Alternative Channels of Luxury Consumption by the Low-Income Segment

Olubayo Adekanmbi

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Faculty of Management

Bayes Business School

City University of London

London

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Abbreviations

ALCR – Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness

BLI – Brand Luxury Index

CP – Counterfeit Proneness

TBP – Theory of Planned Behaviour

UK – United Kingdom

US- United States

WEIRD - Western, educated, industrial, rich, and democratic countries.

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Olubayo Adekanmbi

Lagos, Nigeria

Abstract

Alternative luxury consumption refers to all forms of luxury access and usage that can substitute for the original luxury and this can be in the form of second-hand, rented and counterfeit luxury. For the low-income segment, the luxury concept is very fluid, hence the ease of transition between available alternative options. This segment easily transits between these three forms of alternative luxury channels to meet their self-defined goals. Therefore, while the three forms of luxury consumption may look different in practice, they share very important underlying similarities from the point of view of people from the low-income segment, who use them interchangeably to meet their personal needs and goals.

This alternative consumption behaviour presents a huge risk to the authentic luxury market as the massification of luxury through the growing alternative channels will continue to weaken the aspirational meaning of luxury. The original buyers of authentic luxury may find reasons to detach from luxury usage because it is no longer serving its exclusive value for social distinction.

Previous literature investigating alternative luxury consumption has focused on an isolated understanding of each of these alternative options to luxury consumption, thus leaving a gap of assessing individuals' readiness to partake in any kind of alternative luxury consumption from an integrated perspective. This study fills that gap by focusing on alternative luxury consumption in its holistic and unified manner using various theories as the basis, including Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 2001), the theory of goal-directed behaviours (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001), theory of goals systems (Kruglanski *et al.*, 2015), and the functional theory of attitudes (Kazu, 1960). It attempts to jointly understand what any of the three

alternative luxury access dimensions means to low-income groups and how this understanding can be useful in determining how best to de-risk the global authentic market.

The study aimed to investigate alternative luxury consumption in the young, low-income population of Nigeria. There are two parts to the study. The first part is qualitative and consisted of two focus groups from which I understood the main themes related to alternative luxury consumption from the low-income viewpoint. The second part consisted of theorizing, constructing and validating a construct, Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness (ALCR), as a measure of an individuals' readiness to use, promote and recommend any of the three forms of alternative luxury options. Furthermore, a theoretical model which placed ALCR as a mediator between the functions of attitude towards alternative luxury and alternative luxury consumption was tested.

Using various statistical analyses, it was determined that ALCR has great reliability and validity. In the model, four of the five attitude functions predicted ALCR, and that their relationship with alternative luxury consumption behaviour was mediated by ALCR. The utility function, which allows people from the low-income segment of a population to experiment, explore and enjoy luxury on their own terms, has the highest predictive ability of behaviour. Furthermore, ALCR was found as similar but distinct from other existing concepts in the luxury literature. Therefore, it was determined that ALCR is a reliable and valid instrument which may be used to assess alternative consumption readiness. The implications of these findings are also discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The Global Authentic and Alternative Luxury Market

The pursuit of luxury is as old as humankind (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009). Luxury is defined as 'anything that is desirable and more than necessary and ordinary' (Heine, 2012, p. 42). Luxury is associated with the consumption of products that, in line with the definition of luxury, are more 'refined' compared to other products of their category where this refinement can include (a combination of) their relatively high price, quality, aesthetics, extraordinariness, rarity, or symbolic meaning (Berry, 1994; Heine, 2012). Luxury is often seen as an expression of status but can also be seen as an expression of the self as it is associated with freedom, taste and even lifestyle and wellbeing (Gruzki, 2020; Nia & Zaichkowsky, 2000).

Whereas luxury used to be something for a small elite, socio-economic developments have changed this, making luxury part of the global market where also middle-income and even low-income households can decide to spend their money on certain luxury products (Gurzki, 2020). This is reflected in the sizes and orientation of luxury enterprises, that nowadays include multinational corporations, such as LVMH (Louis Vuitton Moët Hennessy, with among others, Christian Dior, Fendi and Givenchy) and Richemont (with brands such as A. Lange & Söhne, Azzedine Alaïa and Baume & Mercier) (Donzé, 2018). However, as luxury is defined in relative terms, a balance needs to be maintained for people to continue to see certain products and brands as luxurious (Heine, 2012). As larger groups of people own or use certain products, the experience of their luxury status can decrease, a reason why, for example, certain prices of luxury products continue to increase irrespective of their value in terms of material and production costs (Heine, 2012; Kiygi-Calli, 2018).

In this respect, the authentic luxury industry is facing a threat from the proliferation of different and alternative access to brands through the pervasive adoption of luxury in the forms of counterfeited, second-hand and rented luxury. This will be referred to as “alternative luxury” and is a phenomenon that has increased, especially among the low-income segment (Yildirim, Liu and Zhang, 2016). Alternative luxury provides mass entry to luxury brands at a relatively low cost, contrary to the economic and business principles on which the exclusive luxury industry is based. This situation is leading to a loss of aspirational feeling in terms of save-to-acquire luxury brands by the low-to-medium income segment (Kuscu, 2021). Additionally, original buyers of authentic luxury, who are in the high-income segment, may find reasons to detach from certain luxury usage because it is no longer serving the desire for exclusivity and social distinction (Lee, 2011; Amaral and Loken, 2016).

Intentionally seeking any of the three forms of alternative luxury is becoming more attractive as the traditional stigma of using alternative luxury options is fast fading, especially among low-to-medium income earners, and particularly among those of the millennial and later generations (Mittendorf, 2018). Instead of connotations with fake and poor, the concept is also considered as part of sustainability and equality (Mittendorf, 2018). This explains why second-hand and rented luxury have become the fastest-growing categories in the retail sector recently (Commetric, 2020).

In the United States alone, fashion rental is already well established, with leading companies in the sector, such as Rent the Runway, lending luxury designer dresses to women for special events. Following a new round of financing, this company is now valued at $1 billion on the strength of its potential to grow its subscription-based and peer-to-peer luxury rental services (The New York Times, 2019). Mainly driven by Generation Z consumers, who use the online market, the luxury second-hand market is worth $24 billion and is forecasted to exceed $40 billion by 2022, a growth rate four times faster than the traditional authentic luxury market (Luxe Digital). According to *Businesswire* (2020), the global online luxury rental market attained a value of US $1.26 billion in 2019 and it is expected to increase to US $2.08 billion by 2025, while the Global Brand Counterfeiting Report estimates that luxury brands lose around $30 billion worth of sales to counterfeits online (Early Metrics, 2020).

How Alternative Luxury Affects Nigeria's Authentic Luxury Market

This trend towards alternative luxury consumption is particularly disturbing for an industry that focuses on emerging markets as the next frontier for growth, with Africa and its largest economy (Nigeria) being an obvious example (Deloitte, 2014). Africa's luxury market has the second-fastest growth rate globally and the demand for luxury goods is expected to grow across the continent. Reasons for this include Africans loving everything foreign, accelerated urbanisation, digitalisation, and increasing affluence among the growing middle class (Bright and Hruby, 2015). In 2019, the African luxury market generated about US $6.0 billion in revenue, with the largest coming from South Africa, Kenya, Nigeria, Morocco, and Egypt (Heuritec, 2018).

The largest economy and the most populated country in Africa, Nigeria is expected to have the world's third highest number of people by 2050 (Adegoke, 2017) and has been identified as one of the major markets for luxury brands in the future (TFL, 2019). Luxury brand consumption is becoming an increasingly large part of Nigeria's gross domestic product, and this may be a reason why the Nigerian government recently increased the tax on luxury goods (UNDP Nigeria, 2019). Despite more than fifty per cent of its population being in the low-income category (Bloch *et al.*, 2015) the *Luxury and Retail Trends in Sub-Saharan Africa Report* categorises Nigeria as a high growth market, and this is reflected in some statistics related to luxury consumption. A Euromonitor report covering the period 2006-2011 indicated that Nigeria was the fastest-growing champagne market in the world and Nigerians account for 46 per cent of the total purchases by Africans of all tax-free luxury shopping in the United Kingdom (TFL, 2019).

Growth in alternative luxury provides consumers with more options to explore, potentially reducing demand for the original products, which translates into a financial loss for luxury brand owners (Czinkota and Ronkainen, 2003; Gorra, 2017). When the mass market has access to cheaper forms of luxury, it compromises the exclusivity concept of luxury brands (Commuri, 2009; Fournier, 1998). After all, it lowers the key characteristics of luxury brands: rarity (Phau and Predergast, 2000), exclusivity (Vigneron and Johnson, 1999), and expensiveness (Kapferer and Laurent, 2016). Thus, when luxury becomes affordable, accessible, and available to everyone, the meaning of luxury brands can become blurred (Kapferer and Laurent, 2016). This harms the positioning, relevance, and sense of uniqueness of authentic luxury brands (Commuri, 2009). This will lead to a significant dilution in the luxury brand meaning and desired positive association with it (Kuscu, 2021). Therefore, the growth and acceleration of alternative luxury in all its forms represent a very potent threat to the luxury market and those responsible to shareholders who invest in it.

It will be important for countries, including specifically Nigeria, that more research is carried out to understand alternative luxury consumption. After all, there are large economic interests involved and more indirectly the alternative luxury versus authentic luxury balance also associates with social issues, including power, status and equity (Ahmed *et al.,* 2019; Czinkota and Ronkainen, 2003; Gorra, 2017; Kapferer and Laurent, 2016). The pros and cons of both industries need to be more fully understood to make sensible decisions, where these decisions can also only be made once the psychology and motivations involved, particularly among low-income segments of a population, are understood (Ahmed *et al.,* 2019; Lee, 2011).

Changing Consumer Behaviour and Alternative Luxury

Growth in the adoption of alternative luxury brands and goods has been seen as a major change in consumer behaviour (Guzzetti, Crespi and Belvedere, 2021) and as a sort of a new normal (CPP Luxury, 2019). Research reveals that the rise of alternative luxury consumption is not just explained by decreasing stigma. Societal changes have caused the detachment of modern consumers from the traditional and generic understanding of luxury: consumers are more interested in access to luxury when they need them and are less focused on the value of ownership (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2017). This is described by Thomsen et al. (2020) as 'unconventional luxury', reflecting how rapid changes in how consumers access, use and experience luxury have resulted in a pattern very different from earlier convention.

Non-ownership luxury consumption behaviour has been described as "liquid consumption", which means customers can access what they want in a flexible, adaptable, light, and detached manner with speed (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2017). What is more, is that Dubois et al. (1994) described "Excursionists" who, in contrast to the "Excluded" (i.e., those who have no access to luxury) and the "elite" or the "Affluent" (who have access and are usually driven by a quest for secular immortality), desire occasional luxury consumption. For excursionists, luxury is not a part of their lifestyle, but instead something that is associated with special moments.

These forms of unconventional luxury presuppose that customers can access various brands under different situations on their own terms.

One obvious example of liquid consumption is to rent as it provides a temporal experience of the product. Vogel et al., (2019) showed that many Millennials (people born between 1981 and 1994/6) rely on rented luxury, with negative consequences on brand credibility and brand leadership, that impacted the brand equity matrix after rented luxury was offered as an access option. The concept of de-ownership orientation, to share or rent luxury through access-based and on-demand consumption, empowers consumers to enjoy the benefits of luxury without the demands of making a new purchase (Lindblom and Lindblom, 2017).

Counterfeit and second-hand luxury also provide possibilities that fit well with unconventional luxury. A counterfeit or second-hand luxury item provides an opportunity to explore the product before a future acquisition or a cheaper alternative that still provides some of the authentic experience of luxury – and might be more attractive if meant for occasional or single time use. Therefore, it is argued that "luxury" is becoming an even more relative concept (Aliyev *et al.*, 2019). Its fluidity and contemporary application mean it may no longer be limited to the established mindset of rarity, exclusiveness, premium prices, etc. (Yeoman, 2011). Its definition and meaning may depend on the subjective individual, cultural, or societal perceptions and constructions (Roper *et al.*, 2013). The real meaning of luxury may be constantly evolving and moving (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009).

Research gaps

While the existence of alternative luxury and its potential threat to the authentic luxury industry is acknowledged, the current understanding of the phenomenon is still limited. To fully grasp the increasing proliferation of alternative luxury and the overall negative impact on the authentic luxury industry, there is a need for an inclusive and integrated understanding of this consumer behaviour among low-income groups in a large and emerging market in Africa, such as Nigeria, the continent's largest economy. Due recognition is given to previous work that has provided a very rich and broad understanding of access channels to each of the three forms of alternative luxury consumption.

Examples for counterfeit luxury include Solomon and O'Brien,1991; Wee, Nia and Zaichkowsky, 2000; Veloutsou and Bian, 2008; Wilcox, Kim and Sen, 2009; Davidson, Nepomuceno and Laroche, 2019. Those for rented luxury include Durgee and O'Connor, 1995; Moeller and Wittkowski, 2010; Hwang and Griffiths, 2017; Vogel, Cook and Watchravesringkan, 2019, and for second-hand Guiot and Roux, 2010, Cervellon, Carey and Harms, 2012; Xu *et al.*, 2014; Turunen and Leipämaa-Leskinen, 2015; Sihvonen and Turunen, 2016; Kessous and Valette-Florence, 2019; Yuan, 2019).

The works cited have investigated each of the three strands in the isolation of the other two, meaning there is no current inclusive and holistic context model of alternative luxury consumption in the low-income segment of populations. This is particularly important because the just described body of research demonstrates that this segment uses all three forms of alternative luxury to meet their self-defined goals. As such, it seems that these consumer behaviours are shown by the same people, probably from the same underlying motives – even though they may look different in practice. In contrast with previous approaches the proposed alternative luxury consumption readiness (ALCR) construct in this study acknowledges and utilises this inter-changeability.

In addition, these three forms of alternative consumption behaviour are volitional and are thus explicable jointly as reasoned action or planned behaviour (Ajzen,1985). For example, counterfeiting has been reported as being goal-directed (Wu *et al.*, 2019). A careful evaluation of the body of research into the three alternative channels indicates that consumers make an intentional, logical, and reasoned decision to engage in alternative luxury consumption – there must necessarily be an individual conscious readiness and/or decision to engage in any alternative luxury consumption behaviour.

Based on the principles of the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), anyone will indulge in and continue to practice alternative luxury behaviour if they believe it will lead to specific expected outcomes, especially if they feel they have the necessary motivation, wherewithal, and opportunities to perform the behaviour far and above any constraints (Ajzen, 1985). If a low-income user believes he or she has a sufficient level of volitional control, mastery, opportunities, and the right supportive conditions, they are more likely to indulge in alternative luxury consumption behaviour, especially if they believe it is favourable (Ajzen, 1991; 2005).

A further gap in existing knowledge can be identified beyond the lack of an integrated approach. There is a missing link regarding goal activation, which is closely associated with the psychological needs that attitudes are used to serve. After all, people hold given attitudes about behaviours based on how they might contribute to obtaining their personal goals (Kruglanski *et al.*, 2015). As Kruglanski, Jasko, Babush and Pierro (2015, p. 598) explain, "for object-attitudes to drive a specific behaviour, a chain of contingencies must be realized: liking must be transmuted into wanting, wanting must evolve into a goal, the goal must be momentarily dominant, and the specific behaviour must be chosen as means of goal pursuit." If this primacy of goals is accepted, it means that even if attitudes towards a given object are strong and positive and even if the subjective norm and perceived behavioural control are sufficiently evident, they would not of themselves be predictive of behaviour because humans and their behaviour are motivated by goals.

In saying this, Kruglanski *et al.* (2015) emphasise that such a statement of the importance of goals does not make attitudes less relevant, but it does mean that a process leading to behaviour is linked together through a goal. To give an example of this: a person can think a certain design dress is beautiful, but this does not mean that this person will buy the dress. A positive attitude is only the evaluative part of a process. Only when a certain threshold of a positive attitude is reached with perceived attainability *and* the goal of obtaining the object is preferable to alternative potential goals, then will the behaviour occur. Thus, goals are a critical link in a chain that leads to behaviour. The proposed construct ALCR is based on this attitude-goal-behaviour tri-layer continuum.

Research aims and objectives.

The aim of this study is to develop an integrated understanding of the use of alternative luxury consumption among the low-income segment of the population of Nigeria. It seeks to explore a nuanced understanding of alternative luxury consumption beyond a singular and reductionist interpretation of the concept. In contrast with previous research, it not only seeks to avoid focusing on just one of the three forms of alternative luxury but also to avoid focusing on one or just a few of the factors that may influence individuals to indulge in alternative luxury. More specifically the objectives are:

- To study the alternative luxury concept and theories associated with it.

- To develop a measurement scale to assess the degree of individual inclination to alternative luxury consumption among the low-income segment.

Research questions

The following research questions are set:

1. What does alternative luxury consumption mean to the low-income segment?
2. Which of the different attitude functions is the best predictor of alternative luxury readiness?
3. How does each attitude function explain the alternative luxury behaviour?
4. Does alternative luxury readiness mediate the effect of the functions of attitude on alternative luxury behaviour?

1.7 Research contribution

There have been many standalone studies in the three areas of counterfeit, rented, and second-hand luxury consumption. While counterfeit has traditionally received the most significant research interest, the other two areas have become increasingly prominent and popular among consumers in recent years. Although various researchers have attempted to explain luxury consumption through various perspectives, a view of alternative luxury consumption that includes factors and motivations for behaviour across the three strands of alternative luxury remains outstanding. Fundamentally, an integrated framework that explains the inclination to use these various forms of alternative luxury consumption remains absent.

This study seeks to address this absence by investigating whether the three strands of alternative luxury share a holistic meaning, and whether this meaning can be conceptually approached as one superordinate construct in the low-income segment, even though the three access channels are materially different. The research also has practical value for future studies as it focuses on developing an overall scale. This scale should provide a way of measuring the degree to which a person from the low-income segment of a population is likely to indulge in any form of alternative luxury consumption.

A question that could be asked is why the work assumes that the low-income segment of the Nigerian population will primarily be the consumers of alternative luxury. There are several ways of answering this and one is the foundational principles of invidious distinction and pecuniary emulation as set out in the work of Veblen (2009). Affluent people will seek to distinguish themselves and the class they belong to by indulging in very expensive luxury items (invidious distinction) while the lower classes will seek to signal that they can be associated with those higher classes by purchasing some luxury items (pecuniary emulation). Alternative luxury in all three of the forms used in this work provide enhanced potential for pecuniary emulation among low-income segments but there are no reasons why it could be widely associated with invidious distinction among the higher classes. A scrutiny of the literature (see below – Chapter 2), furthermore, finds no evidence of widespread consumption of alternative luxury among high income groups.

A further question that may be asked is whether the findings of this study, and the ALCR construct that emerges from it, are transferable to other contexts. The study is focused on the young and low-income population of Nigeria and nuanced differences are found between studies concerning alternative luxury consumption undertaken in different cultural contexts, for example the extent of ethical concerns and the extent of the affordability gap for luxury between developing and developed countries (see below, for example sub-section 2.1.3). However, it can be asserted, as Veblen (2009) asserted, that the fundamental principles and motivations that drive the desire for invidious distinction and pecuniary emulation are universal, they can be identified across human history from the earliest periods and across all cultures. They represent human behaviour and in this respect, it is held that while the use of ALCR in different cultural contexts is likely to produce different results, the underlying drivers of the construct apply to any low-income segment anywhere in the world provided there is signalling by the rich (which there inevitably will be).

Nevertheless, it is important to consider differences based on culture and this forms an aspect of the following chapter. Unfortunately, no studies were found that addressed cultural nuances that may have an impact on a willingness to purchase alternative luxury among the low-income segment of the Nigerian population. It can be speculated that Nigerians may be strongly influenced by Western norms and values, which in turn can be framed as Western democratisation or even as a form of neo-colonialism. There could also be a connection with levels of corruption and its growing prevalence. Two studies that sought to address the issue of cross-cultural consumption of alternative luxury can be cited and one is by Tuncel (2021).

The effects of idealism, possession-based happiness and attitudes towards legality of counterfeits were researched in Turkey and Slovenia. Possession-based happiness was pronounced among Turkish consumers while idealism had a negative impact on attitudes towards legality in both countries. The second study, by Song, Meng, Chan, Lee and Tan (2021), considered social-adjustive attitudes between Anglo-American and Asian consumers in terms of how they perceived the dominance of counterfeit luxury. Counterfeit dominance had a more negative effect on the purchase intention of Anglo-Americans than on Asians. It would be misguided to base cultural assumption on two studies, with a total of 629 participants spread across four cultural contexts; nevertheless, it highlights the importance of gaining culturally nuanced insights and, for this study, this comes through focus groups.

From a theoretical perspective, this work may be seen as representing an important step that effectively takes the presently fragmented nature of the field to a different, more holistic, and integrated conceptual level. It accepts, as noted, that the three strands of alternative luxury are substantively different, but this does not mean that they should be treated as being conceptually diverse, especially in the low-income segment where the underlying motivations and drivers towards counterfeit, reuse and rental options of luxury might be shared. It should be noted that it is not suggested that these three strands are the only forms of alternative luxury, but by focusing on the most common forms that seem to be the largest threat to the authentic luxury industry, it can lay a foundation for further theoretical studies that explore other dimensions of alternative luxury.

Alternative luxury is growing at a much faster rate than traditional luxury, particularly in emerging markets and, as such, represents a considerable and potentially disruptive risk to that (traditional, authentic luxury) market (Guzzetti, Crespi and Belvedere, 2021). The development of ALCR could become an important tool in allowing brand managers to better understand this risk, the changes that are happening, and can develop informed strategies for dealing with the risk.

In summary, this research makes several contributions. By taking a generalized approach and including all three dimensions of alternative luxury, it moves beyond the currently fragmented nature of work in this field. It justifies an overlooked yet essential explanation for all forms of alternative luxury consumption behaviour through the lens of volitional, goal-directed and functional attitude-driven approach. At the construct building level, the proposed construct, ALCR, encompasses the building blocks for further knowledge progression on how the low-income indulge in luxury. Finally, the study provides not only the multidimensional nature of alternative luxury consumption but the interplay among three consumption channels. Current practice appears to grossly undermine the significance of commonalities in the consumption outcomes of luxury by the low-income segment. For this segment, the desired end goal is a critical rationale for indulgence; hence, a need to understand this process because of its significant symbolic value erosion of the mainstream luxury market in an emerging market, where the future growth of authentic luxury potentially lies.

1.8 Definition and justification of terms

Alternative luxury is conceptualised in terms of that which is acquired and consumed as traditional luxury, but which is an alternative choice based on price. In one sense second-hand and rented luxury, as genuine items, are distinct from that which is counterfeit. However, they are price-based alternatives to purchasing new and original items, and the same can be said of counterfeits.

Thus, rented luxury is defined as luxury that is rented because the individual cannot afford the original and it is meant for seasonal and specific usage to serve a desired goal.

Second-hand luxury is defined as luxury that was previously owned and whose acquisition is often motivated by lower prices. This segment does not include vintage luxury, which is considered to be authentic and rare.

Counterfeit luxury is defined as illegally made luxury products that resemble the genuine goods. but which are typically of lower quality in terms of performance, reliability and/or durability.

1.9 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis has six chapters. The first chapter provides an overview of the trends and managerial concerns in the global authentic and alternative luxury markets, highlighting the threats and challenges posed. It has discussed and analysed academic research concerned with alternative luxury from which gaps in knowledge were identified. It has been set out how these gaps resulted in the formulation research aims and questions that the current study will address, and why this can be seen as a contribution to the existing body of literature.

In Chapter 2, the literature review is presented, covering theory as well as a wide range of literature related to luxury and alternative luxury. Chapter 3 sets out the method used for the qualitative study (focus groups) and the development of the ALCR construct as well as the development of hypotheses. Chapter 4 is concerned with the quantitative (main) study, including the methodology supporting the methods used. Chapter 5 sets out the results as well as a comprehensive analysis of them. Chapter 6 discusses these findings in detail while Chapter 7 concludes the work. This final chapter considers the theoretical implications of the study, its managerial implications and provides thoughts on the study limitations and future research directions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review section attempts to critically review extant research on the three forms of alternative luxury consumption as well as understanding the antecedents, mediators, and consequences of an individual's inclination to indulge in any form of alternative luxury consumption. It also seeks to provide theoretical answers to the research gaps that were identified and propose an integrative approach to understanding this inclination among the low-income segment.

The chapter comprises two main sections: a critical review of prior research on the concepts of attitude, attitude to authentic luxury and attitude to alternative luxury through the functional theory of attitude and how these explain the various goals of alternative luxury users (*2.1 From Alternative Luxury Attitude to Alternative Luxury Behaviour*) and an extensive review of Alternative Luxury behaviour with specific reference to each of the 3 formats – counterfeit, rented and second-hand luxury, using the theory of planned behaviour *(2.2 Using the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) to explain Alternative Luxury Behaviour).*

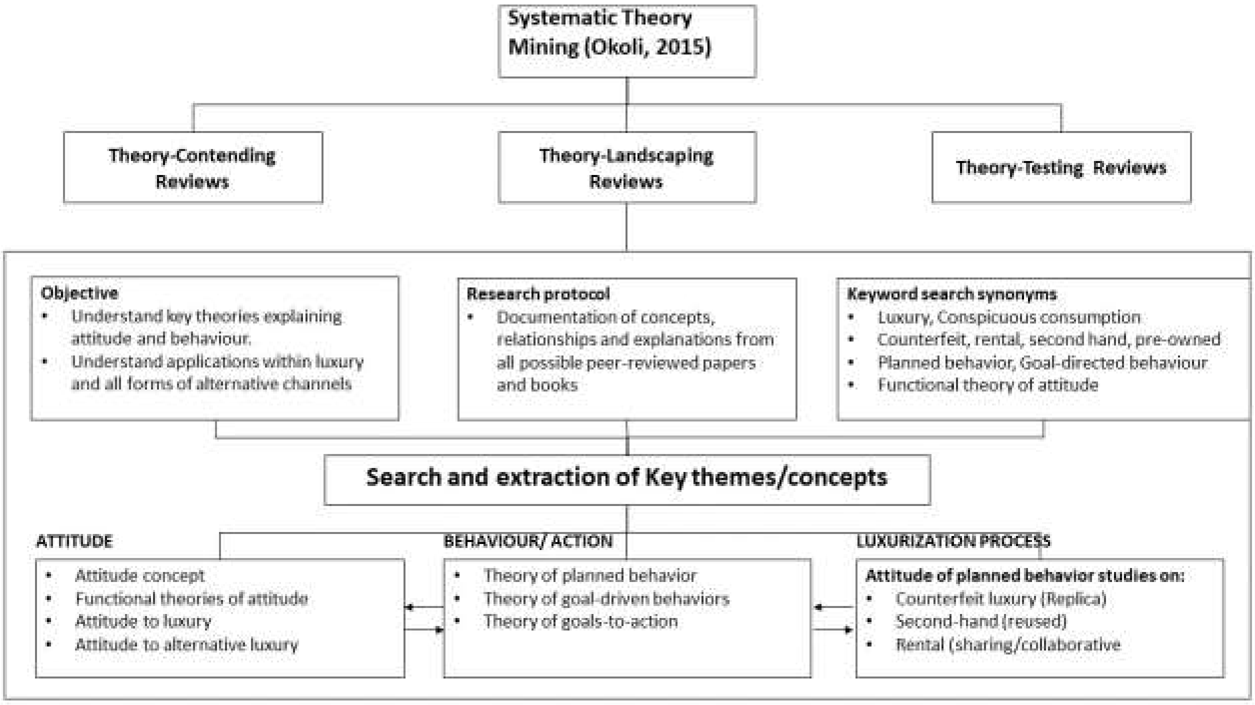
The purpose of this literature review is to build a theoretical model that explains the use of alternative luxury in its three forms (counterfeit, rented and second-hand luxury). For this purpose, it is relevant to construct a framework within which that explanation can be built. Such a framework is set out by Okoli (2015). This is about the development of theory through literature reviews and how relevant parts of primary studies can be extracted and synthesised for this purpose. The relevance to this work can be identified through a definition provided by Okoli (2015, p. 4), which is that theory "is an integrated collection of explanations about the relationships between one or more pairs of concepts that represent real-world phenomena under specified conditions."

A minimum requirement for what is termed a theory mining (landscaping) review is that theoretical concepts must be extracted, with other aspects (such as relationships) being optional and contingent on the needs of a study. Although systematic reviews of literature are often held as being the most objective and even desirable approach, this is not, according to Okoli (2015), necessary for a theory landscaping review as the focus is on specific concepts rather than on a wider research scope. Such a review includes the extraction and synthesising of theoretical concepts, empirical support where it exists, and explanations for the phenomena described.

In extracting relevant articles and other forms of literature, the three stages described by Okoli (2015) have been followed, as visualized in Figure 1.1. The first of these is a protocol, which identifies and specifies the theoretical concepts and relationships of interest. The second is a description of the approach used to synthesise the data extracted. The third and final step is the actual extraction of data, which are undertaken in the sections that follow.

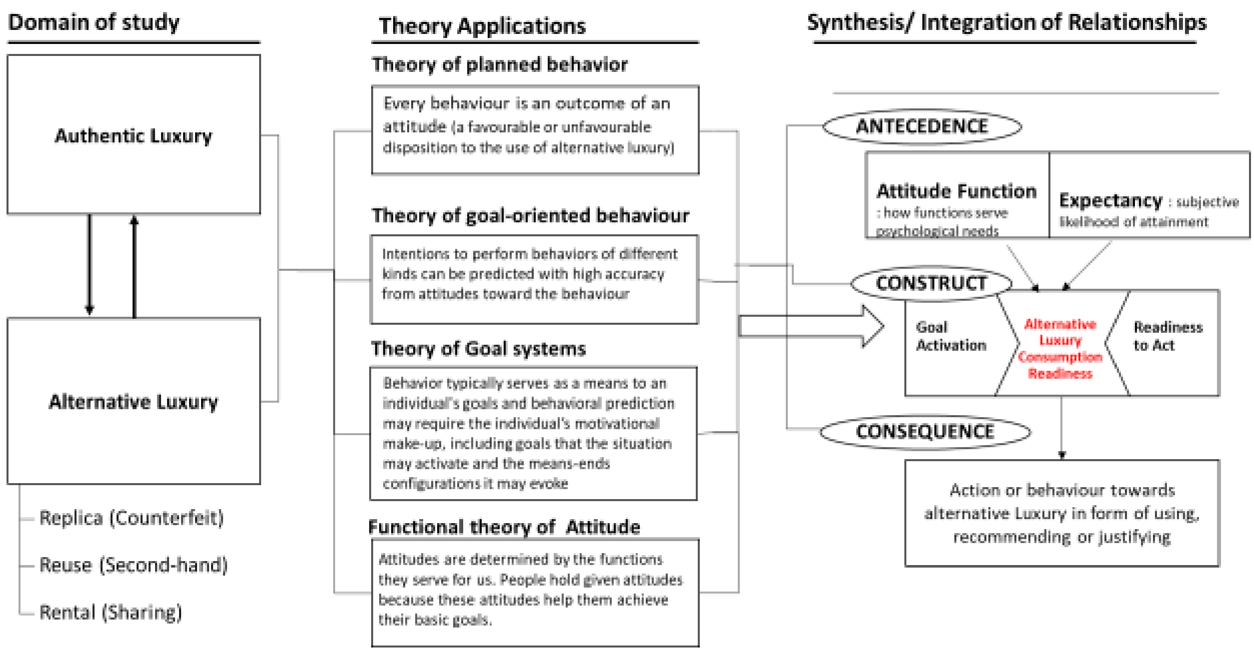
An important point made in this regard is an awareness of boundary conditions, or the who, where and when of the theory. As explained, the theoretical model is meant to be representative of the lower income segment. It is specific for the Nigerian context, although the international research base was used to inform the model and as the purpose is to derive a scale, it will be possible for other researchers to test how contextual the theory is. Furthermore, the theory is clearly set in the current time, as explained in the Introduction. In line with this, the most recent literature (2018+) was found to be most relevant with respect to the findings on authentic luxury (while older literature was used to inform the theoretical framework and to understand the development of the concept).

Figure 1.1.
Literature Synthesis Approach Using the Okoli Framework (2015)



Commensurate with Okoli (2015), the review focuses on four theories (planned behaviour, goal-directed behaviours, goals as systematic causes of action, expectancy theory and the functional theory of attitude) but these must be presented and justified in terms of the wider field, including the three forms of alternative luxury identified (counterfeit, rented and second-hand luxury). Fundamentally, the four theories cannot be presented in isolation of a wider literature perspective as this provides necessary support and justification for the construct. This is aligned with Okoli (2015) and a landscaping approach that synthesizes insights from the literature by finding relevant concepts and their relationships and explanations, as depicted in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2.
Literature Synthesis of the Various Theories and Applications



The study covers various contexts and concepts within the broad scope of 'luxury' and 'alternative luxury'. Therefore, the inclusion criteria for the literature to be reviewed were comprehensive, whereas the exclusion criteria were less apparent. Indeed, exclusion came once the inclusion criteria had been applied during a process that decided what was relevant. The inclusion criteria integrated attitude, luxury (attitude to luxury) alternative luxury (attitude to alternative luxury), behaviour (how attitude leads to behaviour), and how different types of attitude function inform behaviour related to the use, promotion, or justification of alternative luxury usage.

Exclusion criteria involves anything not related to these fields of study or that is considered too outdated (in line with the described boundary conditions). In addition, the exclusion criteria include anything that relates to populations excessively different from the current focus in the cultural and/or socio-economic sense. This decision is dependent on the topic and available literature, since the overwhelming body of literature on this topic relate to “WEIRD” populations: Western, educated, industrial, rich and democratic (Muthukrishna *et al.,* 2020). Moreover, empirical data on (alternative) luxury consumption of WEIRD populations is incomparable with low-income segments of Nigeria. However, WEIRD research was still included as a way to better theories of human behaviour and to consider all socio-cultural differences.

The present study used a cross-disciplinary approach—allowing for more flexibility in the time periods and their corresponding relevance. While some boundary conditions for luxury and alternative luxury (particularly the latter) included outdated literature, some conditions were amended for literature the four theories (functional theory of attitude, theory of planned behaviour, theory of goal-oriented behaviour and theory of goal systems). This was done because most of these theories were developed at an earlier period, yet remain relevant today.

As indicated, the review follows steps that are consistent with the literature related to the four theories. Functions of attitude and planned behaviour are major theories that receive considerable attention in both the theoretical and practical applications of alternative luxury empirical research. When it comes to goal-directed behaviours and goals as systematic causes of action, there is less attention in the scholarly literature. As a result, steps taken here include a discussion and a critical evaluation of functions of attitude and planned behaviour along with a presentation and discussion of two further theories (goal-directed behaviours and goals as systematic causes of action).

Alternative Luxury Attitudes

This section seeks to understand alternative luxury attitudes, as this was defined as a core component of the antecedent of alternative luxury behaviour.

2.1.1 Understanding attitude

The concept of attitude was first used by Jung (2016 [1923]) in his authoritative work on psychological types and particularly concerning introversion compared with extraversion. He indicated that attitude described the readiness of an individual to respond to situations in certain ways and that this would depend on the way in which the subject was psychologically oriented. Interest in the concept has grown so much since then that it has become “a major focus of theory and research in the social and behavioural sciences” (Ajzen, 2001, p. 28). In fact, Fabrigar, MacDonald, and Wegener (2018) suggest that it is one of the most influential constructs in social psychology. The construct is nowadays used in a much wider sense than Jung’s first definition and can refer to all subjective judgments (Fabrigar, MacDonald, and Wegener, 2018).

As such, attitudes are thought to permeate most, if not all human situations and interactions to a greater or lesser degree (Fabrigar, MacDonald, and Wegener, 2018). This is reflected in its measurement. Traditionally, attitude was measured in terms of its valence (both positive and negative) and its relative extremity. Later studies have focused on and measured the different sources (cognitive, behavioural or affect) and functions of attitudes and the level of information on which they are based (Fabrigar *et al.*, 2018). Interest in connections between attitudes and other psychological constructs and processes has added to a further understanding of the structure of attitudes (Fabrigar *et al.*, 2018, p. 109).

However, while the importance of such an understanding is generally acknowledged, the elements of the structure of attitude and the relative importance of these is somewhat contested. The elements that are considered include knowledge linked with an attitude, the range of knowledge structures associated with it, the strength of such links and the strength of associated knowledge and their patterns (e.g., see Krosnick *et al.,* 1993 for some early reflections on this topic). A further and more general distinction in attitude conceptualizations is also sometimes made between structure relating to a single attitude (intra-attitudinal) and a structure that consists of multiple attitudes (inter-attitudinal) (Fabrigar *et al.*, 2018). An implication that can be made from these more comprehensive depictions of attitude is that they are stored and enduring, that they exist in a permanent and stable fashion, and can be drawn on by a subject from memory with relative ease.

While it may be an exaggeration to suggest two competing views, an alternative to the most commonly held belief (that attitude is a relatively enduring and stable construct) is that attitudes are temporary structures and are created at the time when a person needs to make a judgement – "when prompted to express their attitudes, people consider readily available information and integrate this information into an overall attitudinal judgement" (Fabrigar *et al.*, 2018, p. 110). This alternative view is proposed at varying levels, for example being contingent on the permanency and stability of a person's evaluative processes on one hand to most if not all attitudes being constructed at the time when an evaluation is needed on the other.

It is argued by this researcher that such a view is flawed because it makes the (unexplained) assumption that people will not store evaluations for attitude when they do store them for other purposes. Based on this and supported by work such as that by Albarracin and Shavitt (2017) (who conducted a comprehensive review of relevant research and literature over an eight-year period), the view taken in this study supports the permanency or relative stability of attitude. Such a critical stance and rejection of the alternative view (that attitudes are temporary) nevertheless acknowledges that on occasion the existing structure of attitude may be updated and amended as new information is stored in memory.

A quite common scholarly approach to attitude is to assume its importance and centrality to social psychology without explaining why it is so important (Greenwald, 1989). This can be critically viewed as being a flaw in some of the relevant literature, at least in terms of this study. It is argued that such an explanation is useful and even necessary for this work as it can be related to alternative luxury and the challenge it poses. An attitude object has been described as virtually anything which is tangible or intangible.

Beliefs regarding an object will be formed by alignment with its perceived attributes, with an attitude towards it being “determined by the subjective values of the object’s attributes in interaction with the strength of the associations” (Ajzen, 2001, p. 30); however, individuals are “more likely to notice objects for which they have a well-defined attitude” and this will “influence the stimuli that individuals notice in their environment” (Haddock and Mayo, 2017, p. 2). The relationship between attitude and behaviour becomes clearer when it is noted that the former is relatable to direct experiences a person has with the attitude object. This, it is posited, is analogous to how Individuals experience the consumption of luxury in society and in the social environment they inhabit.

The notion of self and identity as it relates to attitude formation within a social context was emphasised by Smith and Hogg (2008), who pointed out that attention in the field of attitude in more modern times is almost always concentrated on the individual and on individuality. What is missing is the fact that “our attitudes are rarely idiosyncratic – more often than not they are grounded in the groups we belong to, and they serve to define and proclaim who we are in terms of our relationships to others who are members of the same or different group” (Smith and Hogg, 2008, p. 337). While people are individually focused, this focus and our attitudes along with it are moulded onto social groupings and these attachments are the ways in which individuals define their individual selves. Therefore, attitudes should not be seen as being separate from social identity but should rather be seen as an integral part of it.

This social context of attitudes can be clearly applied to alternative luxury. Social groups and relevant others define who a person is and a group association with alternative luxury provides that person with an identity in society (Ruan, Xu and Lee, 2022). A positive valence and evaluation of luxury that are found within the group satisfy three motivations for attitude, which are understanding realities as they exist in the experienced world, attaining a favourable self-concept and making a favourable impression on others (Smith and Hogg, 2008). This argument can be emphasised by applying it in a broader societal context, where the notion of agency as opposed to social identity becomes even less convincing. Bourdieu (1990, p. 55) introduced the notion of habitus, which he conceptualised as “a socially constituted system of dispositions that orient thoughts, perceptions, expressions, and actions.” This socially constructed identity is internalised by an individual as habitus; thus, an individual identity is formed and shaped socially, and effectively is a social identity. This individual/social identity has the potential to be profoundly shaped by luxury consumption (Pandelaere and Shrum, 2020).

This leads to another area of study brought to attention by Riemer *et al.*, (2014) and this is the cultural context. Research in the field of attitude has been dominated by Western scholars and by Western philosophies; indeed, it is argued that the tendency towards the individual and the internalising of attitude is a mark of Western societies and cultures as they are more individualistic compared with those of other parts of the world, which are more collectivist, as highlighted in the work of researchers such as Hofstede (2003) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997). Thus, there is a dominant theoretical viewpoint that "is rooted in pervasive sociocultural assumptions about the centrality and desirability of personal preferences" that does not take account of cultural and social influences (Riemer *et al.*, 2014, p. 620).

One way of conceptualising the broad cultural difference between individualism versus collectivism and other variations is in terms of meta-norms (that determine enforcement of norms in terms of reward and punishment). If the meta-norm is more inclined to follow the values and beliefs of social groupings rather than individually held ones, attitudes will be relatively more inclined towards and formed by group norms (Eriksson *et al.,* 2021). Thus, the previous points made concerning social groupings, identity and habitus are probably deeper and more entrenched in many non-Western cultures and societies. It is held that from this it follows that the points made concerning alternative luxury will have even more relevance in these contexts.

A further concept of attitude strongly relatable to luxury attitudes, is self-esteem. Three areas where an individual will seek to establish and maintain self-esteem are identified by Greenwald (1989a) and these are the private, the public and the collective self. The private-self gains worth by achieving internally set standards of evaluation; the public-self gains it by positive evaluations from important others and the collective-self gains it by attaining goals established by reference groups. These aspects of attitude object are distinctly relatable to alternative luxury, that can be a form of satisfying private needs, appreciation from others, or group acceptance (Hennigs et al., 2012).

Furthermore, a somewhat different view that is also connected to self-worth is taken by Albarracin and Shavitt (2017), which identifies the person, the social and the historical. In contrast with Greenwald (1989a) the holistic rather than the individual and separated nature of these is emphasised, with a conjoined influence on attitude and changes in attitude over time. The relative influence of these contexts will, according to Albarracin and Shavitt (2017), vary over time and life cycle period as well as being crystallised in memory, on-the-spot evaluations, or a mixture of the two. This varying influence (Albarracin and Shavitt, 2017) resonates with attitude as it is experienced and is commensurate with a permanency that over time may be updated and amended, as noted, and discussed earlier in this section. It also resonates with luxury and alternative luxury, for example, regarding generational differences identified in attitudes towards them.

Whereas all these above thoughts and findings certainly increase our understanding of attitudes, a clear definition is yet to be provided, as well as an answer to the question of how it can be measured. Based on then extant literature, Gawronski (2007) pointed out that attitude had been conceptualised in different ways when seeking to measure it; however, three points emerged from a review of studies, that are still relevant. One is that an ‘umbrella’ definition that an attitude is a “psychological tendency expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour” can be generally acceptable (Gawronski, 2007, p. 575, citing Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). This definition is still used by researchers of the attitude concept (e.g., see Johnson, Martinez-Berman and Curley, 2022). The second is that attitudes are formulated in memory in terms of object-evaluations (Albarracín *et al.,* 2018) and the third is that the potentially most significant aspect in gaining an understanding of social behaviour are evaluative responses, which become a reflection of attitude (Albarracín *et al.,* 2018; Johnson, Martinez-Berman and Curley, 2022).

Albarracin *et al.* (2005) also reviewed the work of many scholars and one of their conclusions was that directly experiencing an attitude object is a clear and obvious way in which attitudes are formed and subsequently developed. It also clearly increases the chances that an attitude will be motivated when the attitude object is further encountered. Alberracin *et al.* (2005) further introduced desires as a motivational component, defined as: “a conduit through which attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control work through” (Alberracin *et al.*, 2005, p. 55). Adding this component (motivation through desire) provides a potentially powerful dimension in attitudes towards alternative luxury, a motivation to defend and sustain engagement with it, coming closer to the threshold to reach actual behaviour as was explained in 1.4 (Kruglanski *et al.*, 2015).

Attention was drawn by Zunick, Teeny, and Fazio (2017) to a commonly held belief among theorists that attitudes are multi-functional and that apart from those that are obvious (such as object appraisal) these functions include some that are concerned with the concept of the self and identity. This is important in terms of this work and can be related to a previous discussion concerning self and identity (see earlier this section). The concept can be supported by examples of attitudes that are most probably indicative of something that communicates a message for the self as well as to the social world a person inhabits. A positive valence towards a political party or movement, to a specific sports team and to a brand of clothing are obvious such examples. Also included in the self-defining concept is not just a projection of who a person is and how they want to be seen by relevant others but also what their future aspirations are. As the relevant literature (for example Heine, 2012; Kapferer and Michaut, 2016; Yeoman, 2011) indicates, such self-defining contexts are very prevalent in attitudes towards luxury and alternative luxury.

2.1.2 Existing studies on attitude to luxury

In looking at the existing studies on attitude to luxury, an important starting point is a question addressed by Dubois, Czellar, and Laurent (2005). This concerns the extent to which differences in attitude can be identified between consumers and whether these differences can be generalised into different segments within the luxury space. In empirical research across 20 countries within a western cultural context, Dubois, Czellar, and Laurent (2005) identified three such segments and these are elitist, democratic and distant. The democratic segment most aligned with alternative luxury believes that luxury is positive and should be accessible to all classes in society and should even be mass produced and sold in supermarkets. They are open-minded, believing there should be no barriers, either tangible (price) or intangible (attaining a certain level of sophistication and education).

In contrast, the attitude of the elitist group of consumers is one of refinement, of having achieved a higher education than other groups, believing that luxury should therefore be very expensive and exclusive, should not be mass produced and certainly should not be sold in supermarkets. In contrast, people in the third, distant, segment do not associate themselves with luxury, it is unattractive to them, and they do not see it in terms of dreams or of beautifying the world. It is a generally negative view, one that sees luxury as being of little use and being over-expensive. This disinterest means that, for this group, a copy (alternative luxury) is as valuable as the original. Although in this respect, the distant group can be associated with alternative luxury, they are different from the other groups for whom the buying of (alternative) luxury forms a desire.

The study by Dubois, Czellar, and Laurent (2005), with reason, emphasised that it was conducted in a western cultural context. It is, therefore, uncertain whether these three attitude segments are identifiable in any cultural context. Further, the study analysed how people cluster on items tapping into three different aspects of attitudes towards luxury: knowledge, affect and behaviour. Yet, the differences between the three segments were not found on the scale level, but on the item level, with certain items being rated rather similar and others discriminating the segments. For example, in all three segments, luxury was considered to be hedonic (pleasurable) and symbolic (associated with who we are).

An earlier study by the same authors explored attitudes in far more detail through interviews with participants (Dubois, Czellar, and Laurent, 2001). They found that attitudes are ambivalent and complex, with contrasting and conflicting feelings and evaluations often existing in the mind of the same person. Binary (like/dislike) attitudes to non-luxury items are not so apparent when it comes to luxury, with the same person valuing and even treasuring a luxury purchase while at the same time harbouring negative feelings that are deeply felt about the process and even the morality of the concept of luxury. For example, one of their participants described “I can see them, appreciate them, I like them. It’s one side of the equation, plus I use them. The other side, it’s that they are after all linked with snobbery, capitalism, a lot of money, too much money, arrogance …” (Dubois, Czellar, and Laurent, 2001, p.26). It is important to emphasise that this ambivalence is not captured by a categorisation of people into the segments. As such, the categorisation can be useful for simplification and may help in likelihood estimations of consumer behaviour, but these estimations will be imperfect predictors of individual behaviour.

What is more, is that Stegemann, Denize and Miller (2007) investigated the reliability and validity of the scale and found several problems with the instrument. Most importantly, they found that the underlying dimensionality of the items were not in line with the assumed affective, cognitive, and behavioural aspects. There was ambiguity on the aspect certain items reflected. For example, “A fine replica of a luxury brand is just as good” was intended to reflect the cognitive aspect, but expert judges classified it as affective. Stegemann, Denize and Miller (2007) further argued that many items were not well-aligned with the luxury concept, and that if only those that indeed unambiguously measured luxury would be used, some of the important object classifications of luxury attitudes would not be measured. The six object classifications they suggested were the personal classifications of self-extension and hedonism, and the non-personal classifications of quality, uniqueness and conspicuousness: following the definition of luxury.

Yim *et al.*, (2014) did not see these aspects and classifications as defining attitudes to luxury. Instead, they emphasised the importance of conspicuousness together with visibility as predictors of attitudes to luxury, which they more specifically measured as evaluation of luxury brands. The authors sought to understand why Asian consumers have a greater interest in luxury products and services. Yim *et al.* (2014, p. 364) theorised, that “there is a sequential relationship leading from cultural characteristics to interpersonal influence to consumer attitudes toward luxury brands.” This was tested through a comparative study involving two groups of students, one from the UK and the other from Taiwan. It was found that the more collectivist the cultural orientation of an individual is, the more important interpersonal influences are in their consumption of luxury.

Findings such as these about cultural impact add weight to a belief that results from studies conducted in one cultural context should not be generalised to others. Indeed, it can be further posited that levels of economic development, living standards as well as cultural context are further dimensions supporting the importance of studies conducted within one nation, as this current one is.

Finally, it is worth noting that consumer attitudes can be affected by age and gender, although not many studies have focused on these demographics. In this respect, Ajitha and Sivakumar (2019) asked a research question relevant for the current study, that is “Does age and gender significantly moderate the relationships that lead to attitudes towards new luxury brands?” The findings showed that these characteristics moderated some results, finding for example that self-monitoring significantly affected value-expressive attitudes of males but not of females. Furthermore, the relationship between a need for uniqueness and social-adjustive attitudes was significantly stronger for men and older age groups (Ajitha and Sivakumar, 2019, p. 452). The relative importance of gender is an added dimension to be explored and age differences support the belief that permanent attitudes amend and develop over time, as discussed previously in this section.

The importance of age and age-related attitudes towards the consumption of luxury was also the subject of a study by Gil *et al.*, (2012), in this case concerning Brazilian teenagers, an age group for whom identify development and social relations are considered as being of high importance. The primary purpose of the study was to better understand self-perceptions among this age group concerning luxury brands and how these individual perceptions may influence motivation towards the social consumption of luxury. The study found that perceptions of the self were relevant and important in the ways teenagers responded to social pressure from peers to purchase luxury items. When the self-perceptions were “clear, confidently defined, internally consistent, and stable” there was a greater inclination to resist such pressure because “the clearer they are about themselves, the less they attend to external sources and stimuli” (Gil *et al.*, 2012, p. 1431).

A further finding was that an orientation towards materialism was also an important factor that motivated adolescents in the age group 12 to 19 towards the purchase of luxury items. This study can be related to the theoretical concepts reviewed in the previous sub-section of this chapter, specifically concerning self and social identity. It not only provides empirical support for arguments made but also adds layers of complexity, which is appropriate when human consciousness and human behaviour are concerned.

