scaling

Section	Nature of question	Item	Format	Measurement scale
Section A	Demographic and General information	A1: Most preferred sportswear	Multiple choice	Nominal
		A2: Gender	Dichotomous	Nominal
		A3: Age	Multiple choice	Ratio
		A4: Ethnic group	Multiple choice	Nominal
		A5: Marital status	Multiple choice	Nominal
		A6: Registered qualification	Dichotomous	Nominal
		A7 - A9: Personal attributes	Multiple choice	Ordinal
Section B	Study Constructs	Materialism (Items MAT1 – MAT9)	5-point Likert scale	Interval
		Hedonic Shopping attitude (Items HED 1 – HED 7)	5-point semantic differential scale	Interval
		Utilitarian Shopping attitude (Items ULT 1 – UTL 7)	5-point semantic differential scale	Interval
		Personal Gratification (Items PGT 1 – PGT 7)	5-point semantic differential scale	Interval
		Novelty-seeking (Items NOS 1 – NOS 6)	5-point Likert scale	Interval
		Attitude towards Counterfeits (Items ATC 1 – ATC12)	5-point Likert scale	Interval
		Willingness to purchase (Items WTC 1 – WTC 6)	5-point Likert scale	Interval

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Section A of the questionnaire comprised demographic and general questions that include age group, gender, ethnicity, level of study, preferred sportswear and personal attributes of students.

Section B of the questionnaire included adapted scales from previous studies for all the constructs measured. The materialism scale was adapted from Richins and Dawson's (1992:310) study. Hedonic shopping attitude was adapted from the study undertaken by Batra and Ahtola (1991:167); the utilitarian motive scale was adapted from the study by Voss, Spangenberg and Grohnman (2003:312). The personal gratification scale was derived from the scale developed by Ang *et al.* (2001:27). The novelty-seeking scale was adapted from the study undertaken by Sproles and Sproles (1990:142). Attitude towards counterfeit was adapted from a scale developed by Huang, Lee and Ho (2004:614), and finally, the measure 'willingness to purchase counterfeit scale' was adapted from a scale developed by Beck and Azjen (1990:291).

The next section deliberates on the pre-testing and pilot testing of the questionnaire.

3.10.3 Pre-testing the questionnaire

Once completed, it is essential that the draft questionnaire is tested. Burns and Bush (2014:229) define a pre-test as conducting a dry-run of the survey on a small set of respondents to reveal questionnaire errors before the pilot study, or the main survey is launched. The pre-test is a way of uncovering faults before it is too late and to ensure that the questionnaire will gather the information that it is intended to gather (Webb 2002:106). Malhotra (2010:360) emphasises that the questionnaire should be thoroughly pre-tested before fieldwork begins.

For the purpose of this study, the questionnaire was pre-tested on five marketing lecturers and five first (1st)^{t} year students studying at the institution, under the observation of the researcher to test the questionnaire and individual questions. This helped to determine, among other factors, whether the respondents were able to follow the questionnaire format, the average time taken to complete the questionnaire, whether the instructions were clear and understandable or any other problems relating to the design of the questionnaire (Wiid & Diggines 2015:174).

After pre-testing, the questionnaire was refined and prepared for the pilot study.

3.10.4 Pilot testing the questionnaire

A pilot study is the first step of the entire research protocol and is often a smaller-sized study assisting in planning and modification of the main study. Likewise, De Vaus (2014:127) defines pilot testing as the use of a questionnaire on a trial basis in a small study, which does not form part of the main study to measure the effectiveness and efficiency of the questionnaire being used. Sharp (2013:73) is of the opinion that although pilot studies are a vital element in a good study design, they do not guarantee successful main studies; however, they do increase the chances of success. Aslam, Gajdács, Zin, Rahman and Jamshed (2020:3) posit that the purpose of pilot testing is to identify items that lack clarity among respondents. Researchers may use the findings of a pilot test to make any necessary changes to the questionnaire before it is used in the main study (Hair, Wolfinbarger, Ortinau & Bush 2008:180). Some of the necessary changes may include altering or revising the instructions of the questionnaire, providing the participants with more time to answer the questionnaire, changing the wording of certain questions to make better sense to the participants or adapting the cover letter of the questionnaire (Sharp 2013:73).

Accordingly, the online pilot survey was conducted by the researcher through email on a group of 50 ENACTUS students at the chosen institution of higher learning to confirm the reliability of the questionnaire and to verify the appropriateness of the scale items (Zikmund & Babin 2015:183).

The next section discusses data preparation, data analysis, scale evaluation, regression analysis, common methods bias and research ethics.

3.11 DATA PREPARATION

Data preparation involves the processing of raw, meaningless data into useful information that can be used to achieve the research objectives and solve the original marketing problem (Wiid & Diggines 2015:222). Malhotra (2010:452) recommends that this process should begin as soon as the first batch of questionnaires is received from the field while the fieldwork is still going on. Creswell and Clark (2018:212) state that in quantitative data analysis, the investigator begins by converting the raw data into a form useful for data analysis, which means scoring the data by assigning numeric values to each response, cleaning data entry errors from the database, and creating special variables that is needed. Cresswell and Guetterman (2020:205) are of the view that preparing and organising data for analysis in quantitative research consists of scoring the data and creating a codebook, determining the types of scores to use, selecting a computer programme, inputting the data into the programme for analysis, and cleaning the data.

This is in line with Malhotra (2010:452) that the data preparation process is guided by the preliminary plan of data analysis, with the first step being to check for acceptable questionnaires. This is followed by editing, coding, transcription, and verification of data. Data preparation commenced soon as the first batch of questionnaires was received as follows:

3.11.1 Validation

Validation is the initial step in questionnaire checking and involves a check of all questionnaires for completeness (Malhotra 2010:453), accordingly ensuring that the gathered data is valid and accurate by examining each questionnaire to decide whether to include it in the survey analysis or discard it (Wiid & Diggines 2015:223). The researcher made an independent check on whether each questionnaire returned was complete. The subsequent stage was data editing.

3.11.2 Editing

The data editing process involves checking finalised questionnaires for insufficient or unfeasible responses, unnoticed and evident irregularities (Zikmund & Babin 2015:369). Zikmund and Babin (2015:493) define data editing of data as the process of checking the completeness, consistency and legibility of data and making the data ready for coding and transfer to storage. In this study, the data were visually checked during the collection process to control and to clear up misunderstandings about procedures and specific questions by the supervisor.

3.11.3 Coding

Data are coded when they are transferred from the original collection form into a format that lends itself to data analysis (Salkind 2018:131). Sharp (2012:71) expounds on the coding process as the technical procedure of assigning a code, which is normally a number, to each possible response to each question that categorises the data of a study. Accordingly, coding is not an automatic process but rather a manual process, which requires the judgement of the coder using a codebook. According to Cresswell and Guetterman (2020:206) a codebook assists the researcher to be consistent and serve as a good reference throughout the research.

For the purpose of this study, codes were assigned for each variable by the researcher, and a codebook was kept to ensure consistency throughout the research. The next phase in data preparation was to transcribe or capturing the data for analysis.

3.11.4 Transcribing/capturing of data

The capturing process involves inputting the data that occurs when the data is transferred from the responses on instruments to a computer file for analysis (Cresswell & Guetterman 2020:209). Information from the questionnaires was transferred in an MS Excel spreadsheet for subsequent analysis using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for windows

3.11.5 Cleaning

After the data is obtained from MS Excel or other electronic packages, it must be imported into an analysis package to be verified and cleaned as errors may occur when entering the data into the computer (Wiid & Diggines 2015:233). According to Malhotra (2010:461) data cleaning includes thorough and extensive checks for consistency and treatment of missing responses. To check for errors, frequencies and means, as well as maximums and minimums, were calculated on each variable. Cresswell and Guetterman (2020:212) recommend ways of cleaning the data that are outside the accepted range and augment that whatever the procedure, a visual inspection of data helps to clean the data and free them from visible errors before the data analysis begins.

3.12 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The data were analysed with descriptive statistics, correlation, factor analyses and regression. According to Cresswell and Guetterman (2020:213), the data analysed should address each one of the empirical objectives and hypotheses.

3.12.1 Frequency distributions

The first step in the data analysis is to describe them (Salkind 2018:133). Describing data usually means computing a set of descriptive statistics because they describe the general characteristics of a set or distribution of scores. One of the most common procedures for organising a set of data is to place the scores in a frequency distribution (Gravetter, Wallnau, Forzano, & Witnauer, 2020:46). A frequency distribution is an organised tabulation of the number of individuals located in each category on the scale measurement and can be structured either as a table or a graph. The frequency distribution presents a picture of how the individual scores are distributed on the measurement scale (Gravetter *et al.* 2020:46). For the purpose of this study, statistical tables and different forms of charts were used to report on the frequency distributions for Section A of the study. These results were reported in Chapter Four of the study.

3.12.2 Tabulation

In tabulation, the mass of raw data is put together into a number of meaningful categories and represented in tables or graphs so that meaningful analyses and deductions can be made (Cresswell & Gutterman 2020:229). The results section in chapter 4 includes the following:

- Tables that summarise statistical information.
- Figures (charts, pictures, or drawings) that portray variables and their relationships.

When the results of all the cases have been tabulated, the frequency of the occurrence of the different codes throughout all the cases can then be counted (Wiid & Diggines 2015:256). Tables and graphs were used in the analysis of results in Chapter Four.

3.12.3 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics describe a body of data for a number of statistical methods that are used to organise and summarise data in a meaningful way to enhance the understanding of the properties of data (Leedy & Ormond 2021:349). Through the use of descriptive statistics, researchers can describe some of the characteristics of the distribution of scores collected, such as average score on one variable or the degree that one score varies from another (Salkind 2018:132). Accordingly, Trochim *et al.* (2015:120) indicate that descriptive statistics form the foundations of almost any quantitative analysis of data. The study made use of a combination of the three common descriptive statistics, namely, measures of central tendency (means), measures of variability (standard deviations) and measure of shape (skewness and kurtosis). Descriptive tests reveal the 'shape' of the data in the sense of how the values of a variable are distributed (Walliman 2011:116).

3.12.3.1 Measures of central tendency (means)

Measures of central tendency are summary numbers that represent a single value in a distribution of scores (Cresswell & Guettera 2020:214) and describe the centre of the distributions (Malhotra 2010:486). Accordingly, a central tendency is one number that denotes various averages of the value for a variable (Walliman 2011:117). According to Cresswell and Guettera (2020:214), there are several measures that can be used, such as the arithmetic mean (average), the median (the mathematical middle between the highest and lowest value) and the mode (the most frequently occurring value).

The mean for a distribution is the sum of the scores divided by the number of the scores, and therefore is a balance point (Gravetter *et al.* 2020:78). It is the most popular statistic used to describe responses of all participants to items of an instrument (Cresswell & Guettera 2020:214). In this study, means and standard deviations are reported upon in Chapter Four of the study.

3.12.3.2 Measures of shape (median and mode)

Measures of shape aid in understanding the nature of a distribution and involve assessing the skewness and kurtosis of the distribution (Mohammed, Adam, Alib & Zulkafli 2020:2). Modality of the distribution determines the shape thereof. Any point at which the frequency curve reaches its peak is the location of the mode (Mohamed *et al.* 2020:2), and the value at that point is called the mode. Distributions with one peak are called unimodal, while frequency distributions with two peaks are called bimodal. In the case where a frequency curve may appear without a peak, it means there is no mode. The procedure for assessing the nature of a data distribution includes skewness and kurtosis. Skewness is the degree of asymmetry of a distribution, that is, how much it is skewed to the left or the right of a normal distribution while kurtosis refers to the nature of distribution tails, that is, their length and weight. (Bono, Arnau, Alarcón & Blanca 2020:3). Field (2013:581) states that that kurtosis measures the peakedness (pointiness, flatness or modality) of the distribution, where positive kurtosis will show that more scores lie within the tail of the distribution and a negative kurtosis.

The most important aspect is to check whether the distribution is symmetric or not, i. e. skewness. Weisstein (2013) indicates when the left tail of the distribution is more noticeable than the right tail, then the distribution is skewed negatively. In a positively skewed distribution, the right tail would be more noticeable. Waarts, Koster, Lamperjee and Peelen (1997:108) comment that the degree of skewness is measured with the use of skewness ratio. Where the distribution is skewed positively or negatively is an indication that the median and the mean do not converge; however, where the distribution is equal, the median is then equal to the mean (Waarts *et al.* 1997:108). Measures of shape, namely, skewness and kurtosis, were computed in Chapter Four of the study to examine the distribution of the data.

Correlation analysis is discussed in the next section.

3.12.4 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis is a statistical process by which discovery is made whether two or more variables are in some way associated with one another (Leedy & Ormond 2021:358). Correlation analysis describes the degree of relationship between two variables (Shiu *et al.* 2009:553) and measures the strength and direction of the relationship between variables and provides means of reiterating the size of the association amongst the variables (Cogtay, Deshpande & Thatte 2017:70).

When correlations are weak or low, it depicts no or little relation between variables (Gogtay *et al.* 2017:70), just as when a correlation coefficient is high or strong, it demonstrates a strong association between two or more variables. Field (2013:276) recommends three analysis methods, namely, Pearson's correlation coefficient (r), Spearman's rho (r_s) or Kendall's Tau correlation coefficient (τ). Non-metric variables can be correlated using either Spearman's rho (r_s) or Kendall's Tau correlation coefficient (τ), which are both non-parametric tests that do not assume a normal distribution. Spearman's correlation coefficient is a non-parametric statistic based on ranked data set that is used to minimise the effect of extreme scores or the effects of violations of the assumptions (Field 2013:276). Consistent with Wallisman (2011:12), Pearson's correlations coefficient (r) is used for examining relationships between interval/ratio variables and is by far the most commonly used. Additionally, Leedy and Ormond (2021:361) caution that it is of utmost importance to note that correlations do not necessarily indicate causation.

Correlation analysis is often presented as an absolute value score between 0 and 1 (Shiu *et al.* 2009:553). A correlation of -1.00 indicates a perfect negative correlation, 0 indicates no relationship at all and +1.00 indicates a perfect positive correlation. Threshold for evaluating Pearson correlation coefficients is reflected on Table 3.4 below.

Table 3.4: Strength of relationship among variables

Size of correlation coefficient (r)	Interpretation
+1	Very strong positive relationship
+0.6 to +0.8	Strong positive relationship
+0.35 to +0.59	Moderate positive relationship
+0.20 to +0.34	Weak positive relationship
0	None (Perfect independence among the variables)
-0.2 to -0.35	Weak negative relationship
-0.36 to -0.6	Moderate negative relationship
-0.7 to -0.8	Strong negative relationship
-0.9 to -1	Very strong negative relationship

Source: Saunders *et al.* (2016:545)

The study made use of correlations whereby the various constructs were correlated in order to establish their linear relationships. These results are reported in Chapter Four of the study.

The next section provides an overview of scale evaluation.

3.13 SCALE EVALUATION

The importance of measuring the accuracy and consistency/applicability of research instruments (especially questionnaires) that are multi-item scales is known as reliability and validity (Malhotra 2010:317; Singh 2017:791).

These scale evaluation assessments are discussed in the subsequent sub-sections.

3.13.1 Reliability assessment

Reliability refers to the consistency of scores or information obtained with an instrument applied at different times or moments (Medina-Díaz, Del & Verdejo-Carrión 2020: 269). Maree (2007:215) states that a scale is reliable if the same instrument is used at different times or administered to different subjects from the same population, and the findings remain the same. Trochim, Donnelly and Arora (2015:119) agree that the reliability of the measuring instrument is its propensity to yield results in relation to a sequence of repeated tests. Accordingly, if an instrument is reliable, it needs to produce the same results if the research were to be repeated by a different researcher at a different time using the same instrument (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* 2014:254).