2.1.3 Existing studies on attitude to alternative luxury – Counterfeit, second-hand and rented luxury

This part of the literature explores various factors identified with respect of attitude to the various types of alternative luxury expressions. The work of de Matos, Ituassu, and Rossi (2007) identified five potential predictors of attitude towards counterfeit luxury, being price/quality in relation to original, risk aversion, risk friendliness, integrity, and personal gratification. The perception of risk was found to be the most important factor in determining favourable or unfavourable attitudes (adverse consequences resulting from the purchase). This was followed by whether a person had previously bought counterfeit luxury, resulting in more positive attitudes. Thereafter followed the subjective norm, with more positive attitudes if participants perceived the approval of friends and relatives. To a lesser extent, attitudes were negatively affected by values of honesty and responsibility and positively affected by accomplishment seeking. A “high price – high-quality” association showed a weaker, positive effect on attitude, showing how important it is to clearly operationalize constructs. Although the authors had assumed that people would translate this to the price difference in authentic versus counterfeit products, they later realized that the participants could have thought it was about the prices within the category of counterfeits. The cultural context for this study was Brazil and the population sample was 400 consumers at a local market.

Matos, Ituassu, and Rossi, (2007) only focused on personal factors while Viot, Le Roux, and Kramer (2014) examined whether considerations of societal economic factors also played a part in attitudes to counterfeit products. The work found that societal factors are not of significant importance while individual motivators are crucial, and individual deterrents have a weaker, negative effect. This implies that if stakeholders want to decrease the purchase of counterfeit products, they probably should best focus on convincing individuals of the higher quality of the authentic products. They will achieve less by mentioning potential negative effects on, for example, the macro-economic risk. The work of Viot et al. (2014) consisted of four studies (n=52; n=226; n=338; n-327) and was conducted among students and non-student adults in France.

These findings of Viot, Le Roux and Kramer (2014) help understand the finding of Matos, Ituassu, and Rossi (2007) that integrity values were only of limited value in understanding attitudes to counterfeit luxury. After all, for part of the people, these values may not actually be connected to the buying of counterfeit products at all, and for some may be connected to this in the opposite direction. This relates to the democratic attitude towards luxury, where one might condemn it when it is only available to an elite. A Canadian study with 400 online survey participants showed that the intention to buy counterfeit products was greater if people reported "Schadenfreude" (pleasure about another's misfortune; the thought that they deserve it) in response to being presented with a scenario of a retailer selling non-deceptive fake Louis Vuitton products at low prices (Marticotte and Arcand, 2017).

Yet, these moral reasons are probably not the most important motivators of counterfeit luxury attitudes for the low-income segment in a developing country, if considered at all. As indicated by a study of Bhatia (2018), conducted in Mumbai and with 382 survey respondents, comparing the high and low-income segments in India, affordability seems to play a significant role for people in the low-income segment. This study showed that, whereas both groups' attitudes are equally affected by materialism and social influence, the low-income groups are more brand and value conscious than the higher income group. This makes their attitude to counterfeit more positive. They also experience less risk, which further contributes to their more positive attitudes. As the authors explain, Indian customers do not consider the counterfeit market illegal, and for this low-income segment, it is an available and realistic group of products that carries the same function of displaying wealth to peers, where authentic luxury products are simply out of reach.

This was found to be different in transitional European countries, as shown by Vida (2007) in a study undertaken in Slovenia. The results of research based on 223 convenience sampled consumer participants found that although somewhat product-dependent, overall ideas that counterfeiting was illegal and a form of piracy, as well as the potential consequences of being discovered, were negatively associated with attitudes. A meta-analysis by Eisend, Hartmann and Apaolaza (2017), which used 610 effect sizes from 98 studies, showed that this pattern is explained by a difference between developed and developing countries. In developed countries, risk tolerance and reduced integrity determine attitudes about and willingness to buy counterfeit purchases. In developing countries, attitudes and intentions to counterfeits are instead positively driven by status seeking, which is linked to positive brand signals for consumer identities. As such, in developed countries, the negative identity connotation is more prominent, and in developing countries, the positive identity connotation is more prominent.

However, this rough classification cannot be extended to the entire population of a country. For example, Teah and Phau (2008) explained that in Singapore, for lower socio-economical segments, social acceptance of counterfeit products might be high because the authentic alternatives are out of reach. In their quantitative study among 300 postgraduate university students, it was found that this kind of social influence contributed to more motivation to buy counterfeit products. Moreover, a qualitative study with a focus group of 8 participants by Titus and Ethiraj (2012) found that gender caused differences among individuals. Their study consisted of focus groups held with students from a university in Bangalore. It was confirmed that attitudes to consume counterfeit products were predominantly affected by peer pressure, social acceptance, and cost benefits (Titus and Ethiraj, 2012). They also found that women used counterfeit products more than men and that was because there were more counterfeit products available in the categories of products that are frequently used by women, and these were not easily discriminated from the originals.

Further, it should be noted that the distinction is not a black-and-white one. For example, Abdullah and Yu (2019) studied attitudes to counterfeit luxury among

Yemeni students in China through a questionnaire administered to 300 participants, which should fit the developing country model. They indeed found, among other things, that social factors positively influenced brand image. Moreover, they found that a positive brand image was associated with more positive attitudes, which can be explained by the point that for most students the counterfeit version was the only realistic option for luxury consumption. However, they also found that of the negative influences on attitude, integrity was the most influential, more than price-quality perception. This shows that it is possible for the negative and positive identity connotation to exist simultaneously.

This might be explained by the impact of ethical ideologies and cultural values. Chaudhry and Stumpf (2011) studied attitudes to complicity in the consumption of luxury products from this perspective in the United States and Brazil. Information was collected from an unstated number of consumers and included the idealism versus rationalism ideology and the cultural value of collectivism. Idealism can be defined as the pursuit of some sort of moral purity and relativism as a belief that perceptions are not universal but are related to contexts such as those that are cultural, societal, and historical. Collectivism was defined in terms of sharing and compliance. The study found that both idealism and relativism were positively related to ethical concerns about the use of counterfeit luxury. In contrast, a positive relationship was found between both collectivism and hedonism complicity in the consumption of luxury products. Ethics was also explored by Kollmannova (2012) in a review of a database focused on nations in Central Europe and with data for the specific case of Slovakia. The study demonstrated that, even though there were indeed ethical concerns, less than 10% strictly denied they would ever buy a counterfeit product. These studies together show the complexity and context-bound nature of the antecedents of attitudes.

Another example of the contextual factor is the context of China. As the fastest growing market for luxury while at the same time having a burgeoning counterfeit industry, China is an important place where the question can be asked whether counterfeiting is a friend or foe. One argument suggests that counterfeits are damaging to the reputation of luxury brands and therefore negatively impinge on their profitability, while another is that counterfeits contribute towards brand awareness, thereby increasing demand for them. This was studied by Wang and Song (2013) using a snowballing sampling method that resulted in 655 completed survey instruments. It was found that overall, the Chinese participants agreed that counterfeit products decrease the value of authentic luxury. Nevertheless, even with this awareness of the potential devaluation of luxury brands, consumers purchased counterfeits, with the lower price being the most important reason.

In comparison with counterfeits, there are relatively few studies concerned with attitudes to second-hand alternative luxury. One is from Markova and Bayanduuren (2017), who suggested that the consumption of second-hand luxury in the United States should not be seen as providing affordable access to luxury fashion items but as an indication of being “an outlet of conscious consumerism in the modern society because it signifies recycling and reuse of clothing;” it is about sustainability and something that provides “alternative solutions to existing consumption practices” (Markova and Bayanduuren, 2017, p. 1). Survey results from 263 participants, however, at least partly contradicted this – only 30% of study participants had considered the environment in adopting this behaviour and 39% stated they never considered it when doing any fashion shopping. The majority said they did it for hedonic reasons (they found it pleasurable) even when they did not find the exact items they were seeking. A further finding was that the more people indulged in second-hand luxury fashion shopping the more they wanted to do it more often, leading to a conclusion that “one of the biggest reasons as to why consumers used to shop for second-hand items was due to its low cost” (Markova and Bayanduuren, 2017, p. 2).

The understanding that consumers develop positive attitudes towards second-hand luxury primarily for hedonic and self-interested reasons was confirmed in a qualitative study where 22 Finnish participants were interviewed (Turunen and Pöyry, 2019). It was also found that price-quality was an important aspect of attitudes towards buying, including the argument that second-hand luxury products can be an investment, but did not mention the argument of sustainability. Gosselin (2019) further suggested the growing significance of the industry segment goes beyond sustainability and cost.

Second-hand luxury is, for example, meant to be durable and this is particularly attractive to millennials, with the growth of accessibility through online platforms having consistently improved the levels of service and products they can offer. This is also true for the option to rent a luxury. An example of this is the already mentioned ‘Rent the Runway’ company that has an unlimited subscription offer where an individual can rent four items each month for a subscription of $139 (Gosselin, 2019). Furthermore, while luxury brands were initially hostile to the second-hand and rental services, some have now started to introduce them in their offline stores. This allows them to promote sustainability while at the same time making their products available to a much wider and typically youthful market without compromising their brand value or losing profits.

Attitudes about rented luxury have received even less attention. Some studies have shown that similar factors found for counterfeit and second-hand products (e.g., hedonistic benefits, uniqueness and social norms) are associated with attitudes or motivation to rent luxury (Pantano and Stylos, 2020, who analysed data from online tweets using hashtag Rent the Runway; Ruan, Xu and Lee, 2022, who conducted their study in the US using data collected from an online survey with 359 participants). Moreover, the sustainability argument has received a lot of attention and is indeed associated with more positive attitudes (e.g., Borg, Mont, and Schoonover, 2020; Pantano and Stylos, 2020). One study also showed how attitudes to renting luxury are very much in line with the larger positive attitude of young people to collaborative consumption, such as Uber and Airbnb (Rebiazina and Zbandut, 2020). Yet, these studies have been conducted in developed countries. It can be assumed that for developing countries and the low-income segments, renting is mostly another option to experience luxury that is otherwise too expensive.

The economic argument is also found in developing countries (e.g., Ruan, Xu and Lee, 2022), but what is also referred to as "the Cinderella moment" can be even more relevant for those who otherwise cannot afford luxury (Pantano and Stylos, 2020). Some further studies that have included factors beyond attitude (i.e., purchase intentions and/or behaviours) will be discussed in 2.2.4 after the broader theoretical framework for these variables has been described.

2.1.4 Functional theory of attitude

The concept of the functional theory of attitude was originally introduced by Daniel Katz. At the centre of his argument, Katz (1960) held that attitudes are created to serve goals and that they are based on the functions they serve for an individual. Although there may be more than one function providing a motivational basis for holding an attitude, one is probably predominant over the others. The extent to which a dominant function motivates an attitude will vary between people and it may vary even when two people have the same level of attitudinal valence towards an object.

For instance, the luxury of a car might motivate a positive attitude to that car for one person because it is more reliable and safer than other cars, while for another person it may motivate a positive attitude because it is perceived as assisting in image enhancement (Carpenter, Boster, and Andrews, 2013). A main goal of the work of Katz was to define the functions of attitude as a way of making persuasive appeals more effective. After all, if such an appeal could be targeted at the main function an attitude served for an individual, it would be more likely to further cement the positivity felt towards an object by that person (Carpenter, Boster, and Andrews, 2013).

At the core of the functional theory of attitude is the fact that attitudes are strategies for meeting individual needs that are deep-seated. Functional theory indicates that people hold attitudes because of the psychological benefits gained; they assist them in achieving their goals and desires. In terms of alternative luxury, individuals will justify and rationalise their indulgence in it based on the functional role it plays. Fundamentally, functional theory allows us to “avoid the great error of oversimplification—the error of attributing a single cause to given types of attitudes” and to understand that “the same attitude can have a different motivational basis in different people” (Katz, 1960. p. 167). This is an important point, and it emphasises one made in previous sub-sections from the work of Gil *et al.* (2012) in 2.1.2 and later again in 2.1.3 – there will always be levels of complexity when human consciousness and human behaviour are concerned.

Katz initially identified four functions of attitude, and this was subsequently increased to five. These are explained by Carpenter *et al.* (2013):

- Utilitarian – perceived as improving the life of an individual in practical ways, for example in providing safety and security or saving money.
- Social-adjustive – enhances an ability to interact with a preferred social group, to make a favourable impression on others.
- Value-expressive – to remain within certain values as defined by the self, for example to buy and consume products and services aligned with being environmentally friendly.
- Ego-defensive – to address feelings of self-esteem, for example purchasing a luxury product that signals a desired status the individual has failed to achieve.
- Knowledge – a desire to know and understand the world for unspecified reasons that may just be the need to know.

The potential importance of the functions of attitude can be implied from various research works concerned with their structure. The structure of attitudes is discussed at length by Fabrigar, MacDonald and Wegener (2018), including tri-partite and neo tri-partite theory. Tri-partite theory is concerned with the nature of information associated with attitude and three components, which are affective, cognitive and behavioural; as we also saw reflected in the instrument developed by Dubois, Czellar, and Laurent (2001). The first (affective) is the feelings associated with an attitude object, the second (cognitive) concerns the beliefs a person has concerning the object and the third (behavioural) relates to the responses to it. While tripartite theory traditionally holds that attitudes are structured by these components, neo-tripartite theory holds that they are related to them, with attitude as a separate construct, one that is “a general evaluative summary of the information derived from these bases” (Fabrigar *et al.*, 2018, p. 112). In either case, the importance of functions is clear – they will be associated with knowledge in all the components, and this will be a strong determinant of whether an attitude object will be positively or negatively evaluated.

The multiplicity of functions served by attitudes can potentially be identified when seen through the theory described by Katz (1960) because it is concerned with the motivations that lie behind attitudes. It avoids the mistakes implicit in any generalisation, suggesting that attitudes are held based on the psychological benefits they can provide (Lutz, 1978). For example, “expressive attitudes are aroused by cues associated with personal values and the self-image and can be changed by seeing new or modified beliefs as appropriate to the self-image” (Katz, 1960, p. 163). Nevertheless, it is important to emphasise that the psychological needs of each person will differ, and it is therefore necessary that the events and objects confronted in the environment a person resides in must be evaluated. This process of appraisal is one of three functions of attitude described by Smith, Bruner and White (1956, p. 41) – “the holding of an attitude provides a ready aid in ‘sizing up’ objects and events in the environment from the point of view of one’s major interests and going concerns.” This function can be aligned with the adjustive, and the knowledge functions set out by Katz (1960). The adjustive function is where positive attitudes towards an object are developed and the knowledge function is where “standards or frames of reference for understanding the world” are created (Katz, 1960, p. 175).

It can be noted that while Katz (1960) and Smith *et al.* (1956) were working within the same time, they were independent of each other and had different research aims and goals, albeit that they arrived at functions with clear similarities. Smith *et al.* (1956) were working towards an understanding of the connections between personality and attitudes while Katz (1960) was interested in how persuasive appeals could be made more compelling and useful. The fact that Smith *et al.* (1956) and Katz (1960) identified similar functions of attitude despite working separately and with different aims speaks to the potential veracity of the subsequent and generally accepted five functions of attitude. Although it must be acknowledged that difficulties were encountered in their empirical testing, Herek (1986) suggested that methodological weaknesses in research may have contributed to the undeserved relative lack of attention given to functional theory as it was developed by Smith *et al.* and Katz. Moreover, an assumption was previously made that personality traits would be predictive of attitudes, tied two dimensions together when that need not necessarily be the case (Herek, 1986).

These points led Herek (1986) to a neo-functional theory of attitude. This, it is proposed, does not depart from many propositions that came from the work of Smith *et al.* and Katz, such as appraisals of the object and of the object in relation to the self (evaluations), but it moves away from associations between personality and attitude and towards the characteristics that determine variations of attitudes. Three larger types of characteristics are identified. First, a person’s characteristics, which are overall stable and reflect orientations towards the world and values held in it that are based on psychological needs. The second are domain characteristics, where the context in which an object is perceived can affect the attitude towards it, for example within the general domain of COVID-19 different attitudes that are positive or negative may be held, such as whether children should continue to attend school or whether everyone should be compelled to wear a face mask.

The third are situational characteristics, such as the time and place when an object is evaluated, the setting within which it occurs, events preceding the event, the perceived consequences, and the presence of others and who they are in relation to the person. By seeing attitudes in this way and as being related to the psychological needs they address (rather than linking them to personality traits), Herek (1986) shows that attitudes have multiple functions and that the influences of different contexts can have a moderating influence on them. The implication that can be drawn from this is that it is useful to measure relationships among attitude functions. This is important for this work and provides a justification for attitude as an antecedent of ALCR rather than, for instance, focusing purely on personality or some other trait.

Smith *et al.* (1956) identified two dimensions of appraisal, one concerned with appraising an object or event in relation to the environment and to the needs and goals of self (object appraisal, knowledge and instrumental), while the other is concerned with the self in relation to how one wants to be perceived by others (self-adjustive and externalisation). With regard to the former, Wendorf and Firestone (2004) contend that while there is some differentiation between the three former constructs, they overlap sufficiently to be conceptualised as the *experiential/instrumental function*. The latter two can be coalesced into the *symbolic function*, albeit with three sub-divisions, which are the public facet (the show of attitudes that referent others will find agreeable), the collective facet (self-value is gained by working towards goals and objectives of important reference groups) and the "private facet of the self," where an individual "earns self-regard by meeting or exceeding the internalized criteria of success” (Wendorf and Firestone, 2004, p. 2). Theories related to the five functions of attitudes are synthesised below in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1.
Synthesis of Theories Related to the Five Functions of Attitude

	Smith et al. (1956)	**Katz (1960)**	**Herek (1986)**	**Eagly and Chaiken (1998)**	**Sheth et al. (1991)**
Functional	Object Appraisal	Instrumental, Adjustive, Utilitarian	Evaluative*		Functional Value
Epistemic	Object Appraisal	Knowledge Function		Utilitarian or Instrumental	Epistemic Value
Emotional/ Symbolic		Value-Expressive	Expressive	Value Expressive	Emotional Value
Psychological	Externalization	Ego-Defensive	Expressive	Defensive Function	Conditional Value
Social Functioning		Social-Adjustive	Expressive	Social Adjustive	Social Value
* *(experiential + specific) and (experiential + schematic)*					

2.1.5 Section summary

The section begins with an outline of attitude and the interest that it has developed since it was first conceptualised by Jung in 1923. It has become a major concept in the field of behavioural and social sciences, which is less than surprising as it is a central antecedent of behaviour. Reflecting the complexity of human consciousness and behaviour, it has moved considerably beyond an original perception of being relatively positive or negative – to defining further properties, although these have been debated and contested over time. One contestation is whether attitudes are permanent and enduring or temporary and situational. A consideration of the arguments and their rationality led to a position taken in this study where attitudes are permanent and relatively stable but on occasion the existing structure of attitude may be updated and amended as new information is stored in memory.

The notion of accepting the importance of attitude without explaining it was rejected and this led to a discussion and critical evaluation of this importance. It was noted that an attitude object can be virtually anything that is tangible or intangible and will be determined by the subjective values of the attributes of the object in interaction with the strength of the associations. Then, the relative importance of individual agency compared with social identity was evaluated. Using Bourdieu's theory of habitus, it was proposed that attitudes should not be seen as being separate from social identity and social identity theory but should, rather, be seen as an integral part of it. Social identity, it was further argued, is of particular importance in terms of alternative luxury as it satisfies three attitudinal motivations (understanding realities as they exist in the experienced world, attaining a favourable self-concept and making a favourable impression on others).

The cultural context and its relative importance in studying luxury and alternative luxury were then considered. It was found that the tendency towards the individual and the internalising of attitude is a mark of Western societies and cultures as they are more individualistic compared with those of other parts of the world, which are more collectivist. Therefore, group and social identity are probably of even greater importance in these cultural contexts. The section then moved towards self-esteem, which is strongly relatable to luxury and to two contrasting views that place emphasis on the holistic (that is a conjoined influence on attitude and changes in attitude over time) and the individual, respectively. While both have credence, it is proposed that the former has more, particularly to a perspective that sees it as changing over a life cycle.

Further dimensions of attitude are memory (encountering an attitude object again will reinforce positive or negative attitudes towards it) and motivation through desires. It was found that if these are applied to alternative luxury, its appearance will represent luxury per se and, assuming congruence and a positive valence, will motivate an automatic and favourable attitude response. The notions of self and self-identity were then revisited, and examples were given of attitudes that are most likely to be indicative of something that communicates a message for the self as well as to the social world a person inhabits. It was commented that such self-defining contexts are very prevalent in attitudes towards luxury and alternative luxury.

Attention then turned to studies related to attitude and luxury and a range of approaches and research findings were discussed and critically evaluated. Relevant aspects considered include the extent to which differences in attitude can be identified between consumers and whether these differences can be generalised into different segments within the luxury space. It was explained that a binary approach to attitudes should be rejected because contrasting and conflicting feelings and evaluations often exist in the mind of the same person. It was discussed how a study using tri-partite theory (affective, cognitive, and behavioural) was later challenged, and a newer model further divided attitudes into the personal and the non-personal. Besides this further exploration of the concept, relevant factors leading to different findings were discussed. This included the description of several studies conducted in different cultural contexts, as well as the demographic factors.

Attention then turned to studies on attitude related to alternative luxury (including counterfeit, rented and second-hand luxury). A striking feature from this part of the section is the extent to which findings not only disagreed, but in some cases even had opposite findings with respect to counterfeit luxury. A closer scrutiny of the studies in terms of validity led to the conjecture that in general terms, the negative identity connotation of counterfeit luxury was more prominent in developed countries and the positive identity connotation was more prominent in developing countries. Again, however, such a simplified model would not do justice to the complexity of attitudes, that were also found to be affected by income, gender, values, and context.

Very few relevant studies were found that researched rented and second-hand luxury. To a certain extent, it was found to represent conscious consumerism in the modern society because it signifies smart spending, luxury experimentation and sustainability. However, the study findings also showed clear hedonic and price reasons. It was argued that these are probably even more relevant for developing countries and people with low incomes. More research in the low-income segment in developing countries and a more holistic model will be necessary.

The final part of this section is concerned with the functional theory of attitude. Based mainly on the work of Katz, several important points and arguments were made: attitudes are made to create goals (antecedents), one function of attitude is probably predominant over others (which will vary between people), they assist people in achieving their goals and functional theory overcomes the error of over-simplification. Another important theoretical source was the work of Smith and others, and it was noted that their work and the work of Katz had very different aims; therefore, the fact that both came to broadly the same definitions of the five functions of attitude endorses the credibility of these functions.

The three components of tri-partite theory (affective, cognitive, and behavioural) were discussed, along with neo-tripartite theory. It was explained that tri-partite theory emphasises the component structure of attitude, while neo tri-partite theory holds that they are related to attitude, but that attitude is a separate construct. It was emphasised that in contrast with contestations and debates in other areas, the five functions of attitude (utilitarian, social-adjustive, value-expressive, ego-defensive, and epistemic) are a settled concept. However, they have been extended and developed, with tri-partite and neo tri-partite theory being examples. Another example was neo-functional theory, which focuses on the characteristics that determine attitude, being person characteristics (stable orientations towards the world and values held in it, based on psychological needs), domain characteristics (the context in which an object is perceived) and situational characteristics (the setting in terms of time and place). A further dimension of attitude is appraisal, where an object may be appraised in terms of the environment and needs of the self, and of one's self in relation to how one wants to be perceived by others.

This section of the chapter covered a broad range of areas, but all have relevance to the topic. It can be recalled that the ALCR construct, in contrast with other constructs and with much of the research carried out in the field of alternative luxury, seeks to include all three dimensions (counterfeit, rented and second-hand luxury). This is based on an argument that all are potential and interchangeable choices for consumers in the low-income segment of a population. Supporting this argument entails a review of existing studies as well as an evaluation of relevant theories. The functional theory of attitude is central to the construct (and to the argument), and this necessitated a consideration of attitude as well as the functional theory. However, this could not be at the exclusion of other concepts and theories because to do so would be to seek to over-simplify the complexities of the human mind and human behaviour. Thus, factors such as self-identity, subjective norm, agency, habitus, appraisal of the self in relation to others, personality traits etc. all must be contextualised within an attitudinal and functional frame. This frame, in turn, must be contextualised in relation to other dimensions of the ALCR construct.

Using the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) to explain Alternative Luxury behaviour with specific reference to each of the 3 formats – counterfeit, rented and second-hand luxury.

A reason why the concept of attitude has been “the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American social psychology” (Kruglanski *et al.*, 2015, p. 598, citing Allport, 1935) is the assumption that attitudes are predictive of behaviour. However, while the attitude-behaviour link has never been seriously rejected, research has increasingly shown that the one (attitude) does not necessarily lead to the other (behaviour) (Ajzen, 1991; Madden, Ellen, and Ajzen, 1992; Perugini and Bagozzi; Kruglanski *et al.* (2015). This section will describe more complete models that help understand alternative luxury behaviour, including attitude, but also other determinants.

2.2.1 Theory of planned behaviour

A core question with regard to alternative luxury is why it is being sought. A starting point in addressing this is to emphasise that the consumption of alternative luxury is a deliberate and planned action. It is an intentional behaviour, which requires high levels of involvement. It is goal-oriented and results from a process that requires analysis. Intentions immediately precede actual behaviour, and these intentions are based on the already discussed attitudes, but also on a belief that undertaking the behaviour will lead to a given outcome. The intentions are, therefore, also influenced by individual subjective norms (Madden, Ellen, and Ajzen, 1992) and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991).

Behavioural control is the extent to which a person believes they have the means to control the undertaking of the behaviour, for example whether they have sufficient time, money, can gain the cooperation of others, etc. Factors such as personality trait and other dispositions will also have an aggregated bearing on behaviour, but these are, according to Ajzen (1991), considered to be poor at predicting behaviour in given situations. As Ajzen (1991) suggested, this means that attitude, perceived behavioural control, and subjective norms, significantly account for variances in behaviour and can be predicted with relatively high levels of accuracy.

2.2.2 Theory of goal-directed behaviours

This claim (of relative predictive accuracy) has been empirically tested and found, given certain conditions, to hold some truth (Ajzen, 1991). However, with an approach described as both theories broadening and theory deepening, Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) built on the theory of planned behaviour by introducing and arguing for the role of desires and anticipated emotions in goal-directed behaviours. Their model of purposive behaviour is based on a belief that desires "are the proximal causes of intentions, and the traditional antecedents in the TPB work through desires;" furthermore, "perceived consequences of goal achievement and goal failure are modelled as anticipated emotions, which also function as determinants of desires" (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001, p. 79). In research conducted among university students Perugini and Bagozzi found that the effects of attitudes, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms were indeed mediated by desires, which also predicated the effects of emotions with regard to intentions. Although not the subject of a wider-ranging literature or body of research, this theory and its implications warrant its inclusion as a relevant dimension to be taken account of in the ALCR construct.

2.2.3 Theory of goals systematic courses of action

Further, from the functional theory of attitudes, the role of goals should also be investigated for a comprehensive model. As already argued, the motivation for attitudes is connected to goals. However, the relationship between attitudes and goals can be weak or distant. For example, one can feel positive about the luxury car, as it aligns with certain goals, but this does not have to result in a real desire to obtain the goal and the behaviour of buying. Kruglanski *et al.* (2015) argued that even a strongly positive attitude towards an object will not of itself lead to action. For a goal to be the driver of attitude and subsequent action, many conditions must be met. It must be at a certain level of desirability and must be achievable through behavioural actions.

It must also be dominant over alternative courses of action in a given situation, but if it crosses these thresholds, it becomes the “proverbial ‘elephant in the room,’ the missing link whose explicit recognition promises to cast a new light upon the attitude-behaviour enigma” (Kruglanski *et al.*, 2015, p. 599). In terms of being achievable, a point can be made about alternative luxury and the dynamic nature of conspicuous consumption in society, where forces such as globalisation, commodification and digitisation not only encourage the creation of a luxury society but also make it achievable for many more people, including those in the low-income segment.

As Kruglanski *et al.* (2015) pointed out, studies have shown that a combination of high desirability and attainability produces a perception that seeking to attain a goal is a rational outcome. Seeking desirable and attainable goals can operate subconsciously, but even then, people still show behaviour that follows a rational pattern (e.g., choosing the option that best fits their goals). This, along with some further points, can be made in relation to alternative luxury. Goals do not have to be 'big,' they can be as basic as successfully crossing a street or avoiding a meeting with someone (Kruglanski et al., 2018). A goal can be the achievement of positive self-enhancement through a display of alternative luxury, or feeling one is better dressed than an acquaintance.

Goals, like attitudes, are a cognitive construct and therefore have significance in terms of motivation, but to be motivated towards achieving a goal, a person must see it as being both attainable and desirable. If an individual is motivated to consume alternative luxury, they will *de facto* see it as being a desired future state which can be achieved through action. Further, Kruglanski *et al.* (2018) emphasised the notion of one goal being dominant over alternative courses, termed the 'focal goal.'

On the understanding that an attitude, the liking of an object, is not of itself a cause of behaviour, the goal systems theory set out by Kruglanski et al. (2018) can be summarized as a process. Firstly, the liking must represent a desire, which means that the consequent future state is preferred to the existing one. Secondly, this desire must become a goal, which only happens if it is achievable. Thirdly, the goal must become a focal one, which means it must at least momentarily be dominant. Fourthly, a behaviour must be selected that will enable the achievement of the focal goal.

As has been indicated, the theory of planned behaviour proposes that intentions to act or behave in particular ways are determined by attitudes towards that behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control. In contrast, goal systems theory perceives behaviour as serving the goals a person has. Ajzen and Kruglanski later (2019) argued for the fusion of their two theories by proposing a theory of reasoned goal pursuit. Given that behaviours are typically undertaken in the pursuit of goals, the theory contends that "the formation of a behavioural intention is determined by motivation to perform a behaviour in light of alternative options and in the context of the individual's currently active goals" (Ajzen and Kruglanski, 2019, p. 774).

Over the course of this sub-section the theory of goals systematic courses of action has been analogised with experiences in alternative luxury. Such comparisons, along with an understanding and belief that the theory adds an important dimension to TPB, leads to a position taken that it should be included as a theoretical approach within the ALCR construct. Nevertheless, studying alternative luxury consumption is usually carried out from the perspective of TPB and this will be discussed in the next subsection, with referrals to goal pursuit where relevant.

2.2.4 Using the Theory of Planned Behaviour to Explain Alternative Luxury

Based on a theory landscaping approach, this part of the review is divided into three parts, with each focusing on one of the three dimensions of alternative luxury and how the theory of planned behaviour has been used to explain them. Table 2.2 summarises the key literature.

Table 2a contextualises the literature from this and previous sections in terms of the cultural context in which studies were undertaken and the extent to which culturally informed nuances can identified (based on the cultural dimensions identified by Geert Hofstede).

WEIRD is an acronym for 'Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic' and some nations and regions are on the borderline of this categorisation, such as Korea and Hong Kong. This point highlights that each country will have its own cultural nuances, which suggests that the WEIRD/Non-WEIRD separation is a little crude. Nevertheless, it can be seen from Table 2.3 that cultural dimensions such as collectivism and uncertainty avoidance are generally more prevalent in non-WEIRD nations while individualism and indulgence are more prevalent in those categorised as WEIRD countries.

Table 2.2.
Key Literature Using TPB to Explain Alternative Luxury

Literature on the Function of Attitude		
Counterfeit Luxury	**Rented Luxury**	**Second-Hand Luxury**
Hyejeong & Karpova (2010) Jang & Choo (2015) Zaman et al. (2017) Bupalan et al. (2019)	Tu & Hu (2018) Choi & Kim (2021) Hwang & Griffiths (2017) Lang, Seo, & Liu (2019) Enmark & Wange (2016)	Styven & Marianna (2020) Seo & Kim (2019) Xu et al. (2014)
Literature Themes Related to Enablers Informing Attitude		
Counterfeit Luxury	**Rented Luxury**	**Second-Hand Luxury**
<u>Role of Integrity</u> Phau et al. (2009) <u>Cognitive Dissonance/Denial</u> Eisend &Schuchert-Guler (2006) Koay (2018) <u>Religiosity</u> Vida (2007) Quoquab et al. (2017) <u>Budget Constraint</u> Yoo & Lee (2009) <u>Smart Shopping Perception</u> Penz & Stottinger (2005) <u>Fun and Cool Consumption</u> Francis, Burgess, & Lu (2015) <u>Subjective/Normative Influence</u> Malik et al. (2020) Budiman & Wijaya (2014)	<u>Signaling Social Status</u> Jain & Mishra (2020) <u>Lifestyle Compatibility</u> Tu & Hu, 2018) <u>Hedonism</u> Markova & Bayanduuren (2017) <u>Frugal Shopping/Lowering Costs</u> Lang (2018) <u>Perception of Value</u> Hwang & Griffiths (2017) <u>Sustainability Mindset</u> Mishra et al. (2020) Choi & Kim (2021) Iran (2018) <u>Perceived Enjoyment</u> Lang, Seo, & Liu (2019)	<u>Sustainability/Economy</u> Styven & Marianna (2020) <u>Subjective Norm</u> Seo &Kim (2019) <u>Desire for Experimentation</u> Xu et al. (2014) <u>Valuing Price & Quality</u> Sihvonen and Turunen (2016) <u>Orientation Towards Flexibility</u> Bardhi & Eckhardt (2017) <u>Price Sensitivity</u> Roux & Guiot (2008) <u>Good Deal</u> Turunen & Leskinen (2015

Table 2.3.

Reviewed Literature of Alternative Luxury by Cultural Context Dimensions

Author(s)	**Cultural Context**	**Research Method**	**Cultural Dimensions Hofstede (2003)**
NON-WEIRD			
De Matos et al. (2007)	Brazil	Quantitative	C
Bhatia (2018)	India	Quantitative	None
Vida (2007)	Slovenia	Quantitative	None
Titus & Ethiraj (2012)	India	Qualitative	C
Abdullah & Yu (2019)	Yemen	Quantitative	C
Kollmannova (2012)	Slovenia	Quantitative	None
Wang & Song (2013)	China	Quantitative	None
Koay (2018)	Malaysia	Quantitative	None
Sharma & Chan (2018)	Hong Kong	Quantitative	EC
Zaman et al. (2017)	Pakistan	Quantitative	EC
Quoquab et al. (2017)	Malaysia	Quantitative	UA
Malik et al. (2020)	Pakistan	Quantitative	EC
Budiman & Wijaya (2014)	Indonesia	Quantitative	C
Wu et al. (2019)	China	Quantitative	EC
Bupalan et al. (2019)	Malaysia	Quantitative	None
Mishra et al. (2020)	India & UAE	Quantitative	C
Jain & Mishra (2020)	India	Quantitative	C / UA
Perez et al. (2010)	Mexico	Qualitative	IV / C
WEIRD			
Viot et al. (2014)	France	Quantitative	IV
Marticotte & Arcand (2017)	Canada	Quantitative	AI
Teah & Phau (2008)	Singapore	Quantitative	EC
Chaudhry & Stumpf (2011)	USA & Brazil	Quantitative	IV/ C
Markova & Bayanduuren (2017)	USA	Quantitative	IN
Turunen & Pöyry (2019)	Finland	Qualitative	IN
Pantano & Stylos, 2020	USA	Quantitative	None
Ruan, Xu & Lee (2022)	USA	Quantitative	None
Kim & Karpova (2010)	USA	Quantitative	EC
Phau, Sequeira, Dix (2009)	Australia	Quantitative	None
Jang & Choo (2015)	Korea	Quantitative	None
Eisend & Guler (2006)	Germany	Qualitative	None
Yoo & Lee (2009)	Korea	Quantitative	None
Penz & Stottinger (2005)	Austria	Quantitative	IV
Francis et al. (2015)	NA	Quantitative	None
Tu & Hu (2018)	Taiwan	Quantitative	None
Choi & Kim (2021)	USA	Quantitative	None
Lang (2018)	USA	Quantitative	IV
Hwang & Griffiths (2017)	USA	Quantitative	IV
Enmark & Wange (2016)	Sweden	Qualitative	EC
Styven & Marianna (2020)	UK	Quantitative	None
Seo & Kim (2019)	USA	Quantitative	None
Sihvonen & Turunen (2016)	Finland	Quantitative	EI
Roux & Guiot (2008)	Not clear	Quantitative	None
Turunen & Leskinen (2015)	Finland	Qualitative	None
Kang et al. (2019)	Korea	Quantitative	C
BOTH			
Lang et al. (2019)	USA & China	Quantitative	UA
Iran (2018)	Germany & Iran	Quantitative	C / IV

Eismann et al. (2017)	Various	Meta-Analysis	UA
Xi et al (2014)	USA & China	Quantitative	EC
Eisend (2019)	Various	Quantitative	CCS
KEY: Collectivism (C), Elements of Collectivism (EC), Elements of Individualism (EI), Uncertainty Avoidance (UA), Individualism (IV), Indulgence (IN), Abstract Individualism (AI), Context Culturally Sensitive (CCS)			

2.2.4.1 Counterfeit: TPB applied to counterfeit luxury

This section focuses on how the theory of planned behaviour has been used to explain the counterfeit alternative luxury option. With randomly sampled female college students from the US as participants (N=336) the theory of planned behaviour was tested by Kim and Karpova (2010) in an empirical study among female college students. As predicted by the theory, an overall finding was that attitudes towards the purchase of counterfeit products, along with perceived behavioural control and the subjective norm, were all positively related to the intention to purchase. The weakest of these relationships was perceived behavioural control, with attitude being the strongest; however, when it came to fashion items specifically, the subjective norm was the most powerful predictor of intention to purchase. Kim and Karpova (2010) claimed their work revealed two additional paths for the theory of planned behaviour and these are connections between subjective norm and attitude and between subjective norm and perceived behavioural control.

The link between subjective norm and attitude is potentially important in practical terms because the reshaping of community beliefs about counterfeits through targeted campaigns showing why they are socially undesirable could change individual attitudes (which provide the strongest link with purchase intentions). It is of interest that the suggestion of Kim and Karpova (2010) to focus on encouraging an additional goal (not contributing to social harm, such as unfair wages and child labour associated with counterfeit luxury products) aligns well with the additional theoretical framework proposed for this study (goals systematic courses of action).

In a scenario study among student participants in Australia (N=202) (Phau, Sequeira and Dix, 2009) students were asked about their willingness to buy a counterfeit luxury watch. It was concluded that "Integrity is found to be the only factor influencing attitudes toward counterfeits" (Phau et al, 2009, p. 262). However, it was also found that willingness to purchase counterfeit luxury is not influenced by either attitudinal or personality factors. These results are surprising and even counter intuitive as they effectively indicate that attitude has no bearing on purchase intentions despite them being central to the theory of planned behaviour and a prime motivating factor for acting in certain ways. Yet, what should be noticed is that this study did not measure attitudes about the product (the watch), but about the lawfulness and legality of counterfeit luxury brands. As such, this study does not invalidate the TPB model. However, as neither integrity nor attitudes to the lawfulness of counterfeit luxury predicted behaviour, the suggestion of Kim and Karpova (2010) to affect behaviour with awareness of social harm, seems to be a longshot, at least among Australian students.

This importance of the latter specification (Australian students) is emphasised by the contrasting results from a study by Jang and Choo (2015, p. 433), a study conducted in Korea with purposively sampled participants (had purchased counterfeit luxury, N= 209), and which found that "Consumer attitudes towards counterfeits is a major factor that influences usage intentions." This conclusion was based on the results of an online survey conducted among Korean men and women over the age of 20. The results supported the theory of planned behaviour with significant positive effects on usage intentions found from attitude, perceived behavioural control and the subjective norm. Additionally, moral norms were found to have a significant and negative effect on such intentions (Jang and Choo, 2015). These differences found can be explained from section 2.1.3, which found that factors such as the developmental level of a country, and (cultural) values impact how attitudes and intentions to behaviour are shaped.

Cognitive dissonance causes individuals to come up with coping mechanisms to justify and legitimise their decisions and these interplay with attitudes, purchase intentions and decisions. As Eisend and Schuchert-Guler (2006), for example explain, a person could buy a counterfeit designer dress driven by the low price, despite some hesitation based on realizing it can harm the designer or brand. This cognitive dissonance can be lessened by thinking that the brand is over-pricing the real dresses and is making too much money. This attitude about the counterfeit product increases the chances this person will buy a counterfeit again next time. A further finding from this qualitative study by Eisend and Schuchert-Guler (2006) (based on 12 interviews and an unstated number of focus groups) was that the relative scarcity of an original product influences perceptions of the value of its counterfeits as well as the original.

The findings of Eisend and Schuchert-Guler are consistent with the work of Koay (2018). Koay used risk theory and neutralisation theory to explain how individuals cope with the usage of counterfeit luxury. They explored how denial in a range of contexts (responsibility, injury, victim risk, appealing to higher loyalties and condemnation of the condemners) would positively influence purchase intentions for counterfeit luxury products. The results of the study, based on survey instruments completed by 213 students at six private universities in Malaysia, indicated two significant predictors of purchase intentions based on neutralisation theory, which were victim risk and denial of responsibility. Two such predictors were also found for risk theory, and these were performance risk and social risk. Thus, “denial of injury, appeal to higher loyalty, condemnation of the condemners, as well as psychological and prosecution risks, were found to have no significant relationships with the purchase intention towards counterfeit luxury goods” Koay, 2018, p. 495).

Further insights into the potential loop described by Eisend and Schuchert-Guler (2006), are provided from the results of research by Sharma and Chan (2016) who examined purchases in Hong Kong through a field survey including 380 shopper participants. Their findings suggested that being prone to purchasing counterfeits (i.e., preferring these) has a positive influence on ethical judgements and the subjective norm, which is very much in line with the cognitive dissonance idea that people will seek to strengthen arguments for the decisions they make.

In a study by Zaman *et al.*, (2017), carried out in Pakistan, and with 907 participants representing a 95% response rate, among middle- and high-income groups, attitude was measured with respect to counterfeit products (instead of the illegality of counterfeit products). Attitude most strongly predicted intention to purchase, and in turn was associated with moral orientation, personal orientation, and social orientation, that were all interrelated. Within the sub-category of personal orientation, personal gratification had a stronger effect on attitude than materialism. Interestingly, moral orientation was associated with more positive attitudes to counterfeit products (Zaman *et al.*, 2017). Similar to what was previously discussed for the Indian context, participants did not seem to think of counterfeit products as wrong. Instead, they seemed to reason from the democratic attitude to luxury.

As with studies reviewed in previous parts of this chapter concerning attitudes and luxury/alternative luxury, study results and their analysis in this section also indicate considerable variance and even contradictions. As was discussed in 2.1.3, this was confirmed in a meta-analysis of studies carried out by Eisend, Hartmann, and Apaolaza (2017). In developed countries, the possibility of reduced integrity and risk are significantly related to the purchase of counterfeits, while in developing countries status seeking is the most influential element.

Based on these results Eisend *et al.* (2017) made the point that most people live in developing nations and will be the locations of future growth in the luxury market; therefore, identifying different characteristics and forms of identity building in these locations is of utmost importance for luxury brands (rather than making assumptions based on research in developed nations). These findings are important and insightful, providing further firm justifications for this study in terms of its holistic approach and an understanding of important differences between nations and their populations that will influence attitudes and behaviour towards alternative luxury.

Besides economic differences, and cultural values that were previously discussed, religion may also impact how people view counterfeit luxury from a moral perspective – and if this affects their attitudes, intentions, and behaviours. A number of influences including religiosity were investigated in the previously cited study by Vida (2007). The setting was Slovenia and 223 participants were found through convenience sampling. The study found that religiosity predicted attitudes towards piracy to a significant level, while education was the only significant factor influencing attitudes towards the social consequences of purchasing counterfeit products.

Religiosity, along with ethical concerns and lawfulness, were at the centre of a study conducted in Malaysia by Quoquab *et al.* (2017). Results from 400 completed survey instruments found that these factors had both direct and indirect effects on intentions to purchase counterfeit products. All of these effects were negative and were slightly higher for perceived behavioural control than for attitude and are commensurate with the theory of planned behaviour. Quoquab *et al.* (2017) stressed that these findings agree with the results of other studies concerned with this theory but claim originality through the addition of the dimension of religiosity and ethical beliefs as important antecedents of attitude. The addition of extra dimensions, especially if they have particular relevance within a given cultural context, agrees with arguments made in this study, for example, through the addition of goal-directed behaviours and particularly goals systematic courses of action to supplement TPB.

With respect to religion and morality, however, it should be emphasised that this is also a relative, context-bound relationship. The moral orientation in the study of Zaman *et al.*, 2017 was partly defined by religiousness, yet as explained, an effect in the opposite direction was found. As such, it can be an interesting perspective, but not one that can necessarily explain why different results are obtained in different countries. Returning then to the multitude of factors that can determine counterfeit luxury consumption, the study of Yoo and Lee (2009) is also worth mentioning. In this study, a survey was conducted among 324 female students in Korea to establish the effects of groups of variables on their intentions to buy genuine luxury designer products and the counterfeits that corresponded with them (Yoo and Lee, 2009). The study focused on past behaviour, their attitudes towards the purchasing of counterfeits and their individual characteristics (this latter variable included perceptions of social status, materialism, and self-image). The results found that budget constraints were an important determinant of purchase intentions and that buying counterfeits demonstrated wisdom and thrift in shopping habits.

Overall, it was found that the variables were associated with both intentions to purchase counterfeits as well as original products. The intention to buy counterfeits was related positively with intentions to buy original products, but where there were intentions to purchase originals, this was “negatively related to purchase intention of counterfeits” (Yoo and Lee, 2009, p. 280). The results of the study by Yoo and Lee (2009) provide more support for taking a wide perspective in seeking to better understand planned behaviour in the context of alternative luxury. It demonstrates that focusing on several factors at the exclusion of others is another example of the over-simplification of a much broader and much more complex spectrum that represents human behaviour and the drivers of it.

In Austria, Penz and Stottinger (2005) carried out a large-scale study among 1,040 completed versions of a questionnaire that was designed to test the veracity of the theory of planned behaviour as well as to develop a model capable of explaining the most important drivers of demand for counterfeit luxury products. Perceived behavioural control was found to have the greatest influence on demand for counterfeits in terms of fewer obstacles (such as time needed to find them, geographical distance etc.), basically on the greater the consumer intention to purchase. Another strong, positive effect was that of a self-perception of being a smart shopper. The subjective norm was not apparent when the price of a counterfeit was close to that of an original but did become apparent to a limited degree when the price differential increased. Embarrassment, on the other hand, produced a strong negative effect on purchase intentions.

Although of less significance than perceived behavioural control and the subjective norm, attitude was found to have relevance and was not influenced by price or price differences, which led Penz and Stottinger (2005) to conclude that demand and factors related to consumers rather than the supply side are the strongest drivers. Antecedents to attitude were also investigated in this study, with aspects such as readiness to take risks, ethical considerations and fashion consciousness being important. Findings of particular relevance to this study include the concept of embarrassment and the subjective norm being of more significance than attitude. In this study, attitude is considered to have at least five functions, with one being a social evaluative function, which surely relates to subjective norm. Rather than making attitude less significant, when seen in this light, it becomes a central antecedent of behaviour.

A prevailing assumption, apparent in the mainstream literature, is that a main driver of the demand by consumers for counterfeit luxury products is to gain perceived status and image while avoiding the price of genuine articles. This was questioned by Francis, Burgess, and Lu (2015), who use the term ‘cool consumption’ in a study specifically focused on Generation Y consumers (also known as Millennials). This theory of ‘cool consumption,’ it is proposed, may explain reasons why Generation Y consumers indulge in counterfeit luxury. This explanation suggests it is based on “ideals of fun, rebellion and being a bit bad,” it is “fun and a way to go against the mainstream” (Francis Burgess, and Lu, 2015, p. 588).

A total of 251 study participants were purposively selected (Generation Y, aged 18–25) and a survey instrument was created using existing scales based on a theoretical framework that included the theory of planned behaviour, consumer-based brand equity and price consciousness. The participants were divided into two groups, which were those who owned counterfeit luxury and those who did not. Francis, Burgess, and Lu (2015) suggested this was an important distinction because it allowed for the elicitation of the views of owners of counterfeit luxury rather than a generalised view of consumers. The results suggest that for Generation Y consumers who owned counterfeit luxury their consumption behaviour was more about owning counterfeits than brand or price.

Alongside this was the finding that evaluations of genuine brands were the same among owners and non-owners of counterfeits, suggesting that there is a separation between attitudes and intentions towards owning counterfeits and those related to brands. Based on their findings Francis, Burgess, and Lu (2015) claimed they demonstrated a plausible explanation outside of the mainstream for demand for counterfeit luxury products. This claim may have some truths and may be of particular significance in some cultural contexts, particularly where populations are relatively young (which is generally the case in developing nations in comparison with those that are developed). Nevertheless, the fact that the relative importance of this dimension of planned behaviour in relation to alternative luxury was not assessed is a serious limitation and again highlights the importance of a holistic and inclusive approach (and construct) that may be able to provide some indication of relativity.

This is also true for the study by Malik *et al.* (2020) who studied the importance of self-concept and self-traits on the consumption of counterfeits in an emerging market, which was Pakistan. Data on 350 customers of counterfeit luxury products indicated that the trait of being interdependent was associated with being susceptible to normative influences, and a desire to acquire status and this positively influenced intention to purchase. The trait of independence, on the other hand, lowered the intention to purchase.

Whereas these results are relevant and fit the previously reported positive association between collectivism (that also associates with interrelatedness) and counterfeit luxury attitudes, two points can be made about the work of Malik et al. (2020). One is that it highlights one or two factors at the expense of others that may be more significant. The second point, and one supported by the first, relates to a previous discussion concerned with the functional theory of attitude (see sub-section 2.1.4). In this, and supported by noted theorists (for example Katz, 1960; Smith *et al.*, 1956; Lutz, 1978; Carpenter *et al.*, 2013; Fabrigar *et al.*, 2018), it was found that while personality traits and other dispositions may have a bearing, they were not good at predicting behaviour. Employing them as a single cause makes the mistake of over-simplifying the complexities of the human mind and the multitude of factors that influence human behaviour.

A study by Budiman and Wijaya (2014) investigated the influence of the subjective norm on purchase intentions for counterfeit products in Indonesia. Survey data was collected from 86 women of executive status and the results suggested a correlation between the intention to purchase and the subjective norm. It was found that the higher the role of subjective norm, the lower purchase intentions were. Although this study may provide an insight into the importance of subjective norm, the findings seem to assume that it will be disapproving, which, as previously discussed, may not always be the case in some cultural and other contexts.

The work of Wu *et al.* (2019) is also associated with the subjective norm, in this instance through the design and testing of a construct they name as ‘perceived counterfeit detection.’ A total of 1,007 survey instruments were completed by college students across four campuses in China and the findings suggest that perceived counterfeit detection not only weakens purchase intentions but also weakens any positive attitudes people may have towards such intentions. Wu *et al.* (2019, p. 1311) claimed their construct provided an explanation of “how consumers’ goals interplay with their choices through their actions and consumption” and “why, how and when their counterfeit consumption goals interact with their actions, choices and situations during their goal setting, goal-striving and goal realization stages that may lead to unethical behaviour.” In contrast with Budiman and Wijaya (2014) this study investigated the subjective norm conditionally (the condition of perceived counterfeit detection), which would be expected to be a negative factor. The point is that the direction of the subjective norm (positive or negative) should not be assumed unless it is studied under certain conditions.

Although less than holistic, a study by Bupalan *et al.* (2019) provides some useful insights further demonstrating the latter argument of being careful with assumptions. Data was collected from 144 consumer participants in Penang, Malaysia, to find the important determinants of repurchase behaviour intentions for counterfeit luxury products. Using the theory of planned behaviour, the researchers found that attitude and perceived behavioural control along with the image of a brand and involvement with a product were very important determinants of intentions to repurchase. Importantly, although Malaysia is a collectivistic country, social pressure did not predict repurchase intentions of counterfeits (Bupalan *et al.*, 2019). As such, it cannot be stressed enough how context-bound findings can be.

2.2.4.2 Rental: TBP applied to rented luxury

This section focuses on how the theory of planned behaviour has been used to explain the rented alternative luxury option (collaborative or sharing luxury consumption). Starting with the work of Tu and Hu (2018) on why fashion is becoming increasingly popular for rented luxury, they discovered how information availability, the internet and technology generally are seen as key drivers. Based in Taiwan and with a survey of 15 rental users, the results of the study by Tu and Hu (2018) indicate that compatibility can be a key driver of consumer attitudes and behaviour for the online renting of fashion clothing. Compatibility is defined as a subjective belief that the use of rented fashion is aligned with lifestyle and values, with further findings including the importance of interpersonal relationships (subjective norm), and self-efficacy (in terms of behavioural control). This idea relates to how Rebiazina and Zbandut (2020) paralleled rented luxury with other millennial behaviours, including Uber and Airbnb, as described earlier.

Although of some interest the findings from this study must be treated with caution as they were based on a very small number of participants (15) for a study using a survey to collect data. This aside there were some contrasts with other studies, such as Markova and Bayanduuren (2017), who found hedonism to be the main driver for rented luxury.

Attitudes and subsequent decisions to participate in the sharing economy were also the subjects of an exploratory study by Choi and Kim (2021). In contrast with Tu and Hu (2018) (who used convenience sampling and had 15 participants) this study sought generalizability through a large (466 survey participants) sample representative of the wider population. Four variables ("self-norm, attitude toward the sharing economy, desire to access a bigger market, and attitude toward environmental friendliness”; Choi and Kim, 2021, p. 794)) were found to influence decisions to engage with the sharing economy to a statistically significant level, although the specific effects dependent on economic benefit.

Despite its growth, Lang (2018) suggested that the fashion renting sector was still lacking in development and popularity, and this was a motivation for a study, which researched “how perceived risks and frugal shopping affect the attitudes, perceived enjoyment and further behavioural intention toward the adoption of fashion renting” (Lang, 2018, p. 1). The results of an online survey among 452 adult participants in the US found confirmation of three perceptions of risk that negatively influenced attitudes towards fashion renting, and these are financial, performance and psychological risks. Frugal shopping and perceived enjoyment were found to be positive influences on attitudes, while social risk was found not to have a significant influence on attitude.

The possibility was touted that the cultural setting (the US, a strongly individualistic society) nuanced the results, with more significance likely in more collectivist societies. This is an important point that was also made with respect to counterfeit luxury. Lang (2018) placed emphasis on the importance of feelings of fun and enjoyment as important antecedents to attitude, which in turn highlights the potential importance of reducing any feelings of discomfort and risk among consumers when promoting the use of rented fashion.

Perhaps because of an important observation made in this earlier study concerned with cross-cultural differences, the purpose of a study by Lang, Seo, and Liu (2019, p. 519) was to study American and Chinese attitudes and intentions toward fashion renting. They, again, found further support for the attitude-intention connection for both countries. Further, they described how in China, fashion renting can be more necessary as real fashion is more expensive than in the US. However, Chinese participants also seemed to experience more embarrassment about renting (which can reflect having no money) and less enjoyment than the US participants.

The purpose of two studies by Hwang and Griffiths (2017) was to investigate the relationships between the perceptions of value and affective attitudes and intentions for behaviour among millennial consumers in collaborative consumption. This work further nuances the importance of enjoyment also within the US. Two studies were conducted, with both using scenarios to test the responses of participants through a survey conducted subsequent to the scenario presentation.

The scenario for the first study was car sharing and involved 122 college students in the US. The results suggest that utilitarian and hedonic value significantly enhanced attitudes, while symbolic value did not. However, symbolic value did increase empathy (as did hedonic value) and both attitude and empathy increased the intention to engage in collaborative consumption. The scenario for the second study among 104 students involved multiple contexts for collaborative consumption and revealed that the effect of hedonic value on attitude was found only for high consumer innovativeness.

Of course, besides hedonistic reasons, the sustainability argument is also mentioned. Mishra, Jain, and Jham (2020, p. 1) (number of survey participants not stated) suggested there has been a “radical shift” in the consumption behaviour of luxury, notably among the millennial generation, in recent years, and this has been towards an emphasis on sustainability. While this shift has promoted the growth in demand for non-ownership, as already mentioned, there have been only a few studies exploring luxury fashion in the sharing context. Mishra *et al.* (2020) investigated the key drivers for millennial attitudes and intentions to purchase for rented luxury among participants in India and the UAE. The study was able to confirm the TPB model with respect to the relationships between attitudes and subjective norm and intentions for rented luxury consumption (whereas behavioural control as a predictor and actual behaviour as an outcome were not measured).

Whereas this was true for both India and the UAE, there were some cultural differences. The impact of subjective norms on the intention to purchase was found to be stronger in India. Further, in India, attitudes were more strongly associated with identity projection value, whereas the experience of value was not associated with attitudes of Indian participants, whereas this had a strong effect on attitudes in the UAE. These findings led Mishra *et al.* (2020, p. 9) to conclude that “overall attitude toward luxury fashion rental consumption differs significantly across both the markets” and that “UAE consumers feel it is crucial to stand out and be noticed.”

The concept of sustainable fashion consumption and the cross-cultural comparison were also used by Iran (2018), who, in contrast to the previously described studies, also included the behavioural control component. In a large study among 619 participants from Berlin and Tehran, the capital cities of Germany and Iran respectively, the study showed that perceived behavioural control was the most significant influence on intention in Berlin, while in Tehran it was attitude. They further showed that sustainability was a stronger driver of intentions to consume fashion through non-ownership in Berlin than in Tehran. The findings led Iran (2018) to appropriately conclude that cultural factors, along with different economic conditions, should be given careful consideration when companies are developing strategies for alternative fashion consumption.

The importance of studying different economic and cultural contexts was also the main theme of a study by Jain and Mishra (2020), who noted that the phenomenon of a sharing economy has been studied mainly in developed nations, and this raises the question whether successes reported for the rented luxury fashion industry are applicable to emerging markets. Based on self-determination theory, the research aimed to investigate the sharing of luxury fashion items by 232 participants from the millennial generation in India. The most significant predictor of intention to use rented luxury fashion was 'social projection,' a primary desire to signal social status to significant others, essentially the subjective norm. The most significant negative influence was found to be perceived risk, while self-pleasing and economic benefits were weakly related to intentions. This is in some contrast with study findings from research carried out in other cultural contexts, for instance where hedonism (self-pleasing) was found to be an important determinant (for example Markova and Bayanduuren, 2017; Lang, 2018).

As indicated across this review, a quantitative research approach is a common one in studies related to alternative luxury and this was a reason cited by Enmark and Wange (2016) for the qualitative and inductive methodology used in their study concerned with the attitude-behaviour consistency of consumers in collaborative consumption. These researchers posited that the potential for additional insights to be found into the phenomenon are most likely to come from the interpretative approach adopted. To this end, they conducted in-depth unstructured interviews with a total of eight participants. They also conducted focus group sessions with two separate groups, each with four respondents.

All participants were Swedish and the findings showed that while there were positive attitudes those that were conflicting were generally stronger. It was further found that consistency in attitude and behaviour was influenced by “intrinsic motives or social pressure” (Enmark and Wange, 2016, p. 1). Several recommendations were made for strategies to enhance consistency among consumers, and one was the enhancing of intrinsic motives through an emphasis on desired attributes, which is a good fit with the goal perspective. This study, while limited with respect to the generalisation of the results to other countries, is informative about the measurement of the construct of attitudes and intentions. This strengthens the holistic approach of the current study.

2.2.4.3 Second-hand: TPB applied to second-hand luxury

This section focuses on how the theory of planned behaviour has been used to explain the use of second-hand alternative luxury options. A general observation has previously been made concerning studies on alternative luxury, which is the range of different and fragmented approaches. Various results are obtained where insufficient attention has been paid to the factors researched in terms of the entire concept and their relative position within it. The same criticism can be made of studies on TPB and second-hand luxury. The following studies provide support for this argument.

The intentions and motivations for buying second-hand clothing online were investigated by Styven and Marianna (2020) through an online survey with 412 participants in the UK. They found three important antecedents of attitudes towards the purchase of second-hand clothes on person-to-person sharing platforms and these are “perceived sustainability, economic motivations, and taking a distance from the consumption system” (Styven and Marianna, 2020, p. 724). Attitude was found to be positively influenced by distance and this strongly and positively affected intentions to purchase. Previous experience of purchasing second-hand clothes positively moderated the connections between perceptions of sustainability and distance. Thus, sustainability, distance and previous experience in purchasing are found to be relevant to purchasing behaviour for second hand luxury.

Also guided by the theory of planned behaviour, Seo and Kim (2019) studied intention to purchase in second-hand thrift stores among US participants. The results of the study suggest that the beliefs of consumers towards the environment as well as those concerned with non-profit thrift stores had a positive influence on attitude, which in turn was found to be the strongest driver for intentions to purchase. The subjective norm was also found to have an indirect influence on intentions to purchase through the impact it had on attitudes. Thus, the environment, attitude and the subjective norm were found to be relevant to purchasing behaviour for second hand luxury. Again, however, one can argue that this study is very specific to the American culture.

Xu *et al.* (2014), on the other hand, studied the second-hand consumption of clothing in China and the US. The point was made that, while the stigma toward such purchases is diminishing in Western nations, relatively little is known about attitudes outside this cultural context. The findings of the study showed some significant differences in the behaviour of young consumers between China and the US concerning "past purchase experience, perceived values and concerns, perceived subjective norm and future purchase intention" (Xu *et al.*, 2014, p. 670). Concerning the subjective norm, for example, U.S. participants had a higher perception of it when consuming second-hand clothing, while those from China had higher perceptions of environmental values and were more concerned that the items had previously been worn by other people. This study provides further support for the importance of studying alternative luxury in terms of the cultural context in which it takes place and confirms the similar findings of Lang, Seo, and Liu (2019) for renting attitudes of Chinese and US participants.

As is pointed out by Sihvonen and Turunen (2016), the second-hand marketplace has traditionally been considered a dimension in which frugality is seen as being virtuous. The economy where their study was undertaken (Finland) is one where consumers have a relatively high level of purchasing power and various options from which to choose their fashion items, including a growing second-hand market. Data for the study was collected through Facebook forums established for flea markets in Finland and this was done over a period of several years. The work aimed to find how consumers "determine the perceived value of fashion brands in online flea markets" and to "illustrate how fashion brands are perceived when sold second-hand in Facebook flea markets" (Sihvonen and Turunen, 2016, p. 285). It was found that in flea markets for second-hand fashion, perceptions of value are indicated in six dimensions (quality, design, origin, authenticity, brand and price). Of these, price and quality were central, although dependent on origin, design and brand.

Time and its passing were also found to be relevant, whereby the life story of a product, including where it originated, where it was purchased and previous owners, can strengthen or weaken perceptions of second-hand value. Thus, perceptions of value as well as aspects related to the history of an item were found to be relevant to purchasing behaviour for second hand luxury. Again, however, one can wonder how well these findings generalize to other cultures.

As a more global trend, the notion of 'liquid modernity' was extended by Bardhi and Eckhardt (2017) to consumption. Liquid modernity is a description of postmodern and post-industrial society, where social structures are unstable and not long-lived and thus marriage, family, religion etc. no longer bind people towards certain modes of behaviour. By the same token, liquid consumption is “ephemeral, access based and dematerialized” and stands in contrast with solid consumption as it is “enduring, ownership based and material” (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2017, p. 589). It represents an orientation towards flexibility, being adaptable, detached, and fluid. This has implications in areas such as attachment and appropriation, as well as brand relationships and identity. The most significant motivations for access-based liquid consumption compared with solid consumption (ownership) were price, flexibility and temporary use (Bardhi and Eckhardt, 2017). A further finding of interest was that consumers are more inclined towards digital access when an item is perceived as having less emotional value and is therefore less valuable to the self.

Thus, a difference is found between more temporary and fluid consumption and more permanent consumption. Motivations towards the former are price, flexibility and temporariness, which are related in the study to purchasing behaviour for second hand luxury. Whereas there can be country differences in the extent to which liquid consumption is embraced, it has affected the global images of second-hand products (and other forms of alternative luxury).

Turning then to the point of measurement, the antecedents and consequences along with a scale for measuring the motives for second-hand shopping were the purposes of a research article by Roux and Guiot (2008). Based on data collected among 708 people and 15 interviews, a seven-part measurement scale was developed for measuring motives in the two dimensions (either separately or in combination) of economic and recreational. The results of the study indicate that all motives share three antecedents, which are sensitivity to price, a desire to be unique, and materialism. Of these, Roux and Guiot (2008) posited that price sensitivity is among the most plausible of the antecedents found. Some further and more nuanced findings are also reported, for example that motivation to seek cheaper prices is related to lower levels of educational attainment.

The data for a study by Turunen and Leipamaa-Leskinen (2015) were collected through ten qualitative interviews and fashion blogs in Finland. Its purpose was to identify meanings associated with second-hand fashion luxury, with a particular focus on accessories. Five separate themes were recognised, and these were sustainability, a ‘real deal,’ a ‘pre-loved treasure,’ investment in risk and finding something unique. The attachment of these meanings shows, according to the authors, that consumers are engaged in luxury experiences despite the lack of exclusivity of service, particularly in terms of authenticity and symbolic value. Nevertheless, “the meaning of authenticity appears to be a double-edged sword in this context, as consumers may also consider that they are taking a financial and reputational risk when acquiring a previously owned luxury item” (Turunen and Leipamaa-Leskinen, 2015, p. 57). These two studies at least provide some alternative ways to look at the measurement of attitudes, in a comprehensive way.

A range of reasons for engaging with second hand luxury were found across this sub-section and each may have some plausibility. With limited exception, holistic approaches are missing, giving the impression of a fragmented research field where a bigger picture, one that also pays attention to other forms of alternative luxury, is missing, as it has been established in other sections of this chapter.

2.2.5 Section summary

The consumption of alternative luxury is a deliberate and planned action. It is also intentional and requires a high level of involvement. Along with attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control significantly account for variances in behaviour and can be predicted with relatively high levels of accuracy. This argument has been empirically tested and found to be true. However, it has been found in some instances to be conditional and this warrants the inclusion of further theories that may broaden and deepen the theory of planned behaviour and one of these is the inclusion of desires and emotions as goal-directed behaviours.

A second relevant theory, therefore, is goals systematic courses of action, whereby a number of conditions need to be met before a goal becomes a driver of attitude and subsequent behaviour. It must not only be desirable and achievable through behavioural actions but must also be dominant over alternative courses of action in a given situation. The inclusion of these theories in terms of TPB and alongside attitudes in the ALCR construct is because “the formation of a behavioural intention is determined by motivation to perform a behaviour in light of alternative options and in the context of the individual’s currently active goals” (Ajzen and Kruglanski, 2019, p. 774).

Having established and justified the use of the four theories in the ALCR construct, this section of the chapter proceeds by considering TPB as applied to counterfeit, second-hand and rented luxury. With regard to the first (counterfeit luxury), a total of sixteen research studies were critically reviewed and these showed a wide range of findings, including a number of contrasts. These included attitude as the strongest indicator of intentions to purchase counterfeits, attitudes not being influential, attitudes being a major factor and attitudes being irrelevant. They also included perceived behavioural control (PBC) being the weakest influence on intentions to purchase, it being a major influence and PBC being the most important factor. One study found the subjective norm, along with detection, to be the most significant influence with factors across other studies including religiosity, ethical and legal concerns, willingness to take risks, morality, denial, and cognitive dissonance. One study, a meta-analysis, agreed with the tone of these varied findings as it concluded that the field is one that is diverse and fragmented. A further important point made in the study by Eisend et al (2017) is the relevance of psychographic and the extent to which these differ, particularly between nations that are developed and those that are developing.

The section then moved to a consideration of research studies concerned with rented luxury. A total of nine were scrutinised and, as with counterfeit luxury, a range of results were reported. These included compatibility in terms of values and lifestyles, the environment and access to a larger market, utilitarian and hedonic values and signalling social status. Also included were financial, performance and psychological risks. Three studies focused on cross-cultural comparisons, and all found that while there were some similarities (such as the subjective norm, perceived enjoyment and attitude) the considerable differences underscored the importance and value of cultural contexts.

The third sub-section was concerned with second-hand luxury and seven research articles were evaluated. Findings included perceived sustainability, economic motives and previous buying experiences as antecedents of attitude, the subjective norm, value, item history, sustainability, flexibility and temporary use. Again, cross-cultural differences were noted. Moreover, it was seen that focusing on certain antecedents might create a false sense of the importance of these variables in affecting attitudes and behaviours.

A number of points can be made in conclusion, and they may be applied to all three of the sub-sections concerned with counterfeit, rental and second-hand luxury. While all of the factors contributing to intentions to purchase alternative luxury may have some plausibility, holistic approaches are generally missing. This suggests a fragmented field of research lacking a bigger and more inclusive picture. Also lacking is a measure that pays attention to all forms of alternative luxury.

2.3 Chapter summary

The two sections of the chapter have been separately summarised. The main aim of this final section is to provide some emphasis and clarity to some important aspects and to address some questions that could be raised.

As Figure 1 and the discussion that precedes it indicates, the sampling method adopted was systematic theory mining, with key words and phrases used in each stage of the review to locate relevant work. These included those such as conspicuous consumption, luxury, counterfeit luxury, rented luxury, second-hand luxury, pre-owned, theory of planned behaviour, goal-driven behaviour, functional theory of attitude etc. As is further noted, the requirements of the study meant that inclusion criteria was relatively comprehensive while exclusion criteria was limited to anything unrelated to the field of study.

As Table 2a as well as the review in general highlights, culture has a strong influence on the consumption of alternative luxury but this has greater emphasis in some studies compared with others. This makes it difficult to know with any certainty the extent to which culture makes a crucial difference in the consumption of alternative luxury – as has been noted in this and other chapters, invidious distinction and pecuniary emulation are embedded in human nature; therefore, it is the ways in which these are operationalised by different populations for alternative luxury that is relevant. The main cultural distinction that emerges from Table 2a is that there are more collectivist nuances in developing nations, with this being less prevalent in those that are WEIRD, or have had WEIRD influences. In the case of Nigeria, collectivism is a relatively strong cultural trait, uncertainty avoidance is moderate and indulgence is quite prominent.

A further issue is the veracity of studies reviewed and one way of understanding this was to note the data collection methods used as well as the number of participants. This is intended to be a guide for the reader as well as for the researcher rather than some sort of absolute measure of accuracy – it was not possible to otherwise separate studies and to state with any certainty those that should be taken more seriously than others. However, where there were those that may be questionable, these have been highlighted, as well as results that seem to contradict others.

CHAPTER 3:

FOCUS GROUPS AND ALCR CONSTRUCT DEVELOPMENT

This chapter is divided into two main sections, where the first justifies and presents the qualitative study (focus groups) while the second, which follows from this qualitative phase, is concerned with the development of the scale. Thus, focus groups which were used for item generation, and the second with theorisation on and development of the ALCR scale. Relevant for both parts is to emphasise that the studies took place in Nigeria. Nigeria is a low-income, mixed economy and can be described as an emerging market. It has a low position on the human development index, and it is estimated that about 45-47% of the population is multidimensionally poor (Human Development Report, 2020).

3.1 Focus groups

3.1.1 Overview and Research Paradigm

It is important that the methodology employed in research as well as the method for collecting data is justified and this can be done in stages, beginning with the methodology chosen. There are two fundamental approaches to research and a third that is a combination of the two. These are quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. A quantitative methodology typically uses a scientific and positivist approach, with data that is numerated so that it can be statistically analysed. Depending on the nature of the research, a number of data collection methods can be employed, such as surveys, experiments, cross-sectional and longitudinal. An advantage of a quantitative approach is that, depending on the representativeness of the sample, the results may be generalised. A disadvantage is that as the data is formed into enumerated variables, it is not possible to explore human experiences and values at a deeper level (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2009).

The choice of using a qualitative methodology in this stage (as part of mixed methods, as for the main part, a quantitative perspective was used), was driven by critical realism. Critical realism can be seen as belonging to post-positivism. It is thought that people are unable to measure and know reality perfectly (Sturgiss and Clark, 2019). According to this philosophy, there is a distinction between the world and human knowledge about the world, and through research we can increase our knowledge and understanding of the world. Critical realism distinguishes between the "real", the "actual", and the "empirical". The "real" refers to objects, their structures or natures: the things that exist. This includes their potential causal forces and liabilities (Mutiganda, 2013). The "actual" is what actually happens; the real forces and liabilities are activated and bring about changes (Mutiganda, 2013).

These may or may not be experienced by individuals or researchers. That part which they perceive is called the "empirical". Importantly, some entities in the world are not externally determined (like the watch that is there, regardless of opinions and perceptions), but exist from relationships between entities, such as whether the watch is a luxury product (Frederiksen and Kringelum, 2021). From this perspective, it can be understood that the purpose of research is to understand the world better and how this can be achieved depends on the research question (Frederiksen and Kringelum, 2021; Taylor, 2018).

Since the purposes of the current study assesses human values, behaviour and experiences, a mixed-methods approach is ideal—with qualitative methods coming before quantification. A mixed methods methodology addresses instances where quantitative or qualitative methods on their own will not sufficiently answer the research question of a study. Some benefits of mixed methods relate to its use in research with smaller sample sizes. In addition, mixed methods allow findings to be places in context and add more detail to study conclusions. Finally, combining qualitative and quantitative approaches can make results more credible, since converging these two types of data strengthens validity of conclusions. As such, the implementation of mixed-methods in this study allows for the development of important quantitative scales that are all informed by qualitative portions of this work.

This can be expanded upon from a critical realist perspective and a longstanding tension between the epistemology and ontology of positivism on one hand and post-positivism on the other. The dichotomy between these views can be indicated by noting the work of the logical positivist Alfred Ayer, who proposed that anything that could not be observed and objectively studied has no meaning; thus, concepts such as good, bad, wrong, right etc. are merely emotional responses (Ayer, 1966). On the other hand, a constructivist and interpretive epistemology and ontology believes that meaning only comes from human consciousness and how it interprets the world around it (Saunders et al, 2009).

As Zhang (2023, p. 15) points out, critical realism "seeks to offer a constructive alternative to both the positivist empiricist paradigm, on the one hand, and constructivism, postmodernism, and certain versions of the hermeneutical perspective, on the other." It acknowledges a 'transcendental reality' that is separate from knowledge and awareness, something that is not directly responsive to a positivist or interpretive approach. A true understanding of the social world can only come through the "structure that generates events" (Zhang, 2023, p. 15).

From the ontological and epistemological perspective of this researcher the 'transcendental reality' is consciousness and the question is how the socially constructed reality of alternative luxury in the lives of low income groups in Nigeria can best be understood and then utilised in the ALCR construct? This leads to phenomenology and a number of ways in which the interpreted experiences of people can be studied. One aspect of phenomenology can be called situational truths and some examples are provided by Luft (2004). Witnesses to a car accident may provide different versions of events but all can be called truths. For an estate agent a house is an object to be sold, while for an architect it is a piece of work, even an object of art. For people in higher income groups in Nigeria alternative luxury may be meaningless, or represent a threat while for others it can have a range of meanings, all of which can be called situational truths.

There are a range of debates in phenomenology and a central one, very relevant to research and research paradigms, is between a descriptive and an interpretive approach as described by Husserl and Heidegger respectively. In a descriptive approach, which leans more towards positivism, the researcher reports what is stated without seeking to explain or analyse it, bracketing away any existing knowledge or biases. In an interpretive approach the researcher reflects on and analyses what is stated, including their existing knowledge and beliefs (Lopez and Willis, 2004).

These points can be contextualised with regard to this present study and the purposes of the qualitative and quantitative parts. The aim of the qualitative part is to provide valuable insights in developing the ALCR construct. Such insights can only exist in the consciousness of the population being studied. Through his studies the researcher has gained some considerably knowledge of the concept of alternative luxury and its attributes. Merely describing what participants state would leave a substantial gap in understanding the consumption of alternative luxury, while interpreting and making sense of what is said, in the context of the researcher's epistemology, can include a range of dimensions related to the topic that can inform and provide empirical substance to the development of the ALCR construct. Support for this comes from a review of studies carried out by Matthua and Van Der Wal (2015). It found that descriptive approaches lacked depth and the exploration of dimensions in comparison with interpretive phenomenological paradigms.

With further respect to the qualitative methodology, there are a considerable number of potential methods for collecting data. For example, through observation, ethnography, the scrutiny of letters and other forms of literature and interviews. Of these methods, three have the potential to elicit the data necessary for this work and these are ethnography (the researcher is embedded in a community and reports on observed behaviour and conversations with people in that community), interviews and focus groups. Ethnography is disadvantaged in this case because the researcher is not in a position to be part of or report from within the identified socioeconomic group/community that is the subject of this study.

There are three types of interviews, and these are structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Structured interviews typically use closed questions with scaled responses and would be most beneficial for a survey; semi-structured interviews delve deeper into set topics, while unstructured interviews are typically used when topics are being explored when seeking to develop new theories (Bryman, 2016). Focus groups, on the other hand, are considered as the most appropriate data collection method when “exploring a specific population’s knowledge, attitudes toward, and behaviours regarding a given topic” (Koskan and Rice, 2014, p. 1). This study is concerned with the knowledge, attitude, and behaviours of the low-income population with regard to alternative luxury and the use of focus groups is therefore the most appropriate data collection method for it.

The use of focus groups can be further justified by making analogies between them and interviews. It is between the benefits of individual versus group counselling and discussions between groups compared with those between two people. Apart from the obvious fact that more information (data) can be gathered in more efficient and fruitful ways, groups of people develop synergies that encourage the articulation of values and opinions and the relating of individual experiences, which are endorsed or questioned within the group. The researcher, furthermore, is not passive and interacts with the group; he or she is not only a source of additional information and insights but can also be a means by which the discussion is guided towards the topic in question (Nassar-McMillan and Borders, 2002).

The relevance of focus groups in comparison with in-depth or semi-structured interviews and how that aligns with this study can be given further consideration. A focus group captures a spectrum of views, while interviews capture those that are individual. Issues relevant to community and social behaviour and norms are discussed in focus groups and information gained is from a community-level perspective, which is further refined during the focus group as each member of the panel engages the topics with varied opinions, whereas it is individually centred in interviews (Hennink, 2014). A focus group can reproduce real-life social interaction. It can explore and evaluate new and contemporary ideas and modes of behaviour and debate and justify current issues in ways that are socially moderated. It can be aligned with symbolic interactionism based on the fact that the society is socially constructed, and symbolic interaction theory shows that meaning is developed through social interactions between individuals (Aksan, Kisac, Aydin and Demirbuken, 2009).

This is not meant to suggest that focus groups are a more appropriate data collection method in all circumstances, but it does suggest that in some it clearly is. As Guest, Namey, Taylor, Eley and McKenna (2017, p. 693) point out, group dynamics provided in a focus group can be utilised to “produce information that might not be gathered from a single respondent,” and a “wider range of views and ideas” may be generated. The question then becomes why this method, as opposed to individual interviews, is better suited for this study and if previous points made in support of focus groups can be further extended. This is because the consumption of alternative luxury, as has been emphasised (see Chapter 2), is a type of social behaviour, it is very much influenced by others, by the subjective norm, and therefore the drivers and influences of this behaviour must be investigated and better understood in the context of groups.

The theories of symbolic interaction can again be referred to in terms of exchanging and discussing the views of consumers, each with their own starting points. This was very much supported over the course of the focus groups for this study, whereby participants openly brainstormed, agreeing and disagreeing on key points. This helped to reveal the underlying drivers and how alternative luxury is situated within this segment of the population.

There is some debate in the literature about whether interviews or focus groups are most likely to raise more sensitive issues that can reveal deeper meanings and truths about behaviour (Guest *et al*, 2017). In this regard it can again be argued that this is likely to be contingent on the area of interest. In the case of this study, there are sensitivities, for example, with regard to counterfeit luxury, that individuals may be less comfortable talking about in an individual interview with a researcher who may be seen as not being of the same socioeconomic class. In a group setting, however, participants are within a comfort zone and are with others they identify with. Therefore, focus group participants will feel more at ease and more likely to divulge their feelings on sensitive topics and this was found to be the case in this study. Fundamentally, the group dynamics and emergent conformity of some views were beneficial and revealing. While there were instances of respondents appearing to be dominant, the researcher's coordination ensured that all the participants were given opportunities to speak while group engagement was sustained.

3.1.2 Role of the researcher

As the previous section highlights, the active role of the researcher in the focus group process is a critical factor, as is the ways in which data is subsequently analysed (Nassar-McMillan *et al.*, 2010). In this regard Krueger (2002) provides some important guidelines that are usefully adopted in this study. The participants must obviously be made aware that the session is being audio recorded, they should also be provided with an information sheet and must give informed consent for their participation.

It is important that participants are at ease and feel comfortable and that the moderator (researcher) outlines his or her role and how the session will be conducted, for instance that there are no right or wrong answers being sought, that all views will be respected and listened to, that only one person should speak at a time and that the researcher will guide the event but will remain objective and unbiased at all times. It is usual that there may be some hesitancy among participants, at least at the outset, and this makes the posing of open questions even more important because they are an invitation to express views and values as well as indicating behaviour.

3.1.3 Context and setting

As indicated, the choice of using focus groups for data collection was arrived at following a broad consideration of research philosophies and the needs of the study. The suitability of focus groups in the type or research undertaken in this study, furthermore, is endorsed in the relevant literature, for example “they are excellent as tools for explaining consumer attitudes and for clarifying and providing a better understanding of the subject matter” (Mishra, 2016, p. 3). Having made this decision, the process can be further refined by a deeper consideration of the study objectives. Guided by the types and nature of the information needed, as well as available resources, such consideration concerns the backgrounds of people best suited to the study needs, the number of focus groups, their location and any further relevant demographic categorisations (Krueger, 1998).

Setting the focus group objectives for this study therefore entails a number of steps and requirements. There must be a broad understanding of the concept of alternative luxury as seen through the lenses of the users. As these users are Nigerian, it is necessary to understand the underlying motivations driving the consumption of alternative luxury and the nature of the market in that country. In particular, it entails a full comprehension of what the consumption of alternative luxury means for the low-income segment of the Nigerian population. Within and across this population segment it requires an understanding of how the three types of alternative luxury are being used and how and when they overlap. Fundamentally, it also means an understanding of the role played by alternative luxury in its three forms in the lives of people and in relationships with others.

3.1.4 Sampling strategy

3.1.4.1 The composition, size and number of focus groups

Within this, it is also important that there is a level of homogeneity within the groups – it is a high priority for the researcher to prioritise questions that are at the core of the study, but to gain most benefits, these must also have importance for all participants; thus, familiarity and homogeneity are important factors – as Mishra (2016, p. 2) mentions, “The general characteristics of the Focus Group are people's involvement, a series of meetings, the homogeneity of participants with respect to research interests, the generation of qualitative data, and discussion focused on a topic, which is determined by the purpose of the research.” Furthermore, and with particular reference to this study and the use of focus groups, “The link between people’s perceptions and their socio-cultural situation is critical” (Nyumba *et al.*, 2018, p. 21).

As these points indicate, the sampling method for this study was purposive and this effectively meant a relatively homogenous composition of the focus groups. A further way of justifying this is to point out that if the sampling had been random and based on the whole population of Nigeria, it is likely that the majority would be insufficiently informed and insufficiently interested in alternative luxury. The views of those that were uninformed but interested and from the socioeconomic group of interest may have usefully contributed, but this would have been inefficient. Including those that were interested but from different socioeconomic groupings would have resulted in different perspectives that may have diluted and even negated such group discussions.

Thus, the choice of purposive sampling and the creation of relatively homogenous focus groups again comes down to the aims and objectives of the study and this finds support in the relevant literature. Gronkjaer, Curtis, Crespigny and Delmar (2011, p. 23), for example, state that “homogeneity in focus group construction is considered essential for group interaction and dynamics” and support their point by citing parts of a transcript from research using a homogenous group. It shows that because of their commonalities the group was able to recall factors and instances relevant to the topic, which promoted comfortableness and familiarity.

This led to an “easy flow” and eagerness to share views and beliefs often through anecdotes that it was known others would easily understand and relate to (Gronkjaer et al., 2011, p. 24). As highlighted by Sim (1998), in a homogenous focus group environment there will be a level of safety and comfort due to shared demographics, experience and culture – “the more homogeneous the membership of the group, in terms of social background, level of education, knowledge, and experience, the more confident individual group members are likely to be in voicing their [own] views” (Sim, 1998, p. 348).

The size of each focus group was set at eight participants, and it is necessary to justify this beyond the intuition and opinion of the researcher. Sandelowski (1996) pointed out that sample sizes in qualitative research tend to be small as this is necessary in terms of supporting the required depth in analysis. Furthermore, the nature of purposive sampling in making selections rich in relevant information may become disadvantageous if the sample is too large (Luborsky and Rubinstein, 1995). This is in contrast with the commonly used sampling approach in quantitative sampling (Marshall, 1996; Patton, 1990) and research has found that purposive sampling (with lesser numbers) compares favourably in terms of efficiency when compared with qualitative studies using random sampling (Van Rijnsoever, 2017).

In order to justify the sufficiency of the two focus groups of eight participants each, the principle of saturation was applied to establish how additional focus groups revealed no additional insights to the study (Morse, 2015a). As described by Islam and Aldaihani (2022), a saturation point is reached when the data reveals no new data of significant importance. A thematic analysis of 40 qualitative studies using focus groups found that more than 80 per cent of focus group insights and themes were discoverable with two or three groups (Guest, Namey and McKenna, 2017). With a particular emphasis on the characteristics and needs of this study as well as other points made in this section, two focus groups were considered sufficient. This is consistent with a similar point made by Hennink and Kaiser (2022) following a review of 23 qualitative studies that used interviews or focus groups, where the decision on saturation was made either on identified codes or identified categories.

3.1.4.2 Focus group demographics

An ideal yardstick for research sampling is that every member of a population has an even probability of being selected. However, there may be circumstances when this is less than ideal and in such a case, the researcher must make judgements about which group will be most representative and this is purposive sampling. It may be used in both quantitative and qualitative studies and if it is appropriately applied, it provides optimum representativeness – "the inherent bias of the method contributes to its efficiency, and the method stays robust even when tested against random probability sampling" (Tongco, 2007, p. 147). Given the nebulousness of the issue of luxury and that this study is concerned with its consumption by a certain class of people and a particular demographic, it is the most appropriate sampling approach. However, this should be rationalised and more specifically detailed.

The previous chapter of this study found differences in attitudes to luxury and alternative luxury based not only on knowledge but also on status, for example in the work of Dubois and Laurent (1994), Borstrock (2013) and Gani *et al.* (2019). Indeed, it can be posited that the foundational work in this subject area, by Veblen, was based on different and competing attitudes between classes (invidious distinction and pecuniary emulation).

However, if differences based on class and socioeconomic status are clear, those related to the demographic variables of age and gender are less obvious. Nevertheless, there is support for such differences in the literature, as also explained in Chapter 2. Gani *et al.* (2019), for example, argued that both gender and age are related to purchase intentions. Schade *et al.* (2015) found that those within the age range of 16–25 (late adolescence) tends to have a weak sense of their own identities and therefore seek approval from their peer group, while people in the age group 26–39 (young adults) have a deeper and more confident sense of their identity and are less concerned with appeasing the opinions and behaviours of their peers. Bian and Veloutsu (2007) found that the younger and more financially challenged age group had a greater propensity to consume counterfeit luxury products, and this is supported by Schullman (2016), who found that interest and consumption of luxury decreased over the course of life cycles and that Millennials were the highest spenders across the board. In some cultural contexts this trend was more nuanced, for instance Srinivasan *et al* (2014a) with regard to India.

With regard to gender, the literature also indicates there are differences, albeit the nature and extent of these differences are contested. One study, for example, found that the attitude of men towards counterfeit luxury products was more positive than among women, while the latter purchased more such items. A study in a different context (the US) did not find such a difference but did find men acting more deceptively when purchasing counterfeit luxury (Gani *et al.*, 2019, citing Chen and Tang, 2006). Schullman (2016) found that men are clearly more likely to purchase luxury than women, while Srinivasan *et al.* (2014a) found that there was no significant relationship between the perceived quality value of luxury and gender.

Based on an understanding of gender power imbalances, Roux et al. (2016) suggested that women are more concerned with the impression they make on others and with their self-appearance, which influence their attitudes towards luxury. On the other hand, Altintas and Heischmidt (2018) found that gender differences based on self-identity and its constructs were ‘mild.’ As indicated, a reason for such differences in findings is that gender roles and identities are often different in developing and emerging nations in comparison with those that are advanced and Western and this has a significant effect on attitudes towards luxury (Ajita and Sivakumar, 2019).

Two separate focus groups were formed and there was some separation based on age and gender. Unlike most research into luxury and alternative luxury, the aim was to gain a holistic insight into the drivers of attitudes towards the consumption of alternative luxury. Therefore, while it is acknowledged that age and gender variables may have significance, the study wanted to avoid too much fragmentation because that may motivate fragmented findings and conclusions. Therefore, one group consisted of both male and female participants, and another comprised only female. The first (mixed gender) group was within the age range of 18 to 25 (inclusive) and had a median age of 20. The second group was within the age range of 26 to 35 (inclusive) and had an average age of 31.

With regard to occupation and outlook on life, the first group can be categorised as representing students and young entrepreneurs who enjoy socialising and having relevance to their peers and peer groups. The second group can be categorised as representing people who are working class entrepreneurs seeking both economic and social opportunities. They had strong interests in finding opportunities for leisure and networking, with the major ambition of building a sustainable source of income for themselves and their families. In addition, all respondents were screened based on the average daily earning and only those who earned less than $2 (N1,000) per day or $60 (N30,000) per month were selected.

3.1.5 Ethical issues

A central principle in terms of research ethics is that no physical or mental harm comes to participants or the researcher. The likelihood that such harm may occur will differ between studies and the aims and objectives of each, but nevertheless certain action can be taken and principles upheld by the researcher in ensuring ethical principles are maintained in all instances. In this regard anonymity and confidentiality for participants is of utmost importance (Wiles, Crow, Heath and Charles, 2008). This, it can be posited, also assists the collection of data, particularly in a qualitative study – if participants are confident that their anonymity and confidentiality are assured, they will be more willing to express their deeply held truths. In this study, such assurances were provided and in reporting the findings, participants were anonymously referred to.

Of further great importance is that the participants have a full understanding of what is entailed and that their participation is voluntary (Comstock, 2013). Therefore, and as noted in section 3.2, informed consent forms were provided, explained and signed by participants without any duress. This included permission for the audio recording of the focus groups. Participants were also informed that they could leave at any time without any pressure being placed on them to remain. The audio recordings along with the transcriptions were held on a password-protected computer owned by the researcher. A further ethical responsibility lies with the researcher in terms of maintaining academic integrity and objectivity and this has guided the researcher over the course of this work.

3.1.6 Data collection

3.1.6.1 Focus group protocol

A protocol sets out the ways in which a process is undertaken, effectively the rules that can be used to optimally guide it. Based on the literature (Krueger, 2002), this is described here. Three phases can be identified for focus groups and the first of these covers the period before they take place. Included within this phase are the completion of a project plan, a decision on how many focus groups to create the identification of participants and how many will be in each group, the generation of questions and the development of a script. This script covers the welcoming of participants and an explanation of the purpose and context, the asking of the questions and exploration of key points that emerge and the closing of the group.

The first phase also entails the selection of a facilitator and the selection of a location. The facilitator may be the researcher, who is knowledgeable in the subject area, and able to maintain discussions with tact and skill (particularly in ensuring all voices are heard), someone who probes and explores but who does not directly participate in dialogues. The chosen location should be easy to access, provide comfort and allow participants to see each other. Consideration should also be given to the provision of some refreshments.

The second phase concerns the conducting of the focus groups, and it is important that the facilitator arrives before the participants with all necessary materials ready and set up. Proper introductions should be made, and the prepared script followed. In doing this the facilitator should encourage positivity, make sure all voices are heard (paying particular attention to quieter members), probe for more comprehensive answers, monitor the time, avoid arguing with participants and ensure everyone is thanked and informed of what uses the data will have. The third phase is about interpreting the results and subsequently reporting them. Within this phase, the first task is to summarise the impressions gained from the groups in the form of brief notes and then to transcribe the data from the audio recordings. The data are then analysed, with specific themes being identified. From this, the results are interpreted, including important findings, and any recommendations which can subsequently be made. A report is created, with a first draft submitted for evaluation and, following its return, any necessary adjustments or additions should be made.

Achieving involvement and evincing socio-cultural perceptions entails the development of relevant strategies and questions, for instance, projections, fantasies, even daydreams. Role-playing may be used if the context is suitable. This potentially has particular relevance to alternative luxury, as dreams and ambitions have been associated by researchers with the context of luxury consumption (for example Heine, 2012; Dubois and Laurent, 1994). In this regard, posing questions that create a sense of ownership can also be used, but the important point is to choose those most relevant from a prepared list (Krueger, 2002).

3.1.6.2 Instrument

A way of broadly structuring a focus group is through the ‘hourglass’ model described by Hennink (2014). At the centre of the model are the key topics and specific questions and these are preceded by two steps aimed at facilitating this core part where data is gained. The first of these is the introduction, which provides cognition to participants and the second is opening and introductory questions that build rapport across the group. Following the main part come closing questions and a post-discussion that bring closure and provide information.

This broad structure can be operationalized through a focus group discussion guide and the one developed for this study is held as an appendix. As noted, this guide is meant to represent the general order of points for discussion and allows for any further relevant points raised over the course of the session to be discussed. In the introductory part of the focus group discussion (FGD), and following introductions, the researcher explains the purpose and scope as well as encourages participants to speak freely. This is followed by an ice-breaker section where participants are invited to say something about themselves, for example how they like to relax. As the FGD guide for this study indicates (see appendix), the discussion is then “structured around the key themes using the probe questions prepared in advance” (Escalada and Heong, n. d., p. 3). In the case of this study, some pictures of Nigerian celebrities who have been accused of using alternative luxury were also used as an aid in stimulating discussion. In line with Hennink (2014), the focus group concluded following closing questions and a post-discussion.

The role of the researcher is pivotal, and a number of points can be emphasised in this respect. Showing empathy is important as well as being polite and friendly. It also helps to show a real interest in the people and be aware of any sensitivities they may have. Any dominant individuals should be gently discouraged, while those who are shyer and retiring should be encouraged to speak out. Participants should be encouraged to speak with each other rather than always through the researcher, while he (the researcher) should probe without leading the discussion in particular directions (Escalada and Heong, n. d.). This guidance was followed over the course of the focus groups for this study.

3.1.7 Data processing

There is clearly a need to explain and evaluate the coding process, but it would be misguided to suggest there is one definitive approach that should be applied in research. On one hand, the coding process can be broadly defined as the "process of analysing qualitative text data by taking them apart to see what they yield before putting the data back together in a meaningful way" (Elliot, 2018, p. 2850, citing Creswell, 2015) but on the other, the specifics of how this is undertaken depend on the context of the research being undertaken. The need for coding is clear – it is a process for making sense of what is typically a large amount of disparate data within the context of the study and the research aims and objectives. This sense-making initially may involve the identification of numerous codes which (depending on the needs of the research) may ultimately be coalesced into many major themes, which often form main headings when reporting on findings (Elliot, 2018).

The process of preparing and coding the data for a qualitative study was described by Zhang and Wildemuth (2005) and from this a number of questions and potential pitfalls emerge. These include whether all or main questions should be included, the extent to which previous studies should guide coding decisions and defining the coding unit, which is one of "the most fundamental and important decisions" (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2005, p. 2199). Interspersed with such important considerations is a need for administrative efficiency and the maintenance of consistency and these can be significantly assisted using an appropriate software package, something that can bring a researcher closer to the data, allowing a greater focus on what is important for the research objectives. The most used and most recommended such package is NVivo, and it was used in this study. The purpose of such a package is to "assist researchers in organizing, managing, and coding qualitative data in a more efficient manner" (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2005, p. 2202).

The extent to which such assistance is helpful and even necessary can be indicated by setting out the steps involved in qualitative content analysis. The first is to prepare the data and in this study, it entailed transcribing that data and making decisions based on the needs of the research. These included whether to transcribe all questions, including prompts, or just the main ones. Whether to transcribe all verbalisations literally or to summarise where considered appropriate. In the end, the decision was to include all questions and all verbalisations. The second step was to define the unit of analysis, and this means determining what will be coded in terms of words, sentences, or whole blocks of transcribed text. In this instance, it was decided that relevance to a single coded context was the most appropriate, regardless of length. The third step was to develop a coding scheme, whereby a level of homogeneity was considered desirable notwithstanding the possibility of a theme having relevance for more than one code (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2005).

The fourth step, again assisted using NVivo, was to test the coding scheme on one part of the text and the fifth was to apply the code to all of the text. Upon completion of this step, the next was to evaluate the consistency of the coding, something that also contributed towards validity and reliability (see below, this section). The seventh step is to make sense of the coding and from these to draw conclusions for the study. This step is critical as it informs the last one, which is to report the findings as well as the methods used to reach them. Interpretation is central to qualitative research and a reader must not only be able to understand the interpretations made but also to understand the basis and justifications for them (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2005).

3.1.8 Data analysis

Data Analysis through coding and thematic analysis using NVivo software.

Analysis of the focus group data seeks to discover patterns and dominant themes that emerge from the qualitative discussion sessions related to alternative luxury consumption behaviour and its various antecedents. Consistent with guidance provided by Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) and others, this thematic analysis approach has been applied as a “method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The process starts with the transcription of all focus group audio recordings. This was done manually and then imported into NVivo12, a software tool that helps in the automated classification and pattern detection in qualitative data. The first part of the process was the use of the NVivo frequency query to identify the most dominant words from the transcripts. These dominant words can then be applied as keywords for the coding process, which helps in aggregating and clustering the most important findings and reoccurring phrases into related groups called ‘themes’ for a better understanding of the meaning. During the coding process, the transcripts were reviewed multiple times to carefully identify possible themes related to the research objectives on alternative luxury consumption by the low-income segment.

Coding allowed for the generation of labels or tags (codes) from the transcript in order to identify and categorise related topics, or concepts, which share commonality in answering the specific research questions. These were then organised into clusters based on shared relatedness to build twenty-eight different themes which were then further organised into eight higher order themes as shown in Table 2.4.

Codes are themes that can be identified as either manifest or latent. Manifest codes are easily and directly identifiable or observable and offer objective evaluation whereas a latent code has implicit meaning which requiring deeper analysis to infer underlying meaning from the words or phrases (Joffe, 2012). Whilst the manifest themes were easily identifiable in the transcript and therefore inductively analysed, the latent ones were deduced in reference to the fundamental theories on alternative luxury consumption as previously identified from the literature. As guided by Fereday & Muir-Cochrane (2006), this research work was first coded using manifest coding while latent coding was undertaken at a later time based on a general interpretation of the theoretical linkages.

The process of code generation and thematic clustering, furthermore, are informed by the epistemological positioning of the research work. (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Since our research paradigm is within a critical realist framework, the process has been guided by the six-step approach provided in the work of Braun and Clarke (2006, 2012). This process is summarised below:

(1) Data familiarity: The process of getting to understand the data through extensive reading to establish the preliminary core ideas.

(2) Code generation: This is the systematic identification of dominant words that capture the core meanings of the focus group discussion as they relate to the topic of alternative luxury consumption.

(3) Theme identification: The process of collating the codes into themes and gathering text relevant to each of the identified themes.

(4) Theme's evaluation and review: The practice of checking if the identified themes truly and fully reflect the codes extracted from the entire dataset.

(5) Theme naming and description: The process of labelling, refining and naming each theme to capture the broadness of the meaning and the depth of the insights conveyed in relation to the context of the study.

(6) Report generation and insight summarisation: This is the final stage of organising the insights and extracting the dominant ideas that answer the specific research questions.

Table 3.1
Initial Themes and Second order Themes and Definition

Initial Themes	**Key Themes Definition**	**Related theories and concepts**
1. Aspiration 2. Personal meaning 3. Access to what is distant. 4. Stepping stone 5. Easy access 6. Democratic access 7. Affordable access	Achieving personal dreams through attainable luxury at own terms	• Massification of luxury - from class to mass (Kapferer &Laurent, 2016) • Populence/masstige luxury (Granot, Russell and Brashear-Alejandro, 2013)
8. No distinction between options 9. Shared usage occasions	Similarity in the use of all the 3 channels of alternative luxury	• Brand switching propensity. (Michaelidou, 2012)
10. Feel good 11. Self esteem 12. Positive self-perception 13. Self-defence	Positive and self-reinforcing feelings	• Boosting social self-esteem (Sivanathan & Pettit, 2010)

		• Buffering against self-threat (Dubois, Jung & Ordabayeva, 2021)
14. Self-comparison 15. Social influence 16. Bandwagon effect	Pecuniary emulation tendency	• Social Emulation (Veblen, 1899) • Bandwagon effect (Leibensten, 1950) • Social comparison theory (White, 2015)
17. Ease of switching 18. Freedom	Variety and novelty seeking tendency in the use of various types of alternative luxury	• Variety-seeking behaviour (Nagar & Singh, 2019)
19. Guilt elimination 20. Self-justification 21. Moral decoupling	Moral disengagement and self justification to use alternative luxury	• Moral rationalisation and moral decoupling. (Chen, Teng & Liao, 2018) • Deliberate Moral Justification (Wang, 2019)
22. Showcasing self 23. Self-distinction 24. Self-packaging	Conspicuous signalling or self-presentation through alternative luxury	• Conspicuous Signalling (Han et.al., 2010) • Status Signaling/Conspicuous consumption (Chaudhuri, Mazumdar, & Ghoshal, 2011) • Identity construction through luxury consumption (Perez et al.,2010)
25. Conscious 26. Intentional 27. Non-deceptive 28. Being in control	Volitional, non-deceptive and intentional usage of alternative luxury to achieve personal goals	• Goal-directed behaviour (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001) • Goal fulfillment mechanism (Bagazzo & Dholakia, 1999

3.1.9 Validity and reliability

The distinct methodological differences and approaches between quantitative and qualitative research means that the criteria for establishing validity and reliability are also different. While the former seeks these in areas such as generalizability, consistency and being replicable, the latter seeks it in areas such as credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. These were carefully considered in this research. Credibility has many dimensions, such as engagement over a prolonged period, the persistency of observation, debriefing with peers and being referentially adequate (Morse, 2015). These can be summarised as ensuring that the study measures what is intended and is a true reflection of the social reality of the participants" (Maher *et al.*, 2018, p. 3).