For the purpose of this study, internal consistency (Cronbach alpha) was computed for reliability assessments. Internal consistency focuses on the cohesion of responses to items on an instrument, which attempts to measure or represent the same objective or content (Medina-Diaz *et al.* 2020:270). Guidelines for interpretation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient have been suggested and generally accepted by researchers (Maree 2007:216; Malhotra 2010:319; Wiid & Diggines 2015:249) as follows:

- Value above 0.8, reliability is considered good;
- Value between 0.6 and 0.7, reliability is considered acceptable/preferable; and

- Value below 0.6, reliability is considered unacceptable, that is not exhibiting satisfactory internal consistency.

The reliability of the research instrument is reported in Chapter Four. The validity assessment of the scale will be discussed in the next section.

3.13.2 Validity assessment

Validity is defined as the degree to which evidence and theory support interpretations of test scores for the proposed uses of tests (Medina-Diaz *et al.* 2020:266). Webb (2002:148) defines validity as the extent to which a scale of measurement is capable of measuring what it is supposed to be measuring, and valid measurements are free of bias (systematic error). If the measuring instrument being used in a research study is not reliable, results will not be valid; that is, reliability is a precondition of validity (Sharp 2013:76). Therefore, it implies a judgment about the interpretation of scores or information obtained with an instrument, in light of evidence from these sources of evidence are based on content, response, processes, internal structure, relation with other variables and consequences (Medina-Diaz *et al.* 2020:266). Several forms of validity used in this study are discussed in the following sub-sections.

3.13.2.1 Content validity/face validity

Content validity or face validity pertains to the degree to which the instrument assesses or measures the construct of interest (Bolarinwa 2020:197). This type of validity assessment is primarily a subjective one, made using one's own judgement or that of an expert on whether the scale items adequately cover the entire domain of the construct being measured. Content validity was achieved by approval from five lecturers from the department of Marketing to assess whether the items covered the domain of the study. Content validity is reported in Chapter Four of the study.

3.13.2.2 Construct validity

Construct validity is a type of assessment that addresses the question of what construct or characteristics the scale is in fact measuring (Malhotra 2010:320). Bolarinwa (2020:197) adds that construct validity is the degree to which an instrument measures the trait or theoretical construct that is intended to measure. Accordingly, this type of validity requires a sound theory of the nature of the construct being measured and how it relates to other constructs (Field 2013:640). Therefore, results of the construct validity of the test will give a better understanding of the quality measures used (Ab-Hamid, Sami & Mohmad-Sidek 2017:2).

For the purpose of this study, immediately after the pre-test, a pilot study of 50 respondents was undertaken. Basically, this is a measure of how meaningful the scale is when it is in practical use (Bolarinwa 2020:197). There were no major changes made supported by the fact that the questionnaire was adapted from scales of previous studies for all the constructs measured. Construct validity is reported in Chapter Four of the study.

3.13.2.3 Predictive validity

Predictive validity is the ability of a test to measure some event or outcome in the future (Bolanrinwa 2020:197). Du-Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* (2014:256) refer to it as criterion-related validity and augment that the instrumental validity addresses the question of whether the test accurately predicts future behaviour. For the purpose of this study, the hypothesised relationships between variables were tested using standard multiple regression analysis. This statistical technique is recommended for examining linear interrelationships between variables (Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:9). These results are reported in Chapter Four of the study.

The next section discusses regression analysis.

3.14 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis is a statistical procedure for analysing associative relationships between a metric dependent variable and one or more independent variables (Malhotra 2010:568). Regression examines how accurately one or more variables enable predictions regarding the values of another (dependent) variable (Leedy & Ormord 2021:368). It is a reliable method that examines the association between two or more variables.

Regression analysis can be used to determine whether the independent variables explain a significant variation in the dependent variables, i. e. whether a relationship exists (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:641). It can also be used to determine how much of the variation in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variables, i. e. strength of the relationship.

Simple linear regression analysis involves two variables, namely, the endogenous and the exogenous variable. A straight line drawn in regression represents the direct association between the two variables under investigation (Leedy & Ormord 2021:368). A multiple linear regression yields an equation in which two or more independent variables are used to predict the dependent variable. Regression analysis does not stop by establishing a relationship, the mathematical expression is derived that represents the relationship, and this can also be used in prediction (Maree 2007:240). Therefore, the aim of the regression analysis is to figure a regression model or prediction equation connecting the dependent variable to one or more independent variables (Mazibuko 2019:167).

Regression analysis provides detailed insights into variable relationships (Maliwa 2020:43). In conducting a regression analysis, it is crucial to identify the predictor and response variables. There is one dependent variable with one or more independent variables. The predictor or independent variables (antecedents) in this study were identified to be MAT, HED, UTL, NOS, PGT, with ATC as a dependent variable. In turn, ATC was entered as an independent variable, while the outcome variable was WTP.

Using different methods, one can construct various regression models from the same set of variables through hierarchical, stepwise or enter methods. **Hierarchical regression** is a way to show if variables of interest explain a statistically significant amount of variance in the dependent variable after accounting for all other variables (Rosagaray 2020). This method is used to add or remove variables from the model in multiple steps. **Stepwise regression** is a procedure in which the predictor variables enter or leave the regression equation one at a time for the purpose of selecting a smaller subset of predictors (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:668). The **enter method** is a regression procedure for variable selection in which all variables in a block are entered in a single step (IBM 2016).

For the purpose of this study, the enter method was used since all independent variables were included in the regression analysis. The results of the regression analysis are discussed in Chapter Four, Section 4.8 of the study.

The next section addresses the common method bias.

3.15 COMMON METHOD BIAS

Common method bias refers to the variance attributed to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest. The term method refers to the form of measurement at different levels of abstraction, such as the content of specific items, scale type, response format, and general context (Friske 1982:81). The common methods variance is a potential problem in behavioural research. It represents the variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measures represent (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee & Podsakoff 2003:879). In the same vein, Min, Park and Kim (2016:126) alluded that method bias is the main source of measurement errors, especially in self-administered surveys and often causes correlations to be either inflated or deflated.

Furthermore, there is substantial evidence that method bias influences item validities, items reliabilities, and covariation between latent constructs (Mackenzie & Podsakoff 2012:542). Measurement error threatens the validity of the conclusions about the relationships between measures and is widely recognised to have both random and systematic components (Podsakoff, Mackenzie & Lee 2003:879). To minimise common methods bias, it is important to carefully assess the research setting to identify the potential sources of bias and implement procedural methods of control (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee & Podsakoff 2003:900). The approaches taken to minimise and test for common method bias are reported in Section 4.11 of this study.

The importance of research ethics and how it was applied in the study is in the next section.

3.16 RESEARCH ETHICS

Ethics in research refers to the application of moral rules or codes of conduct during the planning, conducting and reporting of research, just as it involves an individual's moral behaviour, values and principles that guide an individual's behaviour (Wiid & Diggines 2015:25). Conducting research in an ethical manner is of utmost importance. According to Creswell (2014:92), researchers need to anticipate the ethical issues that may arise during their studies as research involves collecting data from respondents. Cresswell (2014:92) is of the view that researchers need to protect their respondents and develop trust with them. This will result in promoting the integrity of research, and guarding against misconduct and impropriety that might reflect on their institution.

There are two aspects of ethical issues in research that revolve around the individual values of the researcher (Walliman (2011:43). These relate to honesty, frankness and personal integrity, including the way the researcher treats the respondents participating in the research, relating to informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity and courtesy. This is in line with Wiid and Diggines (2015:26) about codes and policies, principles and ethical behaviour of the researcher towards research ethics. It is for this reason that professional associations have developed standards and operating procedures for ethical practice by researchers, and as such, research ethics are accepted legal principles that guide the researchers to adhere to certain rules when conducting research.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher embarked on the following ethical issues:

- Permission was obtained from the university's Faculty Research Ethics Committee through ethical clearance procedures (Ethical clearance no: FRECMS-18032020-025).
- Participation of students was voluntary in this research.
- Online questionnaires ensured anonymity and confidentiality during the data collection process. Questionnaires did not contain the names of respondents, who remained anonymous.
- Respondents were informed about the purpose of the study in a covering letter.
- The researcher did not mislead any respondent who took part in the study.
- Personal data of the respondents was be processed fairly and lawfully and used only for the purpose of the study.
- The questionnaire did not contain any questions detrimental to the self-interests of the respondents.
- The researcher thanked the respondents after their participation in the study.

The chapter synopsis follows in the next section.

3.17 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an overview of the various research paradigms and delineated on the positivism research paradigm, which is the philosophy anchored in this research, followed by the research methodology for the study. The formation of the study research design together with the process of selecting a suitable research sampling procedure was expounded on. A quantitative research strategy was chosen as it allows for the objective testing of relationships between variables as per the empirical objectives established at the beginning of the study. Moreover, the sampling strategy, sample frame and sampling procedures are elaborated on. Further, the data collection using a structured questionnaire in an online survey is outlined where a sample size of 400 students conveniently participated among a sample frame of 20 800 registered students. The data collection instrument (questionnaire) is described in terms of format, layout and content. Moreover, the data preparation, data analysis as well as reliability and validity assessment procedures applied in this research are outlined in sequence. The various statistical procedures used in the study are also discussed. The chapter further discusses regression analysis and how it was applied in the study. Common method bias was elaborated on how it will be applied in this study, followed by research ethics and how it was applied for the achievement of this research.

The next chapter provides the statistical findings and interpretation of the results in light of the sample data.

CHAPTER 4:
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE EMPIRICAL RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The proliferation of counterfeit goods continues to rise. This development is also pronounced in the sports sector, where counterfeit products are increasingly becoming popular as a substitute for renowned brands such as Adidas, Nike, Puma and Reebok, among others. This chapter presents the empirical results and interprets the research findings with the intention of evaluating the hypotheses. The primary constructs under investigation in this study were materialism, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation, personal gratification, attitude towards counterfeits and willingness to purchase with respect to counterfeit sportswear. The analysed data assist in assessing how these various constructs under investigation affect the attitude towards counterfeits and, subsequently, assesses how attitude towards counterfeits influences the willingness to purchase among university students at a selected HEI in Southern Gauteng. Firstly, the results of the pilot study and reliability analysis are presented. Secondly, the results of the main survey are presented.

4.2 RESULTS OF THE PILOT STUDY

As indicated in Section 3.10.4 of this study, a pilot study is the first step of the entire research protocol and is often a smaller-sized study to assist in planning and modification of the main study. Pilot testing uses a questionnaire on a trial basis in a small study and did not form part of the main study. The pilot study was used to measure the reliability of the questionnaire (De Vaus 2014:127). Prior to data collection, a pilot study was conducted by distributing the questionnaire to a group of students with the intention to pilot test the questionnaire. A total of 50 respondents participated in the pilot study, and the results are reflected in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Results of the pilot test

Scale	Sample No.	Mean	Standard Deviation	Average item-total	Number of items	Number of items deleted	Cronbach Alpha
MAT	50	3.407	0.857	0.583	8	1	0.842
HED	50	3.120	1.348	0.926	7	0	0.980
UTL	50	3.286	1.243	0.867	7	0	0.962
PGT	50	3.983	0.923	0.811	7	0	0.942
NOS	50	2.733	1.243	0.917	6	0	0.975
ATC	50	2.837	1.118	0.821	12	0	0.965
WTP	50	2.787	1.057	0.898	6	0	0.969
MAT = Materialism; **HED** = Hedonic motivation; **UTL** = Utilitarian motivation; **PGT** = Personal gratification; **NOS** = Novelty-seeking; **ACT =** Attitude towards counterfeits; **WTP** = Willingness to purchase							

Source: Author's own compilation

As indicated in Table 4.1, all scales attained average item-total correlations above the recommended cut-off value of 0.3 (Bolanrinwa 2020:197). Additionally, all scales attained Cronbach alpha values above the 0.7 minimum threshold recommended by various authors (Maree 2007:216; Malhotra 2010:319; Wiid & Diggines 2015:249; Malhotra *et al.* 2017:360). Only one (1) item was discarded from the Materialism scale due to low item-total correlation. Therefore, the measurement scales were deemed internally consistent and suitable for use during data collection in the main survey.

The next section presents an analysis of the results of the main survey.

4.3 MAIN SURVEY RESULTS

The results of the main survey are presented in this section. These include the demographic profile of respondents, exploratory factor analysis, descriptive statistics of the constructs, analysis of the normality of data, measurement of scale accuracy and the testing of hypotheses through regression analysis.

4.3.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

The demographic profile of respondents was assessed in categories such as sportswear preference, gender profile, ethnicity, qualification registered and perceived attributes.

4.3.1.1 Sportswear Preference

The distribution of respondents in terms of their preference for sportswear is presented in Figure 4.1.

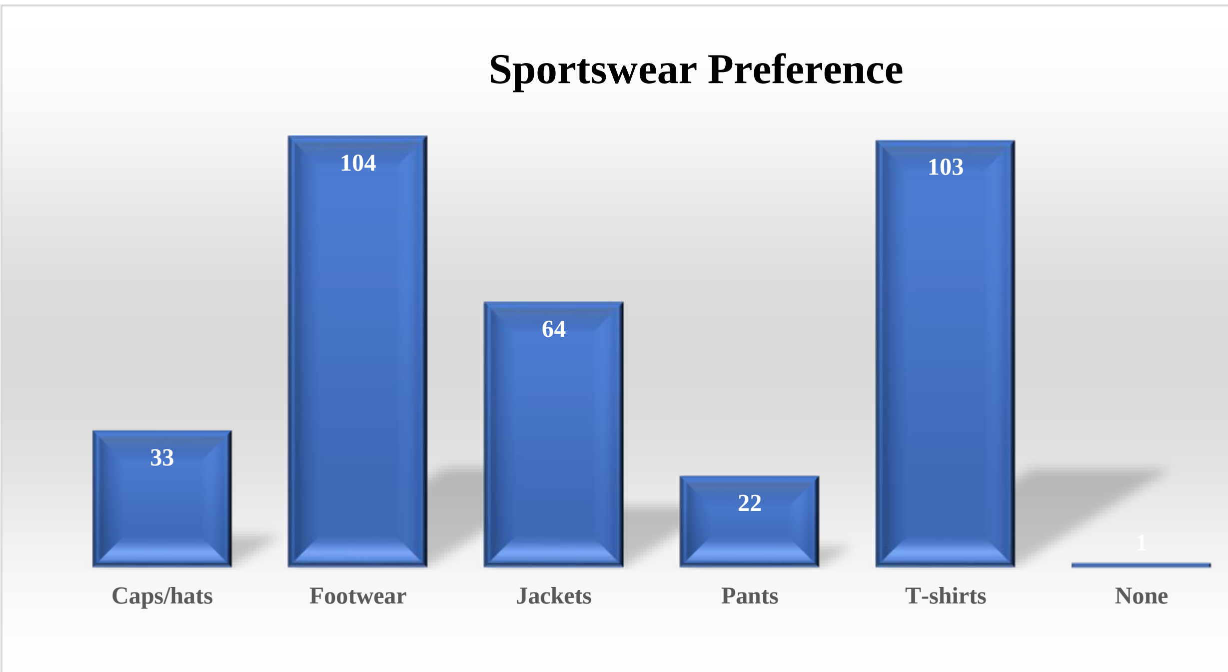

Figure 4.1: Sportswear preference

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Sportswear preference of the respondents is presented in a bar graph as Figure 4.1 where 10.1% (n=33) of the respondents indicated that caps/hats were their sportswear preference. The largest group of respondents (31.8%; n=104) indicated that their sportswear preference was footwear. A total of 19.6% (n=64) of the respondents indicated that their preferred sportswear was jackets, while 6.7% (n=22) preferred pants. The second-largest group of respondents preferred T-shirts (31.5%; n=103). Only 0.3 % (n=1) of the respondents indicated that they do not have any specific preference for sportswear.

4.3.1.2 Gender Profile of the Respondents

The gender profile of respondents is presented in Figure 4.2.

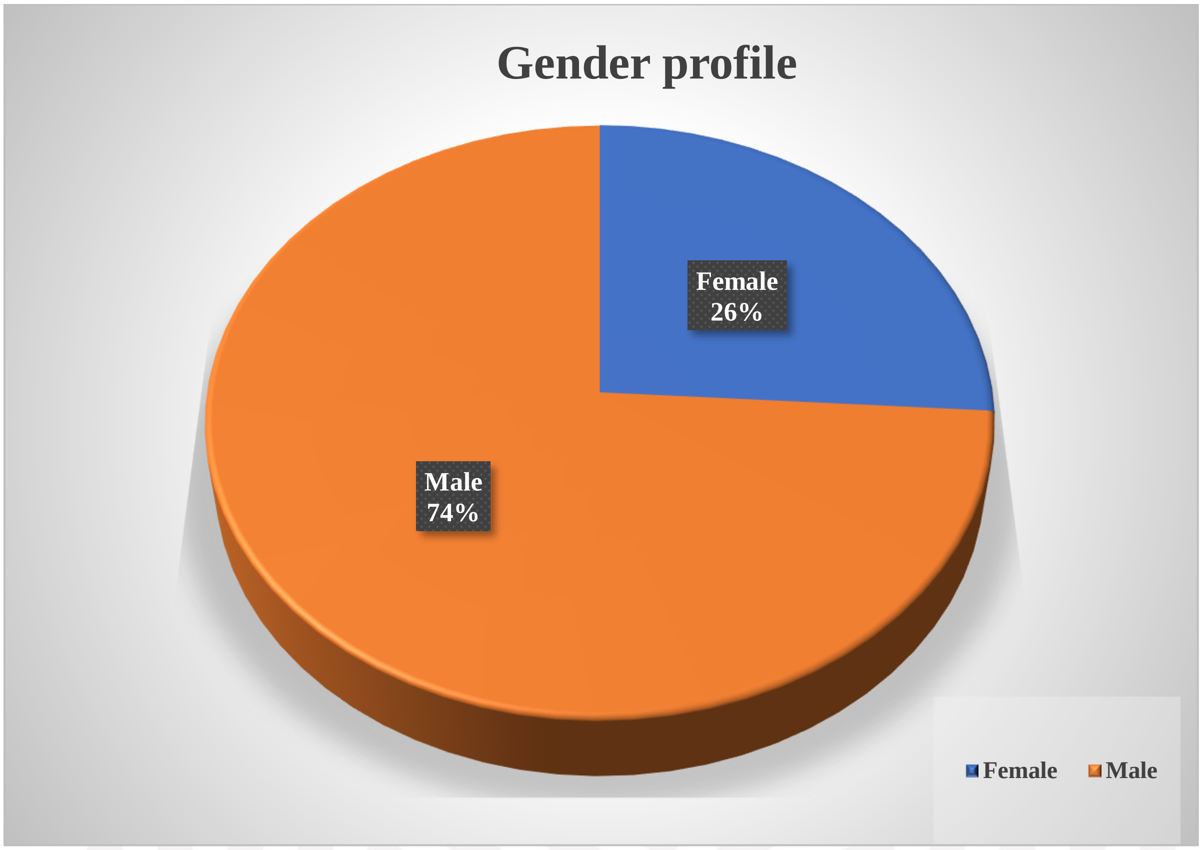

Figure 4.2: Gender profile of respondents

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Figure 4.2 shows the gender profile of the respondents where male gender dominated the sample 74% (n=242), and the minority were females (26%; n=85). Sports is a male dominated industry, hence there was such a high number of male respondents over females. The online questionnaire could have attracted more male respondents than their female counterparts.

great to speculate why there was such high number of male respondents over females.

4.3.1.3 Age of respondents

Figure 4.3 distinguishes the age distribution of the respondents.

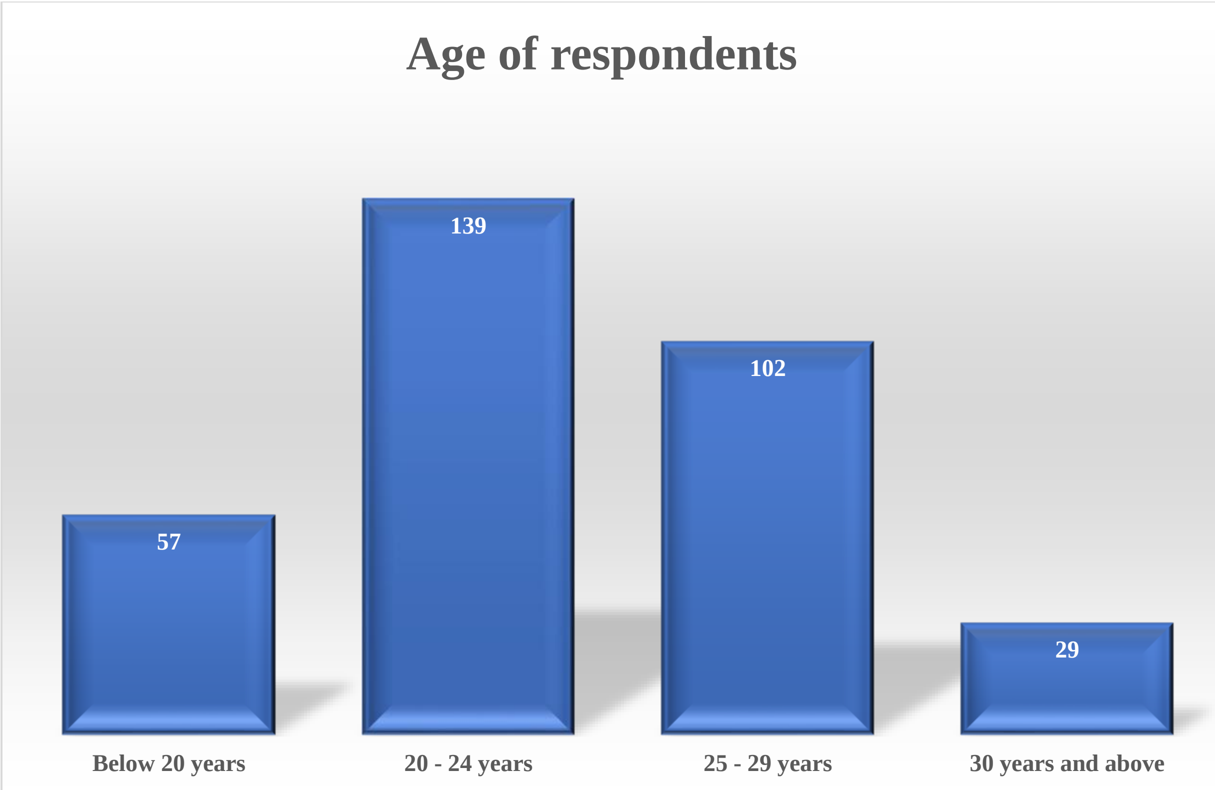

Figure 4.3: Age profile of respondents

Source: Researcher's own compilation

As illustrated by the bar graph in Figure 4.3, 17.4% (n = 57) of the respondents were below 20 years of age. The largest group of respondents were between the ages of 20 – 24 years (42.5%; n=139). The second largest group (31.2%; n = 102) were from the age group 25 – 29 years. Finally, those over 30 years and above comprised 8.9% (n = 29) of the sample.

4.3.1.4 Ethnicity

Figure 4.4 reports on the ethnicity of the respondents.

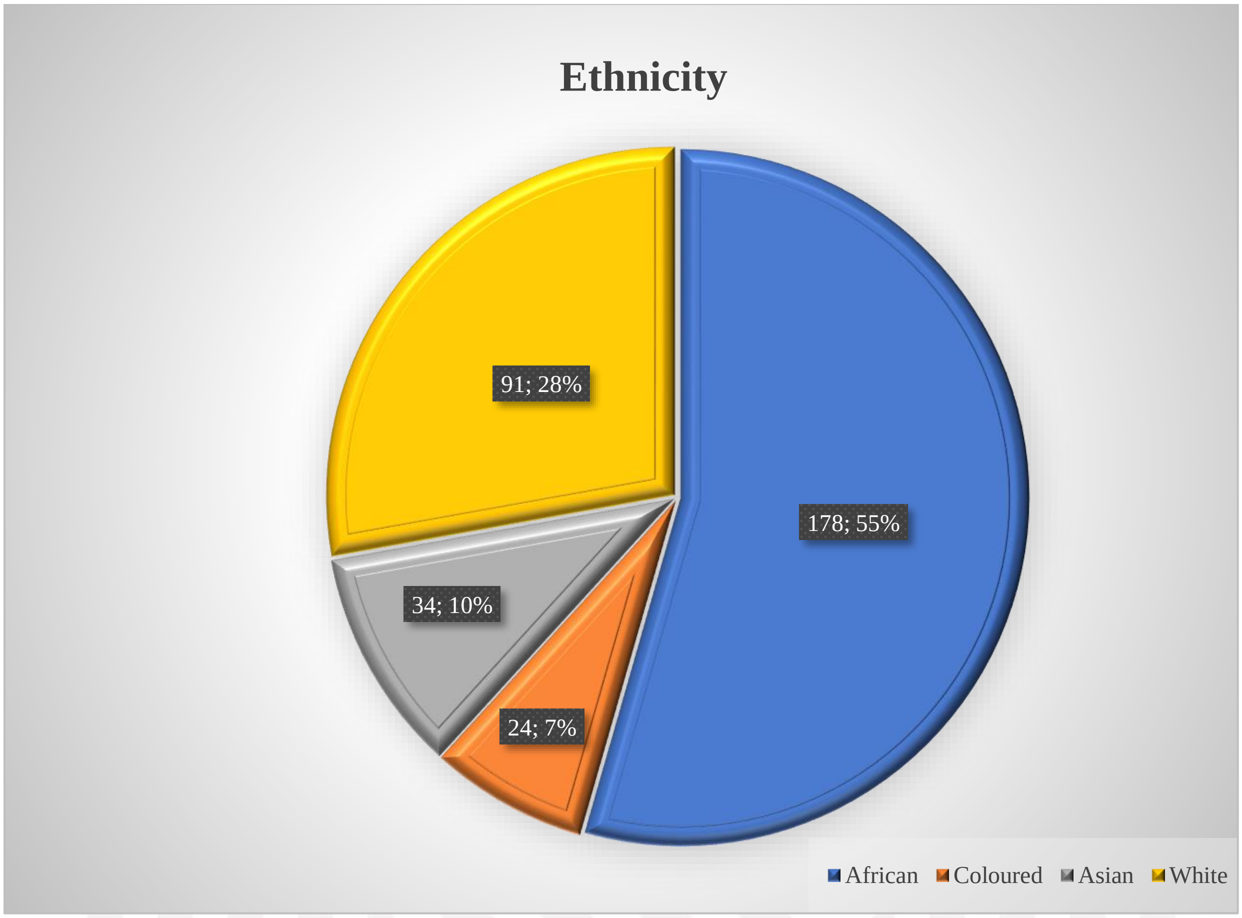

Figure 4.4: Ethnicity of respondents

Source: Researcher's own compilation

The majority of respondents on the survey were Africans (54.4%; n = 178), followed by Whites (28.8%; n = 91), Indian respondents (10.4%; n=34) and Coloureds (7.3%; n=24).

4.3.1.5 Registered qualification

Figure 4.5 illustrates the qualifications for which the respondents were registered.

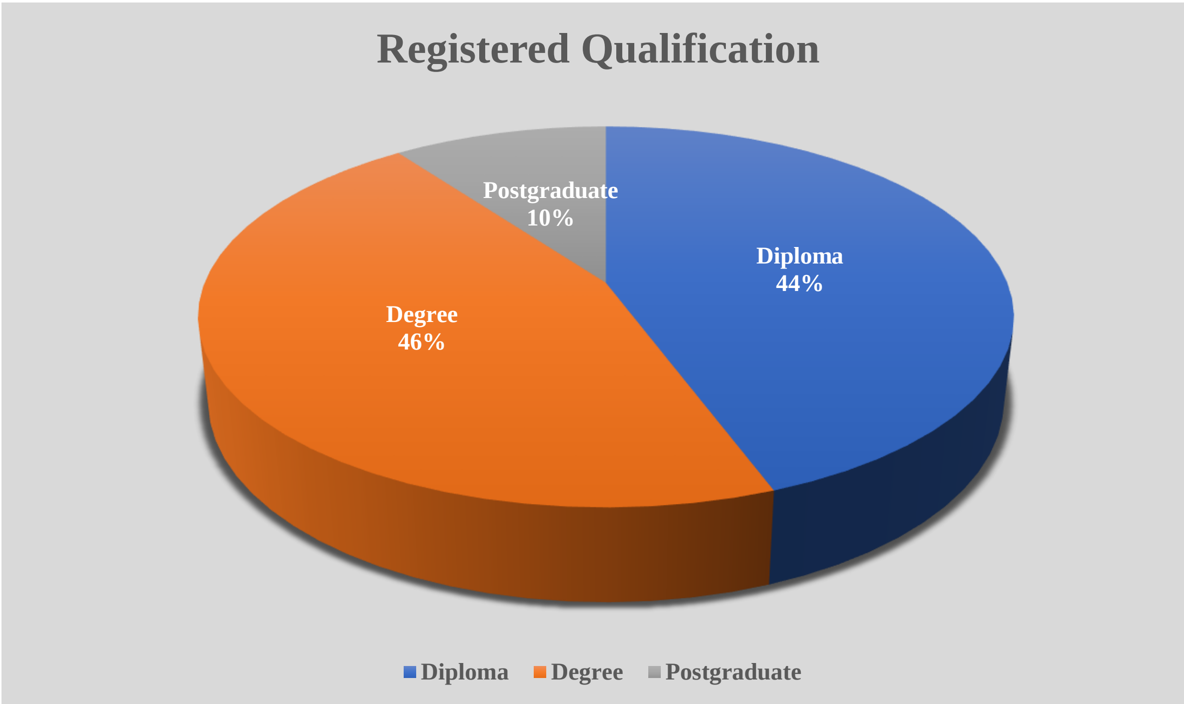

Figure 4.5: Qualifications registered

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Figure 4.5 confirms the qualifications which respondents were registered for during the 2020 academic year. Most of the respondents were registered for degree qualifications (45.6%; n=149), followed by diploma qualifications (44.3%; n=145) and postgraduate (10.1%; n=33).

4.3.1.6 Perceived attributes

Figure 4.6 represents the perceived attributes of the respondents. Respondents were measured on attributes such as modest, sophisticated and fashionable.

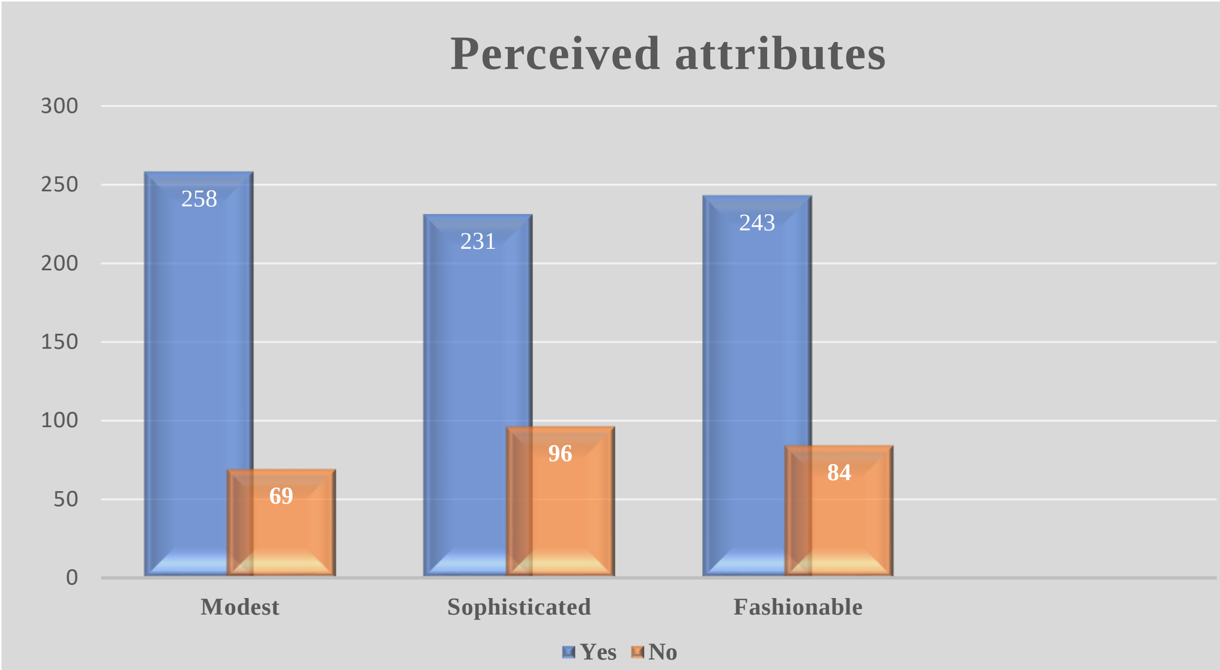

Figure 4.6: Perceived attributes of respondents

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Figure 4.6 illustrates that 78.9% (n=258) of the respondents confirmed that they were modest, while 21.1% (n=69) were not modest in their dressing. Approximately 70.6% (n=231) of the respondents considered themselves to be sophisticated while 29.4% (n=96) were not. The fashionable attribute was confirmed by 74.3% (n=243) of the respondents, while 25.7% (n=84) considered themselves not fashionable.