Transferability relates to the extent to which the research findings may be transferred to an alternative research context. Dependability means making sure the research process has been sufficiently described to enable it to be repeated – an "audit trail" (Morse, 2015, p. 1213). In a similar vein, confirmability is about supporting the audit trail, showing triangulation, and minimising any inherent researcher bias (Maher *et al.*, 2018).

However, when a yardstick for validity is the "degree to which inferences made in a study are accurate and well-founded," (Morse, 2015, p. 1214) it is important that this is measured in some way. Morse (2015) chose to use 'rigour' in terms of establishing validity and reliability and described a number of methods that can be employed. There are two approaches, and both were used. The first is to provide a transcription to one or more participants for them to confirm or contradict what is written. In the case of this study, four participants were randomly selected and asked to review the final analysis. They unanimously agreed that the conclusions are truly reflective of what they said and what they meant. A second approach to member checking is to conduct it when data is being collected and by making reference to what has been said by one or more participants with another (different) group member. Over the course of the focus groups for this study, the researcher probed in this way, for example, by asking “other people say this or that…Is this the same for you?” As Morse (2015) specifies, this latter approach is also a reliability check because if a person is not following or properly understanding the discourse, the analysis will not be stable and if it is not stable, it is not reliable.

3.1.10 Results and discussion

3.1.10.1 Five key insights concerning alternative luxury from the focus groups respondents’ use of rented, counterfeit and second-hand interchangeably on different occasions.

With respect to the interchangeability of rented, counterfeit and second-hand luxury, some insightful and representative statements were made. A female participant from the first group (aged 18-25 and positioned in the CD socioeconomic group) indicated that the desire for luxury and being seen with it overcame any possible reservations about items being obtained in terms of alternative luxury because that made the desire (dream) achievable: *The truth is that we just want to find a way to use these Gucci and LV at cheaper rate whether it is fake, rented or even second-hand Akube. They are not so different for us*.

Another female from the same socioeconomic background and age range emphasised that counterfeits are the same as other forms of luxury *because I use them to serve the same purpose.* She went on to say to the group that she wanted to *tell you a funny story*. This is that *I have a roommate who used a rented Gucci belt, a second-hand LV bag and an Akube Bvlgari watch to attend a friend’s wedding. One event and 3 ways to just use luxury things*. Another female participant, in this instance from the second focus group (aged 26-35) and also categorised as being from the CD socioeconomic grouping, made little or no distinction between forms of alternative luxury, including counterfeit: *I know a market in Oshodi that sells second-hand China fake. I know a friend who rented a counterfeit belt and I have seen an advert on Jiji to rent a second-hand. Anything goes for us as long as you combine them well and you are happy*.

A male student from the first group (aged 18-25) and classified as being in the socioeconomic group C2D, made similar points but also emphasised the importance of using alternative luxury to indicate he had a range of luxury products that could be alternately displayed: *As a student I can't be wearing the original fake to school all the time. I have to shuffle it with the reuse I have, I can buy one or two of the original fake and the same of the reuse. I have rented from a boutique in Yaba. We actually mix them together because they all serve same purpose*. Another male from the same group classed as being in the CD socioeconomic grouping saw alternative luxury as a step towards future luxury, acknowledging that the 'dream' of owning traditional luxury was not attainable at present and so there is an interim dream that can be achieved: *I will take alternative to mean all the 3 examples, that is, you rent, use second-hand or a good China fake. For me, it is a sign that I know I can't wear the original, but I can still wear something and belong. It is my stepping-stone. Like we say, we must all start as a learner*.

In summary of this theme, it is clear that using second-hand, counterfeit and rented luxury make luxury achievable. The underlying purposes and functions of it remain the same, or at least largely so. Based on this small sample, this seems to be the case across a range of ages from adolescence to the end of young adulthood.

3.1.10.2 Alternative Luxury produces deep emotional fulfilment for the users

Some emphasis was placed on the work of Dubois and Laurent (1994) in section 2, who focused on emotions and feelings associated with luxury. Their work identified feelings towards the consumption of luxury across all socioeconomic groups and all types of luxury and this can also be associated with other work in different cultures and situations, where people define and consume luxury within their own settings and by definitions based in their societies and social groups within them, for example Gani *et al.* (2019). Such are the findings from this theme that emerged from the focus group and a way of appropriately presenting these findings is in the form of statements made by participants (each statement was made by different participants):

On top of the world

There's this pride

Self esteem

You will upgraded

You will feel among

You will feel mature

You will feel respected

You will feel uncommon

It gives sense of honour

You borrow or buy those clothes and make people have this picture of you becoming a slay mamas on Instagram.

These results not only support a strand of existing literature but extend it by highlighting that people in the lower socioeconomic groups and in settings other than advanced Western nations conceptualise alternative luxury in their own terms. Regardless of whether it is counterfeit, rented or second-hand, it provides a positive self-perception, a treasured dream, of the desired as opposed to the real self. This is pecuniary emulation, whether it means aspiring to be associated with an admired celebrity, being associated with a social class above the one they know they are within or the fulfilment of some other aspirational dream. They may have some fears that their use of counterfeits or another form of alternative luxury may remove this perception of the self among others if it is exposed but it is clearly, for these groups at least, worth that risk.

3.1.10.3 Positive and self-reinforcing feelings when consuming alternative luxury

A key question revolving around the use of alternative luxury is whether it can perform the same function for those indulging in it as traditional luxury. It can be recalled that while the function of invidious distinction is to enable those occupying the higher-class strata of society to strive to make themselves different from other classes, the function of pecuniary emulation is for people to indicate association with a higher class. An aspect of this involves positive feelings about the self and enhanced feelings of self-worth and self-esteem. The question is whether alternative luxury evokes the same feelings and whether engagement with alternative luxury is seen in terms of pecuniary emulation.

Although the results in this respect are somewhat mixed, overall, the question was answered positively; some participants, for example, positioned their consumption of alternative luxury situationally and even culturally, with one stating:

I believe that using fake does not mean I am fake. It simply means this is what I can afford, and I am proud of my situation. It means I know what is good, but I am not there yet. I also mean I am smart to know how to manage myself.

Another made a similar point, albeit from a different angle:

It does change my confidence level because I feel very classy when I wear a luxury and expensive things, and when I wear counterfeit, I stay among people that cannot pinpoint what I'm wearing.

Within themselves participants did not seem to feel they should have negative feelings in terms of ethics about using counterfeit alternative luxury and in the main felt confident about that use. The main concern for some participants was whether others would be able to identify they were wearing counterfeit products (in line with Astray's (2011) assumption of perceived counterfeit detection described in 2.3.5), while others seemed untroubled about their use of luxury being seen. While one participant, for example, said:

Most people do not even know the difference between fake, rented, second-hand Akube or original. Let us be frank, except those that mix-up the logos, others are difficult to be seen. This is the truth.

another stated that:

One truth is that these celebrities use fake, and they also rent. You remember when Nollywood actors were busted on social media for using fake. Even Linda Ikeja bought fake Hermes. There is nothing wrong in using fake or second-hand. Celebrities are doing the same and even flaunt it. Why can't I do it?

The notion of alternative counterfeit luxury being an attainable step towards ultimately consuming traditional luxury was also stated by one participant when this theme was discussed, effectively making it part of a desired “luxurisation” process rather than being a separate issue:

It gives me the boost to work harder until I am able to get the original. I actually see it as training yourself before you buy the original when money comes.

This notion of a personalised form of seeking to achieve a certain status through counterfeit luxury is something that comes through in the words of most if not all of the participants. It is an attainable and desired goal, and this was perhaps most clear in the following:

I am alive and doing it my own way.

We are managing. I will get there one day.

Every day is not Christmas and is not everyday things goes the way you want it.

Yes, that is what you want but the needs are not there sometimes, so the option is to get from someone to meet up standard.

For one participant using alternative counterfeit luxury was itself a sort of positive badge, something that sent a signal of how he wanted to be seen by others:

Sometimes, you are telling people that you are smart to get expensive things cheap.

Although differences between traditional and counterfeit luxury may be intuitively obvious and are often highlighted in the literature, a key point is often overlooked. This is that it is situational and positional – if the fundamental purposes with regard to human nature and human behaviour did not exist in the consumption of counterfeit luxury as they do in the consumption of traditional luxury, de facto the same forces and functions that define luxury per se would not be there. However, the results from this and other sections indicate that they are, with the only real difference being the level at which either form is attainable (it can be recalled from the second section of this work that a goal must be attainable as well as desirable if its achievement will be sought). These results emphasise this by showing that people consume luxury on their own terms, which aligns with the changing definition of luxury and the importance of personal meaning and context.

3.1.10.4 The positional use of alternative luxury and the importance of others

This and the following section provide emphasis for the previous one. It is about feelings and emotions evoked when perceiving how others may form a view about the individual consuming counterfeit luxury products. The range of opinions is exemplified by the following statements:

I'm proud either the counterfeit or the original after all everything is packaging.

No, I don't care. When I don't have money, can't I use what I can afford.

I feel uncomfortable but I don't really care if people know

I feel comfortable

3.1.10.5 The role of alternative Luxury – personal, emotional and intimate, a steppingstone to a desired world

The notion of alternative luxury being a steppingstone not only towards the consumption of traditional luxury but through that to a desired world has emerged as a strong theme in this research. The importance of this is that it is a part of luxury in a wider sense, it should not be seen as somehow being separate. Along with being positional, social and cultural, alternative luxury fills a space within the whole context. In the time of Veblen people from the lower classes might focus their attention and their savings on one attainable goal in terms of pecuniary emulation, for example a piano that would take pride of place in a front room that was always kept in pristine condition for visitors (Johnson, 1988).

Through alternative luxury this need has become democratised, much more affordable, and this means a far wider and more comprehensive range of 'luxury' can be attained. However, it is the same process and reflects the same emotions and feelings. As one participant explained:

for me it's a feel-good medicine. I feel good about myself that I am not missing out, while another said *it is the part of the feeling of socialising because you just feel belong even when you are not yet there*. It is *about getting the good feeling of the rich people at very low cost*.

And others added:

A mixture of emotions and feelings, such as it helps you save cost because not many people know the difference between these things … many people don't really know the difference.

Gucci is Gucci, Bvlgari is Bvlgari whether original, fake, rented or bought at bend-down second-hand market and the more you use these things the more you know them.

How will I know the original if I have not used fake or second-hand?

These were all references to the notion that alternative counterfeit luxury is seen as being a steppingstone, which is explicit in the following:

It helps you to pass time like it's a present thing that prepares you for the luxury items. It's like a steppingstone to taste good life before it finally comes

3.1.10.6 Similarities and differences: age and gender

All participants, regardless of gender and age, saw alternative luxury in the same or similar ways and this is broadly in terms of goal achievement, with those goals being positioned across the five functions of attitude (utility, social-adjustive, value-expressive, ego-defensive and knowledge). However, the relative importance of each function did show variations, with female participants being more inclined towards the social-adjustive and ego-defensive functions and males being inclined towards utility. No significant differences were found for value-expressive function.

In terms of age, participants from the younger group were more experimental with alternative luxury and less concerned about implications in using it compared with participants from the older group. This younger group were more disposed towards using alternative luxury to gain reinforcement and identity with their peer groups, while those in the older focus group were more inclined to using alternative luxury to enhance their identities in wider economic and social spheres.

3.1.11 Summary

Although a range of ancillary points and views have emerged from the focus groups, a fundamental and core aspect has emerged. Of most importance is the fact that the personal meanings associated with alternative luxury consumption do not deal with whether luxury is rented, second-hand or counterfeit, but reflect a heartfelt personal desire to be connected with the world of luxury and all that implies. It reflects that “the DNA of luxury is the symbolic desire to belong to a superior class” (Kapferer and Bastien, 2009, p. 314) and is therefore aligned with Veblen’s theory of pecuniary emulation. The alternative luxury concept can be seen in terms of the democratisation of luxury because it allows low-income people to be included and may materially represent luxury in a different form than is traditionally.

However, to see it as being somehow different in principle and in theory from the human desire to conspicuously consume, as some writers have recently proposed, is misguided in the same way that it would have been misguided to have seen the aim of invidious distinction by the leisure classes towards the end of the nineteenth century and the pecuniary emulation that followed it as being fundamentally different from the human behaviour and psychology that Veblen identified since societies were first formed. People still have the aspiration to indicate a better life than the one they occupy but, as has been emphasised, to be a goal that is worth aiming for it must be attainable. For people with lower incomes this is on their own terms and within the dictates of their own cultures, societies, and social groupings.

3.2 Construct development and theorisation on alternative luxury consumption readiness (ALCR).

This section seeks to show how some important studies and concepts that have been presented in other work, for example the original work of Veblen, the theory of planned behaviour and others, can be integrated and extended to explain and clarify the new proposed construct. This is of relevance, for instance, with regard to the inclusion of Kutz’s functions of attitude, Kruglanski’s function of goals, and Peruggini’s goal-directed behaviours. In terms of luxury and alternative luxury, a number of building blocks have been identified. These include pecuniary emulation (Bagwell and Bernheim (1996), social emulation (Veblen, 1999), the inclination to conspicuously signal (Han et al, 2010), the seeking of social acceptance (Vigneron and Johnston, 2004), novelty and/or variety seeking (Nagar and Singh, 2019) and moral justification (Wang, 2019). These are summarised below as the attributes of the ALCR construct below in Table 3 and are discussed in detail under section 3.2.5.

Alternative luxury has been variously and separately defined in terms of counterfeit, rented and second-hand luxury (see Literature Review) and summary definitions are shown in Chapter 1 (Section 1.8). A study by Coelho (2021) concerned with the effect of social power on purchase intention used the term 'alternative modes of luxury brands acquisition' to include the three forms of alternative luxury.

3.2.1 Construct Definition

The importance and relevance of concepts in the social sciences is highlighted by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff (2016) through a number of quotations – "precision in this fundamental area is imperative for the production of significant theory (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff, 2016, p. 159, citing DiRenzo, 1966); "concepts are integral to every argument for they address the most basic question of social science research: what are we talking about?" (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff, 2016, p. 160, citing Gerring, 2012). Yet despite this importance, "it is in this matter of clearly defined concepts that social science research is not infrequently defective" (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff, 2016, p. 160, citing Merton, 1958) and this causes several problems. Prominent among these is a lack of conceptual clarity, which means difficulties in separating the focal concept from other related ones in the field of study. This, in turn, can affect discriminant validity, which can undermine the validity of a study more broadly, leading to questions about its veracity and accuracy. A poorly defined concept will be defective in its operationalization, leading to ambiguities and/or may not contain all the necessary and essential properties for adequate study.

A reason why such difficulties are commonly encountered is that it is not possible to set out a clear and proven method – it is necessarily based in intuition and cognitive application by the researcher. Nevertheless, some recommended steps are proposed by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff (2016) and the first is to identify possible attributes by gathering a set of relevant definitions. The second is to categorise the attributes as themes and the third is to construct a preliminary draft definition of the concept. In the final step this is refined by asking relevant searching questions, such as what is meant by certain words (elimination of ambiguities) and gaining feedback from relevantly informed peers.

In following these steps and applying intuition and cognition based on a deep knowledge of the subject area, the researcher offers the following conceptual three-part definition:

Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness (ALCR) is the readiness of an individual to use, buy, recommend, promote, and justify the use of alternative luxury in the forms of counterfeit, second-hand or rented versions of luxury brands as a means to meet a psychological need or achieve a personal goal.

ALCR is a mental readiness borne out of reasoned action to act in a particular way – to use, buy, recommend, promote and justify the use of alternative luxury in a quest to attain a goal and address a functional psychological need.

ALCR is a goal-driven readiness and the precursor of alternative luxury behaviour. It is a strong motivation to act in a particular way. It is a motivational readiness to respond in a predictable way as it relates to any form of alternative luxury. It reflects an individual's "readiness-to-act" or preparedness to act or respond to alternative luxury stimuli. It is an individualistic variable that explains the degree to which a person is motivated to engage in any form of alternative luxury consumption to meet a personal goal.

Within these definitions a key word is *readiness*. This can be defined as a strong desire to seek to attain something, the eager pursuit of happiness, wealth, recognition etc. Readiness can be viewed as being a contingent state because it has dependency on expectancy and desire (want). As Kruglanski *et al.* (2014) pointed out, expectancy and want are major dimensions of readiness, with want being the core driver. These points are necessary precursors for the concept of motivational readiness introduced by Kruglanski *et al.* (2014, p. 367), which is defined as “the willingness or inclination, whether or not ultimately realized, to act in the service of a desire.” This degree of readiness intensity ranges from high to low, with a match between want and affordance at a given level (of intensity) being a trigger for action (with expectancy exerting a potentially important influence).

3.2.2 Construct Properties, Entity, Stability, and Attributes

This and the following sections are influenced and guided by the work of Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff (2016) concerned with concept definition. Based on this, the entity for the ALCR is an individual person and it can, therefore, not be seen as a collective measure. It focuses specifically on individuals in the low-income segment, defined as an average daily income below $2. Although tested in Nigeria, it is assumed that the ALCR as a concept is applicable in other countries too (i.e., one would be able to use the instrument, although different findings in for example correlations with other variables can be obtained).

As previously discussed in an earlier section of this work (see section 2.1.1), and as generally common with all attitudinal constructs, ALCR is assumed to be a relatively stable attitudinal concept, which is similar to attitudinal concepts, which operate between attitude and behaviour or a hybridization between attitude and behaviour, in the same manner as constructs like marketing orientation (Gounaris & Avlonitis, 1995), attitude toward green purchase (Wallnoefer & Riefler, 2021), or destination loyalty (Chekalina et. al., 2018). Each of these constructs measures the degree of favourable or unfavourable consumer's disposition, which can inform definite action (Hogg, and Vaughan 2005, p. 150). As noted above, the ALCR attributes are shown in Table 3:

Table 3.2
ALCR attributes as generated from focus group insights and literature

Direct quotes From Focus Group	Existing Theoretical Concepts	Key items from existing literature	Sources
it is about getting the good feeling of the rich people at very low cost; It's like a steppingstone to taste good life before it finally comes; You will upgraded.	Pecuniary emulation inclination	• I want to be like the people I admire. • I often compare how I am doing with how my loved ones (boy or girlfriend, family members etc.) are doing • Sometimes I buy a product because my friends buy it. • I have experience purchasing products to match people around me. • I tend to buy products because I want to share the lifestyle of mainstream groups.	Banuri and Nguyen (2020). Kang, Cui and Song (2019) Whitford (2010) Chaudhuri and Majumdar (2006) Patsiaouras (2010)
One event and 3 ways to just use luxury things; You borrow or buy those clothes and make people	Variety or novelty-seeking inclination	• I enjoy taking chances in buying different alternative luxury products to	Nagar and Singh (2019) Abdullah and Yu (2019)

have this picture of you becoming a slay mamas on Instagram. *"I have a roommate who used a rented Gucci belt, a second-hand LV bag and an Akube Bvlgari watch to attend a friend's wedding. One event and 3 ways to just use luxury things* *The truth is that we just want to find a way to use these Gucci and LV at cheaper rate whether it is fake, rented or even second-hand Akube. They are not so different for us* *As a student I can't be wearing the original fake to school all the time. I have to shuffle it with the reuse I have, I can buy one or two of the original fake and the same of the reuse. I have rented from a boutique in Yaba. We actually mix them together because they all serve same purpose*		get some variety in my purchases. • I like to shop around for different types of alternative luxury brands just out of curiosity. • Buying and using alternative luxury products makes me feel like I am free to try new things. • I easily switch between any of the three forms of alternative luxury products (counterfeit, second-hand, or rental).	Ricardo (2010) Van Trijp and Steenkamp (1992) Levav and Zhu (2009). Michaelidou (2012)
Gucci is Gucci, Bvlgari is Bvlgari whether original, fake, rented or bought at bend-down second-hand market; I feel uncomfortable but I don't really care if people know; Sometimes, you are telling people that you are smart to get expensive things cheap.	Moral disengagement inclination	• I think buying alternative luxury products is morally right. • It is okay to buy or use alternative luxury products if I cannot afford the purchase price of the original product. • It is okay to buy or use alternative luxury because the	Wang, Stoner, & John (2019) Eisend (2019) Kim, Kim, and Park (2012)

I believe that using fake does not mean I am fake. It simplify mean this is what I can afford and I am proud of my situation. I means I know what is good but I am not there yet. I also mean I am smart to know how to manage my-self. *Most people do not even know the differ-ence between fake, rented, second-hand Akube or original. Let us be frank, except those that mix-up the logos, others are diffi-cult to be seen. This is the truth.* *I don't care. When I don't have money, can't I use what I can afford.*		luxury company could afford the tiny amount of loss from just one counterfeit product. • It is okay to buy counterfeit luxury goods because hardly anyone has been caught or pun-ished. • It is not my fault if I buy or use alterna-tive luxury products because the prices of authentic luxury products are too high.	
-I feel good about my-self that I am not missing out; It does change my confi-dence level because I feel very classy when I wear a luxury and expensive things; you will feel among, and you want everyone to see it *There is nothing wrong in using fake or second-hand. Celebri-ties are doing the same and even flaunt it.*	Conspicuous sig-nalling inclination	• Luxury brands ap-propriately show-cases my identity to others. • Products say some-thing to people around me when I buy a high-priced brand. • I buy and use alter-native luxury prod-ucts because I want to show others that I am wealthy. • I show my friends that I am different by choosing to buy or use alternative lux-ury products. • I choose alternative luxury products to create my own style	Chaudhuri, Mazumdar, Ghoshal (2011) Dubois (2020) Wilcox, Hag-tvedt and Kocher (2014) Han, Nunes, and Dreze (2010) Perez, Castana, and

		that everybody admires.	Quintallina (2010)
I know I can't wear the original, but I can still wear something and belong. It is my stepping-stone; You will upgraded; It gives me the boost to work harder until I am able to get the original. I actually see it as training yourself before you buy the original when money comes. *I know a market in Oshodi that sells secondhand China fake. I know a friend who rented a counterfeit belt and I have seen an advert on Jiji to rent a second-hand. Anything goes for us as long as you combine them well and you are happy."*	Volitional goal-motivated inclination	• I intentionally buy or use alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand). • I have no hesitation in buying an alternative luxury product (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand). • I am willing to buy and use alternative luxury products that are counterfeit, rented, or second-hand. • I buy and use alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand) in order to achieve important personal goals. Buying alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand products) is entirely within my control.	Astray (2011). Wu et al. (2019)

3.2.3 Necessary and Sufficient Construct Attributes

As noted, Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff (2016) set out a number of steps in defining a concept and the first is to identify and collect many relevant definitions. The second is to organise potential attributes by their themes and to identify any that are necessary, sufficient, or shared, the third is to develop a preliminary definition Podsakoff (2016, p. 181), who noted that necessary (essential) properties "are things that all exemplars of the concept must possess" whereas sufficient (unique) properties “are things that only exemplars of the concept possess.” The attributes of ALCR have been adapted and summarised based on Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff (2016) and these are shown below in Table 3.1.

Table 3.3
Summary of ALCR Attributes

Author(s)	ALCR Conceptualisation	Key Attributes
Bagwell & Bernheim (1996)	…The tendency a lower class to consume conspicuously so that he will be thought of as a member of a higher class	Pecuniary Emulation
Veblen (1899)	… imitating higher classes consumption patterns.	Social Emulation
Han et.al. (2010)	…inclination to use goods and services for the status or social prestige value that they confer.	Conspicuous Signalling
Vigneron & Johnson (2004)	...inclination of certain people to consumer certain products because they are concerned with social acceptance and conformity with affluent reference groups.	Seeking Social Acceptance
Nagar & Singh (2019)	...the desire for a new and novel stimulus as a way to satisfy curiosity for luxury products and enhance experience.	Novelty/Variety-Seeking
Wang (2019)	…an act to morally disengage in order to participate in a behaviour without fear of self-censure, thus making the behaviour personally acceptable.	Deliberate Moral Justification

The example of a submarine is cited by these writers, whereby it is necessary that such a vessel can float, carry humans, operate below the surface but these can also be features of other objects, such as a diving bell. To sufficiently be a submarine it must be able to propel itself under water. Thus, a classical view of concepts is that they are defined by having categories of necessary and sufficient attributes, with this assumption not allowing for any ambiguities. This appropriately makes the binary assumption that if a concept has the necessary and sufficient attributes it is de facto a member of a category and if it does not have these it is not.

A distinction was made by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff (2016) between the definition of necessary and sufficient concepts based on logical conjunction (AND), which follows the structural rule that it qualifies if and only if all its attributes (n) are present, and family resemblance concepts, which are defined concerning a logical disjunction of common attributes (OR). This means common attributes are shared by a minimum of two categorised objects based on a rule that qualification by an object is gained if it has at least a minimum number (m) of n attributes. As with other concepts, ALCR has many dimensions, which can be related to it. These have the necessary attributes but not those that are sufficient, as illustrated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.4
Comparing Necessary and Sufficient Attributes for ALCR with Related Concepts

Attributes	**ALCR**	**Consumer Complicity**	**Counterfeit Proneness**	**Perceived Counterfeit Detection (PCD)**	**Conclusion**
A1 At least two ACL forms	Yes	No	No	No	NNS
A2 Intentional Promotion Self-Justification	Yes	No	No	No	NNS
A3 Moral Disengagement	Yes	No	No	No	NNS
A4 Intentional Non-Deceptive Goal-Oriented	Yes	No	No	Yes	NNS
A5 Pecuniary Emulation	Yes	Yes	No	No	NNS
All Attributes	Yes	No	No	No	NJS
KEY: Necessary but Not Sufficient (NNS), Necessary and Jointly Sufficient (NJS)					

Another approach to the development of a concept is presented by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff (2016) and this is ‘opposite poles.’ This highlights the potential benefits that can be gained from examining the attributes of a concept identified as being opposite to the focal one. A key aspect in being successful in this approach is sometimes to go beyond an obvious contrast and an example provided by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff (2016, p. 179) is treating war as opposed to peace in terms of a "conflict-cooperation continuum" – peace does not necessarily mean there is no conflict and is "not the same as cooperation." In this case, it is more appropriate to identify a peace continuum and consider what is best placed at the opposite ends of that pole, such as rivalry or negative peace to positive peace. With these points and examples in mind, and following careful consideration, an opposite pole definition of the ALCR concept is shown below in Table 3.3.

Table 3.5
Opposite Poles Approach for the Definition of the Concept

Positive	**Negative**
Individuals with a strong ALCR can consistently use, buy, recommend and justify their use of alternative luxury at all times in a manner that moves them from a present goal state to some desired future goal state. These individuals are deliberately more intentional and volitional to flaunt alternative luxury without any bad feelings. Persons who are more 'luxurised' are characterised by high level of moral disengagement, high social emulation, desire for novel/variety etc. These persons can overcome all the perceived risk to indulge in alternative luxury behaviour.	Alternatively, individuals with a less ALCR occasionally use, buy, recommend and self-justify. They have a higher sense of moral engagement and less desire for variety, or social emulation.

3.2.4 Construct dimensionality

A construct is defined as being multidimensional by Wong, Law, and Huang (2008, p. 1) when "it consists of a number of interrelated attributes or dimensions and exists in multidimensional domains" and an example is given of job satisfaction – it includes interrelated categories such as "satisfaction with pay, promotion, coworkers, the supervisor, and the work itself." This adds some layers of complexity compared with unidimensional constructs and one is a requirement that the relationships between the overall construct and each of its dimensions are clarified. The importance of this can be seen by noting that such classifications can profoundly affect the development of theories and their subsequent testing. Wong *et al.* (2008) identified two necessary characteristics for a concept to be classified as being multidimensional. The dimensions of the construct as well as it as a whole must be "clearly defined as constructs, and they must coexist for theory building and empirical investigation to take place;" therefore, "the relationship between multidimensional constructs and their dimensions should not be confused with the issue of cause-and-effect indicators of unidimensional constructs" (Wong *et al.*, 2008, p. 7). Furthermore, the dimensions of a multidimensional construct are not observable – if they are observable, the construct is unidimensional.

A construct "is an abstraction formed by generalisation from particulars that cannot be observed directly and thus must be inferred from directly observable indicators" and Wong *et al.* (2008, p. 7) again used the job satisfaction example to demonstrate this important point. Pay satisfaction is a measurable construct that can be measured through a survey questionnaire and is therefore unidimensional; job satisfaction, however, is multidimensional and has satisfaction with pay as one of a number of its dimensions. Again, in reference to the relationships between a multidimensional construct and its dimensions, Wong *et al.* (2008) emphasised that these must be specified. Based on the specification of these relationships, the whole construct can be understood, which means that the ability to measure the dimensions de facto means the whole construct can be operationalized.

Nevertheless, further issues remain and must be taken account of. Understanding and theorising about the form of multidimensional concepts and implications of these were considered by Polites, Roberts, and Thatcher (2012), who pointed out that dimensions can be reflective (i.e., the construct is manifested by its indicators) or formative (i.e., the construct is a composite of the indicators). They posited that it is the theoretical expectations of a researcher concerning the nature of the relationship that will determine expectations about the relationship between concepts, which agrees with the position of MacKenzie and Podsakoff's (2011) that "constructs are not inherently formative or reflective in nature".

MacKenzie and Podsakoff, (2011) presented four criteria for determining the nature of the concept: the direction of causality, whether indicators are interchangeable, the extent of their covariation and whether the antecedents and consequences of measures are the same. For ALCR as a reflective construct, causality is from construct to items and changes in the indicators do not lead to changes in the construct. The removal of an indicator from ALCR "should not alter the conceptual domain of the construct" (Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2003, p. 203). In ALCR, indicators are interchangeable, they do share common themes, covary, and a change in one relates to a change in other indicators. While it is unnecessary for indicators to have the same antecedents and consequences in formative constructs, it is a necessity in those that are reflective, like ALCR, where expectancies from alternative luxury consumption and the act of using or prompting alternative luxury are antecedents and consequences respectively for all the indicators (Jarvis et al, 2003).

These points are also clearly described in the work of Coltmann, Devinney, Midgley and Venaik (2008), who highlighted three important considerations for determining whether a construct is reflective or formative. In a reflective model, the latent construct exists "independent of the measures used" while in a formative model, latent constructs are determined through a combination of indicators. The direction of causality in a reflective model is from construct to items, while in a formative model, it is opposite (items to construct). In terms of the characteristics of items, these are "manifested by the construct" in a formative model but are "defined by the construct" in one that is formative (Coltmann et al., 2008, p. 5).

ALCR as a construct is reflective because as the dimensions of ALCR (Emulation inclination, Volitional Consumption inclination, Moral disengagement inclination, Conspicuous consumption inclination, and Variety seeking inclination), are evident effects of the ALCR construct, such that any changes in ALCR are believed to precede and explain variations in the observed variables. Therefore, if a person is more inclined to emulate others or be morally disengaged, such will have a higher probability of seeking any form of alternative luxury. The respondents' scores on the items "*I want to be like the people I admire," "I often compare how I am doing with how my loved ones (boy or girlfriend, family members etc.) are doing," "I tend to buy products because I want to share the lifestyle of mainstream groups," "I intentionally buy or use alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand)"* etc. indicate that respondents' perceived independence influences scores on the items. This is consistent with the position of MacKenzie and Podsakoff, (2011) of the realist perspective in determining a reflective construct, which are considered real entities that influence scores and their associated measures.

Polites *et al.* (2012) also highlight that a multidimensional construct can be conceptualised at different levels, which are referred to as 'orders.' A first order level is unidimensional, is comprised of one or more indicators which can be observed, (and these may be either reflective or formative). This first order construct may in turn be a dimension of a multidimensional construct. A second or higher order construct will be comprised of two or more first order constructs, which are its dimensions.

Based on the preceding discussions and evaluations in this section, it is apparent that ALCR is a higher order multidimensional construct formed by a number of first order unidimensional indicators (dimensions), which in turn have one or more observable indicators. As well as being multidimensional it is also superordinate and this can be identified in several ways, as indicated by Edwards (2001) and his typology of multidimensionality. A construct can be termed as being superordinate “if the relationships flow from the construct to its dimensions” and where these are “analogous to reflective measures, which are observed variables that serve as manifest indicators of an underlying construct;” it “represents a general concept that is manifested by specific dimensions” (Edwards, 2001, pp. 145-146).

Although ALCR is unique in terms of alternative luxury, some support for this conceptual categorisation comes from the work of Sreejesh, Sarkar and Roy (2016), who identified the dimensions for a concept of luxury brand aspiration. Four related first order dimensions (identity signalling, social recognition, self-esteem and achievement signalling) were identified, along with cross influences and effects on other aspects, such as brand attachment and intention to pay a premium price.

3.2.5 Five dimensions of the ALCR construct

As previously established, ALCR is a multidimensional construct and it has five dimensions, which are conspicuous signalling inclination, volitional goal-motivated inclination, variety or novelty-seeking inclination, moral disengagement inclination and pecuniary or social emulation inclination.

3.2.5.1 Conspicuous signalling inclination

Chaudhuri, Mazumdar, Ghoshal (2011, p. 217) propose a definition of conspicuous consumption as being "a deliberate engagement in symbolic and visible purchase, possession and usage of products and services imbued with scarce economic and cultural capital with the motivation to communicate a distinctive self-image to others." This indicates that through conspicuous consumption people can signal that they should be seen as someone with significant levels of economic capital (price), social capital (the self as belonging to a certain social class) and cultural capital (awareness of what represents a high level of cultural awareness). It can be posited that alternative luxury can signal all these aspects without the need for an exclusive amount of economic capital, effectively bringing consumers of it within the sphere of scarcity and signalling visibility.

Luxury consumption has been a feature of human life since the earliest times and has been recognised and studied as a social phenomenon by philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle through to more modern sociologists and commentators such as Bourdieu and Baudrillard (Dubois, 2020). A range of theories have been proposed, such as 'trickle down' from Simmel, which describes a tendency among consumers to seek to take on the symbols, preferences, and practices of those who inhabit the highest echelons of society. Styles and symbols of status originating with the higher classes are adopted by the masses as they seek to go higher on the social ladder. The consumer is a signaller who uses the sign of luxury (or alternative luxury) to gain the attention of a chosen audience as a means of navigating the hierarchies of society. The further point is made by Dubois (2020) that efforts made to differentiate the self from others may stem from a tendency to make comparisons (between the self and others); thus, this desire to differentiate is likely to be stronger in environments where such comparisons can be made.

As the work of Dubois (2020) and others suggests, luxury consumption is at least partly about sending desired signals about the self to others to gain perceived social benefits. Wilcox, Hagtvedt and Kocher (2014), showed that whereas luxury can positively affect social behaviour, conspicuous use does not. Wilcox *et al.* (2014). used several experiments that compared the behaviours of people who imagined or wore either luxury brands or non-luxury brands. It was found that individuals tend to engage in more socially valuable behaviour (such as donating time and money, engaging with more difficult tasks etc.) when they wear or even just imagine they are wearing luxury products. When such products are worn with the purpose of conspicuously displaying their wealth or status, they are less inclined to engage with socially valuable behaviour. This leads to a conclusion that the more conspicuous the consumption of luxury is, the less socially valued behaviour will be forthcoming.

The concept of conspicuous signalling through brand prominence is introduced by Han, Nunes, and Dreze (2010), who proposed the division of consumers of luxury and counterfeit luxury into four groups based on their levels of wealth and their need for status. The first group is called *patricians* and these people have considerable wealth, which they signal by having products that are less conspicuously branded (quiet luxury). Their way of separating themselves from the lower groups is through branding signals recognisable to their peers but less recognisable to others. A second group (*parvenus*) have significant levels of wealth but lack cultural capital; they seek to associate themselves with others of their wealth class and disassociate themselves from those considered lower in status by overtly displaying branding signals that are easily recognisable across the classes.

A third group (*proletarians*) are those from a lower socio-economic class who are not interested in signalling status, or in seeking to somehow emulate those from a higher class. The fourth group (*poseurs*) is of relevance to this work and consists of people who wish to conspicuously consume, to signal a certain status, but they lack the wealth necessary to engage in such consumption. In many respects this group has the same motivations as the *parvenus* (to be seen as having the means to belong to a higher group and through this to disassociate themselves from their peers). Their high level of motivation to achieve their goals moves them to indulge in alternative luxury consumption, particularly through such alternative products that loudly and overtly display the brands (Han *et al.*, 2010).

A further division was made by Lu (2020), based on cultural and ethnic separations in society. As Lu explained, purchasing luxury goods is the most obvious choice to signal social status. However, cultural goods (such as products that increase health or help in education) can be chosen when certain conditions are met. These conditions include having relatively high levels of cultural and social capital. Whether through the consumption of luxury or cultural goods, people signal their status (or their desired status) to society. A point made by Lu (2020) is that the decision to purchase luxury is not just determined by socio-economic status, but also by cultural and social capital, which can be associated with subcultures, including ethnic cultures, but also for example what is often referred to as the distinction between “old” and “new” money (i.e., coming from a wealthy family, or being a “newcomer” in the high income segment). Sticking to this latter example, people who grew up in wealthy families might look down on conspicuous luxury consumption and instead feel that investments in cultural products show more refinement and helps maintain their high social positions.

This point, along with others, suggests that while there is an identifiable signalling or show-off tendency towards luxury consumption, it can become enhanced and be more prevalent under certain circumstances. Dogan, Ozkara, and Dogan (2020) refer to construal level theory, arguing that people with a high construal level (abstract mindset) are more inclined towards conspicuous luxury consumption. After all, conspicuous luxury is an abstract concept. Whereas products associated with luxury are often tangible and concrete (e.g., a watch, a dress), their meaning in terms of being a symbolic representation of prestige, social-economic status etc., is not. This abstractness suggests that people with low incomes may be more likely to indulge in luxury consumption because "this intrinsic tendency is independent from an extrinsic reality (income level)" (Dogan, Ozkara, and Dogan, 2020, p. 936).

The purpose of the research by Perez, Castana, and Quintallina (2010) was to investigate signalling in the form of social image and therefore identity. Based on in-depth interviews with 37 female owners of both luxury and counterfeit luxury products, three primary themes emerged. Buying counterfeits optimised scarce resources (income), it produced feelings of fun and enjoyment as well as risk taking, and it was seen as a way of deceiving others by not being caught. Of overarching importance, however, was the accomplishment of goals through counterfeit luxury in the form of an identity – "these individuals obtain real and symbolic benefits from their purchase and consumption by projecting a desired social image and by contributing to the construction of their identity" (Perez *et al.*, 2010, p. 228). This can be positioned within the frame of dramaturgy as described by Erving Goffman, where counterfeits (rather than originals) become the props that assist individuals in playing a convincing role before an audience whose approval they seek.

The inclination to conspicuously signal was prominent in the focus study results, to show a desired self-image to others - *I feel good about myself that I am not missing out; It does change my confidence level because I feel very classy when I wear a luxury and expensive things; you will feel among*.

3.2.5.2 Volitional consumption inclination

Consumers make purchases to produce or yield one or more end-state goals (Bagozzi and Dholakia, 1999). One volitional feature of goals is that they are directed towards an end and, as discussed, this has been studied widely in literature connected with consumer behaviour, particularly within the sphere of the theory of reasoned action (behavioural intentions). Another, which has received considerably less attention, is the ‘implementation intention,’ which is the intention to undertake behaviour that is goal-directed. An example that relates to alternative luxury and ALCR is the intention to achieve the goal of improving identity and self-image when there is an opportunity to obtain counterfeit/rented/second-hand luxury that will enable its achievement.

This leads to the question of how consumers make purchase decisions between original and alternative luxury products and to the work of Astray (2011). In this decision process a differentiation is made between functional and symbolic goals. The former represents the fulfilment of a goal through the utility maximising benefits of a product while the latter (symbolic goals) are achieved through “the symbolic meaning that consumers embed into the products to serve the purpose of either value-expressive goals and/or social-adjustive goals” (Astray, 2011, p. 1, citing

Shavitt *et al.*, 1992). These symbolic goals have an influence when consumers are making decisions between original and counterfeit products and an important issue in making such decisions is morality. However, as Astray (2011) highlights, morality does not have the same effects across all segments.

Some support for this was found in the results of the study by Astray (2011), where 286 surveys were completed by mall participants, which not only found that value-expressive goals were more influential in counterfeit purchasing decisions than morality, but also that individuals with unmet goals are more inclined to be involved in unethical behaviour than others. Moreover, as discussed in previous sections, there are different thoughts about whether alternative luxury consumption is a moral or immoral behaviour.

While Astray (2011) focused on morality as a moderating variable in terms of value-expressive goals, Wu *et al.* (2019) concentrated on how intentional goal-driven action is influenced by perceived counterfeit detection. After all, whether or not people feel they violate a moral norm if buying counterfeit products, if they are motivated by achieving a higher purpose such as status, this will only be achieved if others perceive the product as a luxury. The work justifies how "counterfeit consumption goals interact with actions, choices and situations during individual's goal setting, goal striving and goal realization stages" (Wu *et al.*, 2019, p. 1311).

The inclination to volitionally consume was clearly identified in the focus groups, for example *I know I can't wear the original, but I can still wear something and belong. It is my stepping-stone; You will upgrade; It gives me the boost to work harder until I am able to get the original. I actually see it as training yourself before you buy the original when money comes.*

3.2.5.3 Variety or novelty-seeking inclination

The relevance of variety and its relationship with materialism is explained by Nagar and Singh (2019), who were the first to point out that the seeking of variety is a natural human tendency. It is a trait that humans possess to greater or lesser degrees, which not only indicates an identifiable trait but also that “variety seeking is specific to the individual” (Nagar and Singh, 2019, p. 4). In their search for uniqueness individuals may seek to move away from everyday purchases and explore ways in which they, as consumers, can experience variety. This will lead them towards products that are rare as well as unique as a way of distinguishing themselves from others and towards conspicuous consumption.

Counterfeit luxury products potentially have much to offer such people. Because of their relatively low price, one can be more concerned with novelty. The supply of original brands is also limited compared to fakes, and thus the incentive for counterfeit luxury can be maximum. These findings suggest there will be a positive relationship between the three variables of variety seeking, counterfeit luxury consumption and materialism and this was confirmed in the results of the research carried out by Nagar and Singh (2019).

It can be posited that genuine luxury can be a limiting factor for most consumers in terms of variety seeking because, having saved to be able to pay a very high price, they will not be able to purchase more such items for a time. Therefore, an integral element of ALCR is a motivation to be able to obtain what is popular at any given time and the three components of alternative luxury accommodate this. This is supported in findings from the previously discussed research by Abdullah and Yu (2019) carried out among Yemeni students studying in China. In their study, novelty seeking was found to be one of the factors positively influencing attitudes towards counterfeit luxury fashion products. These points were also endorsed in the earlier work of Ricardo (2010), who found that the median consumer enjoys variety (which emphasises the importance of variety seeking) and that their consumptive habits encourage substitutability across time. The three strands of alternative luxury and, therefore ALCR, explain how customers switch between rented, second-hand and counterfeit luxury easily across products and time.

In justifying the construction of a scale for measuring the tendency of consumers towards variety seeking in food, Van Trijp and Steenkamp (1992) highlighted a number of salient points and these can be associated with ALCR and how it can explain why consumers have a need for alternative luxury. They become bored and satiated with products being repeatedly consumed and this lessens the marginal value of each extra unit of such products. Gaining uniqueness through variety seeking, on the other hand, refreshes and maximises marginal value. A further dimension to variety seeking is "freedom to explore" as found over the course of four research studies conducted by Levav and Zhu (2009). Seen in this light, and through the prism of ALCR and its effects, seeking variety is a way of asserting (or reasserting) freedom.

Michaelidou (2012) identified four different clusters of people, who differed in their dispositions in terms of a need for novelty, unpredictability, excitement, risk, change, activity and sensation. The first cluster was labelled as *change seekers*. Their disposition for variety seeking is average, with the highest scoring factor being the need for excitement and change and the lowest being the need for sensation and risk. The second cluster was labelled as *variety enthusiasts* and represented more than 30 per cent of study participants. They scored highly across all need factors, with the highest being excitement. The third cluster was labelled *risk and* *unpredictability avoiders,* and they scored low in most of the factors; however, the need for sensation was an exception, where they had the second highest scores. The fourth cluster was labelled *risk and novelty seekers,* and the scores were the second highest for risk and novelty, while they were the lowest for unpredictability.

One major point can be made about these results, which is that variety seeking is indeed an important element in terms of consumers' disposition to alternative luxury, especially when they have freedom to choose between various alternatives at the price they can afford. Another point is that different manifestations of the tendency exist, with study participants showing varying degrees of the relevant dispositions that were identified.

This section can be summarised by proposing that "a state of variety seeking derives from intrapersonal motivations such as individual needs for stimulation and the acquisition of new information as well as from interpersonal motivations such as needs for affiliation and distinctiveness relevant to some reference group" (Fernandez-Moya, 2012, p. 38, citing McAlister and Pessemier, 1982).

As the focus groups showed, participants were aware of and sought alternative luxury as novelty. For instance, *one event and 3 ways to just use luxury things; You borrow or buy those clothes and make people have this picture of you becoming a slay mamas on Instagram.*

3.2.5.4 Moral disengagement inclination

Moral disengagement is "the process of disengaging from moral standards of behaviour, or more simply, convincing oneself that moral standards do not apply to the self in a particular situation" (Wang, Stoner, and John, 2019, p. 209). When a desired course of action comes into conflict with self-defined standards of morality, an individual may disengage from such standards in order that the course of action or behaviour can be indulged in by making it acceptable to the self. Another term which can be used for moral disengagement is guilt avoidance and this is a dimension of ALCR that further explains why consumers may indulge in perceived immoral behaviour. The dimension is further explained by Chen, Teng, and Liao (2018), who propose two moral reasoning strategies engaged in by consumers of counterfeit luxury and these are moral rationalization and moral decoupling. The latter of these is moral disengagement as defined above, while moral rationalization is where moral judgements are used to reduce levels of immorality, or they are reduced through comparisons.

An example might be the use of sweatshop labour in the production of counterfeit luxury being rationalised by noting that many companies use it, including those producing originals. Further examples are provided by Chen, Teng, and Liao (2018, p. 254), such as “purchasing counterfeits of luxury brands is not as bad as some of the other horrible things people do’’ and ‘‘it is okay to buy one or two counterfeits of luxury brands, because it does not really do much harm.”

A consideration of a range of research findings (788 effect sizes from 207 samples in 196 manuscripts) led Eisend (2019, p. 301) to a proposition that “The findings on morality effects on consumer responses to counterfeit and pirated products are diverse, and the underlying theories provide no clear picture of the process that explains how morality and justification lead to particular consumer responses or why consumers differ in their responses.” This emphasised the need for a meta-analysis study conducted by Eisend (2019) and one finding was that the most significant morality effect is one that is ‘deontological–teleological.’ This proposes that moral dilemmas can be resolved through a deontological evaluation (which essentially means right versus wrong) and a teleological evaluation (which effectively means perceptions of the consequences of the proposed behaviour).

A further significant finding was that institutional and social contexts influence morality effects in terms of justifying how people respond to counterfeit products (context sensitivity). A way of explaining this is through moral disengagement, whereby individuals re-evaluate and redefine their attitudes to given behaviours based on the social context, thereby indicating that morality and moral behaviour are socially conditioned.

Relevant to mention here is research carried out by Kim, Kim, and Park (2012). Over the course of four experiments, it was found that when situational factors reduced cognitive resource availability, this in turn lessened intentions to buy counterfeit luxury products. However, this effect was moderated by the extent to which the moral beliefs of the study participants were strongly or weakly held. Thus, it can be posited that consumers will be more inclined to purchase counterfeits if they can generate justifications for it and this in turn will have contingency on the situation, context, and the strength or weakness of their inherent moral beliefs. Kim, Kim, and Park (2012) further noted that purchasing counterfeits is an ethical *dilemma* because immoral aspects and economic benefits are present at the time a decision is made and are in contrast with each other.

There was evidence of moral disengagement in the focus groups, for example *Gucci is Gucci, Bvlgari is Bvlgari whether original, fake, rented or bought at bend-down second-hand market; I feel uncomfortable, but I don't really care if people know; Sometimes, you are telling people that you are smart to get expensive things cheap.*

3.2.5.5 Pecuniary emulation inclination

In his classic work, Veblen ([1899] 2009) described two variables, which are intrinsic to human nature, and which have always been features of human societies. One is invidious distinction (the continuous striving by the higher classes to indicate their status by owning and displaying luxury products) and pecuniary emulation, which is the striving by other classes to associate themselves as being higher in status through the ownership and overt display of luxury as defined by people at a higher level in society. Thus, pecuniary emulation is the acquisition and display of luxury products for signalling higher status, even when people may not have the financial means to engage in this way (Banuri and Nguyen, 2020).

Since the original and pioneering work of Veblen the social causes and effects of luxury consumption have been widely considered and researched. It can also be posited that Veblen was writing in an earlier period and society has changed very considerably over the intervening course of time. For example, social media has increased the possibilities of knowing about other people's behaviours. One important effect, that is captured by ALCR, is the bandwagon effect: doing something primarily because other people are doing it. As Whitford (2010) explained, people in modern times are concerned with social emulation, with attachments to a particular social group being important. This dimension thrives, develops, and grows through the social influence element of the bandwagon effect – certain types and categories of luxury are purchased because they are popular and this in turn triggers more demand for them (Chaudhuri and Majumdar, 2006; Vigneron and Johnson, 1999).

This makes the behaviour of other consumers of luxury particularly important because the value of luxury is being emphasised. It is co-created from interactions within and between a range of social groups. As Kastanakis and Balabanis (2012, p.

1401) explain, “for many consumer segments a luxury product's popularity signifies both a prestigious and must-have product because of the value derived from the interaction with other consumers.” A number of phrases are used to capture the meaning of the bandwagon effect, such as being ‘in the swim of things,’ being ‘one of the boys’ and being ‘in style’ (Leibensten, 1950). It is also described as conformity consumption and a further strand of the bandwagon effect is the ‘fear of missing out’ effect (Kang, Cui and Song, 2019). With data from 187 survey questionnaires Kang et al (2019) found that this fear of missing out was directed towards mainstream groups, a concern about being excluded.