The next section explores descriptive statistics of the constructs.

4.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE CONSTRUCTS

In this section, the descriptive statistics about the constructs are presented. The descriptive statistics presented, including the means, standard deviations of the constructs in the study, are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Mean scores and standard deviations of research variables

Study Constructs	Sample size (N)	No of items	Means	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation	x̄ rank
	Predictor Variables						
MAT	327	4	3.462	1	5	1.164	4
HED	327	7	3.551	1	5	1.152	3
UTL	327	5	3.612	1	5	1.088	2
PGT	327	7	3.908	1	5	0.951	1
NOS	327	5	3.254	1	5	1.106	7
Mediating Variable							
ATC	327	9	3.311	1	5	1.139	5
Outcome Variable							
WTP	327	6	3.285	1	5	1.162	6

MAT = Materialism; **HED** = Hedonic motivation; **UTL** = Utilitarian motivation; **PGT** = Personal gratification; **NOS** = Novelty-seeking; **ATC =** Attitude towards counterfeits; **WTP** = Willingness to purchase

Scale: 1= Strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=Strongly agree

Source: Researcher's own compilation

The mean value for materialism was 3.462, which indicates a neutral response. Hedonic motive had a mean value of 3.551. The mean value of 3.612 for utilitarian motive ranked second, which is also very close to the 'agree' point. Personal gratification scored the highest mean score with a value of 3.908. This result is closest to the important point on the Likert scale. This means that the respondents find it important to have a comfortable, exciting life as this provides them with a sense of accomplishment and pleasure. Respondents find it essential to have a sense of social recognition, appreciation, and a sense of exhilaration.

Respondents were neutral regarding noverlty-seeking, attitude towards counterfeits and willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear products with mean scores of 3.254, 3.311 and 3.285, respectively. These results imply that they neither disagreed nor agreed with the items on these three scales. These results could be attributed to the notion that respondents still do not feel comfortable disclosing specific details about their attitudes and dispositions towards purchasing counterfeit sportswear products.

4.5 TESTS FOR THE NORMALITY OF DATA

To test for normality of data, D'Agostino's K-squared test was used to test whether the data is normally distributed (Dabbagh 2021). This test uses two statistics, namely, skewness and kurtosis, to assess the distribution of data. Skewness refers to the shape of a unimodal histogram for numerical data and explains the degree of deviation that occurs on the left or right of the mean of data distribution (Pallant 2011:57). Kurtosis refers to the pointedness or flatness of the distribution compared with the normal distribution (Saunders *et al.* 2016:519). According to Field (2013:89), to assume that data are satisfactory to demonstrate normal univariate distribution, its skewness must be in the range of -2 to +2, and its kurtosis must be in the range of -3 to +3.

Table 4.3: Skewness and kurtosis values of study variables

			Skewness			**Kurtosis**		
	Valid cases	**Missing cases**	**Sig.**	**Statistic**	**Std. Error of Skewness**	**Sig.**	**Statistic**	**Std. Error of Kurtosis**
MAT	327	0.000	327	-0.423	0.135	0.000	-0.660	0.269
HED	327	0.000	327	-0.636	0.135	0.000	-0.298	0.269
UTL	327	0.000	327	-0,674	0.135	0.000	-0.209	0.269
PGT	327	0.000	327	-0.757	0.135	0.000	0.262	0.269
NOS	327	0.000	327	-0.497	0.135	0.000	-0.386	0.269
ATC	c	0.000	327	-0.468	0.135	0.000	-0.470	0.269
WTP	327	0.000	327	-0.398	0.135	0.000	-0,583	0.269
MAT = Materialism; **HED** = Hedonic motivation; **UTL** = Utilitarian motivation; **PGT** = Personal gratification; **NOS** = Novelty-seeking; **ATC =** Attitude towards counterfeits; **WTP** = Willingness to purchase								

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Table 4.3 shows that the skewness statistics for all scales ranged from -0.757 to -0.398, and values of kurtosis fall between -0.660 to 0.262. These values fall within the prescribed ranges of -2 to +2 for skewness and -3 to +3 for kurtosis, suggesting that the data captured for this study were normally distributed.

Further, scatter and probability plots were computed as part of the regression models. The scatter plots are within the range (between -3 and +3), indicating no major problems with outliers. Further probability plots indicate a normal distribution (refer to Figure 4.7 and Figure 4.8) for model 1 and (Figure 4.9 and Figure 4.10) for model 2 (regression analysis).

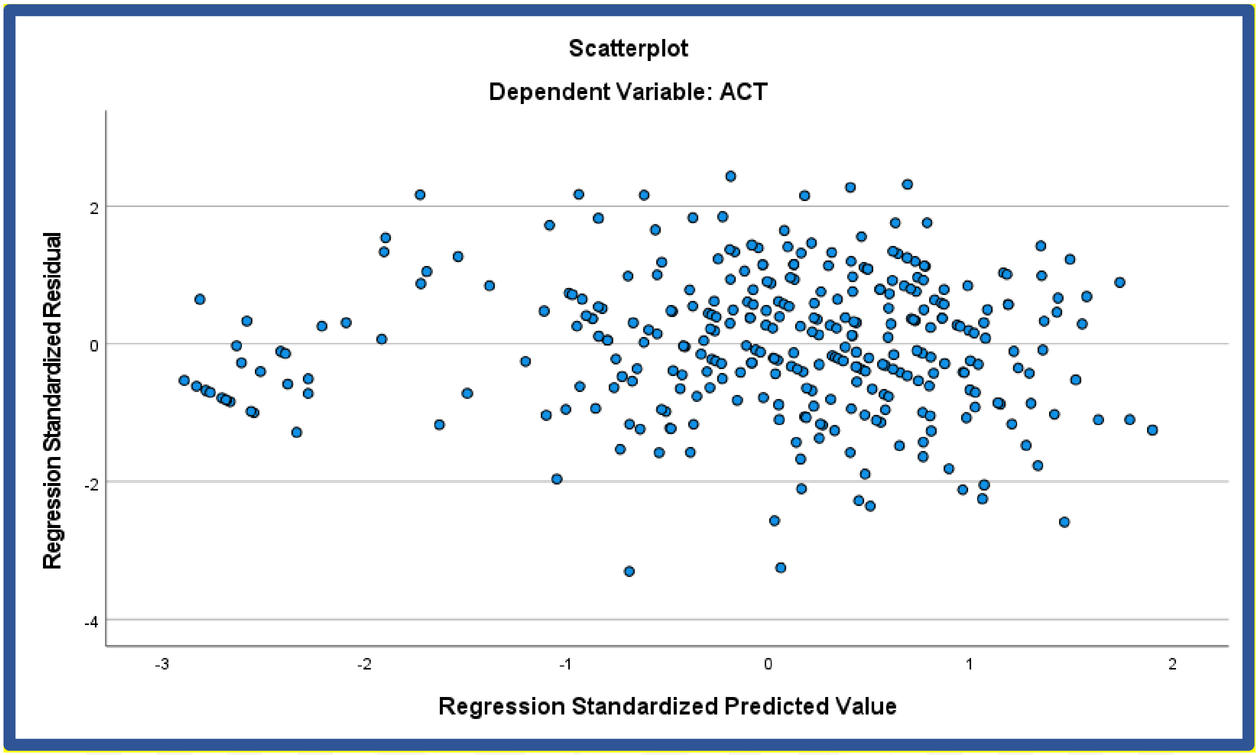

Figure 4.7: Scatterplot for predictors (IVs) with ATC as dependent variable

Source: Researcher’s own compilation

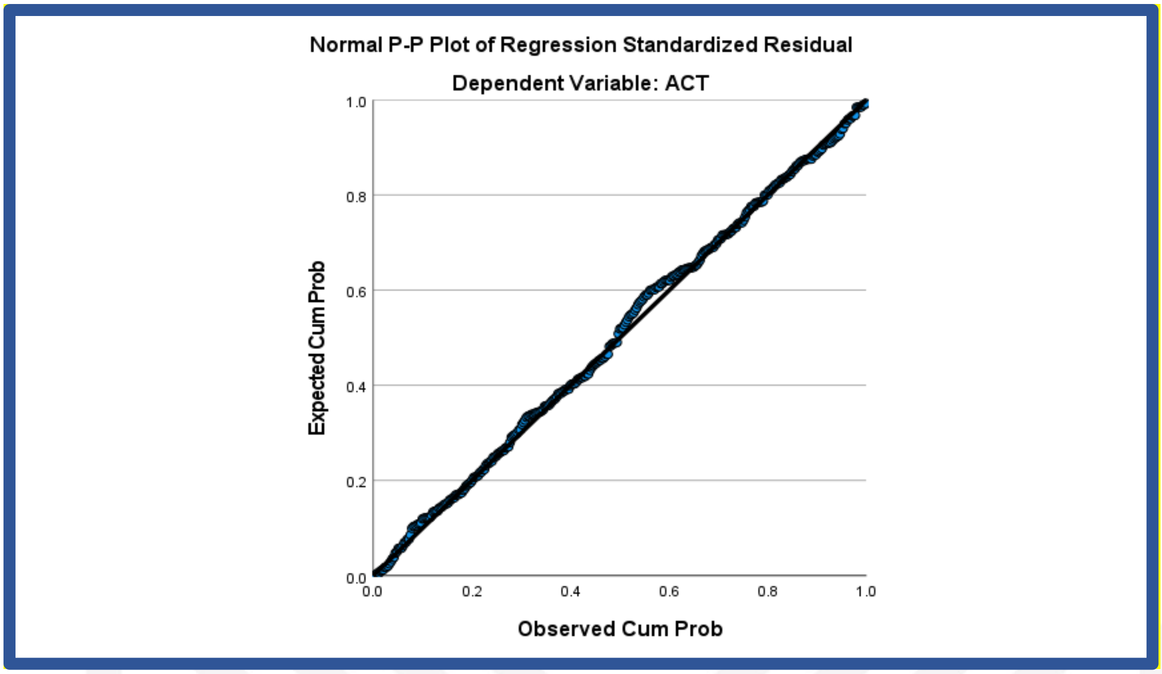

Figure 4.8: Probability plot for predictors (IVs) with ATC as dependent variable

Source: Researcher's own compilation

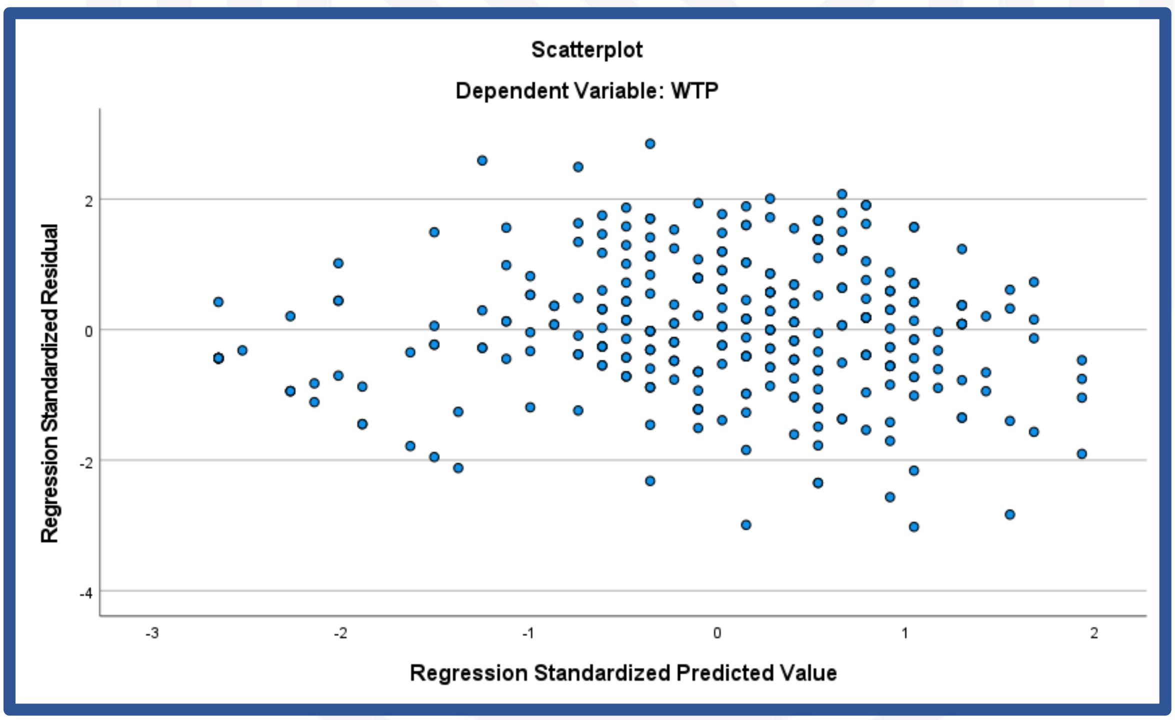

Figure 4.9: Scatterplot for ATC as IV and WTP as the dependant variable

Source: Researcher's own compilation

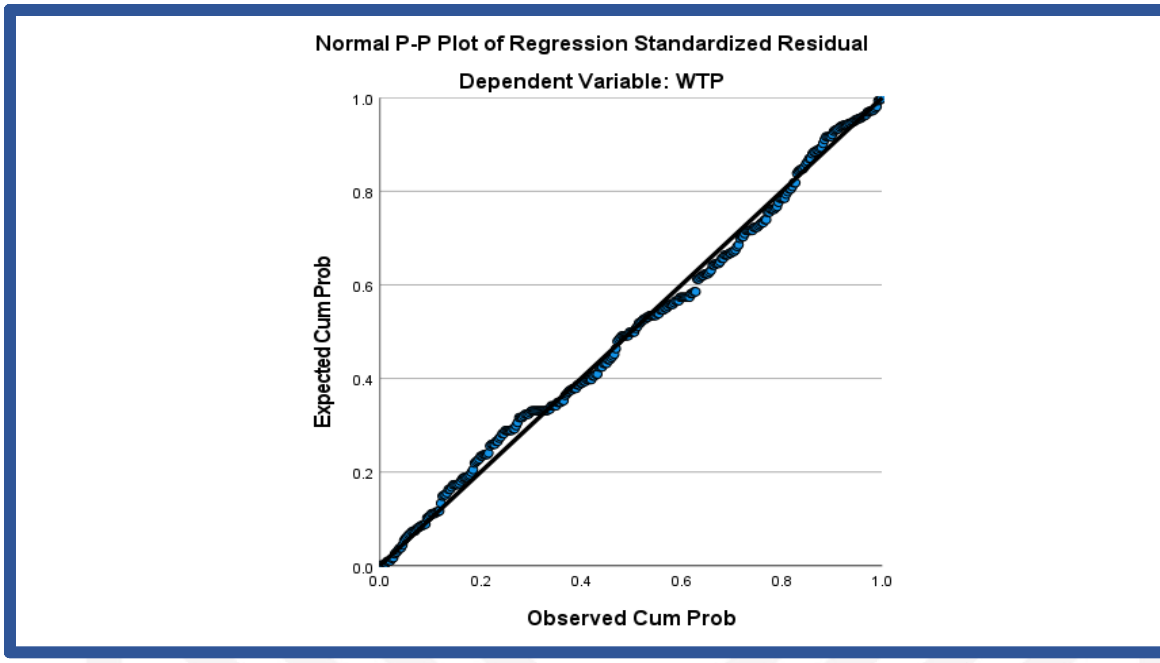

Figure 4.10: Probability plot for ATC as IV and WTP as the dependant variable

Source: Researcher's own compilation

The next section deals with exploratory factor analysis results.