Thus, a concept related to the bandwagon effect is social comparison theory and this is further investigated by White (2015). It is found that vanity and social comparisons are antecedents to self-esteem and evaluations of products, which then determine intentions to purchase luxury products. It is of interest to note that vanity was found to have had the strongest effect. Nevertheless, it is intuitively important not to overlook the significance of social comparison and this is emphasised by Patsiaouras (2010), who points out that mimetic behaviour by consumers is a further aspect of this effect.

Pecuniary emulation was implicitly and explicitly expressed among the focus groups, for example it is *about getting the good feeling of the rich people at very low cost*; *It’s like a steppingstone to taste good life before it finally comes*; *You will upgraded*.

3.2.6 Construct Antecedence: expectancies from alternative luxury consumption based on the five dimensions of the functions of attitude

The functional theory of attitude has been discussed and evaluated (see section 2.1.4). The five functions of attitude, as originally introduced by Katz (1960) and Smith, Bruner, and White (1956) have been explored including its adaptation into the five values influencing choice as described by Sheth *et al.* (1991). It has been emphasized that attitude functions are important for any behaviour to happen, and this has been proven in counterfeit luxury consumption by the work of Sharma and Chan (2016) on how the five functions of attitude influence counterfeit purchase behaviour.

In his original work on attitude functions, Katz (1960) demonstrated how attitudes are determined by the functions they serve. Individuals hold certain attitudes because they help them realize their basic goals. This functional theory is very relevant to ALCR because it deals with the motivational basis of attitudes, and it explains how individuals possess various attitude functions to serve their psychological needs. When these needs or desires are satisfied, they are able to reach their individual goals. Attitudes exist because psychological advantages can be attained from holding them (Lutz, 1978), they are instruments employed to attain personal desires and needs (Herek, 1986).

An attitude may serve more than one function and it follows that users of alternative luxury will rationalize the use of alternative luxury in the form of counterfeit, second-hand or rented luxury because of the functional roles they play in achieving their specific goals of being in control of their world (knowledge function), protecting their self-esteem (ego-defensive function), expressing personal value

(value-expressive function), becoming accepted (social-adjustive function), or gain some rewards or avoid punishment (utility function).

In operationalizing the functions of attitude as antecedence to ALCR and alternative luxury behaviour, the position of Kruglanski et al. (2014) on the determinants of motivational readiness (i.e., want, and expectancy, etc.) and how these inform behaviour need to be considered. This integrated view is consistent with the joint work by Ajzen and Kruglanski (2019) who sought to integrate their respective theories of planned behaviour and goal-driven actions into a new theory of reasoned goal pursuit, which explains how attitude leads to behaviour. They posited that attitude is a function of readily accessible expectancies and this further emphasises the importance of expectancy (sense of attainment) in how attitude functions lead to behaviour. As Kruglanski (2018) further noted, and as previously cited (see section 2.2.3), there are a range of necessary conditions for behaviour to occur and these include that an attitude must become a desire and this desire must be joined with a sufficient level of attainability to form a goal.

This sense of attainability, also called expectancy, is consistent with the position of Gartzia, Morgenroth, Ryan and Peters (2021, p. 592), who emphasised its importance and centrality by noting that “expectancy represents the motivational mechanism that subsequently directs behaviours toward the goal” and “behaviours depend on that person's perceived subjective likelihood of success (i.e., expectancy).”

Seen in this context, expectancy can be defined as the perceived likelihood or probability that the attribute will occur (Watt, Maio, Haddock and Johnson, 2011) and, consistent with Kruglanski’s (2014) position on how expectancies, like optimism, lead users of alternative luxury to initiate or maintain alternative luxury usage behaviour aimed at the satisfaction of an active motive state. The application of this within luxury consumption has also been established in the work of Pozharliev, Verbeke, De Angelis, Bos and Peverini (2021), who stated that the mere sight or conversation about luxury products can evoke expectancy.

The importance of expectancy and theories related to it was emphasised by Gartzia *et al.* (2021, p. 592), who point out that they "provide a psychological understanding of how individuals are motivated to achieve particular goals based on their subjective goal expectancy and value." It represents the perceptions an individual has in terms of the likelihood of a successful outcome in a given domain and can be directed towards specific short-term goals or those less specific and longer term.

The concept of motivational readiness was set out and evaluated by Kruglanski, Chrenikova and Rosenzweig (2014), who established that motivational readiness has two essential components, namely, Want and Expectancy. Want is defined as an outcome desired by an individual at a given point in time while Expectancy is defined as the subjective probability assigned by a person of the outcome satisfying the Want. Concurrent with Gratzia et al. (2021), expectancy may come from the self or from external influences such as seeing trusted referent others achieve something. It can also reflect general optimism or a high level of self-efficacy. In essence, Expectancy can make the satisfaction of a Want realistic, and its importance can be further emphasised by noting that it can "mobilize persons' energetic resources and channel them toward a given Want" (Kruglanski et al., 2014, p. 371). In terms of construct development, a range of items can be used to measure expectancy, with three examples being "I am confident that I will achieve what I want to; I have the ability to overcome any obstacles to achieving success; It is possible for me to achieve the goals that I have set for myself" (Gartzia et al., 2021, p. 594).

It can therefore be argued that attitude functions require some level of expectancy to translate into motivational readiness (ALCR), which leads to alternative luxury consumption behaviour. This expectancy is the subjective probability or perceived attainability that the use of alternative luxury will serve the desired goals of the users. While attitude function is relevant as an antecedent to behaviour, its operationalization becomes more evident through the sense of attainability presented by expectancy, in a manner consistent with Kruglanski (2014) and the identification of expectancy as a key determinant of motivational readiness.

Expectancy makes the ability of the various attitude functions to satisfy the specific physiological needs and goals appear more subjectively realistic (Kruglanski et al., 2014, p. 371). Therefore, it is posited that a certain degree of subjective probability and attainability is required to actualize the goal of using alternative luxury and to satisfy the psychological needs served by the various attitude functions to become more knowledgeable about the world (knowledge function), protecting self-esteem (ego-defensive function), expressing one's value (value-expressive function), becoming accepted or identifying with desired groups (social-adjustive function), or gaining some rewards or avoiding punishment (utility function). We therefore propose the antecedence of ALCR as 'Expectancies from Alternative Luxury Consumption' *based on the various attitude functions* and how the sense of perceived attainability (expectancy) helps users of alternative luxury to achieve their goals through the instrumentality of the various attitude functions (utilitarian, social-adjustive value-expressive, ego-defensive, knowledge).

The antecedence to ACLR, 'Expectancies from Alternative Luxury consumption,' indicates the degree to which users of alternative luxury believe they will be able to reach their personal goals and serve their psychological needs based on any of the five attitude functions. This antecedence is specific to each attitude function because it helps users of alternative luxury to meet the goals of alternative luxury consumption but relies on the certainty of expectancy to become an activated motivational readiness, which can lead to action. These expectancies as antecedence to ALCR are specific to each attitude function, as explained in Table 3.4. It is hypothesised that all the five antecedents will have a positive effect on ALCR (see section 2.4.2: Hypothesis development).

Table 3.6
Attitude Functions and Expectancy Adaptations

Attitude Function	**Expectancy Adaptation**
Utilitarian	Utilitarian expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury
Social-Adjustive	Social Adjustive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury
Value-Expressive	Value expressive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury
Ego-Defensive	Ego-Defensive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury
Alternative Luxury	Knowledge expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury

Table 3.7

Quotes Relevant to Attitude

Quotes on Expectancy (Wants and Affordances)		
Function		**Sources**
Both support goal attainment	"Expectancy is instrumental to *goal attainment"*	Kruglanski et al. (2014)
	"The motivation to initiate a contemplated behaviour depends first and foremost, on the perceived likelihood or expectancy that performing the behaviour will bring about *the desired goals"*	Ajzen & Kruglanski (2019)
Both instrumental in achieving a benefit or a state of satisfaction	"Expectancy indicates how the *satisfaction* of a want can bring will benefit them".	Kruglanski et al. (2014)
	"Expectancies (i.e., optimism) lead individuals to initiate or maintain behaviour aimed to the satisfaction of an active motive state"	Kruglanski et al. (2014)
	"expectancy that a given behaviour will result in drive satisfaction".	Kruglanski, et al. (2015)
Both related to motivation processes, can serve as antecedents to ALCR.	"The expectancy threshold must be met before motivational readiness can transform into a goal"	Kruglanski et al. (2014)
Both have desire dimension	"In contrast to desire, expectancy alone may not instill readiness, although given some desire it may amplify."	Kruglanski et al. (2014)
Quotes on Functions of Attitudes		
Functions		**Sources**
Both support goal attainment	*"Attitudes* acquired in the service of a *function* are means for reaching the *desired goal"*	Katz (1960)
	"Attitudes acquired in the service of a *function* are means for reaching the *desired goal."*	Carpenter & Andrews (2013)
Both instrumental in achieving a benefit or a state of satisfaction	"The assumption that attitudes benefit the person holding them. All attitudes are, in this sense, *instrumental"*	Herek (1986)
	"The closer these objects are to actual need satisfaction and the more they are clearly perceived as relevant to need satisfaction, the greater are the probabilities of positive attitude formation."	Kruglanski et al. (2014)
	"Both attitudes and habits are formed toward specific objects, people, and symbols as they *satisfy* specific needs".	Kruglanski et al. (2014)
	"The functional approach assumes that people hold and express particular attitudes because they derive psychological benefit from doing so, and that the type of benefit varies among individuals. Attitudes are understood according to the psychological needs they meet."	Herek (1986)
Both related to motivation processes - can serve as antecedents to ALCR.	"..attitudes exist because they serve some function for the person, and they are determined by a *person's motives*"	Soomro et al. (2012)
	"One way to interpret attitude functions is to consider them the motivational foundation for a particular attitude"	Wendorf & Firestone (2004)
	"The conditions necessary to arouse or modify an attitude vary according to the motivational basis of the attitude, which are the functions of adjustment, ego defense, value expression, and knowledge"	Katz (1960)
	"Extending attitude theory to the motivational domain, the functionalist approach to persuasion posits that any information processing in a persuasive context is motivated. The motives that guide information processing in persuasive contexts are encapsulated in the functions that targeted attitudes served"	Watt et al. (2011)
Both have desire dimension	"These attitudes are rooted in the desire to satisfy personal needs and desires"	Carpenter & Andrews (2013)
	"Building on the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), we develop a new model of purposive behaviour which suggests that desires are the proximal causes of Intentions"	Perugini & Bagozzi (2001)

To further strengthen the argument on the operational relationship between expectancy and attitude, listed in Table 3.5 are direct quotes from various literature on how both concepts are related to goal attainment, attaining a state of satisfaction, motivation to act, desire, and affordance.

Thus, expectancy, along with readiness, is central to consumption and they are, furthermore, connectors for the three types of alternative luxury consumption (counterfeit, second-hand and rented luxury). Despite some differences between these types of consumption, alongside their commonalities, the connections mean that ALCR can be justified as being conceptually (although it has to be verified empirically) one superordinate scale. In this regard, and guided by the luxury value dimensions set out by Wiedmann, Hennigs and Siebels (2007), it is relevant to note the differences as well as commonalities between the three elements of alternative luxury consumption, as shown in the following tables:

Table 3.8
Differences Between Alternative Luxury Types

Function Type		Second-Hand	Counterfeit	Rented
Financial	Price	Low-to-medium compared to original	Very low compared to original	Significantly low compared to original
Functional	Usability	Fairly usable with observed wear and tear from usage	High difficulty	Most usable as it comes as the original, which is accessed
	Quality	Relatively medium quality, subject to risk of previous use	Low-to-medium	Best quality as original product accessed for a limited period
	Uniqueness	Fairly unique	Least unique	Most unique

Table 3.9
Alternative Luxury Type Commonalities

	Values	Reuse	Replica	Rental
Individual Dimension of Luxury Value Perception	Self-Identity	Based on the symbolic meaning that any of the alternative luxury represents, which is essentially derived from the original luxury social credibility, all forms of alternative luxury allow users to integrate the luxury symbolic meaning into their personal identity (Perez, Castana, and Quintallina, 2010; Smith and Hogg, 2008; Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). Thus using the perceived social value of luxury brands to enhance their own identity.		
	Hedonic	All the three forms of alternative luxury deliver certain levels of pleasure, gratification, and self-indulgent value with some form of enjoyment that arouses users' feelings (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004).		
	Materialistic	All forms of alternative luxury access are the demonstration of individual's tendency to acquire possessions, explore varieties of alternatives or access an experience because these acquisitions provide positive external cues and are used as a self-projection signal to make positive impressions of status or progress in life (Nagar and Singh, 2019; Davidson et.al, 2019)		
Social Dimension of Luxury Value Perception	Conspicuousness	All the three alternative channels of accessing luxury in the low-income segment are driven by the need to show-off and to be seen to belong to a desired reference group because luxury usage provides positive social positioning and desired social status (Bagwell and Bernheim, 1996). Additionally, each of these helps a member of the lower class to consume conspicuously so that he/she will be labelled as a member of an upper class (Oh, 2021)		
	Prestige	The use of all forms of alternative luxury provides users with the opportunity to distinguish themselves and earn an association with their desired affluent group membership while distinguishing themselves from others (Han et.al., 2010)		

3.2.7 Section summary

At the outset, the section noted that some important studies and concepts that have been presented in other works can be integrated and extended to explain and clarify the new proposed construct. This aside, the section began by seeking to clarify concepts on the understanding that a lack of clarity often disadvantages research. A reason for this is the lack of a clear and proven method, but such disadvantages can be at least partially overcome through steps recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2016). The first of these steps is to collect a number of relevant definitions. The second step is to categorise the attributes as themes and important themes identified include readiness, motivational readiness and degrees of readiness intensity. The third step is to construct a preliminary draft definition of the concept and the fourth is to refine the definition by asking searching questions.

A three-part definition was presented, and specific attention was given to the meaning of readiness. The sub-section that followed was concerned with construct entity, stability and attributes. An entity definition for the ALCR construct is that it is an individual person and is therefore not a collective measure. It is also focused specifically on individuals in the low-income segment who has a socio-economic classification in every nation of earning, on average, below $2 a day. In common with other constructs based on attitudes the ALCR is assumed to be relatively stable and support for this position is through a strong strand of literature set out both in this section and earlier in this chapter.

This led to an explanation of the importance of defining the necessary and sufficient properties of a construct and this importance was explained using a number of examples. One way of showing what are necessary and sufficient properties is by comparing those identified for the ALCR with their applicability in related concepts and this was presented in Table 3.1. These points are reinforced by employing an alternative approach to assessing the necessary and sufficient properties and this is through an opposite pole's method, which was also presented in tabular form in Table 3.2.

Thereafter, it was explained that ALCR is defined as being a higher order, multidimensional construct formed by some first order unidimensional indicators (dimensions), which in turn have one or more observable indicators. After this explanation, the five dimensions of ALCR were presented: conspicuous signalling inclination, volitional goal-motivated inclination, variety or novelty-seeking inclination, moral disengagement inclination and pecuniary or social emulation inclination.

Following the consideration of the five dimensions of ALCR the chapter section again considered the five functions of attitude, introducing and evaluating the importance and relevance of expectancy in relation to attitude and as an antecedent of behaviour. It was emphasised that the necessary conditions for behaviour to occur requires an attitude to become a desire and this desire must be joined with a sufficient level of attainability to form a goal. Expectancy represents the perceptions an individual has in terms of the likelihood of a successful outcome in a given domain and can be directed towards long and short-term goals. Along with Want, it is identified as one of the two critical components for motivational readiness, relevant for each function of attitude.

Through three important and relevant sections, this section has identified and justified the building blocks of the ALCR construct. In contrast with some other works, it has not only sought to identify all the dimensions that can be associated with alternative luxury but also to indicate their level of importance to a topic that is as wide and complex as human consciousness and subsequent human behaviour is. With the ALCR defined, rationalised and justified, the next task is to test claims.

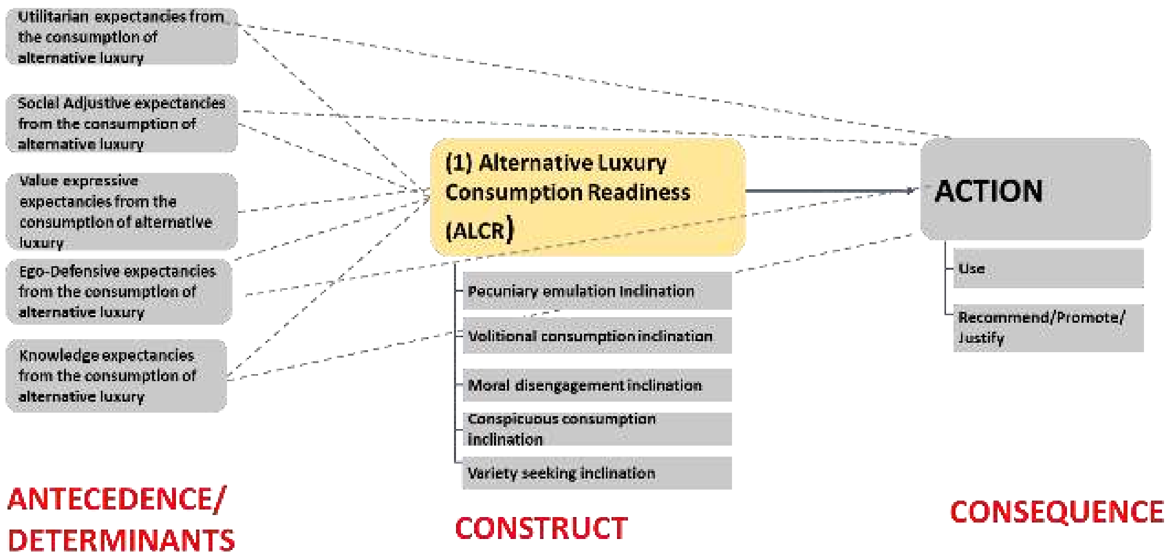
3.3 Conceptual Research Model and Hypothesis Development

This section deals with how the conceptual research model of this study was developed. A conceptual model can help us understand the relationships among the research variables by providing us with structure and insight into the hierarchical relationships between them. The model constructed in this study aims to understand the concept of alternative luxury consumption through its antecedents and consequences within a low-income population in Lagos, Nigeria. It will also examine various instruments that may be used to measure it. Furthermore, this chapter will present the hypotheses, created on the basis of research objectives that are tested in the study.

3.3.1 Model Development

The main goal of this research is to understand and define alternative luxury consumption, along with the attitude functions related to it, including the inclination to use, recommend, promote, or justify the three forms of alternative luxury (counterfeit, second-hand and rented). Additionally, various potential moderators of the relationship between readiness for alternative luxury consumption and actual usage are examined.

Figure 3.1.
Model Illustration



As can be seen in Figure 3.1, alternative luxury consumption readiness is postulated to be a mediator of the relationship between the expectancies from alternative luxury consumption based on the five dimensions of the functions of attitude and action, which can be the acts of using, recommending, promoting, or justifying the usage of alternative luxury. As explained in 2.3, alternative luxury consumption is a second-order construct, comprising five primary dimensions: emulation inclination, volitional consumption inclination, moral disengagement inclination, conspicuous consumption inclination and variety seeking inclination.

Furthermore, and evident from the mediation that is assumed, the model shows that the expectancies from alternative luxury consumption based on the five dimensions of the functions of attitude are predictors of alternative luxury consumption readiness.

3.3.2 Hypothesis Development

The research carried out for this thesis consisted of two studies. One was a focus group study that was considered as an important first step to further gain insight into ALCR, more specifically, to guide hypothesis for the model and, importantly, to influence the generation of items for the ALCR as well as substantiating its dimensions. The focus groups were used to find out more about the thoughts and emotions relevant for the ALCR model, including the interchangeability of alternative luxury forms, differences with real luxury, associated feelings and moral reasoning. Although the use of focus groups can be seen as being a study in its own right, it was a necessary but subsidiary qualitative part of the overall research design. It basically informed the model. That is to say: the focus groups were exploratory (without hypothesis), informing the main study. This main study was a quantitative study meant to meet the overall aim of the study to develop an instrument and test the conceptual model.

The best place to represent the focus group study was therefore in the first section of this chapter. The focus groups have informed the construct development as well as the hypotheses and, together with the review of the literature as discussed in Chapter 2, it resulted in a total of 16 hypotheses (as may be seen in Figure 3.2) and these are set out below, preceded by a summary explanation for each of them:

The utilitarian function of attitudes has been shown as an important aspect of alternative luxury attitudes in past research (for example Hwang and Griffiths, 2017). Therefore, it is logical that it will be positively associated with ALCR, and this is supported by research, for example Yildirim, Liu and Zhang (2016) with regard to the purchase of counterfeits by low income segments of a population as well as in the conspicuous display of luxury (for example Uzgoren and Guney, 2012). It is probably seen across a range of scenarios, for instance because of the perfect body shape of a rented luxury dress that comes at a very low price, or the colour matching of an affordable second-hand luxury bag. Fundamentally, alternative luxury potentially provides utility in letting young people from lower economic backgrounds achieve their goals of consuming luxury items without having to save up for a long time to do so. Therefore, the first hypothesis is:

H1: The utilitarian expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness.

The second aspect of attitudes is the social-adjustive function. This helps individuals in facilitating social interaction and adjusting to social contexts and group membership to secure a form of acceptance or a sense of belonging. For example, a youth who adopts a positive attitude towards rented luxury may be doing it as a means of gaining acceptance among his peers. Since luxury is a status symbol, it helps people identify in certain ways, associating them with higher strata of society (because wearing luxury items should be an indicator of belonging to a higher socioeconomic segment of a society, for example Amaral and Loken (2016); Lee (2011). They will see it as a way of gaining approval in social situations (Wilcox, Kim and Sen, 2009) or to achieve or maintain their social goals (Zhang, 2015; Zhang, Jin, Wang, Ma and Yu, 2019). Therefore, alternative luxury is expected to have the adjustive function, and the following hypothesis was proposed:

H2: The social-adjustive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness.

The third function of attitudes is the value expressive function, which is related to how alternative luxury consumption is used to communicate an individual's strongly held personal beliefs and to channel self-expression through their preferences. A person therefore forms an attitude towards alternative luxury not because of what the product does particularly, or because of how their image is perceived by others (Reid, 2012), but because the products make a clear statement about who they are and what they value as a person. They want to communicate and express their core values (Granata and Scozzese, 2019). For example, a youth who uses a rented or second-hand wristwatch may be communicating his smartness in securing what he needs at the lowest price possible and not necessarily because he is immoral (Wilcox *et al.*, 2009).

People whose values agree with alternative luxury can use its consumption to express their self-opinion of the world. Research, for example, Astray (2011) showed that value expression is relevant in the purchasing of counterfeit products. While

ALCR is a wide construct, it is logical to assume that it will be connected with value expression, which is why the third hypothesis is that:

H3: The value-expressive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness.

The fourth function is the ego-defensive function of attitudes. An individual forms an attitude to alternative luxury as a way of safeguarding against risks, protecting the self and shielding against any form of threat or to manage internal feelings of insecurity or lack of self-worth. Luxury products are forms of social marker; hence, the low-income segment will find it useful as a tool for self-protection. When a young person develops an ego-defensive attitude in the use of alternative luxury, they want to feel better about themselves and maintain their self-esteem because they can protect their ego and self -image from any threat that may come from not having what others around them have.

The feedback from the focus group sessions proved strongly that alternative luxury consumption serves as a defence mechanism. The participants showed that they do not care if a luxury product is counterfeit, rented, or second-handed, it still lets them feel superior, safe and protected from the threat of not having it. Support for this is found in a strand of literature concerned with the consumption of luxury. Wang (2021), for example, notes that research in the field of luxury has found that a reason why consumers engage with it is to counter negative perceptions of themselves (low self-esteem) and feelings of being powerless. The consumption of luxury can “provide a psychological buffer against self-threats” (Dubois, Jung and Ordabayeva, 2021, p. 85). It is a way of repairing “psychological wounds” (Sivanathan and Pettit, 2010, p. 564) – “a low level of social self-esteem is conducive to conspicuous consumption” (Oh, 2021, p. 1). Therefore, it may be anticipated that, in this population, the ego-defensive function will be positively connected to ALCR. Thus, the fourth hypothesis is:

H4: The ego-defensive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness.

The fifth, epistemic or knowledge function of attitudes, is concerned with how interested someone is in learning about something or gaining meaning about things happening in their world. Therefore, when young people are continuously seeking knowledge and information about various luxury products through the usage of the various alternative channels, they develop a mastery on how to use it to achieve their personal goals. The effect of increased knowledge has been found to boost the likelihood of using counterfeit luxury (Musnaini, Astuti, Sukoco and Yakob, 2017). It deepens the involvement of consumers of luxury and counterfeit luxury, particularly among younger age groups (Kuo and Nagasawa, 2019) and can lead to higher levels of trust and desirability, resulting in an increase in the intention to purchase (Kuo and Nagasawa, 2020). The focus group session has shown that young consumers want to know more through experimentation with different options of luxury. Therefore, people who want to become informed and learn more about alternative luxury may be expected to also have higher scores on ALCR than those who seek less knowledge. Therefore, the fifth hypothesis is that:

H5: The epistemic expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness.

In line with the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), it is expected in this study that attitude functions will also affect behaviour. Further support for this proposition comes from Tatt (2010), who found that the functional utility provided by one or several product attributes has a motivational effect on brand purchase, it will provide a boost for engagement, attitude and therefore intentions to purchase (Xi, Yang, Jiao, Wang and Lu, 2022). Perceiving functional value influences perceptions of luxury brand value (Khan, Shamsi, Ghila and Anjam, 2022); thus, functionality can be a driver for the consumption of luxury (Potavanich, 2015). Therefore, people who have highly expressed the utilitarian aspect of attitudes towards alternative luxury are expected to be more likely to buy, use, promote, recommend, and justify alternative luxury. Thus, the sixth hypothesis:

H6: The utilitarian function of attitude positively influences Action.

In a similar vein, the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) suggests that people who have more positive attitudes and expectancy towards alternative luxury from a social adjustive function will be more likely to buy, use, promote, recommend, and justify alternative luxury. Goals related to the presentation and expression of the self are prominent in the purchase of luxury items, to the extent that this social-adjustive function is a primary reason for the purchase of alternative luxury (Zhang, Jin, Wang, Ma and Yu, 2019). Fundamentally, if someone believes that consuming alternative luxury will help them achieve a higher social position, they will not only be more ready to consume it but will also be willing to act towards doing so (Wang, Jin and Yang, 2020). Therefore, the seventh hypothesis posits that:

H7: The social-adjustive function of attitude positively influences Action.

It can be contended that counterfeit luxury may not fulfil the value-expressive function of attitude, for example Zhang et al (2019); however, evidence from the focus groups indicates that the moral values of young people in Lagos do not include feelings that consuming alternative luxury is in any way immoral. This age group, furthermore, is most likely to be influenced by the value-expressive function (Schade, Hegner, Horstmann and Brinkmann, 2016). Therefore, it may be that consuming it is seen as a step towards claiming their right to enjoy luxury products, and that if one sees it that way, the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) suggests that there will be a strong connection between that and buying, using, justifying and promoting the alternative luxury. Therefore, the eighth hypothesis is that:

H8: The value-expressive function of attitude positively influences Action.

The ego-defensive function of attitude is deeply personal as it relates directly to one's self-esteem and view of the self. This may be a reason why it has received considerably less attention in research than other functions of attitude (Lee and Trim, 2019) despite luxury consumption being seen in some contexts as being a mechanism for protection against deeply ingrained anxiety (Wang, 2021), and as a means for inflating as well as defending the ego (Neave, Tzemou and Fastoso, 2020). Therefore, if someone feels that using alternative luxury will help them achieve higher levels of self-perception, they should be very likely to take action in using, buying, promoting and justifying alternative luxury, as that should help satisfy these critical internal needs. Therefore, the ninth hypothesis is that:

H9: The ego-defensive function of attitude positively influences Action.

The epistemic function of attitudes is related to wanting to learn more about something, to validate knowledge, and this requires some form of behaviour in the form of experimentation and product trial. If one dedicates time to learning more about alternative luxury, finding out information and understanding it, it is likely that an individual will translate the newly found knowledge directly into buying, using, justifying, and promoting it (Lee and Trim, 2019). Therefore, the tenth hypothesis is:

H10: The epistemic function of attitude positively influences Action.

As has previously been discussed, the Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness construct has been developed by integrating three theoretical approaches, three aspects of alternative luxury (counterfeit, rented and second-hand), and by comprehensively referring to the relevant literature. Therefore, it should envelop the middle position between attitudes and action, which is the last step before behaviour. Basically, once someone is ready to consume an alternative luxury item, they will very likely proceed to do so. Therefore, the 11th hypothesis is:

H11: Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness positively influences Action.

As has been elaborated upon, it is expected that the utilitarian function of attitude will affect ALCR and will affect action (Tatt, 2010; Xi, et al,, 2022; Khan, et al, 2022). However, it is expected that ALCR is an intermediate step between attitude and action. As newer theories of behaviour (Kruglanski et al., 2015) propose, attitudes are not sufficient for behaviour, but instead it is necessary to also have goals tied to such behaviours. Therefore, ALCR, as it contains all of these aspects, will be a middle link between the two. Hence, the 12th hypothesis is:

H6a: Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness mediates the relationship between the utilitarian function of attitude and Action.

As noted for H6a, the way that ALCR was constructed means it represents a link between attitudes towards alternative luxury and actual action. For instance, someone could believe that alternative luxury can help them achieve a higher social status (Zhang et al, 2019; Wang et al, 2020), a signalling of where one seeks to be on the social ladder (Cesarco and Patrick, 2019). On the other hand, they might not care about their social status or have a goal to achieve it through this means. Nevertheless, it is expected that ALCR can be the intermediary between attitude and action in the social adjustive function. Hence, the 13th hypothesis is:

H7a: Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness mediates the relationship between the social-adjustive function of attitude and Action.

The value expressive function of attitude towards alternative luxury is expected to lead to action in terms of buying, using, promoting, and justifying alternative luxury, particularly among the younger age group (Schade et al, 2016). However, it is also necessary to integrate other aspects of one’s motivation before actual behaviour is achieved, which is why it is expected that ALCR will also mediate this relationship. Therefore, the 14th hypothesis is:

H8a: Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness mediates the relationship between the value-expressive function of attitude and Action.

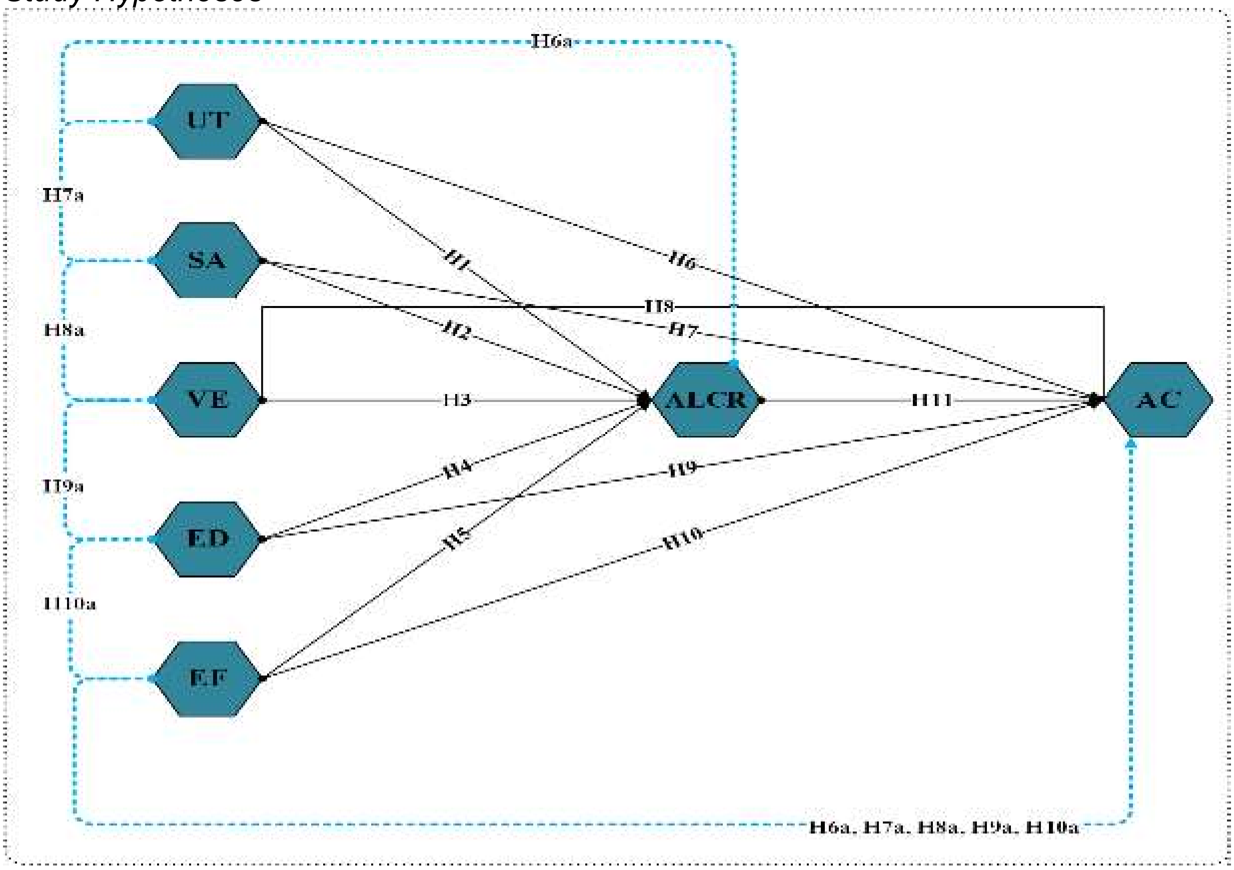
The ego-defensive function is expected to relate to both ALCR and buying, justifying, using and promoting alternative luxury. Furthermore, as ALCR encompasses more than just viewing alternative luxury to keep one’s ego intact, but also includes more specific ways of wanting to pursue it (Wang, 2021; Neave et al, 2020), it is expected that it will mediate the relationship between the two. Therefore, the 15th hypothesis is:

H9a: Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness mediates the relationship between the ego-defensive function of attitude and Action.

Lastly, and similar to the previous hypotheses, the relationship between the epistemic function of attitudes towards alternative luxury and action is expected to be mediated by ALCR. This is based on the way the construct was created and modern theories of motivation and behaviour (Kruglanski et al., 2015), an understanding that the epistemic function increases the desirability of counterfeit luxury and the likelihood of its use (Kuo and Nagasawa, 2019; Musnaini et al, 2017). Therefore, the 16th and final hypothesis is:

H10a: Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness mediates the relationship between the epistemic function of attitude and Action

Figure 3.2.
Study Hypotheses



CHAPTER 4: SURVEY, METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

This chapter aims to provide a rationale and an explanation for the selected research methodology employed in the survey. The methodology used was selected to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure ALCR, leading to the development of a theoretically grounded definition and understanding of the underlying mechanisms of the construct. Following a discussion of the rationale and explanation for the selected methodology, the selection of the research design is delineated in similar detail. Additionally, the development of the scale itself is discussed. Validating the construct's scale occurred in three phases (1) a conceptualization of the core construct, (2) a first generation of items, (3) an assessment of content validity. Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion of the sampling, the development of the questionnaire, and an explanation of which techniques of quantitative data analysis were used to answer the research questions.

4.1 Research Methodology

4.1.1 Sampling determination

The research sample was drawn from a diverse community of low-income students and mid-level workers aged between 18 and 35 in Lagos, Nigeria. Lagos is considered the cultural melting point of Nigeria, with a heterogonous blending of various cultures. Therefore, the research setting provided a diverse mix of participants. In addition, all respondents were screened based on the average daily earning and only those who earn less than \$2 (N1,000) per day or \$60 (N30,000) per month were selected.

For the present study, convenience sampling was considered the most appropriate. This method does not provide a random sample, but this was not intended because the theory was explicitly assumed to apply to low-income young adults. In this case, convenience sampling was deemed acceptable (Rahi, 2017). By distributing the questionnaires through digital channels to a group of 630 potential respondents, a sufficiently large sample could be achieved within a short time frame and without high costs, an advantage previously highlighted by Fink (2015). The initial digital approach was followed up by face-to-face contact.

4.1.1.1 Sample size

As will be further explained, the statistical analysis used Confirmatory Factor Analysis (abbreviated as CFA) and the statistically related technique Structural Equation Modeling (abbreviated as SEM). Both techniques require a large enough sample size to reach reliable conclusions. The exact sample size is difficult to determine (Hair et al., 2010) and this is because both the number of factors and the strength of the relationships determine statistical power. Kline (2011) has stated as a rule of thumb that a CFA requires at least 100 participants and five times as many observations as the number of constructs, although a ratio of ten to one would be more ideal. For this study, with 38 variables that would equate to a sample between the 38 x 5 =190 and the 38 x 10 = 380. Comparatively, the recommendation for SEM is to use a sample between 200 and 400 participants Hair et al. (2010). To arrive at these numbers, a 57.5% margin was maintained anticipating a high non-response rate, which is very common in Nigeria.

4.1.1.2 Questionnaire design and pre-testing procedures

The feedback from the focus group and the information obtained through the literature review were used to develop the questionnaire. Before conducting the actual survey, a pilot was carried out. The purpose of this pilot study was to verify if and how the face validity and content validity could be improved. A measurement has face validity when its measurement intentions are clear for the people that take the test (Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt, 2015). In some cases, more indirect questions can be helpful such as when you wish to prevent people from providing socially desirable answers. In many cases, however, it helps obtain validity when it is clear for people what you want to know, as they will answer accordingly (Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt, 2015).

A two-step process was observed to assess these two forms of validity for the preliminary survey that was developed. The initial step engaged five leading luxury experts at the three leading global luxury multinationals with operations in Nigeria. Two academic researchers at the University of Lagos were also asked to review the survey items and provide comments on the survey with respect to how well it reflected the intended construct domain. Three young students who were more familiar with the emerging street slang and conversational style of the target audience further reviewed the questionnaire items for simplicity and clarity and commented on the ease of the provided survey explanation.

The second process was the selection of target respondent representatives to provide user feedback on the questionnaire. A sample of respondents who participated in the initial focus group in Lagos, Nigeria, were engaged. They were between the age group of 18 and 35. The respondents were allowed to review and make suggestions for the enhancement of the survey, allowing for an improved survey design. Their feedback on questions and words that were ambiguous, difficult to understand, or redundant were taken and applied in the enhanced version of the survey design. The reviewers also provided feedback on the ordering of the questions order and on how to make the statements simpler using everyday words that the respondents are more familiar with.

4.1.2 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire applied a standard five-point Likert-type scale ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5); the other points were labelled as Disagree (2), Neither Agree nor Disagree (3) and Agree (4). Five-point Likert scales are easily understandable to respondents and enable them to convey their feedback with clear views (Bouranta, Chitris, and Paravantis, 2009). A 5-point scale is also less confusing than smaller or larger scales, with higher response propensity and increased response rate (Taherdoost, 2019). Additionally, before the questionnaire was distributed to the target sample, several necessary changes were made based on the guidelines suggested by MacKenzie *et al.* (2011) and Hair *et al.* (2010).

After the participants answered the survey, their scores were computed on the five assumed sub-scales of the ALCR: Emulation inclination, Volitional Consumption inclination, Moral disengagement inclination, Conspicuous consumption inclination, and Variety seeking inclination. The scores were computed by averaging the answers on the items of which the scale consists of. The reliability and validity of the tool were satisfactory, as will be demonstrated in detail in Chapter 6.

A point that can be made that is relevant to this as well as the previous chapter (Section 3.2) concerns the use of a single-wave questionnaire in preference to a multiple-wave design. It is acknowledged that single-wave questionnaires have some limitations; however, they are cost-effective and less time-consuming compared to multi-wave surveys, making them particularly appealing for researchers operating within constrained budgets and tight schedules (Dillman, 2011). As Saris and Gallhofer (2014) contend, furthermore, single-wave questionnaires are more efficient for data collection since respondents are required to complete the questionnaire only once.

Several steps were also taken to ensure the rigour and validity of the scale development process. Established best practices for validating the scale/constructs were followed, including conducting exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, assessing reliability and validity, and conducting multiple tests for construct validity. Although a multi-sample design or complementary experiments could have further strengthened the scale validation, we believe that the sample splitting technique used in cross-validation provides a reliable assessment of the scale's performance.

The order of survey items for the respondents was randomised. This was implemented to control for potential order effects that could influence participants' responses. By doing so, this research aimed to reduce response biases and improve the internal validity of the constructs.

4.1.3 Data collection process

An online survey technique was conducted, though the respondents were recruited and engaged face to face to explain the purpose of the research and all the ethical considerations. No further reminders were given to the participants, in order to facilitate voluntary study competition. The respondents were adequately briefed on the research, and their permission to participate was sorted voluntarily. The respondents were guaranteed optimal confidentially, with the result being that they were anonymous and de-identified. They were informed in detail about all aspects of the study, including the voluntary nature of their participation, the way their data will be treated, the fact that they were allowed to stop participating in the study at any point, and that they are completely anonymous. They proceeded with the study only once they confirmed that they were aware of these conditions and that they consented to partaking in the study. No personal information was collected that would be directly related to the participants' identity. The survey was open, meaning that all people with the link could access and complete it. Neither cookies nor the ID address of users was used to assign unique identifiers.

Since the respondents were required to visit the survey link to respond, a non-monetary incentive was provided to encourage a reasonable response rate. Previous research has shown that incentives do not create feedback bias or measurement errors (Smith, Witte, and Rocha, 2019). In addition, a non-monetary incentive high response rate can facilitate a higher rate of response completeness (Yu, Alper, and Nguyen, 2017). All the respondents received an instant mobile phone airtime voucher of N500 (0.8 pounds). A survey was considered completed if it was completed fully, otherwise it was not utilized. Furthermore, the response rate was calculated as the percentage of engaged people who completed the questionnaires.

The full survey can be found in the Appendices of this thesis. Besides the questions aimed to measure the model, the survey also included questions to measure gender, marital status, and education and, as will be explained in 3.2.3, measures of two associated constructs.

4.1.4 Data accuracy, missing values and outliers

The process by which data is collected, labelled, and reformatted into a form appropriate for data analysis has an impact on the quality of the statistical analysis (Aaker *et al.*, 2005). In alignment with the guidance provided by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), the collected data were cleaned prior to the analysis. This process included testing for consistency, missing data, wrong coding of responses, detection of outliers, and the normality of the data, while also ensuring that the research data is free from the non-responses error.

4.1.5 Missing data treatment

Statistical analyses assume that the sample is representative of a population. For this reason, missing values can be problematic when they cause bias (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014). This can occur, for example, when questions are not answered for a specific reason (e.g., out of shame or discomfort) or when missing data occur because subjects are unmotivated. Missing data can be ignored if they are random and constitute less than 10% of the individual's observations of them (Hair et al., 2010). In this case, the overage data can still use the subject, and the missing data are usually replaced by the mean (Jakobsen, 2017). Following these guidelines, missing data were indeed substituted by the mean, unless they appeared to be systematic and consisted of more than 10% of the data provided by a participant. It should also be noted that there were no items that had more than 5% missing data, showing there were no items that could cause bias in the form of non-response.

4.1.6 Measurement errors

According to Jenkins and Rios Avila (2021), there are four types of errors that should be handled while conducting surveys and other data collection method. These have been carefully considered and addressed in this study.

1. **Coverage error:** This error occurs when the respondents do not fully represent the target audience being studied. It is therefore a consideration to ensure that everyone who should be included is included. For this study, a well-defined target group (male/female 18–35) who are within the low-income setting were carefully covered.
2. **Sampling error:** Sampling error occurs refers to a bias in the sample, that could be caused by the researcher searching for participants only in a specific subset of the population (s)he wishes to study, or when the people who choose to

participate have certain characteristics in common. In this study, good representation of the population was sought by approaching students as well as mid-level workers, that seemingly were equally interested in participating. Moreover, the information provided was clear and neutral, such as that it would not seem more attractive for a specific gender or groups with work-interests.

3. **Non-response error:** Non-response error refers to when the respondents do not answer one or more survey items and relates to missing data handling as already discussed. It is possible that that they answer some questions, skip, or drop out of non-required questions. This often happens as they seek to quickly finish the online survey. For this study, a simple incentive was provided to encourage completion, while the surveys were also kept as concise as possible to avoid boredom.
4. **Common method bias:** Another crucial issue in behavioural research is the common method bias. It is a measure of the level of spurious variation or bias caused by the fact that all items of the instrument or self-reports rather than the actual reality of the research respondents or the construct being measured (Eichhorn, 2014). Three methods have been used in the literature to estimate common method bias. These are: 1) Harman's single factor, 2) common latent factor and 3) the marker variable method. While the marker variable method is considered the best of the three, it is advised that a marker variable, which is theoretically unrelated to at least one of the substantive variables of interest, should be carefully identified before the data collection process to have a reliable estimate (Richardson, et. al., 2009). The pre-selection and identification were not done in this case. However, based on the guidance provided by Eichhorn (2014) on instances when a viable marker variable and its measures are not collected

during the data collection process, the Common Latent Factor technique is deemed a better alternative that can be applied post hoc. In this technique, a new factor is created to connect the arrow with all observed variables, which is followed by comparison with a fully constrained model. If there is any difference between an unconstrained model estimate and a fully constrained model estimate that is greater than 0.2, the study has a common method bias problem.

4.1.7 Outlier detection

Outliers are defined as those observations distinctly different from the other observations and are usually the extreme values that have unusually large or small values in a data set (Hair *et al.*, 2010). An outlier usually has a high or low value, making the observation stand out from the rest. There are many approaches to detecting outliers. Two of the popular ones are the use of the frequency distribution of each item for the minimum and maximum values, and the second is using the histogram distribution of each variable (Holmes-Smith 2011). However, there were no extreme outliers for this study because the response options had pre-validated options from which the respondents selected. There were no open-ended questions. All responses were based on the 5-scale Likert scale.

4.1.8 Normality test

The assumption of normality is made in parametric statistical analysis and sufficiently large variation from a normal distribution can invalidate the results of these analyses (Hair *et al.*, 2006). A popular approach used for normality tests is identifying the distribution shape, specifically the skewness and kurtosis (Das and Imon, 2016). Skewness measures the dataset's horizontal symmetry or the lack of symmetry of data distribution (i.e., it looks the same to right and left from the middle point), while kurtosis measures how peaked or flat a data distribution is compared to a normal distribution (Cain, Zhang, and Yuan, 2017).

Severe skewness is seen when there is a pile-up of data on either the left or the right side of the distribution (i.e., more participants with low or high values respectively). However, kurtosis measures if a data distribution is heavy-tailed or light-tailed relative to a normal distribution. Datasets with heavy tails tend to have more outliers. In contrast, datasets with low kurtosis have light tails, which indicates a lack of outliers. A normally distributed and symmetrical dataset has a skewness and kurtosis of 0. Values for skewness and kurtosis that reflect a good indication of a normal distribution are between -3 and +3 (Cain, Zhang, and Yuan, 2017).

Additionally, multivariate normality is also important for this type of study. In SEM, multivariate normality is very vital because even when individual variables are univariately normal, it is very possible that the variables are not multivariate and normally distributed (Cain, et. al, 2017). To evaluate the degree of multivariate normality in a dataset for SEM, there are three popular tests that can be applied, they are the Mardia's test, Henze-Zirklers's test, and Royston's test (Khatun, 2021). They will be used in the present study.

4.1.9 Structural equation modeling (SEM)

SEM is a method of data analysis that assumes hypothesized models and thus is considered essential for theory testing (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Kline, 2005; Hair et al., 2010). This technique is widely used within social science research, including in the areas of marketing and organizational behaviour and strategy (Chin, Peterson and Brown 2008; Hair, Gabriel and Patel 2014). Also, specifically for management research as in this study, the SEM approach is considered very appropriate (Hershberger, 2003). The basis of SEM is that all hypothesized relationships between constructs are estimated simultaneously (Gerbing, Hamilton and Freeman, 1994). This involves checking to see if the model is a good representation of the observations, with both incorrect measurement of the constructs and incorrectness of the relationships leading to a poor fit and rejection of the theoretical model (Byrne, 2010).

Thus, the SEM technique is confirmatory and not exploratory (Awang, 2012; Byrne, 2010). For this reason, it is important first to test the measurement model, or observations used to represent an underlying, latent construct (Gallagher, Ting and Palmer 2008). Where an exploratory factor analysis arrives at factors based on consistency in the data, SEM models use a CFA. This is because the researcher needs to specify which latent constructs are present and in which item scores, they should manifest themselves. Once the measurement models of the constructs provide a good model fit, the researcher can then focus on testing the "structural model," which tests the relationships among the latent constructs (Gallagher, Ting and Palmer 2008). Similar to linear regression analysis, this yields parameter estimates, however in this case not as a path model based on the measurements but based on the latent constructs and not just with one dependent variable, but with the relationships (unilateral or reciprocal) between all the constructs simultaneously (Hair et al., 2010).

In this study, the IBM SPSS statistics v. 22 was used for basic statistics, after which the CFA and SEM were performed using the Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) software. This software was developed as easily integrable with SPSS, where files can be read by AMOS. AMOS has a graphical representation of the models (Awang, 2012). It has both the option of the partial least squares-based method (PLS-SEM) and the covariance-based SEM method (CB-SEM), the method used for this study.

4.1.9.1 The covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) approach

To explain the difference between PLS-SEM and CB-SEM, it should first be explained that SEM is seen as a second-generation regression model, that clearly differs from the first-generation models (i.e., standard linear regression and Logit models, with analysis of variance methods as a specific way of approaching group differences). As SEM sort of integrates factor analysis with regression and allows for more complex models, because multiple paths can be testes simultaneously, it is very helpful for both scale development as well as the evaluation of causal relationships (Babin, Hair, and Boles, 2008; Byrne, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2010). Whereas it is statistically more complex than the first-generation models, there are multiple software packages that help researchers carry out SEM, including AMOS, that as already states was used in this study, but also LISREL, EQS, SEPA-TH, RAMONA, MX, and CALIS (Chin, 1998). AMOS was chosen because it is user-friendly, especially for beginners, and is an added SPSS module, which is often used in the social sciences (Gallagher, Ting, and Palmer 2008).

How these models are tested, however, is then the next critical question. PLS-SEM uses ordinary least squares estimation, which is a regression-based approach that minimizes error terms and maximizes the explained variance in the latent constructs Bollen, 1989; Kline, 2011; Rigdon *et al.*, 2017). Jöreskog's CB-SEM, on the other hand, is a maximum likelihood procedure that is based on the covariance matrix and does not aim to maximize the explained variance; this is considered a "by-product" resulting from good model fit. This latter method has several important advantages over PLS-SEM (Rigdon *et al.*, 2017).

First, PLS-SEM always assumes one causal direction (i.e., arrows can only be single-headed) and this is not the case for CB-SEM that allows for covariance, and thus more complex models. CB-SEM facilitates, for example, second- and even third order constructs that are hierarchically higher than the lower order constructs (e.g., intelligence as cause of performal and verbal intelligence, that manifest in observable non-verbal and verbal IQ test scores respectively) (Hair, Gabriel, and Patel, 2014).

Second, PLS-SEM is composite based, using linear combinations of the indicators whereas CB-SEM uses a more accurate assumption that a common factor explains the covariation in the indicators. This allows for more sophisticated reliability and validity assessment (Hair *et al.*, 2014). For each construct, it can be tested if it is associated with related constructs (convergent validity), yet not the same (discriminant validity) (Bagozzi and Yi, 2012).

Third, the overall model fit, and parameter estimates are found to be more accurate and precise, albeit only with sufficiently large sample sizes and if the parametric assumptions of normality with independent observations are not violated (Bollen, 1989; Dash and Paul, 2021; Hair *et al.*, 2014; Kline, 2011). This is not just true because of the different method of estimation, but also because there is a more robust fit indices to establish the model fit (Hair *et al.,* 2012; 2017). Overall, these advantages make CB-SEM the most appropriate for theory confirmation (whereas PLS-SEM may be used to make predictions in one specified construct).

4.1.9.2 Two-stage approach to SEM

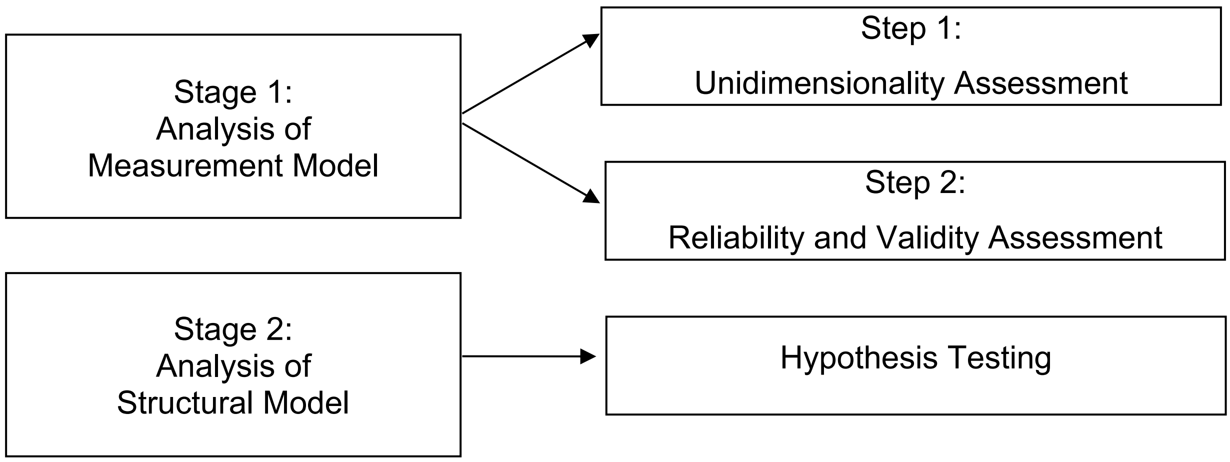
As explained, SEM should best be performed in two-stage manner, where the researcher first tests the measurement model and then continues to test the structural model. However, the reader should be made aware of the fact that some researchers will instead use a single-stage approach and simultaneously test estimate the measurement and structural model. Whereas this can be efficient when the researcher can be certain about the measurement model (e.g., because it has already been confirmed extensively in prior studies), in a study such as the current one, it could confound the interpretation of results and yield misspecification that can affect the accuracy of results (Gallagher, Ting, and Palmer, 2008; Bollen *et al.*, 2007).

Therefore, in this study the two-stage approach was adopted as illustrated in Figure 5 (Dow *et al.*, 1999). The first stage consists of 2 steps. Step 1 is verifying the assumed measurement model using CFA. The latent constructs are specified to be causal predictors of the observed variables, which in this study were the survey items. The purpose of this step was not only to verify the items as indicators, but also to verify the assumed unidimensionality of the scale. Unidimensionality exists when one factor can predict all items well (Hair *et al.* 1995). If instead certain factor loadings are low and item-covariances of sets of items seem to cluster, then a multi-dimensional structure can be present.

More specifically, factor loadings should be at least 0.50 (Hair *et al.*, 2010). This method is more powerful for theory-driven tests of dimensionality compared to EFA, that is data-based and where researchers should be able to ascribe meaning to factors based on the items that load on them (for reasons of content, but sometimes also for unintended reasons, such as correlations between negatively formulated items) (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Dunn, Seaker, and Waller, 1994; Hair *et al.*, 2010). Once the dimensionality of the measurement model is confirmed, there is a second step to be taken which concerns the relationality and validity. This step is to be surer that the construct representation is correct.

Not until these two steps have resulted in a trustworthy measurement model, the researcher can continue with stage 2 analysis. In stage 2, the full hypothesised model is evaluated. This model is represented in Figure 4.1. The next sections will provide more detail about how this 2-stage approach was carried out and evaluated.

Figure 4.1.
Stages of the SEM process



4.1.9.3 SEM assumptions

SEM and specifically CB-SEM can only be carried out and interpreted if several specified assumptions are met. One of the most important assumptions is the sample size. SEM requires the sample size to be adequate to ensure that covariance and correlations are more stable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The rules of thumb used to determine sample size for the study were provided in 3.2.1. To provide further background and detail, SEM has sometimes been used in smaller samples, even with only 50 participants (Anderson and Gerbing, 1984); but this is criticised because maximum likelihood estimation becomes less reliable in small samples (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Overall norms on the one hand recommend using samples of

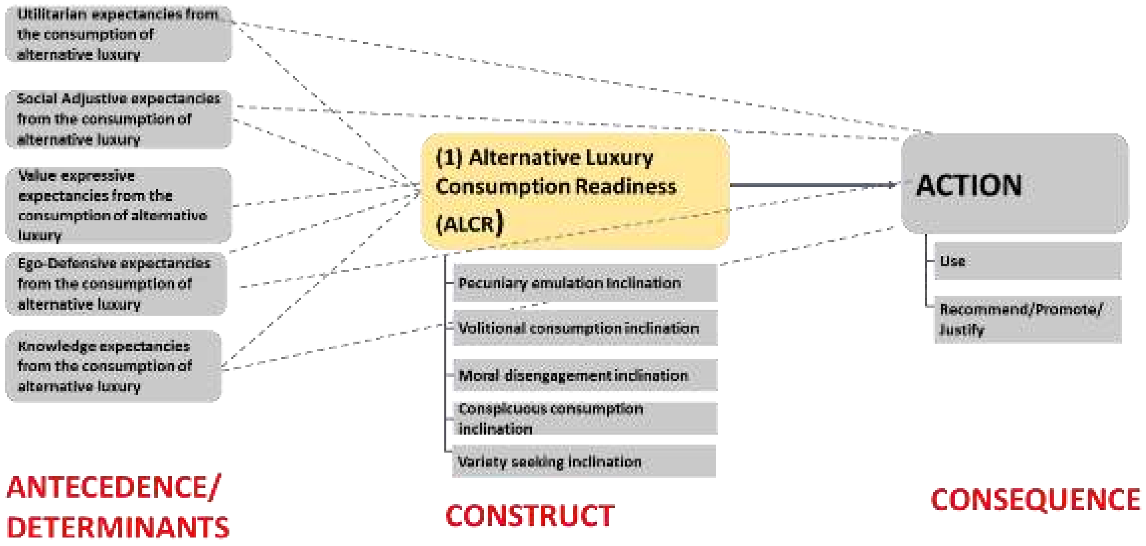
200-400, but not much bigger as the model fit then becomes too sensitive (Boomsma and Hoogland, 2001; Carmines and McIver, 1981; Tanaka, 1987; Hair *et al.*, 2010).

On the other hand, there is also a balance that relies on the number of parameters estimates and as explained, for the current study, this roughly translates into a similar required sample size that aimed to be about 380-400 (Bentler, 1995; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Yet anticipating non-response, a larger sample was approached. The resulting final sample size of 559 was appropriate, with low risk of model fit overestimations, and some risk of being too critical (i.e., because of oversensitivity). A second assumption is that the variables show multivariate normality (Bollen, 1989; Dash and Paul, 2021; Hair *et al.*, 2014; Kline, 2011). This will be tested in Chapter 4.

4.1.9.4 Path diagram

Figure 4.2 shows the model that was drawn to show all assumed associations between latent constructs and indicators, and between the latent constructs among each other. The one-sided arrow between the construct of interest (ALCR) towards action, demonstrates the important assumption that ALCR causes action. On the left side of the model are the assumed antecedents of ALCR. Further, we can see that the construct is defined as a second-order construct, with underlying constructs of pecuniary emulation, volitional consumption, moral engagement, conspicuous consumption and variety seeking inclination.

Figure 4.2.
Path Diagram for SEM Model



4.1.9.5

Assessment of the measurement model

Whereas these several inclinations are defined, they are assumed to be reflections of one overall latent construct of ALCR. As such, the CFA aims to verify unidimensionality (Awang, 2012). The next subsections will explain, how this CFA was carried out and how reliability and validity were investigated (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Hair *et al.*, 2010). As explained, it is important that the measurement model is valid and reliable before the researcher interprets the estimations of the structural model (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

4.1.9.6 Unidimensionality

As explained in 3.2.2.2, the dimensionality of a factor can be determined with EFA and CFA (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Kline, 2010), but if there is a strong theoretical assumption of the factor structure, CFA offers more insight and accuracy in assessing construct measurement. Factor models, specifically higher-order factors such as this, specify constructs to be mutually uncorrelated, allowing researchers a clearer understanding of construct measurement (Brunner, Nagy, and Wilhelm, 2012). Moreover, CFA is a logical component of the larger model in covariance-based SEM in which the item loadings will be estimated. Therefore, CFA was carried out. It should also be noted that in line with Awang's (2012) recommendations, items with factor loadings < 0.5 would be re-considered (i.e., possibly removed).

4.1.9.7 Reliability

Reliability in statistics refers to how consistent findings are (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2009). There are several forms of reliability, and an important one for test development is how consistent the items are in showing the latent construct (Yin, 2013). After all, if items lower the internal consistency of the scale, this means they contribute to error and bias, resulting in an unreliable scale because measurement error is reflected in the scores, which of course also harms the scale's validity (Raykov, 2009). Internal consistency is usually expressed by Cronbach's alpha (α) (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Comparing the different rules of thumb of what would be an appropriate level of Cronbach's alpha, it can be concluded that 0.60 is just-acceptable (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), values greater than 0.70 should be preferred (Nunnally, 1978) and values of at least 0.80 reflect good internal reliability (Carmines and Zeller, 1979).

A second form of reliability that is like internal consistency, is composite reliability. This refers to how much if the scale score variance is true score variance. This is calculated by dividing the variance due to the factor by the total variance of the composite. This value should be at least 0.6 to reflect adequate composite reliably (Awang 2012). To compare this to Cronbach's alpha: Cronbach's alpha is the reliability of the sum of the scale items, whereas composite reliability uses the factor analysis results. Further, the average variance extracted (AVE), is a measure of how much item variance is explained by the latent variable. This should be at least 0.50, because lower values would suggest that the items only reflect the construct to a lesser extent than they reflect other influences (i.e., error) (Awang, 2012). These three criteria were all evaluated before achievement of good measurement reliability was concluded.

4.1.9.8 Validity

Validity refers to whether a scale measures what it assumes to measure or is supposed to measure (Zikmund 2003). We can answer the question of validity from different angles (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). For the current study, content and construct validity (as expressed by convergent and discriminant validity) were taken into account. Especially convergent and discriminant validity were already mentioned before. For sake of clarity, however, the different forms of validity will be discussed in detail in the next sub-sections.

4.1.9.9 Content validity

Content validity is perhaps the most basic form of validity, referring to whether the measurement really presents the construct (Malhotra, Agarwal, and Peterson, 1996). Therefore, it should be carefully considered how items can address the elements and dimensions of what one wants to know (Haynes, Richard, and Kubany, 1995; Sekaran, 2003). All important aspects of the construct should be included, and any irrelevant aspects should not be. Whereas this seems an obvious rule, it requires could definitions as otherwise, some associated indicator could accidentally be seen as reflecting the construct. In the current study, for example, it was important that antecedents and consequences (action) were not included in the items that aimed to measure ALCR. For this reason, validated measurements were used in this study to measure the established constructs and to measure the construct of interest, a pilot study was carried out using expert review.

4.1.9.10 Construct validity

Construct validity is about whether the survey really measures the construct (Churchill and Lacobucci, 2006; Hair *et al.*, 2010). Even if it theoretically contains all aspects, the items can accidentally be biased and not measure what the researcher hoped or thought it would measure. A clear example of this would be a mathematics test which includes questions that contain many difficult words. This could result in the test being a better reflection of the participants' vocabulary than of their mathematical skills. In the current survey, it was important to use sentences that were easy to comprehend and concepts that would not be open to multiple definitions of the participants (Churchill and Lacobucci, 2006; Malhotra, 2008; Gallagher, Ting, and Palmer, 2008; Hair *et al.*, 2010). For this reason, the pilot included not only expert opinion, but also feedback from potential users.

Construct validity can be approached by two different angles: convergent and discriminant validity.

4.1.9.11 Convergent validity

Convergent validity is usually defined as a measurement showing assumed positive associations with similar measurements. Within the structural model, the already described internal consistency in the form of AVE thus can also be interpreted as an indicator that provides support for convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The reader is reminded that the AVE value should be at least 0.50 level (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair *et al.*, 2010). Importantly also, is that items with low factor loadings can result in low convergent validity, and should, therefore, be removed from the model (Awang, 2012). What is more, is that convergent validity should also be shown in significant associations with theoretically related constructs that were measured in this study.

4.1.9.12 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is very similar in the sense that it is also about associations between theoretically related constructs, however specifying that the associations should not be too strong (Hair *et al.*, 2010). For example, if interested in age, there is no additional value in asking a person's birthdate if you already have verified the exact age. For the current study, the concepts were thought to be sufficiently dissimilar if the correlations between the factors would be maximumly 0.85 (Kline, 2005). It was also checked if the square root of AVE for each factor was at least greater than its shared variance with any other factor (Zait and Bertea, 2011). Moreover, on the item-level, items were considered to be redundant as well if they were correlated close to 1 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Vázquez-Carrasco and Foxall, 2006). Modification Indices (MI) that are provided by AMOS software were used to determine this redundancy, where high values of MI indicate that items either should covary or one should be deleted to improve the model fit (Awang, 2012).

4.1.9.13 Assessment of overall model fit

To determine the model fit, a combination of several goodness-of-fit (GOF) indices was used. The reason for this, is that there are multiple GOFs and each of these have their specific characteristics, whereas there does not seem to be one perfect measure (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, researchers usually report about four to six fit indices to assess their model fit (Kline 2005; Medsker, Williams, and Holahan, 1994). As will be explained in the next subsections, GOF indices can represent absolute fit, incremental fit, and parsimonious fit and for each of these categories at least one type of GOF should be reported to inform the reader appropriately (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Holmes-Smith, Coote, and Cunningham, 2006)

4.1.9.14 Absolute fit indices

An absolute fit indices are measures of how well a model fits the observed data (McDonald and Ho, 2002). Commonly used absolute GOF indices are the chi-square ($\chi 2$), goodness-of-fit (GFI), root mean square error (RMSEA), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Absolute fit indices measure how well a priori model fits the sample data and determine which proposed model has the most superior fit All these indices give some indication of the theory-reality match, provided that the sample is representative of the population (Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008).

The chi-square ($\chi 2$) is the only index that is a test of significance. It basically tests whether the model estimates provide a prediction that is equal to what is observed, where we use the “normal” criterion of a 95%, that is $\alpha = .05$ (Barrett, 2007). Yet, this is very difficult to achieve, especially with larger sample sizes ($N > 200$), where even small deviations will result in rejection of the equality hypothesis (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Bagozzi and Yi, 2012; Hair *et al.*, 2010). As a result, Chi-square statistics are often reported, but more as an indication of “lack of fit”, and the statistical significance is rarely used to reject the model (Kline, 2010; Mulaik *et al.*, 1989).

The GFI on the other hand, is a relative index of the variance and covariance explained by the model (Byrne, 2010). This index was proposed by Jöreskog and Sörbom (1982), as an alternative to the just mentioned chi-square test as that test was considered inadequate. The GFI is based on a saturated version of the model would represent a 100% fit, expressed by 1.0 and then compares the proportion of variance accounted for by the model that is specified, with 0.90 showing good fit (Byrne, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2010; Kline, 2010). This index is regularly reported, but it should be mentioned that the GFI logically increases if the model contains more parameters (approaching a saturated model) and has found to be positively biased in larger samples (Hair *et al.* 2010; Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen, 2008; MacCallum and Hong, 1997; Sharma *et al.*, 2005; Shevlin and Miles, 1998).

Therefore, the Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was also used in this study. This measure is more similar to the Chi square (Byrne, 2010), but is parsimony-adjusted and it is therefore more appropriate and informative (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000). This index, just as the other GOF indices, has no statistical significance and therefore uses criterion values (Bollen and Long, 1993; Hair *et al.*, 2010; 2012; 2017).). An RMSEA value < 0.05 indicates a “close fit”, and an RMSEA between 0.5 and 08 indicates a “reasonable fit” (Bollen and Long, 1993; Holmes-Smith, Coote, and Cunningham, 2006).

4.1.9.15 Incremental fit indices

Besides the absolute fit indices, there are also relative model fit indices, usually “incremental fit indices” because they are based on comparing the created model to a null model, or a model with atrocious predicting properties. Thus, they tell us the degree to which our model helps us understand the data (Hair *et al.*, 2010). Two popular indices, which will be used in this study, include the Tucker-Lewis index (as the name already indicates developed by Tucker and Lewis, 1973) and the comparative fit index (Bentler, 1990).

Tucker and Lewis (1973) postulated their index (TLI) to assess how much a model helps us understand the data, compared to having a null model, which is the worst possible assessment of the data. Then, the degree to which prediction of the data is improved on the previous model is assessed against having the full model, in the form of a ratio. Thus, it tells us how well the model is explaining the data, on a scale of having the worst model to having the best possible model. Generally, a criterion of >.90 is used when assessing this index (Widaman and Thompson, 2003).

The comparative fit index (CFI) is quite similar and highly correlated to the TLI. Like the TLI, it has a "penalty' for model complexity, yet a slightly different one (based on the Chi square divided by the degrees of freedom; Bentler, 1990). It also has a cut-off value of .90 and usually researchers only report either one of these two indices. However, to avoid the (suggestion of possible) cherry-picking, both are reported in the current study.

4.1.9.16 Parsimonious fit indices

Lastly, parsimonious fit indices attempt to adjust the usually used fit indices, by penalizing models that use too many factors, and are thus not parsimonious. As has been commented before, some indices always rise with the addition of new factors, which is why they need to be normed to make them assess the parsimony of a model as well. The most commonly used parsimonious fit index, is the normed chi-squared index It is calculated by (χ^2/df), with the χ^2 being the same as presented as the first GOF index and df = the degrees of freedoms, which helps modify it both in terms of the sample size and the number of factors (as they both influence the df). Values between 1 and 3 indicate good fit. Table 4.1 summarises these fit indices.

Table 4.1.
Summary of Indices of Fit used in the Study

Index	**Criteria used as indicative of fit (with more details in text)**	
	Absolute Fit	
Chi-square (χ2)	$p > 0.05$	non-significant p-value would indicate good fit lower values are not considered to bad fit index is too restrictive for large sample sizes.
Goodness-of-Fit (GFI)	≥ 0.90	Values closer to 1 represent better fit
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	≤ 0.08	< 0.05 = good fit. 0.05 - 0.08 = adequate fit. 0.08- 0.10 = lower bound of acceptable fit
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	< 0.08	Smaller values represent better fit
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit (AGFI)	> 0.80	Values closer to 1 represent better fit
	Incremental Fit	
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	≥ 0.90	Values closer to 1 represent better fit
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	≥ 0.90	Values closer to 1 represent better fit
	Parsimonious Fit	
Normed Chi-square (χ^2/df)	1.0-3.0	Values >5 should result in absolute rejection

4.2 Comparison with Related Constructs

To establish the validity of the concept more fully, the study measured two related constructs: counterfeit proneness and brand luxury. Counterfeit proneness refers to whether people tend to prefer counterfeit (non-original/fake) to genuine (original, brand-labelled and produced) products (Sharm and Chan, 2011). To measure counterfeit proneness, participants filled out the survey of Sharm and Chan that contains 11 items. The items all use a 5-point Likert scale. In their research, Sharm and Chan found adequate internal reliability of the scale and support for its validity by a significant, positive correlation with related constructs, such as status consumption. Counterfeit proneness is clearly a narrower construct compared to ALCR, focused on only one of the three ways in which alternative luxury may be consumed. By being focused on the attitude toward counterfeit products, Sharm and Chan also did not consider the importance of goals and attitude functions of luxury consumption. As such, the current study that uses ALCR may help us better understand the behaviour of the customers. This behaviour is ultimately the most important goal of managers and marketers, because they want to know why and how people buy their goods or seek alternative options.

The second construct is the brand luxury index (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). This construct has been mainly focused on brands, and how they may be deemed as almost luxurious by the different segments of the public. Vigneron and Johnson conceptualized luxury as consisting of five dimensions: conspicuousness, uniqueness, quality, hedonism, and extended self. Starting from a larger pool of items, they identified 19 items to reliably measure these dimensions, using a 5-point Likert scale. The differences between this scale and the ALCR are very clear: the brand luxury index is not concerned with alternative luxury, it is focused on measuring brands and their attributes in the eyes of the participants, and not those of the participants themselves, and it is not interested in actual consumer behaviour but instead in public image. The study was very successful in defining the various aspects of luxury and how they lead to a coherent picture of a brand as luxurious or not. Therefore, it was very useful for understanding luxury in general, and it may be useful for understanding alternative luxury as well, but this study differs greatly in scope and goals with regard to it.

CHAPTER 5 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 Chapter overview

This chapter represents the different analyses of this study, i.e., descriptive statistics, the respondent's demographic attributes, and hypothesis testing. The chapter starts with a general analysis of the collected data. Following this, this chapter presents the consequences of assessing the structural and measurement models by applying different statistical techniques.

5.2 Response rate

A total of 630 questionnaires were distributed among different respondents through digital channels and followed up through face-to-face contact, out of which 559 responses were returned. This represents an 88.7% response rate. Table 5.1 shows the response rates for this study.

Table 5.1
Questionnaire Response Rate

Total sent	Total received	Response rate (%)
630	559	88.7%

5.3 Data screening

Before performing an analysis, data screening was performed to check for missing values. Microsoft MS-Excel was used, with the COUNTBLANK formula applied. Some values were missing, and these were replaced with mean scores using SPSS V26. Those rows with extreme missing values were removed. Next, straight-lining or unengaged responses were also checked in Microsoft MS-Excel with the help of the STDEV.P formula. We found 24 unengaged responses in this step and removed them from the questionnaire. At the end of the data screening process, there were 529 useable responses.

5.4 Descriptive Analysis

The profile of all respondents based on Gender, Education, Age and Marital Status was created using IBM SPSS software V26. In this section, we discuss their demographic characteristics in detail.

This study has a total of respondents 529, of which 49.15% are female, and 50.85% are male.

5.5 Data Assessment

5.5.1 Descriptive statistics

The reader is reminded that the constructs were measured on a five-point Likert scale, from 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree. Table 5.1 shows the Minimum, Maximum, Mean, Standard deviation, Kurtosis, and Skewness of all variables. In this research, all Skewness and kurtosis values were between -1 and +1, showing no serious deviations from normality.

Table 5.1.
Descriptive Statistics (N = 529)

	N (%)	**MIN**	**MAX**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
Age	—	—	—	—	0.50	-0.004	-2.008
18 – 24	264 (49.90)	—	—	—	—	—	—
25 – 34	265 (50.10)	—	—	—	—	—	—
Gender	—	—	—	—	0.50	-0.034	-2.006
Female	260 (49.15)	—	—	—	—	—	—
Male	269 (50.85)	—	—	—	—	—	—
Marital Status	—	—	—	—	0.41	2.041	4.479
Single	430 (81.30)	—	—	—	—	—	—
Married	97 (18.30)	—	—	—	—	—	—
Divorced	1 (0.20)	—	—	—	—	—	—
No Response	1	—	—	—	—	—	—

	(0.20)						
Education	——	——	——	——	0.69	0.279	0.411
Primary	8 (1.50)	——	——	——	——	——	——
Secondary	173 (32.70)	——	——	——	——	——	——
Graduate	289 (54.60)	——	——	——	——	——	——
Post-Grad	53 (10.0)	——	——	——	——	——	——
No Response	6 (1.10)	——	——	——	——	——	——
Utilitarian 1	——	1	5	3.69	1.04	-0.861	0.596
Utilitarian 2	——	1	5	3.72	1.03	-0.977	0.787
Utilitarian 3	——	1	5	3.70	0.99	-0.824	0.579
Social Adjustive 1	——	1	5	3.76	1.03	-0.901	0.652
Social Adjustive 2	——	1	5	3.78	0.97	-1.018	1.102
Social Adjustive 3	——	1	5	3.72	1.01	-0.746	0.445
Value Expressive 1	——	1	5	3.74	1.03	-0.858	0.510
Value Expressive 2	——	1	5	3.68	1.04	-0.778	0.360
Value Expressive 3	——	1	5	3.76	1.03	-0.777	0.290
Value Expressive 4	——	1	5	3.71	1.03	-0.888	0.598
Ego Defensive 1	——	1	5	3.65	0.99	-0.695	0.399
Ego Defensive 2	——	1	5	3.72	1.03	-0.996	0.841
Ego Defensive 3	——	1	5	3.71	1.02	-0.847	0.587
Ego Defensive 4	——	1	5	3.72	1.02	-0.889	0.690
Epistemic Func. 1	——	1	5	3.77	1.05	-0.883	0.517
Epistemic Func. 2	——	1	5	3.74	0.99	-0.799	0.520
Epistemic Func. 3	——	1	5	3.74	1.06	-0.831	0.424
Epistemic Func. 4	——	1	5	3.71	1.01	-0.901	0.691
Emulation 1	——	1	5	3.47	1.17	-0.535	-0.524
Emulation 2	——	1	5	3.43	1.14	-0.414	-0.616
Emulation 3	——	1	5	3.44	1.24	-0.528	-0.654
Emulation 4	——	1	5	3.40	1.11	-0.488	-0.358
Volitional Cons. 1	——	1	5	3.42	1.12	-0.536	-0.406
Volitional Cons. 2	——	1	5	3.42	1.17	-0.551	-0.501
Volitional Cons. 3	——	1	5	3.47	1.21	-0.521	-0.676
Volitional Cons. 4	——	1	5	3.47	1.19	-0.541	-0.568
Moral Disengage 1	——	1	5	3.43	1.20	-0.562	-0.530
Moral Disengage 2	——	1	5	3.43	1.21	-0.464	-0.687
Moral Disengage 3	——	1	5	3.43	1.13	-0.492	-0.549
Moral Disengage 4	——	1	5	3.45	1.15	-0.512	-0.539
Moral Disengage 5	——	1	5	3.43	1.18	-0.442	-0.687
Conspicuous Cons. 1	——	1	5	3.43	1.12	-0.493	-0.459
Conspicuous Cons. 2	——	1	5	3.46	1.13	-0.51	-0.427
Conspicuous Cons. 3	——	1	5	3.45	1.19	-0.494	-0.616
Conspicuous Cons. 4	——	1	5	3.40	1.17	-0.484	-0.623
Conspicuous Cons. 5	——	1	5	3.43	1.20	-0.597	-0.489
Variety Seeking 1	——	1	5	3.44	1.14	-0.535	-0.443
Variety Seeking 2	——	1	5	3.46	1.12	-0.508	-0.433
Variety Seeking 3	——	1	5	3.41	1.17	-0.551	-0.507
Variety Seeking 4	——	1	5	3.44	1.14	-0.467	-0.542
Action 1	——	1	5	3.48	1.17	-0.569	-0.457
Action 2	——	1	5	3.48	1.18	-0.607	-0.440

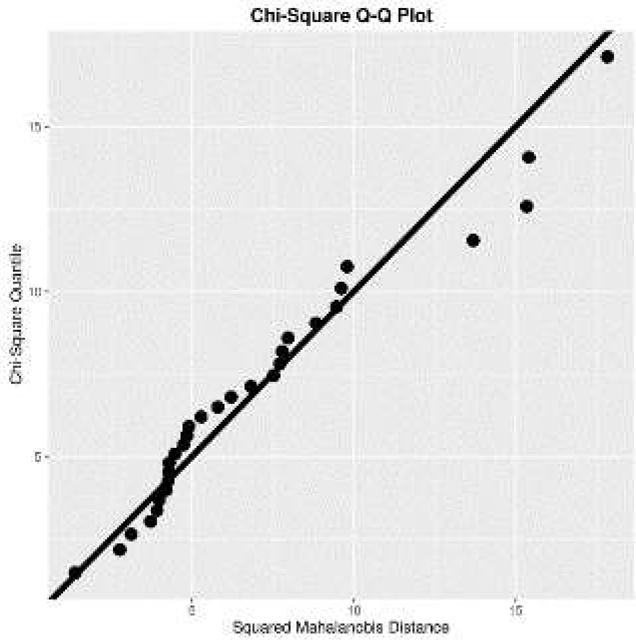
Action 3	——	1	5	3.50	1.16	-0.493	-0.523

Additionally, multivariate normality test was conducted using the Mardia's test with the MVN package (Korkmaz, Goksuluk, & Zararsiz, 2014). The results showed that the data did not deviate significantly from the multivariate normal distribution.

Figure 5.1
Mardia's Multivariate Normality Test using MVN Package

```
   Mardia's Multivariate Normality Test
---------------------------------------
   data : dataset

   g1p            : 20.90165
   chi.skew       : 104.5082
   p.value.skew   : 0.06429579

   g2p            : 64.94129
   z.kurtosis     : 0.4736272
   p.value.kurt   : 0.6357658

   chi.small.skew : 117.8093
   p.value.small  : 0.008824257

   Result         : Data is multivariate normal.
```

Figure 5.2
Chi-Square Q-Q plot (we need to specify what this plot is plotting)



5.5.2 Non-response bias test

A non-response bias test was also conducted. A paired t-test compares two samples means where means of early and late 100, 100 responses are calculated. If there is a significant difference between early and late responses, non-response bias exists in the data. If a statistically significant difference is found between two groups, it indicates that we have a response bias in our collected dataset. However, in our data, no response bias was found. Table 5.2 provides the complete details of the non-response bias test.

5.5.3 Common method bias

In behavioural research, addressing the issue of Common Method Variance Bias (CMVB) is crucial, as it can lead to inflated relationships between variables, stemming from shared methodological factors rather than true constructs. To mitigate this concern, the researcher in this study employed two distinct techniques to examine the presence of CMVB.

The first approach utilized was Harman's single-factor method, which analyses the variance extracted by a single factor from all study variables. If this single factor captures over 50% of the variance, it suggests the existence of common method bias. However, in this study, the variance extracted by the single factor amounted to only 11.584%, well below the 50% threshold. Consequently, the findings indicate that no significant common method bias is present in the research (Podsakoff et al., 2003) (see table 5.2).

The second technique employed to test for CMB was the common latent factor approach. This involved constraining and unconstraining the model to observe differences in the estimates. If the differences exceeded 0.2, it would indicate the presence of common method bias. However, the study revealed that all the discrepancies between the unconstrained and fully constrained model estimates were below 0.2, signifying the absence of significant common method bias (see table 5.3).Hence, based on the outcomes of both techniques, it can be inferred that the research design effectively controlled for the risk of CMVB. As a result, the study's findings are more likely to be robust and reflective of genuine relationships among the variables under investigation (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Table 5.2
Non-Response Bias Test (N = 100)

Variables	Early/Late	Mean	Std. Dev	Std. Error	T-Value	P-Value
Utilitarian	Early	3.75	0.814	0.081	0.538	0.592
	Late	3.68	0.930	0.093		
Social Adjustive	Early	3.66	0.917	0.092	-0.995	0.322
	Late	3.79	0.802	0.080		
Value Expressive	Early	3.76	0.793	0.079	0.825	0.411
	Late	3.66	0.888	0.089		
Ego Defensive	Early	3.65	0.726	0.073	-0.216	0.447
	Late	3.85	0.656	0.066		
Epistemic Function	Early	3.75	0.754	0.075	0.593	0.554
	Late	3.68	0.930	0.093		
Emulation	Early	3.49	0.943	0.094	1.237	0.219
	Late	3.32	1.008	0.101		
Volitional Consumption	Early	3.52	0.968	0.097	0.940	0.350
	Late	3.38	1.012	0.101		
Moral Disengage	Early	3.45	0.971	0.097	0.497	0.621
	Late	3.38	0.957	0.096		
Conspicuous Consumption	Early	3.42	0.931	0.093	0.939	0.350
	Late	3.30	0.994	0.099		
Variety Seeking	Early	3.45	0.930	0.093	0.019	0.985
	Late	3.45	1.013	0.101		
Action	Early	3.43	0.984	0.098	-0.127	0.899
	Late	3.45	1.077	0.108		

Table 5.3.
Common Method Bias Testing (assessing what?)

			Unconstrained	Constrained	Difference
Emulation	←	ALCR	0.800	0.764	0.036
Volitional Cons.	←	ALCR	0.801	0.748	0.053
Moral Disengage	←	ALCR	0.799	0.768	0.031
Conspicuous Cons.	←	ALCR	0.807	0.756	0.051
Variety Seeking	←	ALCR	0.774	0.735	0.039
Utilitarian 1	←	Utilitarian	0.719	0.628	0.091
Utilitarian 2	←	Utilitarian	0.690	0.599	0.091
Utilitarian 3	←	Utilitarian	0.738	0.657	0.081
Social Adjustive 1	←	Social Adjustive	0.731	0.630	0.101
Social Adjustive 2	←	Social Adjustive	0.740	0.643	0.097
Social Adjustive 3	←	Social Adjustive	0.653	0.587	0.066
Value Expressive 1	←	Value Expressive	0.692	0.598	0.094
Value Expressive 2	←	Value Expressive	0.733	0.648	0.085
Value Expressive 3	←	Value Expressive	0.709	0.620	0.089
Value Expressive 4	←	Value Expressive	0.704	0.622	0.082
Ego Defensive 1	←	Ego Defensive	0.705	0.614	0.091
Ego Defensive 2	←	Ego Defensive	0.738	0.640	0.098
Ego Defensive 3	←	Ego Defensive	0.710	0.626	0.084
Ego Defensive 4	←	Ego Defensive	0.697	0.615	0.082
Epistemic Func. 1	←	Epistemic Func.	0.705	0.617	0.088
Epistemic Func. 2	←	Epistemic Func.	0.733	0.643	0.090
Epistemic Func. 3	←	Epistemic Func.	0.697	0.626	0.071
Epistemic Func. 4	←	Epistemic Func.	0.708	0.609	0.099
Emulation 1	←	Emulation	0.747	0.697	0.050
Emulation 2	←	Emulation	0.763	0.689	0.074
Emulation 3	←	Emulation	0.787	0.741	0.046

Emulation 4	←	Emulation	0.703	0.635	0.068
Volitional Cons. 1	←	Volitional Cons.	0.759	0.691	0.068
Volitional Cons. 2	←	Volitional Cons.	0.759	0.695	0.064
Volitional Cons. 3	←	Volitional Cons.	0.769	0.704	0.065
Volitional Cons. 4	←	Volitional Cons.	0.772	0.710	0.062
Moral Disengage 1	←	Moral Disengage	0.767	0.715	0.052
Moral Disengage 2	←	Moral Disengage	0.787	0.732	0.055
Moral Disengage 3	←	Moral Disengage	0.768	0.702	0.066
Moral Disengage 4	←	Moral Disengage	0.751	0.694	0.057
Moral Disengage 5	←	Moral Disengage	0.760	0.705	0.055
Conspicuous Cons. 1	←	Conspicuous Cons.	0.731	0.650	0.081
Conspicuous Cons. 2	←	Conspicuous Cons.	0.774	0.710	0.064
Conspicuous Cons. 3	←	Conspicuous Cons.	0.753	0.690	0.063
Conspicuous Cons. 4	←	Conspicuous Cons.	0.787	0.715	0.072
Conspicuous Cons. 5	←	Conspicuous Cons.	0.746	0.700	0.046
Variety Seeking 1	←	Variety Seeking	0.777	0.718	0.059
Variety Seeking 2	←	Variety Seeking	0.748	0.683	0.065
Variety Seeking 3	←	Variety Seeking	0.789	0.736	0.053
Variety Seeking 4	←	Variety Seeking	0.748	0.690	0.058
Action 1	←	Action	0.778	0.719	0.059
Action 2	←	Action	0.792	0.737	0.055
Action 3	←	Action	0.761	0.700	0.061

5.5.4 Cross sample validation

Evaluating model generalizability and robustness through cross-sample validation is vital. This involves dividing the data into two samples: one for model estimation and the other for validation. By confirming the relationships established in the analysis sample also hold true for the validation sample, we minimize overfitting risk and ensure results are not tied to a specific sample's characteristics. Cross-sample validation strengthens findings and validates the model's stability and generalizability.

The same sample of 529 respondents was used both for establishing the construct reliability and validity. This decision was made to ensure consistency in responses and to have a sufficiently large sample for robust analysis. To assess the generalizability of the model's results, the data was later split into separate analysis and validation samples, allowing for cross-sample validation. This approach enabled the researchers to verify if the model's findings hold true when applied to different subsets of the data, enhancing the credibility and reliability of the study's conclusions.

Thus, for cross-sample validation, this study split the data into two sub-samples. The first was an analysis sample, and the second was a validation sample. The file is split based on odd and even rows (using the help of the mod function). One set of rows is used to analyse the sample, and the other is used to validate the results. The results of both the sample analysis and validation sample analysis indicate no vast difference found in the adjusted R square. In the analysis sample (Table 5.4), the R^2 is 0.537, and in the validation sample, the R2 is 0.539. However, the beta values are slightly different, but both the analysis and validation samples are significant. The following table provides the details of the analysis sample and validation sample.

Table 5.4.
Cross Sample Validation

Analysis Sample: Model Summary						
	Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std. Error of the Estimate**	
	1	.537[a]	0.289	0.275	0.879	
Analysis Sample: Coefficients[a]						
Model		**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients**	**t-value**	**Sig.**
		B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**		
1	(Constant)	-1.292	0.479		-2.697	0.007
	UT	0.317	0.062	0.272	5.076	0.000
	SA	0.330	0.064	0.275	5.158	0.000
	VE	0.262	0.064	0.219	4.062	0.000
	ED	0.167	0.074	0.123	2.273	0.024
	EF	0.205	0.069	0.161	2.980	0.003

Validation Sample: Model Summary						
	Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std. Error of the Estimate**	
	1	.539[a]	0.291	0.277	0.833	
Validation Sample: Coefficients[a]						
Model		**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients**	**t**	**Sig.**
		B	**Std. Error**	**Beta**		
1	(Constant)	-1.240	0.479		-2.589	0.010
	UT	0.288	0.066	0.232	4.372	0.000
	SA	0.196	0.069	0.155	2.821	0.005
	VE	0.280	0.070	0.218	3.987	0.000
	ED	0.372	0.062	0.321	5.976	0.000
	EF	0.140	0.064	0.117	2.182	0.030

5.6 Measurement Model and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Table 5.5 demonstrates the indicator of the 'goodness-of-fit indices for the measurement model along with the acceptance level as presented in the previous chapter, to remind the reader.

5.6.1 Model Fit for Measurement Model and CFA (ALCR Second-Order)

First, this study confirms the measurement model for ALCR (second-order construct) using IBM AMOS 24. The results show that the ALCR latent variable is multidimensional and consists of five factors (ET, VCT, MDC, CCT, and VST). A graphical representation of the second-order construct ALCR model is illustrated in figure 7. The fit indices for the multidimensional construct are acceptable and within recommended levels (Hair *et al.*, 2010), X^2 = 216.263, df = 199, X^2/df = 1.087, p = 0.191, CFI "comparative fit index" = 0.997, TLI "Tucker–Lewis index" = 0.997, NFI "Normed fit index" = 0.965, and RMSEA "Root mean square error of approximation" = 0.013. Table 5.10 represents all model fit indices with their results.

Table 5.5.
Model Fit Indices (ALCR second-order construct)

Fit Index	**Cited**	**Fit criteria**	**Results**	**Fit (Yes/No)**
"X2			216.263	
DF			199	
P-value		>0.05	0.191	Yes
X2/DF	Kline (2010)	1.00 - 5.00	1.087	Yes
RMSEA	Steiger (1990)	< 0.08	0.013	Yes
SRMR	Hu and Bentler (1999)	< 0.08	0.0241	Yes
NFI	Bentler and G.Bonnet (1980)	> 0.80	0.965	Yes
PNFI	Bentler and G.Bonnet (1980)	> 0.05	0.831	Yes
IFI	Bollen (1990)	> 0.90	0.997	Yes
TLI	Tucker and Lewis,(1973)	> 0.90	0.997	Yes
CFI	Byrne (2010)	> 0.90	0.997	Yes
PCFI	James et al., (1982)	> 0.50	0.743	Yes"

Note: "X2 = Chi-Square, DF = Degree of freedom, CFI = Comparative-fit-index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR: Standardized Root Mean Square Residual, NFI = Normed fit index, IFI = the increment fit index, , TLI = Tucker-Lewis coefficient Index, PNFI = Parsimony Normed Fit Index. The indexes in bold are recommended since they are frequently reported in the literature (Awang, 2014)."

5.6.2 Construct Reliability (ALCR Second-Order Construct)

The second-order individual construct Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the five primary dormant constructs, i.e., emulation inclination, Volitional Consumption inclination, moral disengagement inclination, conspicuous consumption inclination, Variety seeking inclination (0.837, 0.849. 0877, 0.871, and 0.850) were higher than the suggested level of 0.7 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Kannana and Tan, 2005).

Next, this study checked the composite reliability (CR) of the second-order construct, i.e., Emulation inclination, Volitional Consumption inclination, moral disengagement inclination, conspicuous consumption inclination, Variety seeking inclination. All the Alpha values (0.838, 0.849, 0.877, 0.871, and 0.850) fell beyond the endorsed value of 0.7 (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Gefen, Straub, and Boudreau, 2000; Kline, 2010), demonstrating adequately that the construct's reliability was established. Hence, the “Cronbach's Alpha” and CR values for all second-order constructs were good (see Table 5.6).

5.6.3 Indicator Reliability (ALCR Second-Order Construct)

As explained, construct with high loadings indicates the correlated items/dimensions have much in common, which indicates the construct (Hair, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt, 2013). However, those indicators with small or low loadings, for instance, below 0.40, must be eliminated from the scale; however, when the loading range from 0.4 to 0.7, they must be considered for removal only when improved by the CR value or AVE (Hair, Ringle, and Starstedt, 2011). Table 5.11 demonstrates that all loadings of all indicators exceeded the suggested value of 0.5 (Hair *et al.*, 2010). All indicators satisfied the requirements, and no item removal was necessary.

5.6.4 Convergent Validity (ALCR Second-Order Construct)

Convergent validity is the extent to which a measure correlates positively with alternative measures of the same construct and to establish convergent validity, researchers consider the AVE (Hair *et al.*, 2013). AVE value equal to or higher than 0.50 indicate that, on average, the construct explains more than half of the variance of its indicators. In contrast, AVE with a value less than 0.50 indicates that, on average, more error remains in the items than the variance explained by the construct (Hair *et al.*, 2013)." Table 5.11 shows that the convergent validity of each construct is supported.

Table 5.6.
Loading, Cronbach's Alpha, CR and AVE (ALCR Second-Order Construct)

Constructs	Factor Loading (sig.)	S.E.	T Value	α	CR	AVE
Utilitarian						
There is nothing special about luxury brands, they are just like any other common brand.	0.718	—	—	0.758	0.759	0.512
I think luxury brands are just as good as most other common brands.	0.687***	0.078	12.292	—	—	—
I do not think luxury brands have good value-for-money.	0.741***	0.079	12.550	—	—	—
Social Adjustive						
Luxury brands are meaningful symbols of social status.	0.729	—	—	0.750	0.752	0.503
Using luxury brands helps me fit in with people in my desired social class.	0.742***	0.078	12.313	—	—	—
Luxury brands help make a good impression on others.	0.653***	0.074	11.837	—	—	—
Value Expressive						
Luxury brands reflect the kind of person I see myself as.	0.691	—	—	0.802	0.802	0.503
Luxury brands help communicate self-identity to others.	0.735***	0.078	13.648	—	—	—
Luxury brands help me define my personality.	0.708***	0.077	13.313	—	—	—
Luxury brands help me express myself.	0.703***	0.076	13.250	—	—	—
Ego Defensive						
Using luxury brands enhances my self-esteem.	0.705	—	—	0.805	0.805	0.508

Using luxury brands boosts my self-confidence.	0.739***	0.077	13.990	——	——	——
Using luxury brands protects my self-image	0.709***	0.076	13.598	——	——	——
I feel proud when using luxury brands.	0.698***	0.076	13.437	——	——	——
Epistemic Functioning						
I would buy luxury brand to know more about it.	0.705	——	——	0.803	0.803	0.505
I use luxury brands to show to others that I know a lot about luxury brands.	0.732***	0.072	13.768	——	——	——
I can distinguish between genuine and fake luxury brand.	0.698***	0.075	13.315	——	——	——
I am quite knowledgeable of luxury brands.	0.708***	0.072	13.461	——	——	——
Emulation						
I often compare how I am doing with how my loved ones (boy or girlfriend, family members etc.) are doing.	0.746	——	——	0.837	0.838	0.564
Sometimes, I buy a product because my friends buy it.	0.764***	0.06	16.673	——	——	——
I have purchased products to match people around me.	0.787***	0.065	17.142	——	——	——
I tend to buy products because I want to share the life-style of mainstream groups.	0.704***	0.058	15.38	——	——	——
Volitional Consumption						
I have no hesitation to buying an alternative luxury product (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand).	0.760	——	——	0.849	0.849	0.585
I am willing to buy and use alternative luxury products that are counterfeit, rented, or second-hand.	0.759***	0.061	17.028	——	——	——
I buy/use alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand) to achieve important personal goals.	0.768***	0.063	17.251	——	——	——
Buying alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand products) is entirely within my control.	0.772***	0.062	17.328	——	——	——
Moral Disengagement						
I think buying alternative luxury products is morally right.	0.766	——	——	0.877	0.877	0.587
It is acceptable to buy or use alternative luxury products if one cannot afford the price of the original product.	0.787***	0.056	18.373	——	——	——
It is okay to buy/use alternative luxury because luxury companies can afford loss from one counterfeit product.	0.767***	0.053	17.864	——	——	——
It is okay to buy counterfeit luxury goods because hardly anyone has been caught or punished.	0.751***	0.054	17.444	——	——	——
It is not my fault if I buy/use alternative luxury products because prices of authentic luxury products are too high.	0.760***	0.055	17.676	——	——	——
Conspicuous Consumption						
Luxury brands appropriately show my identity to others.	0.732	——	——	0.871	0.871	0.575
Products say something to people around me when I buy a high-priced brand.	0.774***	0.062	17.037	——	——	——

I buy and use alternative luxury products because I want to show others that I am wealthy.	0.753***	0.066	16.576	—	—	—
I show my friends that I am different by choosing to buy or use alternative luxury products.	0.787***	0.065	17.335	—	—	—
I choose alternative luxury products to create my own style that everybody admires	0.745***	0.067	16.411	—	—	—
Variety Seeking						
I enjoy taking chances to buy different alternative luxury products to get some variety in my purchases.	0.776	—	—	0.85	0.85	0.586
I like to shop around for different types of alternative luxury brands just out of curiosity.	0.747***	0.055	17.091	—	—	—
Buying and using alternative luxury products makes me feel like I am free to try new things.	0.790***	0.058	18.126	—	—	—
I easily switch between any of the forms of alternative luxury products (counterfeit, second-hand, or rental).	0.748***	0.056	17.102	—	—	—
Action						
I regularly use alternative luxury brands, either in the form of counterfeit, second-hand, or rental products.	0.779	—	—	0.821	0.821	0.604
I recommend friends or relatives buy/use alternative luxury, either counterfeit, second-hand, or rental products.	0.792***	0.058	17.545	—	—	—
I say positive things about the alternative luxury brands.	0.760***	0.057	16.918	—	—	—
*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ns = not significant						

CFA for ALCR **Note:** "**α=** *Cronbach's alpha;* ***CR*** *= Composite reliability,* ***AVE*** *= Average variance extracted"*

5.6.5 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity means the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards. The results represented in Table 5.7 found using the Fornell-Lacker method support the discriminant validity.

Table 5.7.
Discriminant Validity using Fornell-Larcker Criterion (ALCR Second-Order Construct)

Construct	1	2	3	4	5
Conspicuous Consumption	**0.758**				
Emulation	0.631	**0.751**			
Volitional Consumption	0.647	0.630	**0.765**		
Moral Disengagement	0.646	0.644	0.630	**0.767**	
Variety Seeking	0.621	0.640	0.629	0.627	**0.765**

Note: *"Diagonals represent the square root of the average variance extracted, while the other entries represent the correlations."*

What is more, the results of the Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) recommended by Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015) shown in Table 5.8, that provides the complete HTMT values of the constructs in our study that were found below the threshold value. Therefore, all constructs have distinct concepts.