4.6 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA RESULTS)

Exploratory factor analysis is the process of identifying the underlying dimensions or factors that explain the correlations between a set of variables (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:710). This procedure is performed to ascertain a suitable number of factors and determine which variables realistically indicate the latent dimensions (Brown & Moore 2021:3). Therefore, this data-driven analytic approach determines the nature of factors that represent the variation amongst a set of indicators and is used to reduce variables into factors (Field 2013:627).

EFA procedure was conducted to determine if the newly proposed five variables could be used to examine the attitudes and willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear products. To ascertain whether the data were suitable for EFA, two tests were conducted: the Keyser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) to determine sample adequacy, and Bartlett's test of sphericity to check the predictive accuracy of the factor model.

A guideline for checking the adequacy of the sample during the EFA is as follows (Field 2013:1975):

• Marvelous	=	KMO values of 0.90 and above
• Meritorious	=	KMO values of 0.80 – 0.89
• Middling	=	KMO values of 0.70 – 0.79
• Mediocre	=	KMO values of 0.60 – 0.69
• Miserable	=	KMO values of 0.50 – 0.59
• Unacceptable	=	KMO values of 0.00 – 0.49

Table 4.4 reports on the initial KMO and the Bartlett's test results for this study.

Table 4.4: KMO measure and the Bartlett's test results

CONSTRUCTS	KMO MEASURE	BARTLETT'S TEST		
		Approximate Chi-Square	Degrees of freedom	Significance level
Predictors	0.928	7297.433	378	0.000
ATC	0.892	1847.194	36	0.000
WTP	0.838	1415.880	15	0,000

Source: Researcher's own compilation

As indicated in Table 4.4, an EFA procedure was undertaken on the predictors' scale, mediating scale (attitude towards counterfeits) as well as outcome scale (willingness to purchase). The KMO assessment yielded sampling adequacy fell above 0.5 values, with 0.928 for the predictors, pointing towards "marvelous" in terms of suitability for conducting EFA while 0.892 and 0.838 for attitude towards counterfeits and willingness to purchase respectively pointed to the meritorious values. The Bartlett's test of Sphericity also generated a significant result of ($p < 0.01$), indicating factorability of the data set (Pallant 2013:1899).

4.6.1 Exploratory factor analysis for the predictors' scale

Upon applying the EFA procedure to the predictors' scale, seven items were removed from the entire set of scale items due to lower values than the 0.5 threshold for factor loadings. The items removed were "codes MAT2 = Buying things gives me lots of pleasure; MAT6 = It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I cannot afford to buy all the things I like; MAT7 = I like to own things that impress people; MAT9 = It is true that money can buy happiness; UTL1 = I find buying counterfeit sportswear useless or useful, UTL2 = I find buying counterfeit sportswear invaluable or worthless and NOS1 = I usually have counterfeit sportswear items of the newest style". The factor extraction procedure produced a five-factor structure. Table 4.5 shows the factor solution results of the counterfeit sportswear predictor scales.

Table 4.5: Five-factor structure for the predictors scale

ITEM CODE	ITEM DESCRIPTION	FACTOR				
		1	2	3	4	5
MAT1	I like a lot of luxury in my life	.203	.080	-.125	-.045	**.615**
MAT3	My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have	.153	.160	.041	.024	**.835**
MAT4	I admire people who own expensive homes, cars and clothes	.084	.149	.219	.185	**.795**
MAT5	I'd be happier if I could afford more things	.059	.254	.092	.100	**.784**
HED1	I find buying counterfeit sportswear pleasant/unpleasant	**.803**	.161	.245	.201	.143
HED2	I find buying counterfeit sportswear awful/nice	**.761**	.164	.271	.269	.137
HED3	I find buying counterfeit sportswear not agreeable/agreeable	**.805**	.187	.273	.224	.125
HED4	Buying counterfeit sportswear makes me sad/happy	**.767**	.164	.298	.290	.135
HED5	I find buying counterfeit sportswear dull/exciting	**.784**	.174	.266	.276	.129
HED6	I find buying counterfeit sportswear unenjoyable/enjoyable	**.732**	.164	.254	.318	.154
HED7	I find buying counterfeit sportswear not fun/fun	**.697**	.183	.281	.296	.126
UTL3	I find buying counterfeit sportswear harmful/beneficial	.383	.261	.239	**.660**	.139
UTL4	I find buying counterfeit sportswear foolish/wise	.375	.175	.258	**.729**	.100
UTL5	I find buying counterfeit sportswear not functional / functional	.293	.171	.221	**.816**	.037
UTL6	I find buying counterfeit sportswear not handy/handy	.362	.157	.286	**.756**	.037
UTL7	I find buying counterfeit sportswear not practical/practical	.346	.255	.207	**.700**	.065
PGT1	A comfortable life is not important/very important	.140	**.729**	-.042	.212	.200
PGT2	An exciting life is not important/very important	.091	**.794**	.033	.207	.114
PGT3	A sense of accomplishment is not important/very important	.086	**.794**	-.098	.039	.132
PGT4	A sense of pleasure is not important/very important	.074	**.803**	.042	.151	.060
PGT5	A sense of social recognition is not important/very important	.230	**.680**	.297	.158	.043
PGT6	A sense of appreciation is not important/very important	.190	**.722**	.163	.022	.146
PGT7	A sense of exhilaration is not important/very important	.152	**.679**	.226	.094	.134
NOS2	I keep my wardrobe up-to-date with changing fashions with counterfeit sportswear	.259	.051	**.728**	.228	.027
NOS3	Fashionable, attractive styling is very important to me in the purchases of counterfeit sportswear	.286	.108	**.775**	.228	-.044
NOS4	To get variety, I often shop to seek different brands of counterfeit sportswear products	.272	.053	**.798**	.157	.047
NOS5	It is often exiting to buy counterfeit sportswear	.258	.158	**.771**	.207	.074
NOS6	It is often fun to buy counterfeit sportswear products	.278	.062	**.780**	.146	.113
Eigenvalue		**11.990**	**3.359**	**1.952**	**1.564**	**1.171**
Total variance explained		**42.823**	**11.996**	**6.972**	**5.585**	**4.184**
Cumulative variance explained		**42.823**	**54.819**	**61.792**	**67.377**	**71.560**

Source: Researcher's own compilation

As revealed in Table 4.5, these five factors contributed 71.560 percent of the variance in counterfeit sportswear predictors. Factor 1 was labelled hedonic motivation. This factor 1 consisted of seven items (HED1 – HED7), had an eigenvalue of 11.990, and contributed 42,823 percent of the total variance explained for the counterfeit sportswear predictors scale. Factor 2 was labelled personal gratification and comprised items PGT1 – PGT7. This factor had an eigenvalue of 3.359 and contributed 11.996 percent of the total variance. Factor 3 was labelled novelty-seeking comprised five items NOS2, NOS3, NOS4, NOS5 and NOS6. This factor produced an eigenvalue of 1.952 and contributed 6.972 percent of the total variance. Factor 4 consisted of 5 items UTL3 – UTL7 and was labelled utilitarian motivation. This factor produced an eigenvalue of 1.564 and contributed 5.585 percent of the variance. Factor 5 was labelled materialism and consisted of four items MAT1, MAT3, MAT5 and MAT5. This factor produced an eigenvalue of 1.171 and contributed 4.184 per cent of the total variance.

4.6.2 Exploratory factor analysis for the attitude towards counterfeiting scale

The EFA was conducted for the attitude towards counterfeit construct and three items (ATC3 = Generally speaking, counterfeits are reliable, ATC8 = I feel a sense of pride when I purchase counterfeits and ATC9 = For me buying counterfeits is guiltless) were discarded because of low loading or cross-loadings. The factor solution is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Unidimensional factor structure for the ATC scale

ITEM CODE	ITEM DESCRIPTION	Factor 1
ATC1	Generally speaking, counterfeits have a satisfying quality	.618
ATC2	Generally speaking, counterfeits are practical	.741
ATC4	Generally speaking, counterfeits is a better choice	.804
ATC5	For me buying counterfeits is virtue of thrift	.771
ATC6	For me buying counterfeits is convenient	.832
ATC7	For me buying counterfeits is wise	.806
ATC10	I like shopping for counterfeits	.817
ATC11	Buying counterfeits generally benefits the consumer	.765
ATC12	There is nothing wrong with buying counterfeits	.743
Eigenvalue		**5.318**
Total variance explained		**59.014**

Source: Researcher's own compilation

4.6.3 Exploratory factor analysis for the willing to purchase scale

The EFA was conducted for the willing to purchase, and all scale items were retained. The factor solution is presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Unidimensional factor structure for the WTP scale

ITEM CODE	ITEM DESCRIPTION	Factor 1
WTP1	I will make an effort to buy counterfeits in the future	.680
WTP2	I will plan to purchase any counterfeits in the future	.833
WTP3	I will expect to purchase any counterfeits in the future	.876
WTP4	I would consider buying counterfeit sporting goods in the future	.885
WTP5	There is a high likelihood I would consider counterfeits when making a purchase	.854
WTP6	Recommend the purchase of counterfeits sporting goods to family and friends	.843
Eigenvalue		**4.149**
Total variance explained		**69.150**

Source: Researcher's own compilation

Table 4.7 reveals that willingness to purchase, also a unidimensional factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, was extracted in the EFA. The factor consisted of six items, had an eigenvalue of 4.149 and contributed 69.150 percent of the variance explained.

In the foregoing section, correlations among the study constructs are discussed in order to examine their relationships.

4.7 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlation analysis describes the degree of relationship between two variables and measures the strengths and direction of the relationship between variables (Cogtay *et al.* 2017:70). The purpose of this analysis is to discover whether two or more variables are in some way associated with one another (Leedy & Ormond 2021:358). Weak or low correlations depict little or no relation between variables, while high or strong correlation coefficients demonstrate a strong association between two or more variables (Cogtay *et al.* 2017:70). Correlation analysis is often presented as an absolute value score between 0 and 1 (Wallisman 2011:12). A correlation of -1.00 indicates a perfect negative correlation, 0 indicates no relationship at all and +1.00 indicates a perfect positive correlation.

The two most commonly used methods for correlation analysis are Pearson's correlation coefficient (*r*), and Spearman's rho (*r*) (Field 2013:276). Pearson's correlations coefficient (*r*) is used for examining relationships between interval/ratio variables and is by far the most commonly used (Wallisman 2011:12). Non-metric metric variables can be correlated using the Spearman's rho (*r*), which is a non-parametric test that does not assume a normal distribution and is based on ranked data set that is used to minimise the effect of extreme scores of the effects of violations of the assumptions (Field 2013:276). The study utilised Pearson's correlations analysis since the data were normally distributed (see Section 4.4, Table 4.3).

Correlation analysis produces two sets of statistics. The first set is r, which represents the strength of the correlations. The second set is p-value which represents the significance. The results of the correlation analysis for the research constructs are indicated in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Inter-construct correlations

Research construct	MAT	HED	UTL	PGT	NOS	ATC	WTP
MAT	1.00						
HED	.364**	1.00					
UTL	.278**	.736**	1.00				
PGT	.385**	.442**	.470**	1.00			
NOS	.200**	.645**	.592**	.298**	1.00		
ATC	.155**	.586**	.586**	.255**	.792**	1.00	
WTP	.144**	.571**	.558**	.255**	.694**	.798**	1.00
MAT = Materialism; **HED** = Hedonic motivation; **UTL** = Utilitarian motivation; **PGT** = Personal gratification; **NOS** = Novelty-seeking; **ATC =** Attitude towards counterfeits; **WTP** = Willingness to purchase							
** correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)							

Source: Researcher's own compilation

An analysis of the correlation matrix in Table 4.8 indicates significant positive associations between the research constructs. The correlations ranged from r=0.144 to r=0.798. This result reveals that increases or improvements in one construct will stimulate an increase in the other constructs and vice versa.

The results of the correlation analysis showed a significant yet weak positive association between materialism and attitude towards counterfeits ($r=0.155$; $p<0.05$). This result implies that an increase in materialism among consumers in counterfeit sportswear products will result in a slight improvement in their attitude towards counterfeits.. Previous studies also revealed a positive relationship between materialism and attitude towards counterfeits (Yoo & Lee 2009:285; Xi & Cheng 2017:22).

Furthermore, hedonic motivation showed a significant positive association towards attitude towards counterfeits ($r=0.586$; $p<0.05$). This indicates that an increase in hedonic motivation will result in a moderate positive change in attitude towards counterfeits. Consistently, previous research revealed that a hedonic motivation evokes a positive attitude in a consumer and is associated with the consumer buying a counterfeit to improve their self-image (Shunmugan 2015:64; Saeed & Paracha 2019:218).

There was a significant positive association between utilitarian motivation and attitude towards counterfeits ($r=0.586$; $p<0.05$). These results suggest that an increase in utilitarian motivation will trigger an improvement in attitude towards counterfeits. This is consistent with Pancaningrum and Wardani (2019:63), where it was found that both the hedonic and utilitarian motivations can encourage consumer purchasing decisions on counterfeit sportswear.

There was a significant weak positive association between personal gratification and attitude towards counterfeits ($r=0.255$; $p<0.05$). This indicates that consumer gratification of counterfeit sportswear products is positively associated with attitude towards counterfeits. These results are in line with previous findings (De Matos *et al.* 2007:44; Rahpeima *et al.* 2014:64), where it was found that consumers who seek to have a sense of accomplishment have a positive attitude towards counterfeits. Results from Ang *et al.* (2001:231) and Teah *et al.* (2015:187) also showed a positive but non-significant relationship with attitudes towards counterfeit products.

The results of the correlation analysis further revealed a significant strong positive association between novelty-seeking and attitude towards counterfeits ($r=0.694$; $p<0.05$). This result implies that an increase in consumers who seek novelty is positively associated with an improvement in their attitude towards counterfeits. Previous research (Wang 2017:249; Moon *et al.* 2018:805) achieved similar results., where it was found that younger persons have higher novelty-seeking scores than older persons as the trait has been associated with impulsivity and sensation seeking.

Further analysis of the correlation matrix indicates a significant strong positive association between attitude towards counterfeits and willingness to purchase ($r=0.798$; $p<0.05$). This indicates that as attitude towards counterfeits becomes stronger among consumers, they will experience a higher willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear. The results are consistent with previous studies (Cheu & Leng 2016:30; Xi & Cheng 2017:20; Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:8) where it was found that attitude towards counterfeits sportswear correlates positively with willingness to purchase counterfeits.

The next section examines the results of the regression analysis, where the predictive relationships between study constructs are analysed.

4.8 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Regression analysis is a procedure for analysing associate relationships between a metric-dependent variable and one or more independent variables (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:641). For the purpose of this study, the enter method of regression was used since all independent variables were included in the regression analysis. This method was chosen as each independent variable is evaluated in terms of its predictive power, over and above that offered by all the other independent variables (Pallant 2010:149).