Table 5.8.
Discriminant Validity using HTMT Criterion Method (ALCR Second-Order Construct)

Construct	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Emulation					
Volitional Consumption	0.626				
Moral Disengagement	0.643	0.631			
Conspicuous Consumption	0.629	0.645	0.646		
Variety Seeking	0.639	0.628	0.628	0.622	

Note: *"Thresholds are 0.850 (Awang, 2014) for strict and 0.900 for liberal discriminant validity."*

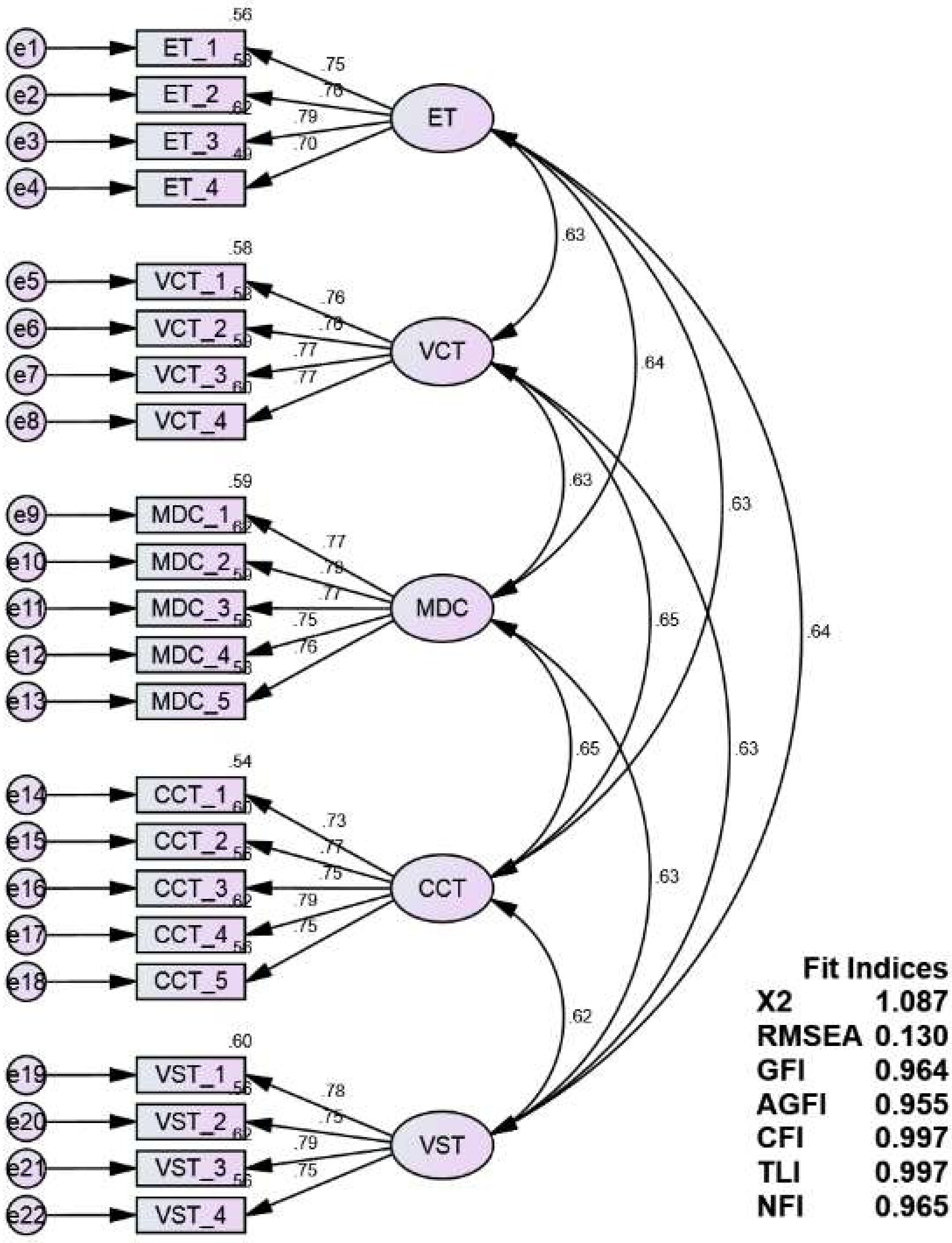
Finally, then, establishing discriminant validity at the item level implies a high correlation among items of the same construct and a feeble correlation between items of a different construct (Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt, 2015). Table 5.9 shows the details of cross-loadings, that were found to be unproblematic.

Table 5.9.
Discriminant Validity by Cross Loadings Criterion (ALCR Second-Order Construct)

Construct	Emulation	Volitional	Moral	Conspicuous	Variety
Emulation 1	**0.702**	0.141	0.183	0.258	0.204
Emulation 2	**0.737**	0.195	0.237	0.102	0.216
Emulation 3	**0.717**	0.213	0.206	0.250	0.161
Emulation 4	**0.769**	0.133	0.155	0.155	0.140
Volitional 1	0.173	**0.762**	0.186	0.166	0.173
Volitional 2	0.141	**0.778**	0.184	0.173	0.157
Volitional 3	0.173	**0.702**	0.274	0.206	0.176
Volitional 4	0.197	**0.715**	0.129	0.279	0.205
Moral 1	0.102	0.163	**0.744**	0.266	0.154
Moral 2	0.218	0.110	**0.754**	0.246	0.135
Moral 3	0.158	0.217	**0.744**	0.119	0.215
Moral 4	0.182	0.222	**0.703**	0.188	0.166
Moral 5	0.217	0.144	**0.725**	0.175	0.198
Conspicuous1	0.144	0.174	0.229	**0.692**	0.194
Conspicuous 2	0.163	0.183	0.207	**0.754**	0.115
Conspicuous 3	0.160	0.195	0.149	**0.740**	0.167
Conspicuous 4	0.214	0.186	0.206	**0.717**	0.191
Conspicuous 5	0.141	0.137	0.176	**0.750**	0.181
Variety 1	0.214	0.159	0.187	0.203	**0.738**
Variety 2	0.182	0.131	0.188	0.197	**0.745**
Variety 3	0.167	0.221	0.218	0.169	**0.745**
Variety 4	0.147	0.188	0.172	0.190	**0.749**

Figure 5.3

Second-Order Model and Fit Indices of ALCR



5.7 Model fit indicators for measurement model and CFA (Zero-Order)

In the zero-order measurement model, all eleven latent variables were included, i.e., Utilitarian, or Functional, Social adjustive, value expressive, Ego-Defensive or Knowledge, Emulation inclination, Volitional Consumption inclination, moral disengagement inclination, conspicuous consumption inclination, Variety seeking inclination, and Action. The graphical depiction of the zero-order model is depicted in Figure 8. The CFA model fit indices showed good fit, X^2 = 832.732, df = 805, X^2/df = 1.034, p = 0.242, CFI “comparative fit index” = 0.997, TLI “Tucker–Lewis index” = 0.997, NFI “Normed fit index” = 0.921 and RMSEA “Root mean square error of approximation” = 0.008 (see 5.10).

Table 5.10.
Model Fit Indices (Zero-order)

Fit Index	**Cited**	**Fit criteria**	**Results**	**Fit (Yes/No)**
X2	--	--	832.732	--
DF	--	--	805	--
P-value	--	> 0.05	0.242	Yes
X2/DF	Kline (2010)	1.00 - 5.00	1.034	Yes
RMSEA	Steiger (1990)	< 0.08	0.008	Yes
SRMR	Hu & Bentler (1999)	< 0.08	0.0268	Yes
NFI	Bentler & G.Bonnet (1980)	> 0.80	0.921	Yes
PNFI	Bentler & G.Bonnet (1980)	>.0.05	0.821	Yes
IFI	Bollen (1990)	> 0.90	0.997	Yes
TLI	Tucker & Lewis (1973)	> 0.90	0.997	Yes
CFI	Byrne (2010)	> 0.90	0.997	Yes
PCFI	James et al., (1982)	> 0.50	0.889	Yes

Note: “X2 = Chi-Square, DF = Degree of freedom, CFI = Comparative-fit-index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR: Standardized Root Mean Square Residual, NFI = Normed fit index, IFI = the increment fit index, , TLI = Tucker-Lewis coefficient Index, PNFI = Parsimony Normed Fit Index. The indexes in bold are recommended since they are frequently reported in the literature (Awang, 2014).”

5.7.1 Construct reliability (Zero order)

In zero order construct models, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the eight foremost variables, i.e., Utilitarian or Functional, Social adjustive, value expressive, Ego-Defensive or Knowledge, Emulation inclination, volitional consumption inclination, moral disengagement inclination, conspicuous consumption inclination, Variety seeking inclination, and Action (0.758, 0.750, 0.802, 0.805, 0.803, 0.837, 0.849, 0.877, 0.871, 0.85, 0.821 simultaneously). All the constructs achieved a greater than 0.7 values. (See Table 5.15).

5.7.2 Indicator Reliability (Zero-Order)

The Zero-order model includes all eleven variables for checking indicator reliability. The outer loading of the zero-order constructs is greater than 0.7. (See Table 5.13)

5.7.3 Convergent Validity (Zero-Order)

The average variance extracted for all eight constructs in zero-order must be greater than 0.5, indicating that we have established a convergent validity between the constructs. (See Table 5.15)

Table 5.11.
Loading, Cronbach's Alpha, CR, and AVE for Zero-Order Model

Constructs	Factor Loading (sig.)	S.E.	T Value	α	CR	AVE
Utilitarian						
There is nothing special about luxury brands, they are just like any other common brand.	0.718	——	——	0.758	0.759	0.512
I think luxury brands are just as good as most other common brands.	0.687***	0.078	12.292	——	——	——
I do not think luxury brands have good value-for-money.	0.741***	0.079	12.550	——	——	——
Social Adjustive						
Luxury brands are meaningful symbols of social status.	0.729	——	——	0.750	0.752	0.503
Using luxury brands helps me fit in with people in my desired social class.	0.742***	0.078	12.313	——	——	——
Luxury brands help make a good impression on others.	0.653***	0.074	11.837	——	——	——
Value Expressive						
Luxury brands reflect the kind of person I see myself as.	0.691	——	——	0.802	0.802	0.503
Luxury brands help communicate self-identity to others.	0.735***	0.078	13.648	——	——	——
Luxury brands help me define my personality.	0.708***	0.077	13.313	——	——	——
Luxury brands help me express myself.	0.703***	0.076	13.250	——	——	——
Ego Defensive						
Using luxury brands enhances my self-esteem.	0.705	——	——	0.805	0.805	0.508
Using luxury brands boosts my self-confidence.	0.739***	0.077	13.990	——	——	——
Using luxury brands protects my self-image	0.709***	0.076	13.598	——	——	——
I feel proud when using luxury brands.	0.698***	0.076	13.437	——	——	——
Epistemic Functioning						
I would buy luxury brand to know more about it.	0.705	——	——	0.803	0.803	0.505
I use luxury brands to show to others that I know a lot about luxury brands.	0.732***	0.072	13.768	——	——	——
I can distinguish between genuine and fake luxury brand.	0.698***	0.075	13.315	——	——	——
I am quite knowledgeable of luxury brands.	0.708***	0.072	13.461	——	——	——
Emulation						
I often compare how I am doing with how my loved ones (boy or girlfriend, family members etc.) are doing.	0.746	——	——	0.837	0.838	0.564
Sometimes, I buy a product because my friends buy it.	0.764***	0.06	16.673	——	——	——
I have purchased products to match people around me.	0.787***	0.065	17.142	——	——	——
I tend to buy products because I want to share the lifestyle of mainstream groups.	0.704***	0.058	15.38	——	——	——
Volitional Consumption						
I have no hesitation to buying an alternative luxury product (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand).	0.760	——	——	0.849	0.849	0.585
I am willing to buy and use alternative luxury products that are counterfeit, rented, or second-hand.	0.759***	0.061	17.028	——	——	——

I buy/use alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand) to achieve important personal goals.	0.768***	0.063	17.251	——	——	——
Buying alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand products) is entirely within my control.	0.772***	0.062	17.328	——	——	——
Moral Disengagement						
I think buying alternative luxury products is morally right.	0.766	——	——	0.877	0.877	0.587
It is acceptable to buy or use alternative luxury products if one cannot afford the price of the original product.	0.787***	0.056	18.373	——	——	——
It is okay to buy/use alternative luxury because luxury companies can afford loss from one counterfeit product.	0.767***	0.053	17.864	——	——	——
It is okay to buy counterfeit luxury goods because hardly anyone has been caught or punished.	0.751***	0.054	17.444	——	——	——
It is not my fault if I buy/use alternative luxury products because prices of authentic luxury products are too high.	0.760***	0.055	17.676	——	——	——
Conspicuous Consumption						
Luxury brands appropriately show my identity to others.	0.732	——	——	0.871	0.871	0.575
Products say something to people around me when I buy a high-priced brand.	0.774***	0.062	17.037	——	——	——
I buy and use alternative luxury products because I want to show others that I am wealthy.	0.753***	0.066	16.576	——	——	——
I show my friends that I am different by choosing to buy or use alternative luxury products.	0.787***	0.065	17.335	——	——	——
I choose alternative luxury products to create my own style that everybody admires	0.745***	0.067	16.411	——	——	——
Variety Seeking						
I enjoy taking chances to buy different alternative luxury products to get some variety in my purchases.	0.776	——	——	0.85	0.85	0.586
I like to shop around for different types of alternative luxury brands just out of curiosity.	0.747***	0.055	17.091	——	——	——
Buying and using alternative luxury products makes me feel like I am free to try new things.	0.790***	0.058	18.126	——	——	——
I easily switch between any of the forms of alternative luxury products (counterfeit, second-hand, or rental).	0.748***	0.056	17.102	——	——	——
Action						
I regularly use alternative luxury brands, either in the form of counterfeit, second-hand, or rental products.	0.779	——	——	0.821	0.821	0.604
I recommend friends or relatives buy/use alternative luxury, either counterfeit, second-hand, or rental products.	0.792***	0.058	17.545	——	——	——
I say positive things about the alternative luxury brands.	0.760***	0.057	16.918	——	——	——
*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ns = not significant						

5.7.4 Discriminant validity (Zero-Order)

Table 5.17 shows the discriminant validity Fornell-Larcker criterion results for all eleven constructs. There is no discriminant issue within the zero-order model.

Table 5.12.

Discriminant validity using Fornell-Larcker criterion (Zero-order model)

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Variety	**0.765**										
2. Utilitarian	0.295	**0.716**									
3. Social Adjustive	0.284	0.108	**0.709**								
4. Value Expressive	0.255	-0.085	0.248	**0.709**							
5. Ego Defensive	0.214	0.050	0.030	0.126	**0.713**						
6. Epistemic	0.126	0.075	-0.006	0.101	0.238	**0.711**					
7. Emulation	0.640	0.281	0.300	0.211	0.319	0.163	**0.751**				
8. Volitional	0.629	0.299	0.315	0.308	0.282	0.164	0.629	**0.765**			
9. Moral	0.627	0.260	0.267	0.251	0.298	0.167	0.644	0.630	**0.766**		
10. Conspicuous	0.621	0.298	0.330	0.271	0.303	0.181	0.631	0.647	0.646	**0.758**	
11. Action	0.554	0.344	0.354	0.331	0.359	0.266	0.616	0.609	0.619	0.619	**0.777**

Note: *"Diagonals represent the square root of the average variance extracted, while the other entries represent the correlations*

We again also checked the discriminant through HTMT analysis. The HTMT value must be less than 0.85. The given Table 5.18 provides the complete details of the HTMT of the zero-order model.

Table 5.13.

Discriminant Validity using HTMT

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Utilitarian											
2. Social Adjustive	0.115										
3. Value Expressive	0.087	0.243									
4. Ego Defensive	0.049	0.023	0.126								
5. Epistemic	0.076	0.006	0.101	0.238							
6. Emulation	0.284	0.294	0.21	0.32	0.162						
7. Volitional	0.297	0.318	0.306	0.281	0.162	0.626					
8. Moral	0.263	0.267	0.251	0.296	0.164	0.643	0.631				
9. Conspicuous	0.292	0.328	0.27	0.303	0.182	0.629	0.645	0.646			
10. Variety Seeking	0.296	0.286	0.257	0.214	0.125	0.639	0.628	0.628	0.622		
11. Action	0.344	0.355	0.332	0.356	0.264	0.616	0.608	0.617	0.615	0.552	

Note: "*Thresholds are 0.850 for strict and 0.900 for liberal discriminant validity*.

Table 5.14 shows the complete details of cross-loading between the construct items. No cross-loading is found among all latent constructs at the item level.

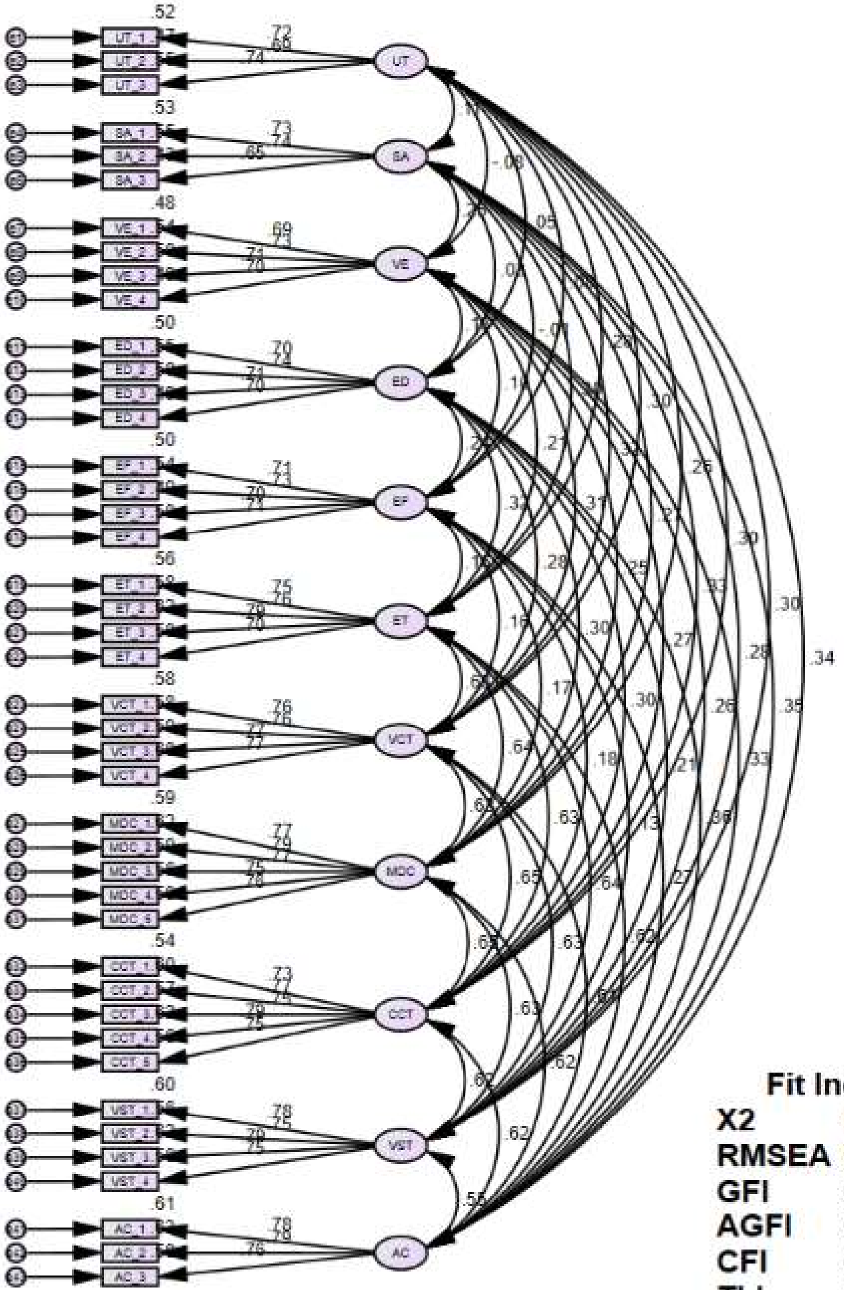
Table 5.14.

Discriminant Validity using Cross Loadings

Items		VCT	MDC	CCT	VST	UT	SA	VE	ED	EF	AC
Emulation 1	**0.691**	0.125	0.182	0.253	0.197	0.047	0.007	0.046	0.033	0.034	0.179
Emulation 2	**0.718**	0.164	0.230	0.092	0.201	0.123	0.071	0.084	0.122	0.054	0.102
Emulation 3	**0.706**	0.201	0.213	0.243	0.157	0.012	0.124	0.016	0.081	0.013	0.113
Emulation 4	**0.738**	0.123	0.153	0.149	0.139	0.072	0.063	0.029	0.130	0.057	0.090
Volitional 1	0.153	**0.739**	0.185	0.159	0.163	0.100	0.029	0.125	0.057	0.048	0.124
Volitional 2	0.127	**0.753**	0.183	0.167	0.150	0.081	0.062	0.086	0.061	0.075	0.114
Volitional 3	0.161	**0.690**	0.273	0.194	0.168	0.052	0.156	0.067	0.072	0.046	0.080
Volitional 4	0.179	**0.691**	0.123	0.272	0.200	0.059	0.066	0.086	0.117	-0.012	0.140
Moral Disengage 1	0.070	0.139	**0.735**	0.251	0.145	0.010	0.116	0.029	0.081	0.033	0.153
Moral Disengage 2	0.197	0.101	**0.748**	0.233	0.120	0.059	0.077	0.038	0.089	0.057	0.088
Moral Disengage 3	0.144	0.190	**0.739**	0.105	0.200	0.067	0.041	0.110	0.085	0.071	0.078
Moral Disengage 4	0.161	0.195	**0.693**	0.185	0.159	0.054	-0.009	0.069	0.082	0.023	0.151
Moral Disengage 5	0.204	0.119	**0.718**	0.168	0.185	0.094	0.037	0.074	0.059	0.014	0.104
Conspicuous 1	0.128	0.155	0.231	**0.682**	0.180	0.043	0.089	0.116	0.108	0.095	0.026
Conspicuous 2	0.136	0.159	0.201	**0.740**	0.100	0.129	0.077	0.058	0.109	-0.026	0.118
Conspicuous 3	0.129	0.165	0.136	**0.719**	0.161	0.047	0.090	0.058	0.090	0.054	0.179
Conspicuous 4	0.189	0.149	0.195	**0.695**	0.177	0.127	0.095	0.078	0.086	0.067	0.140
Conspicuous 5	0.143	0.135	0.182	**0.746**	0.168	0.005	0.035	0.046	0.026	0.055	0.089
Variety Seeking 1	0.196	0.143	0.188	0.202	**0.724**	0.068	0.071	0.063	0.041	0.030	0.105
Variety Seeking 2	0.169	0.110	0.186	0.188	**0.731**	0.070	0.069	0.099	0.059	0.021	0.089
Variety Seeking 3	0.154	0.203	0.222	0.160	**0.730**	0.105	0.042	0.075	0.026	0.012	0.115
Variety Seeking 4	0.134	0.177	0.173	0.183	**0.748**	0.049	0.068	0.043	0.055	0.041	0.078
Utilitarian 1	0.049	0.086	0.088	0.008	0.089	**0.818**	0.028	-0.058	0.038	0.015	0.014
Utilitarian 2	0.064	-0.009	0.095	0.073	0.083	**0.774**	0.087	-0.076	-0.006	0.028	0.116
Utilitarian 3	0.066	0.131	0.009	0.152	0.038	**0.804**	-0.049	-0.021	-0.037	0.016	0.081
Social Adjustive 1	0.024	0.098	0.093	0.035	0.007	0.028	**0.816**	0.091	0.028	0.023	0.099
Social Adjustive 2	0.130	0.001	0.030	0.147	0.100	0.030	**0.788**	0.122	0.018	-0.059	0.023
Social Adjustive 3	0.034	0.099	0.054	0.080	0.078	0.010	**0.774**	0.013	-0.078	-0.009	0.082
Value Expressive 1	0.011	0.013	0.089	0.066	0.090	-0.062	0.094	**0.759**	0.037	0.059	0.022
Value Expressive 2	0.015	0.125	0.069	0.157	0.011	-0.062	0.049	**0.771**	-0.014	0.039	0.061
Value Expressive 3	0.050	0.075	0.056	-0.004	0.004	-0.046	0.067	**0.784**	0.044	0.050	0.051
Value Expressive 4	0.052	0.049	0.013	0.035	0.106	0.017	0.012	**0.784**	0.039	-0.046	0.102
Ego Defensive 1	0.050	0.036	0.078	0.071	0.033	0.063	0.020	-0.004	**0.779**	0.037	0.093
Ego Defensive 2	0.111	0.064	0.101	0.037	0.035	0.037	-0.051	0.070	**0.775**	0.061	0.078
Ego Defensive 3	0.018	0.067	0.043	0.101	0.071	-0.060	0.021	-0.009	**0.772**	0.106	0.066
Ego Defensive 4	0.090	0.045	0.059	0.078	0.006	-0.036	-0.022	0.053	**0.775**	0.075	0.005
Epistemic Func. 1	0.040	0.086	0.068	-0.006	-0.069	0.024	-0.009	0.043	0.078	**0.783**	0.022
Epistemic Func. 2	0.101	0.059	0.050	0.050	0.030	-0.017	0.010	-0.008	0.048	**0.787**	0.095
Epistemic Func. 3	-0.020	-0.007	0.001	0.079	0.057	-0.010	-0.008	-0.010	0.048	**0.781**	0.086
Epistemic Func. 4	-0.002	-0.021	0.020	0.037	0.062	0.063	-0.030	0.075	0.097	**0.785**	-0.015
Action 1	0.160	0.119	0.213	0.217	0.121	0.082	0.111	0.144	0.113	0.105	**0.725**
Action 2	0.150	0.202	0.255	0.204	0.158	0.131	0.077	0.064	0.154	0.086	**0.684**
Action 3	0.182	0.157	0.140	0.147	0.139	0.106	0.120	0.134	0.096	0.094	**0.759**

Figure 5.4

Graphical Depiction of Zero-Order Measurement Model



Fit Indices	
X2	1.034
RMSEA	0.008
GFI	0.933
AGFI	0.921
CFI	0.997
TLI	0.997
NFI	0.921

5.8 Model fit indicators for full measurement model and CFA (Zero order + ALRC Second order)

All seven latent variables were included in the full measurement model, i.e., Utilitarian or Functional, Social adjustive, value expressive, Ego-Defensive or Knowledge, and Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness. The graphical representation of zero-order model is shown in Figure 5.4. CFA results of model fit are shown in Table 5.15 and demonstrate good fit (X^2 = 849.183, df = 834, X^2/df = 1.018, p = 0.350, CFI "comparative fit index" = 0.998, TLI "Tucker–Lewis index" = 0.998, NFI "Normed fit index" = 0.920 and "RMSEA Root mean square error of approximation" = 0.006).

Table 5.15.
Model Fit Indicators (Zero-Order + ALRC Second-Order)

Fit Index	**Cited**	**Fit criteria**	**Results**	**Fit (Yes/No)**
X2			849.183	
DF			834	
P-value		> 0.05	0.350	Yes
X2/DF	Kline (2010)	1.00 - 5.00	1.018	Yes
RMSEA	Steiger (1990)	< 0.08	0.006	Yes
SRMR	Hu & Bentler (1999)	< 0.08	0.028	Yes
NFI	Bentler & G.Bonnet (1980)	> 0.80	0.920	Yes
PNFI	Bentler & G.Bonnet (1980)	> 0.05	0.850	Yes
IFI	Bollen (1990)	> 0.90	0.998	Yes
TLI	Tucker & Lewis, (1973)	> 0.90	0.998	Yes
CFI	Byrne (2010)	> 0.90	0.998	Yes
PCFI	James et al., (1982)	> 0.50	0.922	Yes

Note: "X2 = Chi-Square, DF = Degree of freedom, CFI = Comparative-fit-index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR: Standardized Root Mean Square Residual, NFI = Normed fit index, IFI = the increment fit index, , TLI = Tucker-Lewis coefficient Index, PNFI = Parsimony Normed Fit Index. The indexes in bold are recommended since they are frequently reported in the literature (Awang, 2014)."

5.8.1 Construct reliability (Zero order + ALRC Second order)

Finally, we check the final model Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the seven primary important constructs, i.e., Utilitarian or Functional, Social adjustive, value expressive, Ego-Defensive or Knowledge, and Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness (0.925, 0.758, 0.750, 0.802, 0.805, 0.803, and 0.837 respectively; see also Table 5.17). Thus, it was concluded that the internal reliability was adequate to excellent.

5.8.2 Indicator Reliability (Zero-Order + ALRC Second-Order)

In the final measurement model, we also achieved indicator reliability. All items had more than 0.7 outer loadings; no items were deleted in the final model. The following Table 5.18 provides the complete details of the factor loadings.

5.8.3 Convergent validity (Zero order + ALRC Second order)

In the full measurement model, the second-order construct's convergent validity is measured by the validity of the set of sub-dimensions through AVE, where it can be calculated by averaging the squared multiple correlations for the first-order indicators (Mackenzie, Podsakoff, and Podsakoff, 2011). Table 5.21 confirms the result of the convergent validity via AVE.

Table 5.16.
Loading, Cronbach's Alpha, CR, and AVE (Zero-Order + ALRC Second-Order)

Indicator	**Direction**	**Construct**	**Factor Loading**	**SE.**	**t-Value**	**P-Value**	**α**	**CR**	**AVE**
			>0.5				**>0.7**	**>0.7**	**>0.5**
ET	←	ALCR	0.800				0.925	0.897	0.634
VST	←	ALCR	0.774	0.080	12.193	***			
CCT	←	ALCR	0.807	0.078	12.160	***			
MDC	←	ALCR	0.799	0.085	12.447	***			
VCT	←	ALCR	0.801	0.079	12.290	***			
UT_1	←	UT	0.719				0.758	0.759	0.513
UT_2	←	UT	0.690	0.078	12.301	***			
UT_3	←	UT	0.738	0.079	12.530	***			
SA_1	←	SA	0.731				0.750	0.752	0.503
SA_2	←	SA	0.740	0.077	12.294	***			
SA_3	←	SA	0.653	0.074	11.834	***			
VE_1	←	VE	0.692				0.802	0.802	0.504

VE_2	←	VE	0.733	0.078	13.624	***			
VE_3	←	VE	0.709	0.077	13.324	***			
VE_4	←	VE	0.704	0.076	13.258	***			
ED_1	←	ED	0.705				0.805	0.805	0.508
ED_2	←	ED	0.738	0.077	13.973	***			
ED_3	←	ED	0.710	0.076	13.609	***			
ED_4	←	ED	0.697	0.076	13.415	***			
EF_1	←	EF	0.705				0.803	0.803	0.505
EF_2	←	EF	0.733	0.072	13.764	***			
EF_3	←	EF	0.697	0.075	13.309	***			
EF_4	←	EF	0.708	0.072	13.461	***			
AC_1	←	AC	0.778				0.821	0.821	0.604
AC_2	←	AC	0.792	0.059	17.524	***			
AC_3	←	AC	0.761	0.057	16.906	***			

“Confirmatory factor analysis for the full model (Zero order + ALCR Second order)

Note: α= *Cronbach’s alpha;* ***CR*** *= Composite reliability,* ***AVE*** *= Average variance extracted*

5.8.4 Discriminant validity (Zero order + ALRC Second order)

Table 5.17 shows no discriminant validity issues between the zero-order and second-order constructs based on the Fornell-Larcker criterion. The diagonal values are greater than below and the left side of the construct values.

Table 5.17.
Discriminant Validity

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Action	**0.777**						
2. Utilitarian	0.344	**0.716**					
3. Social Adjustive	0.354	0.109	**0.709**				
4. Value Expressive	0.331	-0.085	0.248	**0.710**			
5. Ego Defensive	0.359	0.050	0.030	0.126	**0.713**		
6. Epistemic	0.265	0.075	-0.005	0.101	0.238	**0.711**	
7. ALCR	0.759	0.359	0.376	0.326	0.357	0.202	**0.796**

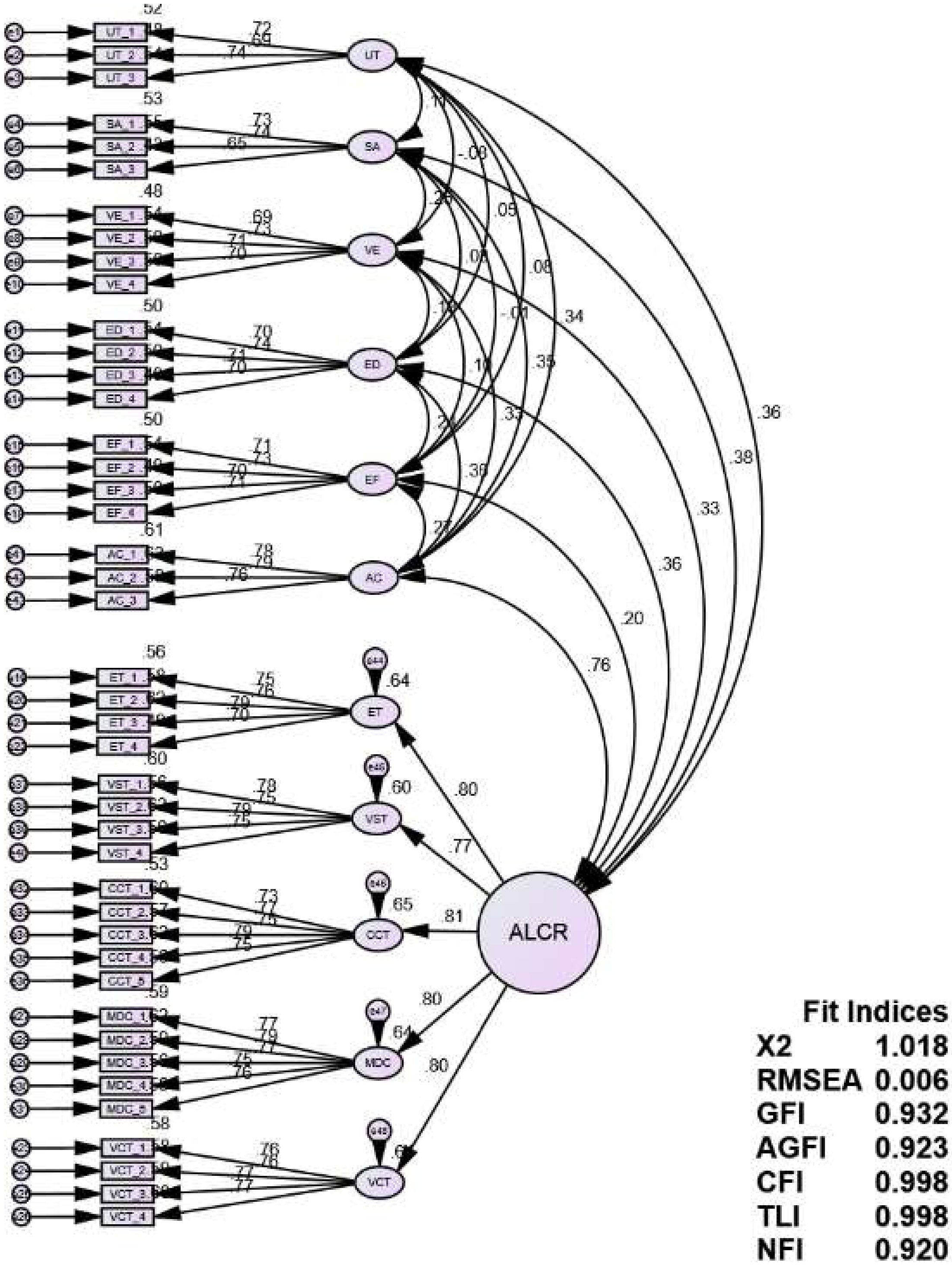
Note: *"Diagonals represent the square root of the average variance extracted, while the other entries represent the correlations."*

The following table shows the complete details of cross-loadings of a full *measurement model. There are no problematic cross-loadings.*

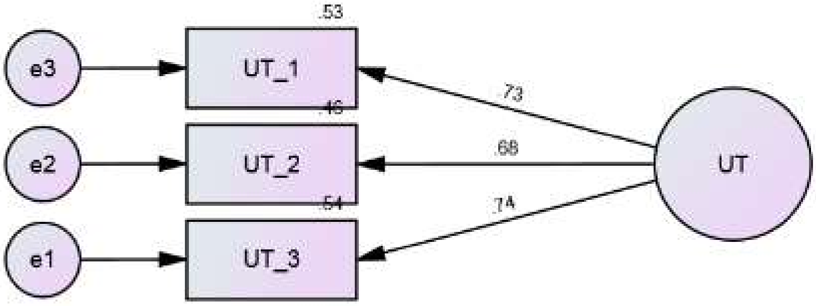
Table 5.18.
Discriminant Validity using Cross-Loadings (Full measurement model)

Constructs Items	UT	SA	VE	ED	EF	AC	ALCR
Utilitarian 1	**0.822**	0.022	-0.052	0.038	0.014	0.015	0.131
Utilitarian 2	**0.778**	0.091	-0.077	-0.001	0.027	0.126	0.117
Utilitarian 3	**0.809**	-0.040	-0.015	-0.033	0.019	0.080	0.167
Social Adjustive 1	0.030	**0.817**	0.092	0.031	0.023	0.122	0.085
Social Adjustive 2	0.027	**0.796**	0.117	0.023	-0.056	0.017	0.178
Social Adjustive 3	0.015	**0.777**	0.018	-0.077	-0.007	0.076	0.145
Value Expressive 1	-0.064	0.099	**0.758**	0.037	0.058	0.022	0.113
Value Expressive 2	-0.062	0.051	**0.777**	-0.014	0.043	0.062	0.169
Value Expressive 3	-0.043	0.068	**0.786**	0.050	0.051	0.066	0.053
Value Expressive 4	0.023	0.015	**0.788**	0.040	-0.047	0.105	0.090
Ego Defensive 1	0.058	0.025	-0.007	**0.781**	0.038	0.108	0.097
Ego Defensive 2	0.041	-0.049	0.071	**0.781**	0.062	0.079	0.140
Ego Defensive 3	-0.053	0.021	0.000	**0.768**	0.108	0.057	0.127
Ego Defensive 4	-0.035	-0.021	0.053	**0.781**	0.076	0.020	0.107
Epistemic Func. 1	0.020	-0.011	0.041	0.084	**0.782**	0.053	0.033
Epistemic Func. 2	-0.013	0.009	-0.006	0.050	**0.789**	0.094	0.124
Epistemic Func. 3	-0.004	-0.008	-0.005	0.045	**0.783**	0.081	0.041
Epistemic Func. 4	0.062	-0.025	0.074	0.096	**0.788**	-0.025	0.038
Action 1	0.083	0.113	0.142	0.116	0.106	**0.736**	0.364
Action 2	0.134	0.076	0.070	0.157	0.087	**0.683**	0.437
Action 3	0.109	0.121	0.134	0.097	0.093	**0.769**	0.320
Variety Seeking	0.128	0.105	0.118	0.077	0.044	0.133	**0.838**
Conspicuous	0.121	0.138	0.119	0.140	0.078	0.190	**0.814**
Moral	0.093	0.090	0.103	0.136	0.067	0.202	**0.822**
Volitional	0.129	0.126	0.151	0.126	0.066	0.192	**0.812**
Emulation	0.110	0.120	0.079	0.156	0.061	0.209	**0.820**

Figure 5.5
Depiction of Zero-Order + ALRC Second-Order Measurement Model

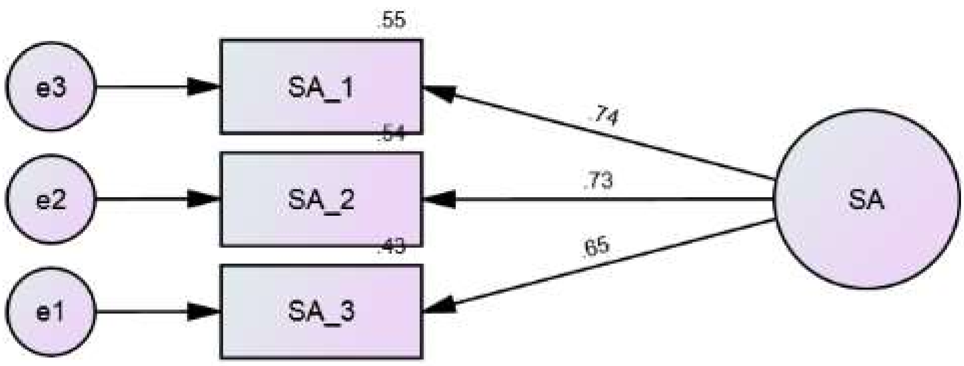


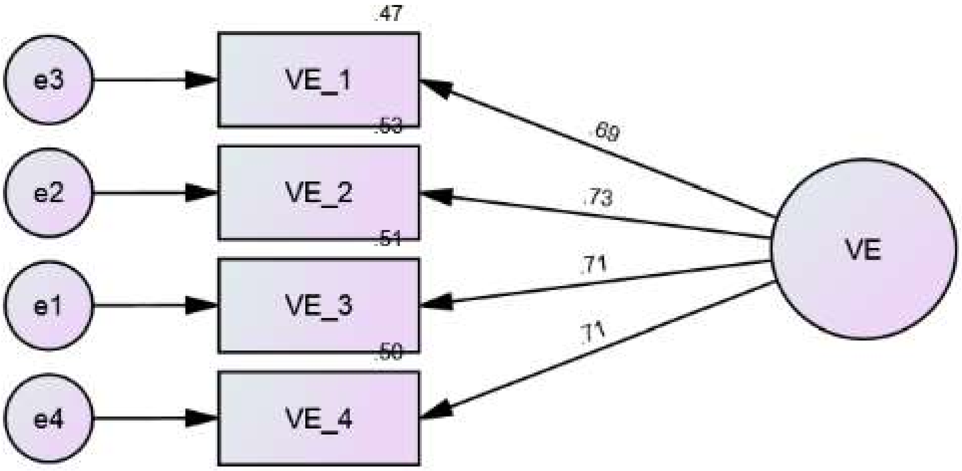
Utilitarian or Functional Regression coefficients



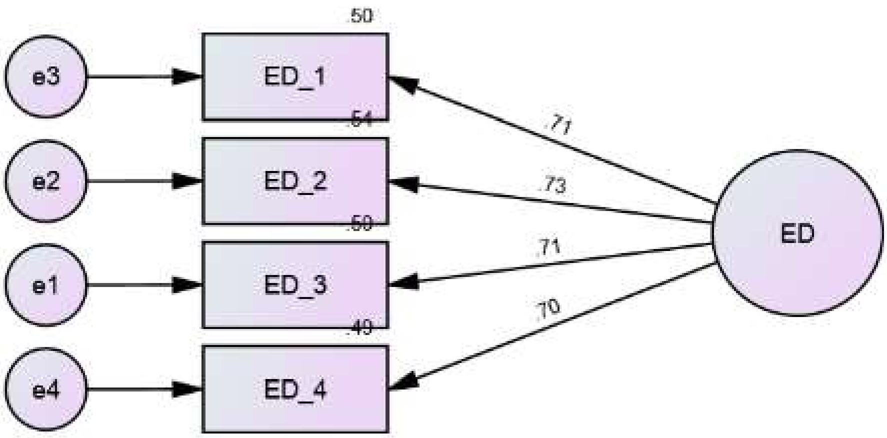
Socially-Adjustive Regression coefficients

Value-Expressive regression coefficients

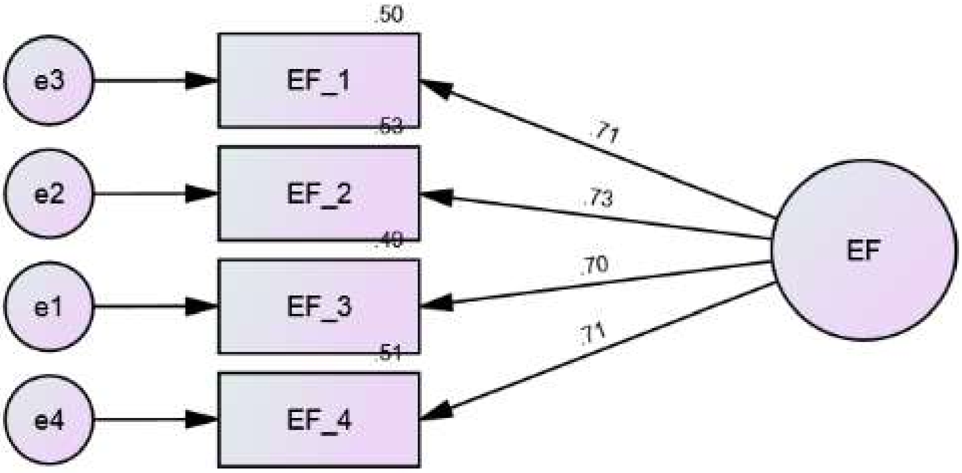




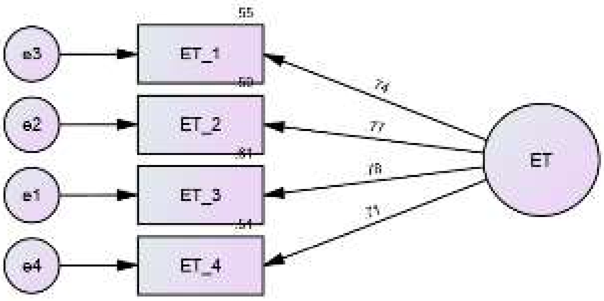
Ego-Defensive Regression coefficients



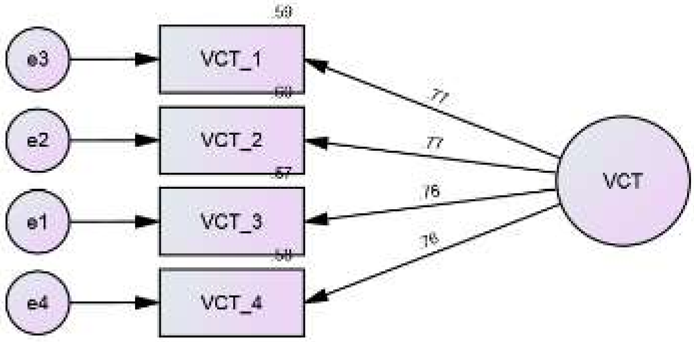
Epistemic functioning or Knowledge Regression coefficients



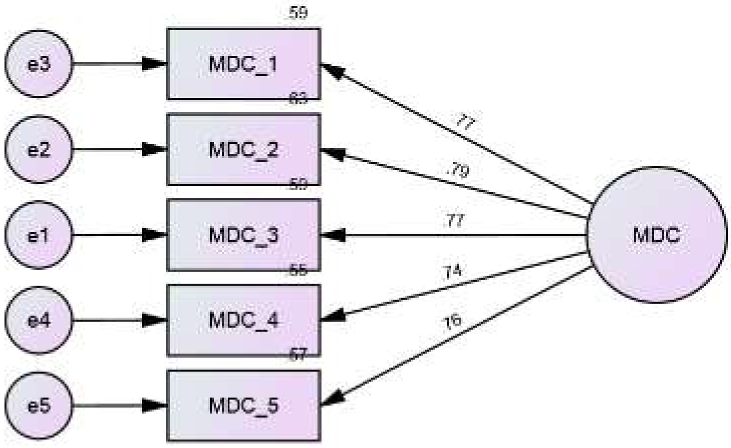
Emulation Inclination Regression coefficients



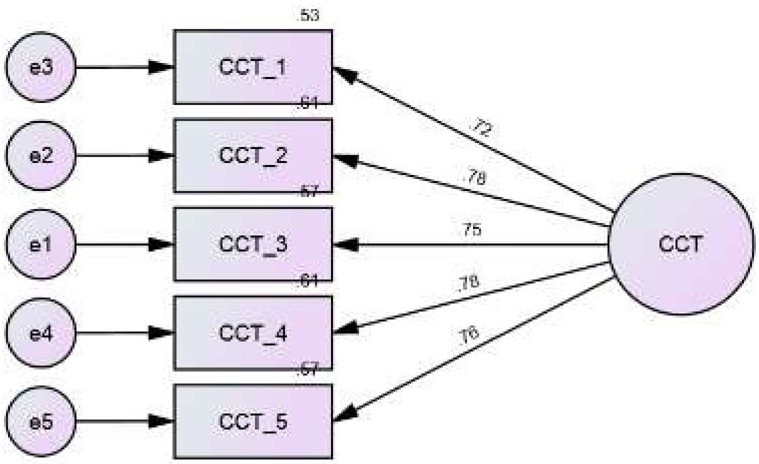
Volitional Consumption Inclination Regression coefficients



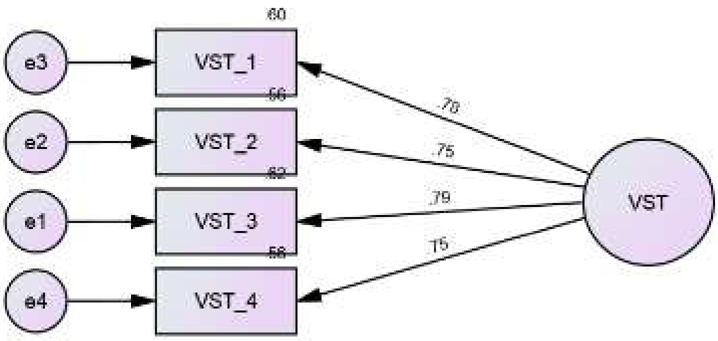
Moral Disengagement Inclination Regression coefficients



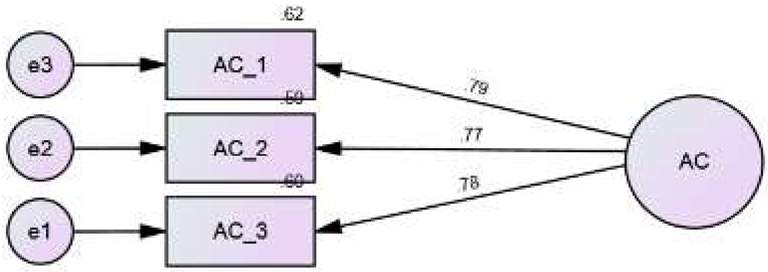
Conspicuous Consumption Inclination Regression coefficients



Variety Seeking Inclination Regression coefficients.



Action regression coefficients



Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness Regression coefficients

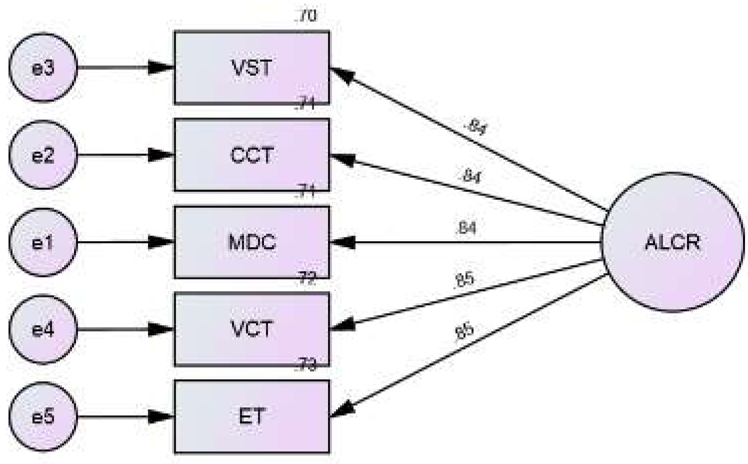


Table 5.24

Summary of Reliability, Composite Reliability, AVE, and Discriminant Validity

Construct	α >0.7	CR >0.7	AVE >0.5	Discriminant Validity Yes/No
Utilitarian	0.758	0.759	0.512	Yes
Social Adjustive	0.750	0.752	0.503	Yes
Value Expressive	0.802	0.802	0.503	Yes
Ego-Defensive	0.805	0.805	0.508	Yes
Epistemic Functioning	0.803	0.803	0.505	Yes
Emulation Inclination	0.837	0.838	0.564	Yes
Volitional Consumption inclination	0.849	0.849	0.585	Yes
Moral disengagement inclination	0.877	0.877	0.587	Yes
Conspicuous consumption inclination	0.871	0.871	0.575	Yes
Variety seeking inclination	0.850	0.850	0.586	Yes
Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness	0.821	0.821	0.604	Yes
Action	0.758	0.759	0.512	Yes

The results shown in Table 5.24 above demonstrate that the overall fit indices for the full measurement model are satisfactory, and ‘incremental fit’ and ‘parsimony fit indices’ are also achieved. It is concluded that the measurement model is supported by the evaluation of the psychometric properties concerning construct reliability, CR, indicator reliability, convergent validity (AVE), and discriminant validity.