4.8.1 Regression Model 1: Five Predictors (MAT, HED, UTL, PGT, NOS) and ATC

Two regression models were run. In regression Model 1, attitude towards counterfeits was entered as the dependant variable while the five predictors (materialism, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation, personal gratification and novelty-seeking) were entered as independent variables. The results for regression Model 1 are presented in Table 4.9.

Prior to the computation of the regression models (Model 1 and Model 2) it was necessary to assess whether the data set poses any multicollinearity problems. Multicollinearity may be present in the data set when there is a high (>0.80) inter-factor correlations between variables (Pallant 2010:158). Inter-factor correlations were all well below 0.80 and hence signify collinearity problems. Further tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) is also used to detect multicollinearity problems. If the tolerance value is very small (<0.10), it indicates that the multiple correlations with variables are high, suggesting the possibility of multicollinearity. VIF values above 10 may also indicate a concern regarding multicollinearity (Pallant 2010:158). The tolerance and VIF values are within the accepted thresholds in both models, suggesting that multicollinearity did not pose any problem in the regression models.

Table 4.9: Regression model 1: predictors and attitudes towards counterfeits

Predictors (Independent variables): Counterfeit Sportswear	**Dependent variable: Attitude towards counterfeits**						
	Unstandardised coefficients		**Standardised coefficients**	**Sig.**		**Collinearity statistics**	
	β	**Std. error**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**Tolerance**	**VIF**
(constant)	.828	.172		4.804	.000	.828	.172
MAT	-.031	.035	-.033	-.892	.373	-.031	.035
HED	.044	.047	.051	.930	.353	.044	.047
UTL	.163	.047	.179	3.461	.001*	.163	.047
PGT	-.045	.046	-.038	-.972	.332	-.045	.046
NOS	.622	.041	.671	15.129	.000*	.622	.041
MAT = Materialism; **HED** = Hedonic motivation; **UTL** = Utilitarian motivation; **PGT** = Personal gratification; **NOS** = Novelty-seeking; **ATC =** Attitude towards counterfeits; **WTP** = Willingness to purchase							
R= 0.807; Adjusted R^2 = 0.646; F = 119.771; p<0.05*							

Source: Researcher's own compilation

From Model 1, materialism does not seem to be a significant predictor of attitude towards counterfeits (β=-0.033; t=-0.892; p=0.373). These results indicate that p>0.05 confirming that materialism does not influence students' attitudes towards counterfeits. The hypothesis: *H1: Materialism has a significant relationship with consumer attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear products* is therefore rejected. The results are supported by Cheung and Prendegast (2006:461), who found this relationship to be insignificant. Additionally, previous studies of Shunmugan (2015:66) and Triandewi and Tjiptono (2013:29) could not find adequate evidence to suggest that consumers' intention to buy counterfeits can be attributed to materialism. However, this contradicts the results of a cross-sectional study by Cheng (2017:22), where materialism was found to be significantly related to consumer attitude towards counterfeits. The respondents were Malaysian young adults aged below 30 years who were deemed to uphold a more active lifestyle and engaged more in sports activities. In this study, sportswear preference was dominated by footwear (31.8%), followed by T-shirts (31.5%), jackets (19.6%) and caps/hats (10.1%). This is an indication that these students prefer sportswear as fashion trends rather than active sportswear. Students might be materialistic but may not be attracted to counterfeits due to the stigma attached to counterfeit sportswear. This may be attributed to the reason that university students are still very susceptible to the influence of peers. According to the Theory of Planned Behaviour, peer pressure might affect an individual's attitudes and behaviour.

The hedonic consumption motive also seem to be an insignificant predictor of attitude towards counterfeits (β=0.051; t=0.930; p=0.353), providing evidence that the hedonic variable does not influence respondents' attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear. Hypotheses *H2: Hedonic consumption motive has a significant relationship with consumer attitude to purchase counterfeit sportswear products* is therefore rejected. The results are not in congruence with those collected from a sample of systematically selected university students from Punjab, Pakistan, where hedonic attitude had a significant positive influence on willingness to purchase towards counterfeit apparel products (Moon *et al.* 2018.803). Those students are likely to extract joy, happiness and pleasure from counterfeits as these products look the same as original products.

Utilitarian factor seems to be a significant predictor of ATC (β=0.179; t=3.461; p=0.001). These results indicate that $p<0.05$ confirming that utilitarian motive does influence students' attitude towards counterfeits. Therefore, *H3: Utilitarian consumption motivation has a significant relationship with consumer attitudes to purchasing counterfeit sportswear* is accepted. Previous studies found utilitarian motivation to positively influence counterfeit purchasing decisions (Moon *et al.* 2018.804; Kurniawati 2019:48; Pancaningrum & Wardani 2019:62). This is consistent with the Theory of Reasoned Action where behavioural beliefs influence a person's attitude. The TRA's most conspicuous element is that behavioural intent is the best predictor of actual behaviour (Basu *et al.*, 2015:53). In this manner, this positive behaviour of consumers may be attributed to the fact the students are more interested in uplifting their emotional states through counterfeit consumptions rather than gaining any functional benefits associated with utilitarian motivation (Cheng 2017:23). However, the results are contrary to those achieved by Sharma and Chan

(2017:24, who conducted a study among shoppers at a popular market in Hong Kong, which revealed that utilitarian consumers tend to evaluate counterfeit products and develop a negative attitude as they seem to enjoy genuine brands and positively contribute to brand trust.

Further, the model indicates that personal gratification factor is not a significant predictor of attitude towards counterfeits (β=-0.038; t=-0.972; p=0.332). These results indicate that $p>0.05$ confirming that personal gratification does not influence students' attitudes towards counterfeits. The hypothesis: *H4: Personal gratification has a significant relationship with consumer attitudes to purchasing counterfeit sportswear* is therefore rejected. The results are congruence with the findings of a study conducted using a mall intercept approach by Teah, Phau and Hua (2015:187), where personal gratification among consumers showed no effect on consumer attitudes towards counterfeit products in Shanghai and Taipei. However, the results contradict the findings from Rahpeima *et al.* (2014:64) where personal gratification had shown a significant positive relationship with attitude towards counterfeits. The research was conducted among consumers who live in Shiraz-Iran, and the sample was selected in the streets and places close to the points where counterfeited products were being sold. The reason for the negative results of the study might be that students who search for personal gratification are more fearful of being embarrassed and losing their self-image if others recognise their use of counterfeits sportswear products (Nguyen & Tran 2013:21) because consumers choosing counterfeit products see themselves as less well off financially, less confident, less successful, and lower status than counterfeit non-buyers (Bloch *et al.* 1993:30).

The noverlty-seeking factor emerged a strong predictor of attitude towards counterfeits (β=0.671; t=15.129; p=0.000). These results indicate that $p<0.05$ confirming that novelty-seeking positively influences students' attitude towards counterfeits sportswear. *H5: Novelty-seeking has a significant relationship with consumer attitudes to purchase counterfeit sportswear* is therefore accepted. The results are in congruence with findings from Abid and Abbasi (2014:173), where positive and significant outcomes were revealed on the impact of novelty-seeking on attitudes of consumers towards counterfeit. The results of Albarq (2015:826); Haseeb and Mukhtar (2016:20) are also in line with this study where novelty-seeking was also found dominant in influencing consumers to purchase counterfeit products. Based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour, consumers who are novelty seekers may have the propensity to develop positive attitudes towards counterfeit products, which leads to willingness to purchase as well (Haseeb & Mukhtar 2016:20).

Overall, the five predictor variables (materialism, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation, personal gratification and novelty-seeking) accounted for 65% (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.646$) of the variance in attitude towards counterfeits. These results show that an attitude towards counterfeits is attributed to the combined effect of the five predictors but primarily engendered by utilitarian and novelty-seeking motivations.

4.8.2 Regression model 2: attitude towards counterfeits and willingness to purchase

In regression model 2, attitude towards counterfeits was entered as the independent variable while willingness to purchase was entered as the independent variable. The results are indicated in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Regression model 2 ATC and WTP

Predictor (Independent variable): Counterfeit Sportswear	**Dependent variable: Willingness to purchase**						
	Unstandardised coefficients		**Standardised coefficients**	**Sig.**		**Collinearity statistics**	
	β	**Std. error**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**Toleranc e**	**VFI**
(constant)	.374	.126		2.965	.003		
ATC	.879	.037	.798	23.868	.000*	1.000	1.000
R= 0.798; Adjusted R^2 = 0.636; F = 569.698 p<0.05*							

Source: Researcher's own compilation

The results show that attitude towards counterfiets is a strong positive and significant predictor of willingness to purchase (β=0.798; t=23.868; p=0.000; p<0.05). These results indicate that high levels of attitude towards counterfeits influence students' willingness to purchase counterfeits sportswear. Therefore, *H6: Attitude towards counterfeit has a significant relationship with students' willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear* is accepted. These results resonate with Kirk-Mazik (2014:106); Xi and Cheng (2017:21); Dhurup and Muposhi's (2020:8) studies where consumer attitude toward counterfeit goods was found to be significant to purchase intention of such goods. This is in line with the notion of Theory of Planned Behaviour, where consumers who hold favourable attitudes towards counterfeit products are more likely to purchase such goods. Consumers who have a positive attitude toward the purchase of counterfeit sporting goods have friends who accept the use and purchase of counterfeit sporting goods are more likely to indicate an intention to purchase sporting goods (Chiu & Leng 2016:31).

Overall, 64% (Adjusted R^2 = 0.636) in students' willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear can be accounted for by their attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear.

4.9 RESULTS OF HYPOTHESIS TESTING

The conceptual framework articulated in Section 1.4 was tested to study the relationship strength between dependent and independent variables through regression analysis. The framework and hypotheses outcomes are reported in Figure 4.11 and Table 4.11, respectively.

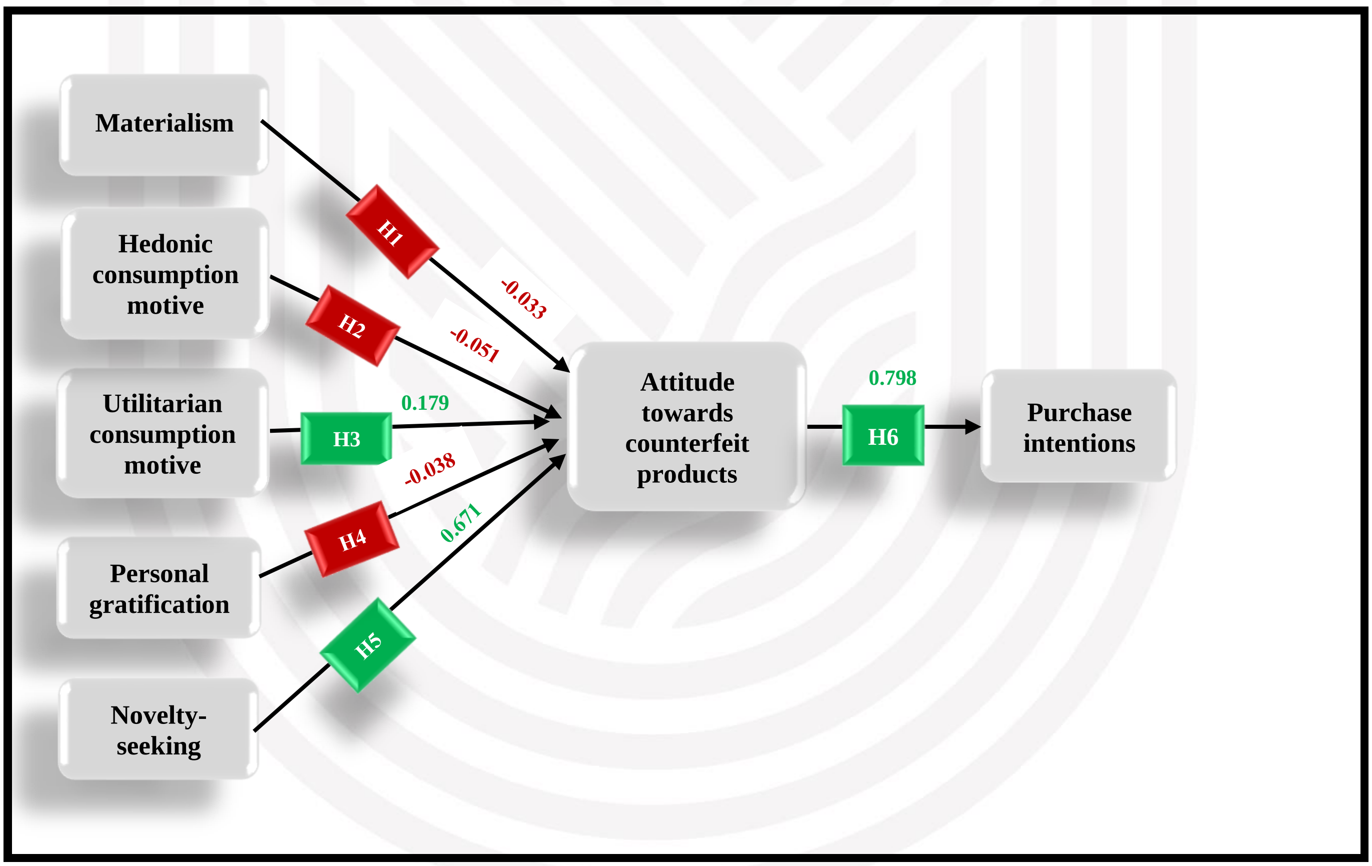

Figure 4.11: Conceptual Framework

Table 4.11 shows a synopsis of the results from this research and states the decision relating to the hypotheses formulated for this study.

Table 4.11: Hypotheses decisions

Hypothesis	Relationship	Beta coefficient	*t*-value	*p*-value	Supported/ not supported
H1	MAT –> ATC	-0.033	-0.892	0.373	Not supported
H2	HED –> ATC	-0.051	-0.930	0.353	Not supported
H3	UTL –> ATC	0.179	3.461	0.001*	Supported
H4	PGT –> ATC	-0.038	-0.972	0.332	Not supported
H5	NOS –> ATC	0.671	15.129	0.000*	Supported
H6	ATC –> WTP	0.798	23.868	0.000*	Supported
MAT = Materialism; **HED** = Hedonic motivation; **UTL** = Utilitarian motivation; **PGT** = Personal gratification; **NOS** = Novelty-seeking; **ATC** = Attitude towards counterfeits; **WTP** = Willingness to purchase					

Source: Researcher's own compilation

In the above table, **H1** was not supported since there was no relationship between materialism and attitude towards counterfeits. **H2** was not supported because hedonic motive did not influence attitude towards counterfeits. There was a positive and significant relationship between utilitarian motive and attitude towards counterfeits; hence **H3** was supported. **H4** was rejected since there was no significant relationship between personal gratification and attitude towards counterfeits as the p-value was greater than 0.05. The relationship between novelty-seeking and attitude towards counterfeits yielded a significant positive relationship; therefore, **H5** was accepted. **H6** was strongly supported with a Beta-value of 0.798, indicating a positive and significant relationship between attitude towards counterfeit and willingness to purchase.

The next section discusses internal consistency and validity test results for the measurement scales.

4.10 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF MEASUREMENT SCALES

The concept of reliability and validity is of paramount importance when analysing constructs under investigation. For this purpose, the internal consistency or scale reliability coefficients of the questionnaire items were assessed based on Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Table 4.12 reports the reliability outcomes of each of the six constructs.

4.10.1 Scale Reliability

In this study, internal consistency reliability was tested using the Cronbach alpha coefficient. Guidelines for interpretation of the Cronbach alpha coefficient have been mentioned in Chapter 3.11.1. The results for the reliability tests for all measurement scales employed in this study are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Scale reliability

Construct	Question items	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha
Materialism	I like a lot of luxury in my life My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have I admire people who own expensive homes, cars and clothes I'd be happier if I could afford more things	**4**	**0.793**
Hedonic motivation	I find buying counterfeit sportswear unpleasant / pleasant I find buying counterfeit sportswear awful/nice I find buying counterfeit sportswear not agreeable/agreeable Buying counterfeit sportswear makes me sad/happy Buying counterfeit sportswear makes me dull/exciting I find buying counterfeit sportswear unenjoyable/enjoyable I find buying counterfeit sportswear not fun/fun	**7**	**0.953**
Utilitarian motivation	I find buying counterfeit sportswear harmful/beneficial I find buying counterfeit sportswear foolish/wise I find buying counterfeit sportswear not functional/functional I find buying counterfeit sportswear not handy/handy I find buying counterfeit sportswear not practical/practical	**5**	**0.926**
Personal gratification	A comfortable life is not at all important / very important An exciting life is not at all important / very important A sense of accomplishment not at all important / very important A sense of pleasure not at all important / very important A sense of social recognition not at all important / very important A sense of appreciation not at all important / very important A sense of exhilaration not at all important / very important	**7**	**0.893**
Novelty-seeking	I keep my wardrobe up-to-date with changing fashions with counterfeit sportswear Fashionable, attractive styling is very important to me in the purchases of counterfeit sportswear To get variety, I often shop to seek different brands of counterfeit sportswear products It is often exciting to buy counterfeit sportswear It is often fun to buy counterfeit sportswear products	**5**	**0.905**
Attitude	Generally speaking, counterfeits have a satisfying quality Generally speaking, counterfeits are practical Generally speaking, counterfeits is a better choice For me buying counterfeits is virtue of thrift For me buying counterfeits is convenient For me buying counterfeits is wise I like shopping for counterfeits Buying counterfeits generally benefits the consumer There is nothing wrong with buying counterfeits	**9**	**0.912**

Construct	Question items	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha
Willingness to purchase	I will make an effort to buy counterfeits in the future I will expect to purchase any counterfeits in the future I will plan to purchase any counterfeits in the future I would consider buying counterfeit sporting goods in the future There is a high likelihood I would consider counterfeits when making a purchase Recommend the purchase of counterfeits sporting goods to family and friends	**6**	**0.907**

Source: Researcher's compilation

As revealed in Table 4.12 Cronbach alpha coefficient values ranged from 0.793 to 0.953 for all the scales. This implies that their internal consistency was acceptable since the alpha values were higher than the prescribed cut-off levels.

4.10.2 Validity

As mentioned in Chapter 3.11.2, validity is the extent to which a measurement represents characteristics that exist in the phenomenon under investigation (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:361). In this study, three types of validity were ascertained, which are:

1) Face validity/content validity.
2) Construct validity.
3) Predictive validity.

4.10.2.1 Face and Content validity

Face validity assesses the correspondence between the measurement items and the concepts they are supposed to measure (Hair *et al.* 2018.161). Face validity involves scrutinising and revising the questionnaire subjectively through the use of judgement by researchers and experts. Content validity refers to the degree to which the instrument assesses or measures the construct of interest (Bolarinwa 2020:197). In this study, face and content validities were tested through a review of the questionnaire by subject experts in marketing. .Pre-testing helped resolve problems relating to language and the layout of the questionnaire (Tustin *et al.* 2010.413).

Immediately after the pre-test, a pilot study of 50 respondents was undertaken. The results of the pilot study are indicated in Table 2.1. All scales attained average item correlations above the recommended threshold of 0.3; Cronbach alpha values above 0.7 minimum threshold recommended. Only 1 item was discarded from the materialism scale due to low-item correlation.

4.10.2.2 Construct validity

Construct validity is the extent to which a measure confirms the hypotheses created from theory based on the concepts under study (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:362). Therefore, the results of the construct validity of the test will give a better understanding of the quality measures used.

In this study, construct validity was firsts tested by Exploratory Factor Analysis. According to Field (2013:1975), factor loadings greater than 0.5 serve as indicators of satisfactory construct validity in the scales. As observed in Tables 4.4 to Table 4.7, only items with factor loadings equal to or higher than 0.5 were retained in the measurement scales. This shows that construct validity in the measurement items and scales used in this study was satisfactory.

4.10.2.3 Predictive validity

Predictive validity is concerned with how well a scale can forecast a future criterion (Malhotra *et al.* 2017:362). For this study, the hypothesised relationships between variables were tested using regression analysis. This statistical technique is recommended for examining linear interrelationships between variables (Dhurup & Muposhi 2020:9). Positive beta values and positive statistical significance were reported between utilitarian motive and attitude towards counterfeits (0.179); novelty-seeking and attitude towards counterfeits (0.671); attitude towards counterfeit and willingness to purchase (0.798) indicates evidence of predictive validity.

The next section addresses bias issues relating to the method of data collection.

4.11 ADDRESSING COMMON METHOD BIAS

To minimise and test for common methods bias, four approaches were taken in this study:

i. The scale items in the predictor, mediator and outcome variables were obtained from different measurement scales. The predictor scales were developed by Richins and Dawsons (1992:310) for materialism; hedonic motivation scale was adapted from Batra and Ahtola (1991:167), whereas the utilitarian motivation scale was developed by Voss *et al.* (2003:312) and Ang *et* *al.* (2001:27) developed the scale for novelty-seeking. The mediator variable scale for attitude towards counterfeits was adapted from Huang *et al.* (2004:614), while the outcome variable's scale, willingness to purchase was developed by Beck and Azjen (1990:291).

ii. The anonymity of the respondents was protected by distribution on an anonymous online survey. Respondents were able to provide relevant and unbiased responses as there was no face-to-face contact with the researcher.

iii. Careful construction of the questionnaire items was taken into consideration, where items were edited by the research supervisors. There was a countermeasure for double-barrelled questions, any conceptual overlap of items that measured different constructs, and negatively worded items were also not included in the questionnaire. Questions were kept concise, precise and specific.

iv. Harman's single factor test was also conducted to assess common method bias by subjecting the data to an un-rotated exploratory factor analysis and constraining the number of factors extracted to one (1) (Podaskoff et al. 2003:889). The emergence of a single factor (or a large amount of variance that can be explained by one factor (50%) is taken as evidence that common source bias is present (Chang, Witteloostuijn & Eden 2010:181). The single factor accounted for (48.3%) of the total variance, suggesting that common method variance was not a problem in the study. Therefore, in this study, common method bias did not constitute a problem.

4.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter reports on the empirical data analysis conducted in this study, leading to hypotheses testing. It commences with a review of the pilot study. The scale attained acceptable results with only one item discarded from the materialism scale, allowing the research to proceed to the main survey. Results of the main study commence with students' demographic profiles followed by descriptive statistics of the constructs. The results captured suggest that the data were normally distributed where skewness statistics for all scales fell within the prescribed ranges of -2 to +2 (-0.757 to -0.398), and kurtosis values fell between -3 to +3 (-0.660 to 0.262).

EFA was then undertaken, and the Bartlett test of Sphericity generated significant results ($p<0.01$). The KMO assessments yielded "marvellous" results (0.928) on the predictor's scale, while the mediating, attitude towards counterfeits and outcome, willingness to purchase scales pointed to the meritorious values of 0.892 and 0.838, respectively. Factor extraction took place and produced a five-factor structure (Table 4.5). Thereafter, correlation analysis was also performed to ascertain linear association among the study constructs. The correlations ranged from $r=0.144$ to $r=0.798$ to indicate significant positive associations between the research constructs.

To test hypotheses that were formulated for this study, two regression modules were estimated. Regression model 1 presents insight into the significance of two of the five hypotheses postulated at the beginning of this research, namely, utilitarian motivation and novelty-seeking towards and attitudes towards counterfeit products. In the second regression model, attitudes towards counterfeit products emerged as a significant predictor of one's willingness to purchase counterfeits. The chapter concludes with reliability and validity assessments of the measurement instrument and steps taken to address common method bias.

The next chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations emanating from the study.

CHAPTER 5:
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE STUDY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Counterfeiting is one of the growing economic crimes globally. It negatively threatens the economies of established and emerging countries alike and progressively endangers public health and safety (Perumal, S & Sapihan, 2017:77). Well known and famous products are often targeted to be counterfeited.

This chapter aims to provide a final analysis of the study. The chapter provides an overview of the study, and conclusions to each theoretical objective set for the study are reported upon. Further conclusions based on empirical objectives are discussed. The chapter also presents recommendations that can be adopted by researchers and marketers on those factors that have an influence on attitue towards counterfeits and students' willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear. Moreover, the chapter explores the contributions to the study. Finally. it outlines the limitations, suggestions for further studies, and overall conclusion of the study.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS BASED ON THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES

This section presents the conclusions based on the theoretical objectives developed for the study. The following theoretical research objectives were set for the study:

1) to provide a theoretical overview of the following variables: materialism, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation, personal gratification and novelty-seeking;
2) to provide a review of the literature on consumers' attitude toward counterfeit products; and
3) to conduct a literature review on consumers' willingness to purchase of counterfeit products.

5.2.1 Conclusions on the theoretical overview of the study variables: materialism, hedonic, utilitarian, personal gratification and novelty-seeking

The review of literature on the predictor variables was achieved in Section 2.5 of Chapter Two. These were reviewed in sub-sections 2.5.1 to 2.5.5, respectively. Regarding **materialism,** the literature indicated that it could be described as a compelling desire to own goods (Flynn *et al.* 2016:7640), and a value system that is preoccupied with possessions and the social image that consumers project (Bauer *et al.* 2011:516). Materialism is the importance a consumer attaches to worldly possessions, and these assume a central place in a person's life as they can provide a source of satisfaction. The literature review on **hedonic motivation** was highlighted, which relates to the multisensory, fantasy and emotive aspects of product usage experience (Hirschman & Holbrook 1982:92). Therefore, hedonically motivated consumers may rely on products to meet their desires and are often motivated by the fun, fantasy, social and emotional satisfaction elements when shopping. Additionally, these consumers may rely on a product to meet their needs for aesthetic impression, the symbol of associations and self-confidence. Hedonic motivated individuals find their intended pleasure and comfort from enjoyable and interesting shopping experiences. The literature review on **utilitarian behaviour** assumes that consumers are value-conscious and they purchase a product based on its functionality and economic benefits (Hendriana *et al.* 2013.63). The shopping value relates to the functional, instrumental and practical benefits of the shopping experience which is dominated by reasoning.

The literature review regarding **personal gratification** refers to the requirement for a sense of perfection and social perception and the desire to get the better things in life. The traits can also be linked to the need for a sense of accomplishment that has to do with social recognition and enjoyment of the finer things in life. Like all emotions, personal gratification is a motivator of behaviour and thus plays a role in the entire range of social systems. Consumers who seek accomplishment and a high level of social recognition may enjoy buying merchandise to achieve personal gratification. The theoretical overview of **novelty-seeking** demonstrates that uniqueness, newness and new experiences are central to them. This trait serves as a type of internal drive or motivating force that activates consumers for novel information on purchase decisions by trying out new products and services. Therefore, these consumers are more likely to be attracted to brands that claim to have novel features.

The literature review associates the above five predictors to personality traits that might have an influence on consumer's purchasing behaviour positively or negatively.

5.2.2 Conclusions on the review of the literature on consumers' attitudes toward counterfeit products

The literature review on consumers' attitudes towards counterfeit products was discussed in Section 2.5.6 of Chapter Two. Liao and Hsieh (2013:413) define attitude as an evaluation, such as psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular product with some degree of favour or disfavour. Therefore, an attitude can be used to predict an individual's intention of performing a specific behaviour, in this case, purchasing counterfeit sportswear products. Consumers who have knowledge about counterfeits may have favourable or unfavourable attitudes towards counterfeit products, depending on their dominating personality trait. When the attitude towards the counterfeit product is favourable, it is likely that consumers will buy counterfeit products; however, if the attitude towards counterfeit products is unfavourable, the consumers may not buy such products.

5.2.3 Conclusions on the literature review on consumers' willingness to purchases of counterfeit products

Section 2.5.7 of Chapter Two presented the review on consumers' willingness to purchases of counterfeit products. The willingness and readiness of an individual to buy certain products or services is defined as willingness to purchase (Ajzen 1991:181). Therefore, willingness to purchase represents a decision to act out a behaviour. This is in line with the Theory of Planned Behaviour, which presupposes that willingness to purchase is a good determinant of purchase behaviour, in which the purchase behaviour is in turn determined by attitudes.

5.3 EVALUATION BASED ON EMPIRICAL RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This section presents the empirical objectives together with the data analysis findings. A linkage between the empirical objectives and empirical findings was made. A set of empirical research objectives were formulated and outlined in Chapter One, Section 1.6.2 of this study in an attempt to address the research problem by collecting data. In light of this, a sample survey was conducted, and data were collected from students in view of testing the research model conceptualised in this study. The subsequent sections elaborate on how each of the empirical objectives were achieved in light of the sample data and the research findings.

5.3.1 To examine perception with regards to materialism, hedonic and utilitarian consumption motives, utilitarian consumption motives, personal gratification and novelty- seeking towards counterfeit sportswear

In order to achieve empirical objective one, the descriptive statistics were computed to establish the respondents' perceptions towards counterfeit sportswear with regards to materialism, hedonic, utilitarian, personal gratification and novelty-seeking towards attitude towards counterfeits. The mean scores were (Materialism = 3.462), Hedonic motivation = 3.551, Utilitarian motivation = 3.612, Personal gratification = 3.908 and Novelty-seeking = 3.254) all of which showed a neutral tendency towards counterfeit sportswear purchases. Students were non-committal towards materialism. These results were discussed in Section 4.4 of the study.

5.3.2 To assess perceptions of the attitude towards counterfeit sportswear purchases

To achieve empirical objective two, the descriptive statistics were run to assess respondents' perceptions towards counterfeit sportswear with regards to attitude towards counterfeits. These results were discussed in Section 4.4 of the study. The mean score for attitude towards counterfeits was 3.311. This mean implies that students' attitudes towards counterfeit sportswear was again neutral.

5.3.3 To explore perceptions of the willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear

To achieve empirical objective three, the descriptive statistics were performed to explore respondents' perceptions of the willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear with willingness to purchase as an outcome variable. The mean score for willingness to purchase = 3.285. These results were discussed in Section 4.4. of this study. This mean implies that students' willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear was inconclusive as the mean score was neutral.

5.3.4 To determine relationship between the various antecedents (materialism, hedonic consumption motives, utilitarian consumption motives, personal gratification and novelty-seeking) on attitudes towards the purchase of counterfeit sportswear

To achieve empirical objective four, correlation and regression analysis were conducted on all the independent variables towards the mediator variable in Sections 4.7 and 4.8 respectively.

Correlation analysis yielded a significant, yet weak positive association between materialism and attitude towards counterfeits ($r=0.155$; $p<0.05$), while regression analysis results showed an insignificant relationship between materialism and attitude towards counterfeits ($\beta=-0.033$; p-value=0.303, i. e. $p>0.05$). In the regression analysis, it is evident that there is no relationship between materialism and attitude towards counterfeits. Materialism, therefore, showed no predictive relationship towards attitude towards counterfeits among university students.

Furthermore, correlational analysis exhibited a significant positive association between hedonic motive and attitude towards counterfeits ($r=0.586$; $p<0.05$), while regression analysis results revealed hedonic motivation to be an insignificant predictor of attitude towards counterfeits ($\beta=0.051$; p-value=0.353, i. e. $p>0.05$). It is notable in the regression analysis, there is no predictive relationship between hedonic motive and attitude towards counterfeits.

Additionally, correlation analysis produced a significant association between utilitarian motive and attitude towards counterfeits ($r=0.586$; $p<0.05$). Moreover, regression analysis results exhibited that a positive relationship between utilitarian motive and attitude towards counterfeits exists ($\beta=0.179$; $t=3.461$; $p=0.001$). Thus, this study concludes that utilitatian motivation and attitude towards counterfeits are positively correlated. It further concludes that utilitarian motive exerts a positive predictive influence on attitude towards counterfeits among university students.

The correlation analysis results showed a weak positive association between personal gratification and attitude towards counterfeits ($r=0.255$; $p<0.05$) while regression results also showed an insignificant relationship between the two variables ($\beta=-0.038$; $t=-0.972$; p-value =0.332; i. e. $p> 0.05$). The study concludes that a weak positive correlation exists between personal gratification and attitude towards counterfeits, but there is no predictive relationship between these two factors when tested among university students.

The results of the correlation analysis revealed a significant strong positive association between novelty-seeking and attitude towards counterfeits ($r=0.694$; $p<0.05$). Regression analysis results showed a positive significant predictive relationship between novelty-seeking and attitude towards counterfeits ($\beta=0.671$; $t=15.129$; $p=0.000$). It is evident that students who are novelty seekers have a positive attitude towards consumption of sportswear counterfeits.

5.3.5 To establish the relationship between attitudes and their willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear

The results of the correlation matrix indicated a significant strong positive association between attitude towards counterfeits and willingness to purchase ($r=0.798$; $p<0.05$). Additionally, regression analysis results revealed a strong positive and significant predictive relationship between between attitude towards counterfeits and willingness to purchase ($\beta=0.798$; $t=23.868$; $p=0.000$). It is therefore concluded that positive attitudes towards the consumption of sportswear counterfeits create a propensity among university students to purchase counterfeits sportswear.

5.4 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The study investigates the factors that impact consumers' attitudes towards counterfeit products. It investigates the main motive of consumers' willingness to purchase counterfeit products. Regarding the theory, the significance of this study lies in the application of attitude-behaviour theories, in particular, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) put forward by Fishbein and Ajzen (1985:12) and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) which is an extended version of TRA (Moon et al., 2018.795). TPB was more applicable than the TRA as it is guided by considerations such as beliefs about the likely consequences and experiences associated with the behaviour (behavioural beliefs).

Another contribution to the literature made by the study was to confirm that utilitarian motive positively influences consumer attitudes towards purchasing counterfeit sportswear. The third contribution to the literature was that novelty-seeking students seem to have a positive attitude towards the consumption of counterfeit sportswear. The results of Albarq (2015:826); Haseeb and Mukhtar (2016:20) are also in line with this study where novelty-seeking was also found dominant in influencing consumers to purchase counterfeit products. A notable contribution to the literature made by the current study was to confirm that attitudes towards counterfeits have a direct and positive relationship with consumers' willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear.

The study also makes a contribution to academics, advertisers, producers of branded authentic sportswear and regulatory authorities by providing them with empirical evidence of the role of these constructs in predicting students' attitudes towards counterfeit purchases, more specifically students who are novelty seekers and those who seek utility value when purchasing such products.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

The empirical outcomes of the research were used to draw recommendations from the sample results. The recommendations are presented in the foregoing section.

Since noverlty-seeking and utilitarian motivation seem to predict a positive attitude towards counterfeit sportswear, it is recommended that brand owners should develop awareness about ethical purchasing behaviour and educate consumers on the social and economic downside of buying counterfeit products and that seeking novelty when purchasing counterfeit products may soon wane and wear off, leading to regret and cognitive dissonance. Further, brand marketers should also emphasise the utility value inherent in the purchase of authentic branded products as opposed to buying counterfeits.

Further, since consumer attitudes have been shown to influence students' intention to purchase counterfeits sportswear, brand managers and marketers of authentic products should develop marketing strategies and promotional campaigns to counter willingness to purchase of counterfeit products. Consumers often cannot readily distinguish between genuine and fake sportswear. It is therefore critical for marketers of branded products to promote the difference between originals and fakes and to underline the quality, longevity, and dependability of their authentic products in the market.

Moreover, manufacturers and brand advertisers of authentic brands could give more information about how to distinguish and identify their brand products against counterfeits, which could instil a sense of confidence among those consumers who bought the authentic products which could be easily distinguishable from consumers who bought fakes. The latter could provoke a feeling of shame to a consumer from possible peers who may be able to distinguish that the purchased product is, in fact, fake.

Counterfeiting impacts on legitimate businesses, causing loss of revenue, loss of brand trust, and values and ultimately loss of profits. The sales and purchase of counterfeit products in general harm the economy and legitimate businesses that sell genuine products. There will always be supply when there is a demand for counterfeits. Further, human behaviour is difficult to describe and whether they will refrain from counterfeit purchases is difficult to predict in the future. It is therefore recommended that both the government and marketers focus on attenuating the supply and demand side of counterfeits. Hence, there is a need to strengthen the enforcement of anti-counterfeit laws by the government. This will abate the supply side of counterfeit products entering the country.

In order to dilute the demand side of counterfeits, Thaichon and Quach (2016: 89) recommend the use of moral persuasion and celebrity endorsements in brand advertisements of authentic products. Further, Xi and Cheng (2017:22) also emphasised the importance of a positive purchase experience of authentic products as opposed to counterfeits that negate counterfeiting behaviour. This could be undertaken by rewarding through loyalty programmes and guarantees for consumers who buy genuine products. Further, moral persuasion could also be used by advertisers of genuine products to create awareness of the danger of buying counterfeit products. Further, manufacturers of sportswear products can utilise advertisements to engrain the mind-set of consumers that the purchase of counterfeit sportswear is an abominable act in public.

Manufacturers and marketers of genuine sportswear products may consider making original products more affordable through the introduction of brand extensions and target licensing. According to Ting, Goh and Isa (2016:227), this could be carried out in a way that does not dilute brand equity. This strategy proved to be successful for Calvin Klein when it extended the CK brand. The introduction of budget-friendly products that appeal to the lower-income and middle-class consumers could be an option to increase the customer base and lure them away from counterfeits.

5.6 LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study has a few limitations. It covered only counterfeit sportswear products. Moreover, findings are limited to students from one institution of higher learning. The results, therefore cannot be generalised across the whole categories of the consumer market at a national level, and must be viewed with caution. Only a few variables (materialism, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation, personal gratification, novelty-seeking, attitude towards counterfeits and willingness to purchase) were part of the study. Future research could therefore extend the study population and sample to consumers beyond university students to provinces with ports of entry such as Cape Town and Durban commonly used to ship counterfeit products. Further, other variables such as moral and ethical antecedents, lifestyle orientation, product quality, product involvement could be avenues for further research.

The study relied upon self-reported data to test the proposed conceptual framework. There is a possibility that some respondents may have inflated or understated the extent of their evaluations of the study variables and their counterfeiting behaviour. Further, a cross-sectional design was used and represented views in relation to a specific time period. Future studies could address this weakness by using data collection methods such as observation to reduce incidences of social desirability bias.

5.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In recent years the counterfeit sportswear industry has grown substantially and has been of interest to many researchers. Sportswear is not only confined to athletes and to those who work out in gymnasiums as it is visible and often worn as casualwear by many consumers, including students. Hence it is one of the more commonly imitated products in the casualwear market.

The study sought to generate some insights into counterfeit purchases among university students. Theoretically, this research provides findings to the present body of knowledge among university students on the influence of materialism, hedonic motivation, utilitarian motivation, personal gratification and novelty-seeking on attitude towards counterfeit products and its influence on willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear products among students at a selected HEI in Southern Gauteng. The research makes a valuable contribution to academics, brand managers, and marketers as the results reveal that consumer buying can be influenced by an individual’s personality and social interest. The study notes that laws only cannot prohibit the sale and purchase of counterfeit products. It requires the stricter implementation thereof. Further, there is a need for behavioural change strategies to counter the effects of counterfeiting. Nudges such as promotions and loyalty programmes may encourage the purchase of authentic products as opposed to the purchase of counterfeits. Overall, the study contributes to the current literature by focusing on counterfeit buying among students and offers suggestions to abate the purchase of counterfeits and opens up avenues for further research in this field.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

23 April 2020

RESEARCHER: Ms S.M Mahlangu
SUPERVISOR: Prof M Dhurup
PROJECT TITLE: ***Selected antecedents, attitudes and willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear products by students at a selected higher education institution***

Decision:Approvedl	**Ethics Reference Number: FRECMS-18032020-025**

Dear Ms S.M Mahlangu

Thank you for submitting the above-mentioned project for ethical consideration. The application was detailed and provided useful information. You may commence with your data collection. This clearance is valid for three years from the date of this letter.

Please also note the following:

The Ethics Reference number, as stated above, should be used in all correspondence regarding this research project.

As the primary researcher you undertake to:

- *Only follow the procedures for which approval has been given.*
- *Inform the Faculty Research Ethics Committee (FREC) of any significant deviations that may occur in the research project which directly influences what has been approved.*
- *Report any adverse events that might occur, within 14 days of the event, to the FREC. (Refer to the Ethical Guidelines as to what procedure you will need to follow in such an event).*
- *Submit annual progress reports to the FREC.*
- *Inform the FREC once the research project has reached completion and the findings have entered the public domain.*

The FREC would like to take this opportunity to wish you well with your research project.

Kind Regards

Dr FE Mahomed
Faculty Research Ethics Committee Chair
Faculty of Management Sciences

APPENDIX B: LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

Ethical Clearance No: FRECMS-18032020-025

Faculty of Management Sciences
Research conducted by
Ms Selinah Mahlangu
Cell: 0832392663
Work: 016 950 6878
Email: selinahma@vut.ac.za

Dear Respondent,

You are requested to participate in an academic research study conducted by Selinah Mahlangu, a Masters of Management student from the Department of Marketing at Vaal University of Technology. The purpose of the study is to gather information on attitudes and willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear products among university students. You have been chosen to participate in the study based on your background and instantaneous convenience to the researcher. I therefore believe that you will provide relevant information.

Please note the following:

1. This study will provide an anonymous survey. Your name will not appear on the questionnaire and the answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential. You cannot be identified in person based on the answers you give.
2. Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
3. Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than 20 minutes of your time.
4. The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.
5. Please contact my supervisors, Prof Roy Dhurup, royd@vut.ac.za or Prof Chengedzai Mafini, chengedzaim@vut.ac.za if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

You have an option of signing this letter to indicate that:

- You have read and understood the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

______________________________ ______________________

Respondent's signature (optional) Date

APPENDIX C: STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

SELECTED ANTECEDENTS, ATTITUDES AND WILLINGNESS TO PURCHASE COUNTERFEIT SPORTSWEAR PRODUCTS AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AT A SELECTED HEI

This study seeks to establish influencing factors, attitudes and consumers willing to purchase counterfeit sportswear. Please take some time to answer the questions honestly.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC AND GENERAL INFORMATION

In this section we would like to find out a little more about participants characteristics and some general information.

Please place a cross (x) in the appropriate block

A1	Your most preferred sportswear *(Please choose only one)*					
	Footwear	T-shirts	Jackets	Caps/hats	Pants	Other (specify) ………………………………

A2	Gender	Male	Female

A3	Age	Below 20 years	20-24 years	25-29 years	Over 29 years

A4	Ethnicity	African	White	Indian/Asian	Coloured

A5	Currently registered for	Diploma/Degree	Post graduate

A6	Please select the attribute that you perceive yourself to be	Modest	Not modest

A7	Please select the attribute that you perceive yourself to be	Sophisticated	Not sophisticated

A8	Please select the attribute that you perceive yourself to be	Fashionable	Not fashionable

SECTION B: STUDY CONSTRUCTS

Materialism

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 5 (Strongly agree). Your choice of a rating of 3, point towards a neutral response.

MAT1	I like a lot of luxury in my life	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
MAT2	Buying things gives me lots of pleasure	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
MAT3	My life would be better if I owned certain things I don't have	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
MAT4	I admire people who own expensive homes, cars and clothes	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
MAT5	I'd be happier if I could afford more things	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
MAT6	It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I cannot afford to buy all the things I like	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
MAT7	I like to own things that impress people	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
MAT9	It is true that money can buy happiness	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

Hedonic shopping attitude

The following statements are accompanied by bi-polar adjectives that describes your hedonic attitudes towards counterfeits. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 and 5. Your choice of a rating of 3, point towards a neutral response.

HED1	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	Pleasant
HED2	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Awful	1	2	3	4	5	Nice
HED3	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Not agreeable	1	2	3	4	5	Agreeable
HED4	Buying counterfeit sportswear makes me…	Sad	1	2	3	4	5	Happy
HED5	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Dull	1	2	3	4	5	Exciting
HED6	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Unenjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	Enjoyable
HED7	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Not fun	1	2	3	4	5	Fun

Utilitarian shopping attitude

The following statements are accompanied by bi-polar adjectives that describes your utilitarian attitudes towards counterfeits. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 and 5. Your choice of a rating of 3, point towards a neutral response.

UTL1	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Useless	1	2	3	4	5	Useful
UTL2	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Invaluable	1	2	3	4	5	Worthless
UTL3	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Harmful	1	2	3	4	5	Beneficial
UTL4	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Foolish	1	2	3	4	5	Wise
UTL5	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Not functional	1	2	3	4	5	Functional
UTL6	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Not handy	1	2	3	4	5	Handy
UTL7	I find buying counterfeit sportswear…	Not practical	1	2	3	4	5	Practical

Personal gratification

Please indicate how important the following aspects with regard to the purchase of counterfeit sportswear are to you by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (not at all important) and 5 (very important). Your choice of a rating of 3, point towards a neutral response.

PGT1	A comfortable life	Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
PGT2	An exciting life	Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
PGT3	A sense of accomplishment	Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
PGT4	A sense of pleasure	Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
PGT5	A sense of social recognition	Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
PGT6	A sense of appreciation	Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important
PGT7	A sense of exhilaration	Not at all important	1	2	3	4	5	Very important

Novelty-seeking

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 5 (Strongly agree). Your choice of a rating of 3, point towards a neutral response.

NOS1	I usually have counterfeit sportswear items of the newest style	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
NOS2	I keep my wardrobe up-to-date with changing fashions with counterfeit sportswear	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
NOS3	Fashionable, attractive styling is very important to me in the purchases of counterfeit sportswear	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
NOS4	To get variety, I often shop to seek different brands of counterfeit sportswear products	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
NOS5	It is often exiting to buy counterfeit sportswear	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
NOS6	It is often fun to buy counterfeit sportswear products	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

Attitude towards counterfeit

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 5 (Strongly agree). Your choice of a rating of 3, point towards a neutral response.

ATC1	Generally speaking, counterfeits have a satisfying quality	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC2	Generally speaking, counterfeits are practical	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC3	Generally speaking, counterfeits are reliable	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC4	Generally speaking, counterfeits is a better choice	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC5	For me buying counterfeits is virtue of thrift	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC6	For me buying counterfeits is convenient	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC7	For me buying counterfeits is wise	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC8	I feel a sense of pride when I purchase counterfeits	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC9	For me buying counterfeits is guiltless	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC10	I like shopping for counterfeits	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC11	Buying counterfeits generally benefits the consumer	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
ATC12	There is nothing wrong with buying counterfeits	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

Willingness to purchase

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree to these statements by encircling the corresponding number between 1 (Strongly disagree) and 5 (Strongly agree). Your choice of a rating of 3, point towards a neutral response.

WTP1	I will make an effort to buy counterfeits in the future	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
WTP2	I will plan to purchase any counterfeits in the future	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
WTP3	I will expect to purchase any counterfeits in the future	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
WTP4	I would consider buying counterfeit sporting goods in the future	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
WTP5	There is a high likelihood I would consider counterfeits when making a purchase	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
WTP6	Recommend the purchase of counterfeits sporting goods to family and friends	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

Thank you for your time and effort. Your responses are much appreciated

APPENDIX D: LETTER FROM THE LANGUAGE EDITOR

8 Belle Ombre Road

Tamboerskloof

Cape Town

8001.

12 August 2019.

LANGUAGE EDITING

This is to certify that I language-edited the dissertation, “Selected antecedents, attitudes and willingness to purchase counterfeit sportswear products among university students in South Gauteng” by Selinah Makamoho Mahlangu for the Master’s degree in Management, in the Faculty of Management Sciences, Vaal University of Technology.

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