5.9 Structural Model

5.9.1 Hypothesis testing (Direct effects)

As stated by Hair *et al.* (2013), when we have established that the construct measures of the research are reliable and valid, the next stage addresses the assessment and valuation of the structural model outcomes and results. This procedure includes investigating the model's predictive, analytical capabilities and the constructs' relations. For confirming hypothesis testing, the bootstrap technique was used at a two-tailed significance level of 0.05. The test was undertaken with Amos software V.24.

Table 5.25
Hypothesis Testing (direct effects)

Hypothesis	Direct Relationship	Std. Beta	Std. Error	T value	P values	Decision
H1	➔ ALCR	0.375	0.045	8.333	***	Supported
H2	SA ➔ ALCR	0.297	0.046	6.457	***	Supported
H3	VE ➔ ALCR	0.264	0.042	6.286	***	Supported
H4	ED ➔ ALCR	0.310	0.049	6.327	***	Supported
H5	EF ➔ ALCR	0.082	0.043	1.907	NS	Not Supported
H6	UT ➔ Action	0.110	0.034	3.235	***	Supported
H7	SA ➔ Action	0.081	0.026	3.115	***	Supported
H8	VE ➔ Action	0.095	0.031	3.065	**	Supported
H9	ED ➔ Action	0.090	0.034	2.647	**	Supported
H10	EF ➔ Action	0.104	0.032	3.250	***	Supported
H11	ALCR ➔ Action	0.664	0.039	17.026	***	Supported

"*indicates significant paths:*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ns = not significant"

Table 5.25 shows the analysis of the structural model. The results revealed that the H1 predicted relationship between UT and ALCR was statistically significant at the 5% level (Beta = 0.375, t = 8.333, p < 0.001). H2 is also confirmed by the significant relationship between SA and ALCR (Beta = 0.297, t = 6.457, p < 0.001). H3 and H4 hypothesized the relationship among VE and ALCR, and ED and ALCR, and these are also confirmed (Beta = 0.264, t = 6.286, p < 0.001, Beta = 0.310, t =

6.327, p < 0.001respectively), however H5 is rejected. The relationship among UT and Action (H6) was also confirmed (Beta = 0.110, t = 3.235, p < 0.001). The under H7, H8, H9, and H10 predicted positive and significant relationships with the dependent variable action were all significant (Beta = 0.081, t = 3.115, p < 0.001, Beta = 0.095, t = 3.065, p = 0.002, Beta = 0.090, t = 2.647, p = 0.006, and Beta = 0.104, t = 3.250, p < 0.001respectively). Finally, H11 has a strong, positive and significant relationship between ALCR and Action. (Beta =0. 664, t = 17.026, p < 0.001).

5.9.2 Hypotheses testing Mediation Effect

Table 5.26 shows the results of the analysis of the mediation effects. The mediation effect from hypothesis H6a UT -> ALCR -> AC is significant (Beta = 0.249). In support of H7a, the current study shows a significant mediation effect (Beta = 0.197). The hypotheses H8a (VE -> ALCR -> AC) and H9a (ED -> ALCR -> AC) were both confirmed (Beta = 0.175, and 0.206). The under H10a assumed mediation effect, however, was insignificant.

Table 5.26
Mediation Analysis

Hypothesis	Indirect Relationships	Std. Beta	Std. Error	Lower Limit	Upper Limit	P Value	Mediation Type
H6a	UT ➔ ALCR ➔ AC	0.249	0.034	0.197	0.306	0.001	Partial
H7a	SA ➔ ALCR ➔ AC	0.197	0.034	0.145	0.257	0.000	Partial
H8a	VE ➔ ALCR ➔ AC	0.175	0.029	0.132	0.225	0.000	Partial
H9a	ED ➔ ALCR ➔ AC	0.206	0.035	0.149	0.263	0.000	Partial
H10a	EF ➔ ALCR ➔ AC	0.055	0.029	0.007	0.105	NS.	None

5.9.3 Total effects

Table 5.27 displays an analysis of the total effects. The total effect comes from the direct and indirect effects on the dependent variable. We were five indirect effects in this study. The total effect associated with H6a is 0.359, of which 0.110 is a direct effect and 0.249 is an indirect effect. The total effect associated with H7a was 0.278, which is statistically significant. The total effects associated with H8a, H9a, and H10a were also positive and significant (0.270, 0.270, and 0.296, respectively).

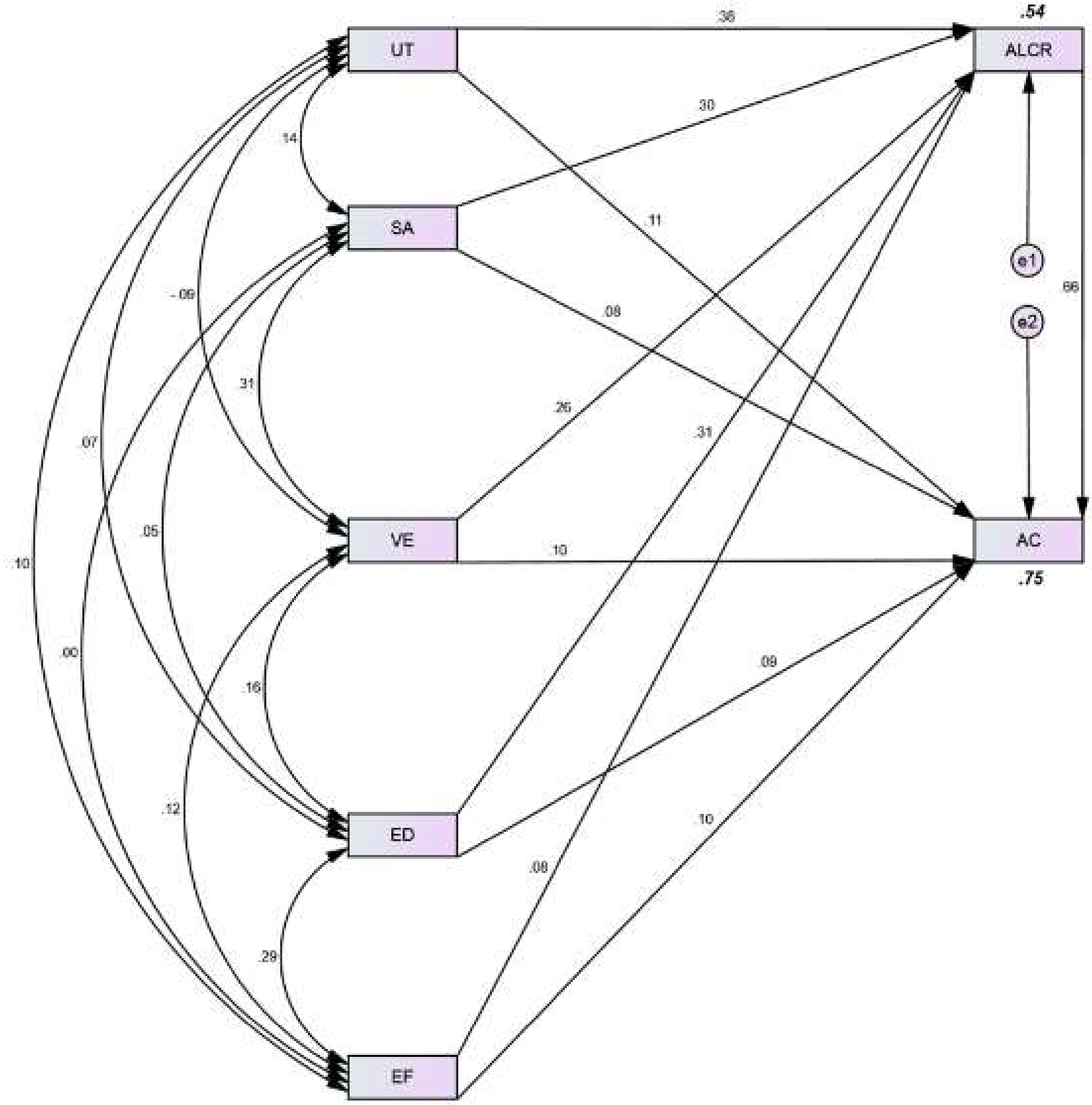
Table 5.27
Total Mediation Effects

Hypothesis	Direct Relationship	Direct effect	Indirect Effect	Total Effect	Std. Error	T Value	P Value	Decision
H6a	UT → Action	0.110	0.249	0.359	0.044	8.159	**	Supported
H7a	SA → Action	0.081	0.197	0.278	0.045	6.178	**	Supported
H8a	VE → Action	0.095	0.175	0.270	0.040	6.750	**	Supported
H9a	ED → Action	0.090	0.206	0.296	0.042	7.048	**	Supported
H10a	EF → Action	0.104	0.055	0.159	0.044	3.614	**	Supported

Table 5.28
R2

Constructs	R Square
ALCR	0.54
AC	0.75

Figure 5.6
Graphical Demonstration of the Structural Model



5.10 R-squared

As explained, a criterion for assessing and evaluating the structural model in CB-SEM and PLS-SEM is the R squared or R^2 value, which is a "measure of the proportion of an endogenous construct's variance that is explained by its predictor constructs." Considering that R-square value (R^2) of 0.25, 0.50, and 0.75 represent weak, moderate, or substantial, respectively, the R^2 values as presented in Table 38) show that a moderate proportion of variance is explained in ALCR and a substantial proportion of the variance in AC is explained.

5.11 Summary of the results by hypothesis

To help the reader process the large amount of information presented, the following table re-states all the study hypotheses and whether they are accepted or rejected based on the results.

Table 5.30
Summary of Acceptance and Rejection of Hypotheses

No.	Hypothesis	Accepted Rejected
H1	The utilitarian expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence ALCR	Accepted
H2	The social-adjustive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence ALCR	Accepted
H3	The value-expressive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence ALCR.	Accepted
H4	The ego-defensive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence ALCR	Accepted
H5	The epistemic expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence ALCR	Rejected
H6	The utilitarian function of attitude positively influences Action.	Accepted
H7	The social-adjustive function of attitude positively influences Action.	Accepted
H8	The value-expressive function of attitude positively influences Action.	Accepted
H9	The ego-defensive function of attitude positively influences Action.	Accepted
H10	The epistemic function of attitude positively influences Action.	Accepted
H11	ALCR positively influences action.	Accepted
H6a	ALCR mediates the relationship between the utilitarian function of attitude and Action	Accepted
H7a	ALCR mediates the relationship between the social-adjustive function of attitude and Action	Accepted
H8a	ALCR mediates the relationship between the value-expressive function of attitude and Action	Accepted
H9a	ALCR mediates the relationship between the ego-defensive function of attitude and Action	Accepted
H10a	ALCR mediates the relationship between the epistemic function of attitude and Action	Rejected

5.12 Comparison of ALCR with 2 related existing constructs

In this study, we compared ALCR with two existing models within the related domain, that is, counterfeit proneness and brand luxury index. The aim was to establish how ALCR is different from other closely related measures. After running the three measurement models, we checked every model's model fit indices. The results show that ALCR has the best model fit indices. For example, in the ALCR model, the value of GFI is 0.933, whereas, in model two and model three, these values are 0.826, 0.817, respectively, which are less than the minimum model fit criteria. The following table (Table 40) provides the complete details of the three model fit indices.

Table 5.31
Model Fit comparison

Fit Indices	Acceptance level	Model 1 (ALCR)		Model 2 (Counterfeit)	Model 3 (Brand)	Model 4 (ALCR, CP, BL)
		ZO	Full model (ZO + SO)			
X2	1–3	1.034	1.018	2.983	2.532	1.831
RMSEA	<0.08	0.008	0.006	0.061	0.049	0.040
GFI	>0.90	0.933	0.932	0.826	0.817	0.742
AGFI	>0.90	0.921	0.923	0.793	0.790	0.723
CFI	>0.90	0.997	0.998	0.884	0.925	0.906
TLI	>0.90	0.997	0.998	0.870	0.919	0.902
NFI	>0.90	0.921	0.920	0.836	0.874	0.815

5.13 Assessment of Reliability, Validity & Discriminant validity Analysis

5.13.1 Reliability, validity and discriminant validity (CP Model)

The following table shows the complete details of the reliability, validity, and discriminant validity analysis. In the reliability analysis, the CR value must be higher than 0.7 and AVE must be greater than 0.5. According to the Fornell and Lacker (1981), the square root of the AVE must be higher than below and right side of each construct.

Table 5.32
Reliability, Validity & Discriminant Validity through (Fornell & Lacker, 1981)

Constructs	CR	AVE	CP	UT	SA	VE	ED	EF	AC	ALCR
CP??	0.913	0.502	**0.709**							
Utilitarian	0.759	0.513	-0.261	**0.716**						
Social Adjustive	0.752	0.503	-0.310	0.110	**0.709**					
Value Expressive	0.802	0.503	-0.301	-0.085	0.248	**0.709**				
Ego Defensive	0.805	0.508	-0.299	0.051	0.030	0.126	**0.712**			
Epistemic	0.803	0.505	-0.284	0.076	-0.006	0.101	0.238	**0.711**		
Action	0.821	0.604	-0.467	0.344	0.354	0.331	0.359	0.265	**0.777**	
ALCR	0.897	0.634	-0.649	0.359	0.376	0.326	0.357	0.202	0.759	**0.796**

5.13.2 Reliability, validity and discriminant validity (BL Model)

The following table demonstrates the complete details of CR, AVE, and discriminant validity analysis of the BL model. In this step, the Fornell & Lacker method was used for measuring the discriminant validity.

Table 5.33
Reliability, Validity and Discriminant Validity (Fornell & Lacker, 1981)

Constructs	CR	AVE	BL	UT	SA	VE	ED	EF	AC	ALCR
BL??	0.961	0.564	**0.751**							
Utilitarian	0.759	0.512	-0.193	**0.716**						
Social Adjustive	0.752	0.503	-0.197	0.110	**0.709**					
Value Expressive	0.802	0.503	-0.210	-0.085	0.248	**0.709**				
Ego Defensive	0.805	0.508	-0.176	0.051	0.030	0.126	**0.712**			
Epistemic	0.804	0.506	-0.170	0.076	-0.006	0.101	0.237	**0.711**		
Action	0.821	0.604	-0.292	0.344	0.354	0.331	0.359	0.265	**0.777**	
ALCR	0.897	0.634	-0.430	0.359	0.376	0.326	0.357	0.202	0.759	**0.796**

5.13.3 Reliability, validity and discriminant validity (ALCR, CP, and BL)

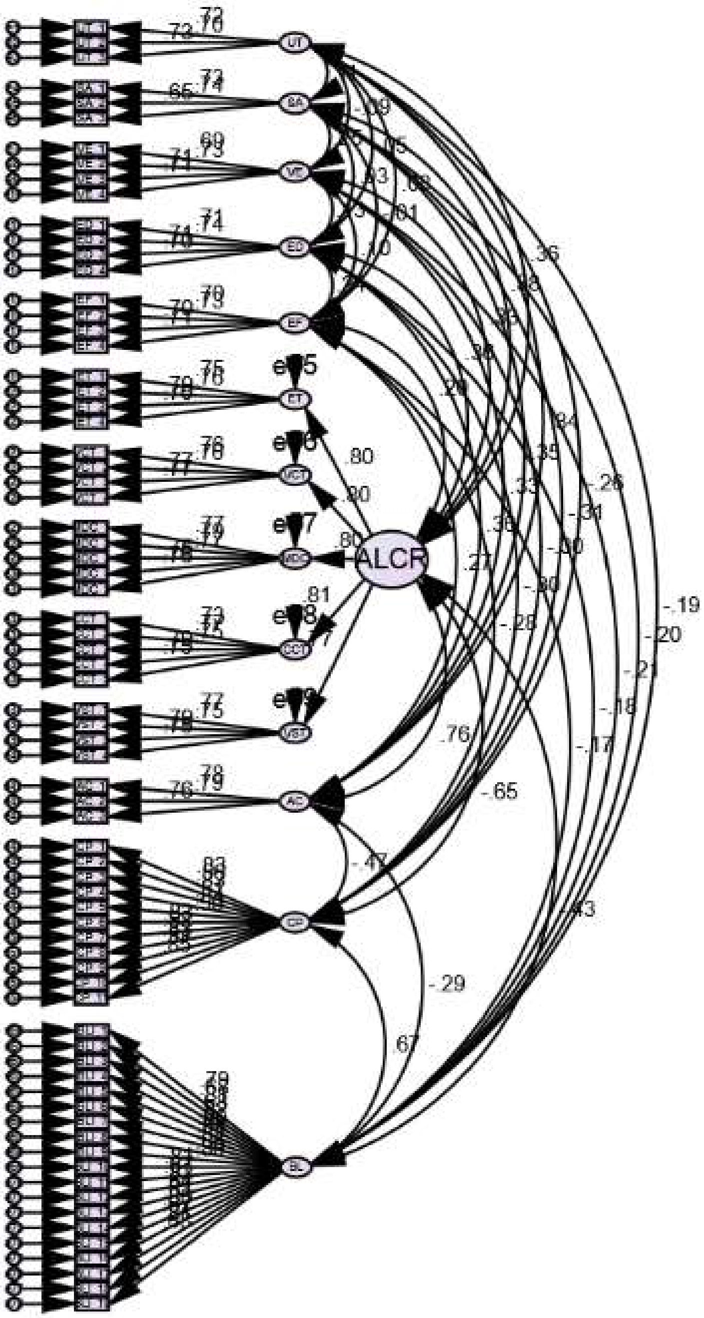
In the last step, this study also checks the discriminant validity among ALCR, CP and BL constructs. The following table displays the details of the reliability, validity and discriminant validity. According to the subsequent table, there is no issue of discriminant validity.

Table 5.34

Reliability, Convergent Validity & Discriminant Validity (Fornell & Lacker, 1981)

Constructs	**CR**	**AVE**	**UT**	**SA**	**VE**	**ED**	**EF**	**AC**	**CP**	**ALCR**	**BL**
Utilitarian	0.759	0.512	**0.716**								
Social Adjustive	0.752	0.503	0.110	**0.709**							
Value Expressive	0.802	0.503	-0.085	0.248	**0.709**						
Emulation	0.805	0.508	0.051	0.030	0.126	**0.713**					
Ego Defensive	0.804	0.506	0.076	-0.006	0.101	0.238	**0.711**				
Action	0.821	0.604	0.344	0.354	0.331	0.359	0.265	**0.777**			
CP	0.914	0.503	-0.261	-0.310	-0.301	-0.299	-0.284	-0.467	**0.709**		
ALCR	0.897	0.634	0.359	0.376	0.326	0.357	0.202	0.759	-0.649	**0.796**	
BL	0.960	0.563	-0.193	-0.197	-0.210	-0.176	-0.170	-0.292	0.674	-0.430	**0.750**

Graphical Representation



5.14 Chapter Summary

The focus of this chapter is descriptive statistics and statistical analysis. For descriptive statistics, SPSS was used, and for statistical analysis, Amos version 24 was employed. Statistical analysis was divided into two parts. The first is the measurement model, and the second is the structural model. In the measurement model, reliability, validity, AVE, discriminant validity, and outer lodgings were checked and discussed. With the help of bootstrapping, a procedure was run to check the structural model. In hypothesis testing, all hypotheses were accepted. A detailed explanation of the results is discussed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a reiteration of what the basic foundations of this study were, what its goals were, the methods used, and the rationale behind them. Following this, the study results are discussed, on the basis of their implications and relations with the previously conducted research in the field. The discussion will be organized by examining each of the research goals and hypothesis separately, and then integrating all the findings.

6.2 Present study

The inspiration for this study is found in the rapid development of the alternative luxury sector. There are three types of alternative luxury consumption: second-hand, counterfeit and rented. Due to the low entry price, it has gained significant popularity in the lower income segments. Thus, the feeling of aspiration to save money to be able to afford luxury items has been lost among the low-to-medium income segments (Kuscu, 2021). This also affects higher income segments because luxury items are not as exclusive as they should be, thus making them less attractive for social distinction (Lee, 2011; Amaral and Loken, 2016). Gaining a better understanding of this phenomenon through the development of a holistic measurement scale, which includes all three forms of alternative luxury, is of great importance to the contemporary world of business.

Therefore, as the stigma toward using alternative luxury use is fading, the intention to use it is on the rise, especially among the millennial and later generations (Mittendorf, 2018). Understanding the reasons behind alternative luxury consumption and developing a reliable instrument which can be used to measure it is therefore of the utmost relevance. A large body of work has researched counterfeit, second-hand, and rental luxury alternatives as stand-alone studies. However, there has been a lack of studies investigating all three types of alternative luxury using an integrated approach, especially among the low-income segment, who largely consider any form of alternative as similar in meeting their needs to consumer luxury in their own terms.

Furthermore, there have been two previous concepts that are in part similar to ALCR. The first one is counterfeit proneness, developed by Sharm and Chan (2011). These authors noticed that previous studies focused on non-aware purchasing of counterfeit luxury goods, when the buyer does not know that he is buying a replica. However, as they noted, there are many situations in which people knowingly and willingly buy replicas. Thus, they developed the construct of counterfeit proneness, defined as “a general tendency of consumers to prefer counterfeit to genuine products” (Sharm and Chan, 2011, p. 605).

This is clearly a narrower construct, covering only one of the three ways in which alternative luxury may be consumed. The second construct is the brand luxury index (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004), which measures luxuriousness with a scale consisting of five dimensions: conspicuousness, uniqueness, quality, hedonism, and extended self. This is also different from ALCR because it focuses on luxury attributes and not on individual dispositions, as ALCR does.

6.2.1 Theoretical background

This study has examined alternative luxury readiness through the perspective of four theories: theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), theory of goal-directed behaviour (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001), and theory of goal systems (Kruglanski *et al.*, 2015), and the functional theory of attitudes (Katz, 1960) to present a layer in the framework that more fully helped understand the function of goals. The key element of Ajzen's theory (1991) used in this study is that the actions of people are often planned and deliberate. Thus, the consumption of alternative luxury is seen as intentional, goal-oriented, requires the involvement, and is a consequence of an analytical process.

More precisely, a person believes that a certain behaviour will lead to attainment of specific goals. Therefore, a person will behave in ways that should lead to them achieving the goals that they want. The behaviour is also affected by subjective norms, as well as perceived behavioural control, which refers to the degree to which a person believes that they can do certain behaviours (Madden, Ellen, and Ajzen, 1992). Therefore, the two main actual predictors of behaviour, according to Ajzen (1991), are behavioural control and attitudes. His theory has been expanded upon by Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) with the theory of goal-directed behaviours, which focused on the domains of desired and anticipated emotions.

Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001 introduce the concept of purposive behaviour through their model of goal–directed behaviour, which posits that for every action or behaviour of an individual, the emotional consequences of achieving the desired goal or failing are well considered, which translates into a resultant emotional response (positive or negative).

The work suggests that the expected positive emotions from attaining the desired goal through action activate the desire to perform the action or behaviour. Therefore, the most immediate antecedent of intention is desire, and behaviour is, thus, affected by what a person desires and what he believes can lead to the fulfilment of that desire. Instead of focusing on whether a person wishes a consequence to happen, they describe the anticipation of consequences in terms of anticipation of a person's emotional reaction despite success or failure in achieving a goal. The third theory, posited by Kruglanski *et al.* (2015) further extends the theory of planned behaviour by pointing out that attitudes do not necessarily lead to behaviour. While there is a connection, it is not direct, since there are many instances in which attitudes are not followed by behaviour. Instead, they claim, the main driver of behaviour is a goal. Only when a goal exists will a person pursue his desires through behaviour. Of course, there are certain prerequisites – the goal needs to be estimated as attainable, it needs to be sufficiently desirable, and it must 'win' in desirability compared to other goals which could be attained in a certain decision-making moment.

One of the main concepts of the theory of planned behaviour and its subsequent extensions is attitude. Thus, it is important to understand it further, and this was largely done through the functional theory of attitudes, proposed by Katz (1960). In line with the newer theories of behaviour, Katz postulated that attitudes are created to achieve goals, and that they may have various functions for a person. Any specific attitude may be motivated by several functions, but it is common that a function is dominant at some point. The same motivation toward achieving the same goal may exist for two people but may be due to fulfilling completely different functions (Carpenter *et al.*, 2013). Thus, it is very informative to explore the actual function that an attitude has for a person since they can widely vary among different people, even for the same attitudes, directed toward the same goals. Katz postulated five possible functions of attitude:

- Utilitarian – perceived as improving the life of an individual in practical ways, making it easy or simple to achieve more for less.

- Social-adjustive – enhances an ability to interact with a preferred social group, to make a favourable impression on others.
- Value-expressive – to remain within certain values as defined by the self, for example, to buy and consume products and services aligned with being environmentally friendly.
- Ego-defensive – to address feelings of self-esteem, for example, purchasing a luxury product that signals a desired status the individual has failed to achieve.
- Knowledge – a desire to know and understand the world and build relevant information to structure the complexities of life.

These five functions of attitude may be used to predict any behaviour, as they help us understand the key motivational factors behind holding attitude toward it. A key factor in determining the antecedents of attitude, and therefore their functions, are expectancy and this has therefore been included in the five functions as they have been applied in this study. With this inclusion, and when unified with goals and anticipated positive outcome, they provide a chance to truly understand behaviour. Therefore, the five functions have been used as predictors of alternative luxury consumption behaviours, including using, buying, recommending, promoting, and justifying it.

6.2.2 ALCR construct creation

The goal of this study was to understand the alternative luxury consumption integrative, by using the above-described theories of behaviour and attitudes. The conceptualization of the alternative luxury consumption readiness (ALCR) was done based on previous literature and defined in the following way: the readiness of an individual to use, buy, recommend, promote and justify the use of alternative luxury in the forms of second-hand, counterfeit, and rented versions of luxury brands as a means to achieve a personal goal. The ALCR construct has been envisioned as the immediate step before behaviour, a goal-driven readiness to partake in the behaviour. Thus, it reflects on how prepared, how motivated a person is to engage in actual behaviour. It encompassed the whole realm of factors relevant for the usage, promotion, justification, purchasing, and recommending alternative luxury goods. The construct captures the feeling of readiness as it is contingent on both desiring an outcome and expecting that it can be achieved.

There are five dimensions of Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness:

1. Pecuniary emulation inclination – the acquisition and showing off of luxury products with the aim to appear as belonging to a preferred social class, even though a person may not have necessary wealth to wear them.
2. Volitional consumption inclination – the intentional or goal-oriented usage of alternative luxury, with clear goals set by the person, which are achieved through this means.
3. Moral disengagement inclination– modifying one’s moral standards in the case of luxury, where usual moral rules are reframed to serve individual interest. In which case, the usage of alternative luxury is seen as morally acceptable.
4. Conspicuous consumption inclination – wishing to show off and flaunt the use of alternative luxury items.
5. The variety seeking inclination – the need to seek out, explore and experiment all forms of alternative luxury, either as second-hand, counterfeit or rented.

The exploration of ALCR was conducted in two ways: through qualitative and quantitative research. A mixed methodology was used to gain holistic insight into the concept. Qualitative research was conducted through two focus groups, which helped the researchers understand the concept from the perspective of the study population. He talked with young people from lower socioeconomic segments about what alternative luxury is to them and their peers.

The focus groups yielded many interesting insights, including that the three forms of alternative luxury consumption are relatively interchangeable for the participants, that using alternative luxury gives them deep emotional satisfaction, that it fills them with self-esteem and confidence, that it gives them a desired position in relation to other people, and that it serves as a steppingstone to the world of authentic luxury and everything that it encompasses. The findings of the focus groups may be seen in detail in Chapter 3. Most importantly, they helped inform the research in terms of creating items for the alternative luxury consumption readiness survey.

6.2.3 ALCR survey

The process of survey creation was also informed by theoretical and empirical considerations, and consisted of multiple steps, including reviewing survey items with experts from the luxury industry and young participants from the focus groups. After creating the items, various aspects of the survey were analysed, including its reliability, validity, relationships with other constructs, and relations to functions of attitude. Multiple methods for detecting biases in the survey answers were used, including non-response bias, common method bias and cross-sample validation. As explained in Chapter 3 and further presented in Chapter 4, no indicators of bias were found. Thus, further analysis could be confidently conducted.

The internal reliability of the scales was assessed using Cronbach's alpha values, which were high for all of them: emulation inclination (.837), Volitional Consumption inclination (.849), moral disengagement inclination (.877), conspicuous consumption inclination (.871), Variety seeking inclination (.85). A very similar result was also achieved using composite reliability (CR), thus indicating that all five primary constructs have sufficient reliability. Furthermore, the structural validity of the construct, in terms of the five-factor structure, was checked using structural equation modelling (SEM). Ten different indices of model fitting were in agreement that ALCR consists of the five proposed factors. Therefore, the study data showed excellent internal reliability and construct validity of the survey. Indicator reliability and convergent validity were satisfactory, as well as discriminant validity, which was measured through three different methods (Fornell-Larcker criterion, HTMT, Cross Loadings criterion method). Comparable and very favourable results were also found using a zero-order model and a full model (zero-order + ALCR). Details of these analyses may be found in Chapter 4.

6.3 Discussion of the study results

In this section, there will be three subsections. The first one will deal with the discussion of all hypothesis tests that were done in the study, while the second will investigate the relationship of ALCR with two existing but related constructs – counterfeit proneness and brand luxury index. The third subsection will integrate all the discussions of the first two subsections into a single, cohesive narrative describing the study findings.

6.3.1 Hypothesis tests

As there were 16 specific hypotheses in this study, they will all be considered individually, including the results of the statistical tests, the implications of these tests, and the relation of the findings to previous literature. Then, an integrative assessment of the results of the tests of all hypotheses will be given.

Hypothesis 1: The utilitarian expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness.

The rationale behind this hypothesis was the following: since attitudes are an integral part of behaviour and behavioural readiness (Ajzen, 1991; Kruglanski *et al.*, 2015), the utilitarian function of attitudes toward alternative luxury consumption will positively predict readiness toward using alternative luxury. This hypothesis is supported by the study findings, which are clearly in line with expectations. They show that the utility gained from purchasing alternative luxury motivates the participants to be ready to buy, use, promote, recommend, or justify it. This agrees with Hwang and Griffiths (2017), who found that utility is a motivator toward collaborative consumption.

This is consistent with the work of Titus and Ethiraj (2012), who found that that utility is an important functional reason for the use of counterfeit luxury, based on their study among university students in Bangalore, India. In classical economics, utility also be expressed in terms of usefulness and useful life and the consequent satisfaction, happiness, pleasure, etc. (Dobson and Palfreman, 2004). This is supported in research findings, for example Phau, Sequeria and Dix (2009) concerning the useful life of counterfeits. It is also supported in terms of value consciousness when purchasing counterfeit products (Basu, Basu and Lee, 2015) and frugal behaviour where a user gets more for less concerning rented luxury (Lang, 2018).

While collaborative consumption and second-hand luxury are part of the alternative luxury spectrum, it is logical to conclude that various forms of alternative luxury consumption are also motivated by utility, as has been shown by the results. The psychological explanation for the utility that is gained from using alternative luxury may be understood from the responses in the focus group domain of the study. As the participants have stated, using alternative luxury helps them gain goods that they wish to have without having to invest more money.

The amount of money that would be required by the participants to purchase the real luxury products that they are wearing is outside of their purchasing capabilities. Therefore, alternative luxury has the utility of allowing them to partake in the culture of luxury without being rich, which is a prerequisite for the classical luxury market. Utility also had the highest beta coefficient of all five attitude functions, indicating that this is the biggest influencing factor toward alternative luxury consumption.

Hypothesis 2: The social-adjustive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness.

The social-adjustive function was also hypothesised to have a positive effect on ALCR. The reasoning behind this hypothesis may be found in what luxury is in general – a social, status symbol. Luxury helps people identify in certain ways and show themselves as part of certain social groups. Hence, it is not surprising that the study results found a positive correlation between the social-adjustive function of attitudes toward alternative luxury and ALCR. Believing that wearing luxury items brings about higher social recognition, and that it helps a person be more attractive to others, is connected to being ready to use alternative luxury. As has been postulated by Astray (2011), luxury items are embedded with purpose, and that purpose is connected to social-adjustive goals.

These goals can be identified in a range of dimensions that are supported by study findings. Budiman and Wijawa (2014, p. 145), for example, found that intention to purchase differed based on the relative importance of the subjective norm to study participants – there was a “positive correlation between subjective norm and purchase intention.” The influence of society is named by Basu *et al.* (2015) as a main reason why counterfeit products are purchased; with the social class a person identifies with strongly influencing such behaviour. The concept of “social projection value” is found by Jain and Mishra (2020, p. 171) to be “the most significant predictor of intention to consume luxury fashion on a sharing basis” while Dubois (2020) points out that the consumption of luxury assists consumers in establishing their position, or changes in that position (negatively and positively), in social hierarchies.

Thus, alternative luxury may fulfil the same psychological function, which has been supported by the findings of this study. The effect was the second weakest of the significant direct effects, indicating that it is more important than the value-expressive function, but less important than ego-defensive and utilitarian.

Hypothesis 3: The value-expressive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness.

The third hypothesis was concerned with the impact of the value-expressive function of attitude on ALCR. The assumption that the relationship will be positive was based on the fact that people who have values, which agree with the consumption of alternative luxury should logically be more likely to be ready to consume it. This assumption is supported by the study results.

It is, perhaps, important to explore relevant values and the areas of alternative luxury in which they are most probably observed. Concerns about the environment have become increasingly expressed across the population, particularly among younger segments. The notion of sharing, which can be aligned with second-hand and rented luxury, is connected with environmental concerns in many ways – little or no damage is caused, and resource use is optimal (Choi and Kim, 2021). Therefore, it can be posited that a person with a strongly positive attitude toward the environment is more likely than others to participate in the sharing economy and this is supported in research findings (Choi and Kim, 2021), and particularly with reference to millennials, who “tend to be empathetic toward social and communal causes and pragmatic about the environmental impact of their consumption choices” (Hwang and Griffiths, 2017, p. 132).

However, it is the weakest significant effect, indicating that the main goal of alternative luxury usage is not to express one’s values. Instead, it is likely that the person’s values being in line with the usage of alternative luxury is a necessary condition for usage, but not the key driver toward it. As Astray (2011) explored, value expression is a more important aspect of purchasing counterfeit items than morality.

Furthermore, morality and value expression are differently exposed in different segments of the population, including economic and gender differences (Astray, 2011). Thus, it makes sense that value-expression is a relevant, but not the most relevant, predictor in the young low-income segment, since people in this segment do not really have a choice between authentic and alternative luxury: if they want to consume luxury products, alternative luxury is the only option for them, and they are most likely to opt for the alternative luxury option that provides most utility rather than the one that is most value-expressive. Therefore, value-expression may play an inhibitory role if a participant's values are strictly against alternative luxury, but otherwise it will probably have no effect. In any case, young people are, as noted, clearly using alternative luxury to primarily fulfil the functions of utility and ego-defence, and value-expression is an auxiliary function of attitudes toward alternative luxury consumption.

Hypothesis 4: The ego-defensive expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness

This hypothesis proposes that the ego-defensive function of attitude toward alternative luxury will correlate positively with ALCR. The logic was analogous to previous hypotheses: if people believe that alternative luxury can help them feel high degrees of self-esteem and feel better about themselves, then they will be more likely to be ready to consume it. This idea was supported by the results of the statistical analyses, which showed that it is the second strongest predictor of ALCR, after the utility function. The focus groups showed much internal, nuanced details on how alternative luxury can help people feel self-secured and confident. By presenting themselves as wealthy through alternative luxury, they feel that they have defended themselves from the social threat posed to their sense of self-worth by people who are using luxury products around them. This is clearly stimulating oneself, as others see them as desirable and prestigious.

Although limited in number, some studies have been conducted in this area and these broadly support the hypothesis. As has been mentioned by Sharma and Chan (2017), the ego-defensive function of attitude has been less researched in the field of alternative luxury, and their study found that the ego-defensive function affected the evaluation of counterfeit goods. Participants who strived for ego-defence through a certain category of goods were likely to evaluate them positively. In this light, a person may believe they will be perceived as being 'savvy' by consuming counterfeit products. If this is a self-image that is desired, an identity can be constructed and defended through alternative luxury (Perez and Quintanilla, 2010). The use of luxury (sometimes alternative luxury) was also found by Wang and Griskevicius (2013) to deter and deflate potential rivals in romance and other aspects of social life.

Hypothesis 5: The epistemic expectancies from the consumption of alternative luxury positively influence Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness

This hypothesis, which supposed that the epistemic function of attitude will correlate positively with ALCR, was not supported by the results of the study. While it was expected that needing to know more about alternative luxury will also affect being readier to consume it, the data clearly shows that this is not the case. This is in contrast with some study findings and may be a further indication of important differences that can exist between different nations and population segments.

Nagar and Singh (2014), for example, found in a study of consumers of counterfeit products in India that there was a positive relationship between knowledge-driven variety seeking and the consumption of counterfeit luxury – for these consumers it was a "low-cost means of satisfying their curiosity and need for experimentation" (Nagar and Singh, 2014, p. 5). The derivatives of variety seeking are explored by Moya (2012), who finds them to include intrapersonal motives (such as stimulation and acquiring new information) as well as seeking affiliation with and being distinct within reference groups.

Nevertheless, this result (of no positive correlation) is sensible, albeit unexpected and may be explained. Since alternative luxury consumption is primarily an activity tied to aesthetics and social situations, it makes sense that knowing more about it is unimportant with regards to being ready to use it. A person may be interested in and want to know a lot about alternative luxury as an interesting topic but may not necessarily wish to actually use it in their lives.

Furthermore, even if they believe that alternative luxury is an interesting way to get to know about the world of real luxury, they still may not be interested in luxury. Sharma and Chan (2017) found that the knowledge function is negatively connected to the evaluation of counterfeit goods, which is due to individuals knowing how to determine a counterfeit product and understanding that their quality is generally lower than that of an authentic one.

Fundamentally, there may be some cultural differences that exist in Nigeria where the study was conducted and based on such cultural or demographic differences, some hypothesis may be unexpectedly rejected. When you justify the direct effect, furthermore, the indirect effect is automatically justified because when direct effect is not established the indirect most of the cases will not be established.

Hypothesis 6: The utilitarian function of attitude positively influences action.

As the utilitarian function of attitude is positively connected to ALCR, it can only be expected that it will also be positively connected to action, in terms of buying, using, promoting, recommending, and justifying alternative luxury. The results show that the connection indeed exists, and that it is also the strongest of the five functions of attitude, as was the case with ALCR. However, it should also be noted that the standardized regression coefficient is more than three times smaller than the coefficient of regression between the function of attitude and ALCR. Thus, the relationship is weaker, probably due to it being less direct. This agrees with the theory of Kruglanski *et al.* (2015), who stressed that, while attitudes are important for behaviour, they need to be mediated by goals. Thus, as ALCR is the immediate step before the action, in which goals, attitudes, and subjective norms are combined, it is expected that it will cover more variance in action, compared to functions of attitude.

Hypothesis 7: The social-adjustive function of attitude positively influences action.

Similar to the previous hypothesis, the social-adjustive function of attitude is expected to positively influence the using, buying, promoting, recommending, and justifying of alternative luxury. This has been supported by the study findings, and the social-adjustive function has been deemed as the function with the lowest standardised regression coefficient. This indicates that it is relevant for the actual behaviour in the domain of alternative luxury, but not as important as it is for ALCR.

This is interesting, as it is logical that the factors that are important for ALCR are important for the action as well. However, it seems that, while being important for the forming of attitudes, the social-adjustive function is less directly relevant for the behavioural aspect. Whether this is true or not will be determined through the indirect effect of this attitude function on action, as mediated through ALCR, which is examined in hypothesis 7a.

Hypothesis 8: The value-expressive function of attitude positively influences action.

The eighth hypothesis assumed that the value-expressive function of attitude, that is, how an attitude toward alternative luxury is motivated by the need to express one's personal values, will have a positive effect on the buying, recommending, promoting, using, and justifying of alternative luxury. Since this dimension of the attitude function is partly based on personal moral values, it may be very relevant for behaviour, and this has been supported by the study results. As previously explained, it was the significant predictor of ALCR with the lowest standardized regression coefficient. However, in predicting action, it is in the middle spot. This change may be a result of the previously theorized importance of values in inhibiting, but not in promoting, alternative luxury consumption. For instance, someone whose morals are not aligned with using alternative luxury may be inclined toward it, but never proceed to use it. This assumption is definitely possible but would need further research to be verified.

Hypothesis 9: The ego-defensive function of attitude positively influences action.

The ego-defensive function of attitude was also hypothesized to have a positive effect on the buying, using, recommending, promoting, and justifying of alternative luxury. It is indeed significant but has the second weakest connection among the five attitude functions. Like the social-adjustive function, perhaps ego-defence is more important for the formation of intention and readiness, than for behaviour directly. This is examined by assessing the indirect effect of this function on action as mediated through ALCR, as part of hypothesis 9a.

Hypothesis 10: The epistemic function of attitude positively influences action.

The hypothesis that the epistemic function of attitude has a positive effect on the action of buying, using, promoting, recommending, or justifying alternative luxury is supported by the study results. This is a very interesting finding, as the results of hypothesis 5 showed that there is no connection between the epistemic function and ALCR. Furthermore, the epistemic function of attitude toward alternative luxury has the second highest standardized regression coefficient of the five attitude functions.

This indicates that the effect of the epistemic function of attitude toward alternative luxury does affect alternative luxury consumption, but that is not captured by ALCR. As previous studies have shown that there is a relationship between the knowledge function and some estimates of alternative luxury (Sharma and Chan, 2017), perhaps this is a dimension of alternative luxury that is relevant and that the ALCR should seek to incorporate in a future extension.

The reason for its lack now may be that the people and theory that was consulted did not find this function of attitude important or relevant, as it is relatively subtle. In this respect, the results from the focus group were revealing, as many participants described using alternative access to luxury as a step toward using authentic luxury. The epistemic function may be mostly related to this more distal, and process-oriented goal than the direct ALCR that is more about the potential current gains.

Hypothesis 11: Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness positively influences action.

Perhaps the most basic hypothesis of this study was the expectation that ALCR is related to purchasing, using, promoting, recommending, and justifying of alternative luxury. Due to its conceptualization as a concept involving goals, attitudes, behavioural control, and personal norms, it necessarily should correlate with action, for the construct to be valid. In line with these expectations, ALCR shows a strong positive predictive power on alternative luxury consumption, with a standardized regression coefficient much higher than any attitude function.

This is in alignment with the four main theories which were used to conceptualize the construct (Ajzen, 1991; Kruglanski *et al.*, 2015; Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001). At the centre of these theories is that an attitude of itself does not cause behaviour, it must be a desire that expects a future state preferable to the present one (Kruglanski *et al.*, 2018). It must then become a goal but even then, will only lead to behaviour (action) if it is a focal goal (momentarily dominant in the goal system of a person) and the action must be of benefit to that focal goal. A description of this process is that it is a mechanism for the fulfilling of goals, with goals being "abstract benefits sought by the consumer available through the features of a product class that offer fulfilment" (Huffman & Houston, 1993, pg.191).

These theoretical positions, aligned with ACLR, and supported by the findings of this study, show that the additional aspects of behaviour that were included in the concept, such as goals and personal norms, bring ALCR closer toward actual behaviour, compared to attitudes. Thus, it is expected to be a mediator between attitudes and behaviour, which is explored in the subsequent hypotheses.

Hypothesis 12 (6a): Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness mediates the relationship between the utilitarian function of attitude and action.

To test this hypothesis, it was first necessary that the utilitarian function of attitude is connected to ALCR, that the utilitarian function of attitude is connected to action, and that ALCR is connected to action. Since all these prerequisites were met, the mediating effect of ALCR in the effect of the utility function of attitude on the action could be investigated. The indirect effect of utility on action through ALCR was registered as significant, indicating a mediating effect. Furthermore, the indirect effect of utility on action was stronger compared to the direct effect, since the standardized regression coefficient of the former was β = .249, compared to the latter of β = .11. Therefore, while there is a portion of the utilitarian function of attitude that is not mediated by ALCR, a larger part is. Therefore, ALCR can be seen as the intermediate between the utilitarian function of attitude and the actual behaviour.

Hypothesis 13 (7a): Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness mediates the relationship between the social-adjustive function of attitude and action.

To test this hypothesis, it was first necessary that the social adjustive function of attitude is connected to ALCR, that the social adjustive function of attitude is connected to action, and that ALCR is connected to action. Since all prerequisites were met, the mediating effect of ALCR in the effect of the social adjustive function of attitude on the action could be investigated. The indirect effect of social adjustment on the action through ALCR was registered as significant, indicating a mediating effect. Furthermore, the indirect effect of social adjustment on the action was stronger compared to the direct effect, since the standardized regression coefficient of the former was β = .197, in compared to the latter of β = .081. Therefore, while there is a portion of the social adjustment function of attitude that is not mediated by ALCR, a larger part is. Therefore, ALCR can be seen as the intermediate between the social adjustment function of attitude and the actual behaviour.

Hypothesis 14 (8a): Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness mediates the relationship between the value-expressive function of attitude and action.

To test this hypothesis, it was first necessary that the value expressive function of attitude is connected to ALCR, that the value expressive function of attitude is connected to action, and that ALCR is connected to action. Since all these prerequisites were met, the mediating effect of ALCR in the effect of the value expressive function of attitude on the action could be investigated. The indirect effect of the value expressive function of attitude on the action through ALCR was registered as significant, indicating a mediating effect. Furthermore, the indirect effect of value expression on action was stronger compared to the direct effect, since the standardized regression coefficient of the former was $\beta = .175$, compared to the latter of $\beta = .095$. Therefore, while there is a portion of the value expressive function of attitude that is not mediated by ALCR, a larger part is. Therefore, ALCR can be seen as the intermediate between the value expressive function of attitude and the actual behaviour.

Hypothesis 15 (9a): Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness mediates the relationship between the ego-defensive function of attitude and action.

To test this hypothesis, it was first necessary that the ego-defensive function of attitude is connected to ALCR, that the ego-defensive function of attitude is connected to action, and that ALCR is connected to action. Since all prerequisites were met, the mediating effect of ALCR in the effect of the ego-defensive function of attitude on the action could be investigated. The indirect effect of ego-defensive on action through ALCR was registered as significant, indicating a mediating effect. Furthermore, the indirect effect of ego-defensive on action was indirectly stronger compared to the direct effect, since the standardized regression coefficient of the former was β = .206, compared to the latter (β = .09. Therefore, while there is a portion of the ego-defensive function of attitude that is not mediated by ALCR, a larger part is. Therefore, ALCR can be seen as the intermediate between the ego-defensive function of attitude and the actual behaviour.

Hypothesis 16 (10a): Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness mediates the relationship between the epistemic function of attitude and action.

While previous mediation analyses had all the prerequisites of the analysis of mediation met, this one did not. Since there was no connection between the epistemic function of attitude and action, it was impossible for there to be a mediating effect. Therefore, the complete effect of the epistemic function of attitude on alternative luxury consumption is direct.

6.3.2 Differentiation between ALCR and related constructs

One of the most important domains of construct creation is the difference in a construct in relation to other, potentially similar, constructs. Thus, ALCR was compared with two other constructs with which it shared the wide domain of interest: counterfeit proneness (Sharm and Chan, 2011) and brand luxury index (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004). The first thing compared across the three models was the fit indices of CFA. This criterion flavoured ALCR, as multiple indices showed better fit of data to ALCR, compared to counterfeit proneness and brand luxury index.

This may partly be due to the population that the other two constructs were created from, which are different from the population of this study. Furthermore, the discriminant validity of the two instruments in relation to ALCR was investigated, and it was shown that the correlations are moderate to strong, which was expected. As the constructs are similar, this proves that there is a satisfactory degree of overlap, while also retaining a significant degree of variance that is not shared. Furthermore, as has been explored earlier, there are very significant theoretical differences between ALCR and these two constructs. Therefore, ALCR is a stand-alone construct that has important theoretical and practical implications, which will be discussed as part of the conclusion chapter.

6.3.3 Summary

In summary, the hypothesis tests show a very clear picture, which can be observed ‘from left to right’ (as in Figure 11). On the left, there are the antecedents of any kind of behaviour, the attitudes. As Ajzen (1991) first postulated, attitudes are the building block of behaviour, and as Katz (1960) showed, the five functions of attitude indicate the underlying psychological motivation behind attitudes, the reasons certain attitudes are held in the first place. In this study, the attitude toward alternative luxury was successfully described through the five functions of attitude with expectancy being a key aspect of them. Four out of the five successfully and directly predicted action, thus showing that attitudes are a critical factor in the actual consumption of alternative luxury.

Moving toward the right of the Figure, the relationships between attitude functions with ALCR can be discussed. Four of five functions of attitude showed positive predictive power of ALCR, indicating that ALCR captured these functions of attitude within itself. This is also in line with Ajzen (1991), Perugini and Bagozzi (2001), and Kruglanski *et al.* (2015) because it shows the close connection between attitudes and goals. Various functions of attitudes toward alternative luxury are closely related to ALCR, which was theoretically expected and necessary.

Therefore, ALCR succeeded in embodying the complex dimensions of attitudes within a single construct. A weak point of ALCR is that the epistemic function of attitude toward alternative luxury was not captured within the construct. A future modification of the scale and construct may be done to capture this aspect of attitude as well since it does have a relationship with the action that is as strong as those of the other functions.

In the centre of the figure, we see ALCR, with its five dimensions, which fit very well. Furthermore, it may be noted here that ALCR was shown to be significantly different from both counterfeit proneness (Sharm and Chan, 2011) and brand luxury index (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004), two similar but also very distinct previously existing concepts in the literature. Therefore, ALCR is a promising new construct, which has a scale with excellent reliability and validity.

Moving further to the right of the picture, we can investigate the relationship between ALCR and behaviour. In line with expectations and as a proof of the validity of ALCR, it can be noted that it has a strong, positive predictive power on alternative luxury action, much stronger than any attitude function. Furthermore, it was found to be a mediator of the relationships between the four attitude functions with action. Highlighting its importance, the indirect effects of the attitude functions on the action were all approximately twice as strong as the direct effects.

This indicates a rather important and impactful effect of mediation. The mediation effect supports the validity of both the ALCR model and the theories that it is based on. As was expected from the theory of Kruglanski *et al.* (2015), the goals are the intermediate step of the utmost importance between attitudes and behaviour. As the goal of the construction of ALCR was to encapsulate goals, attitudes, and behavioural control, it may be concluded that this was done successfully.

In further summary of this chapter and, indeed, of the study as a whole, it is posited that the work can make an important theoretical contribution to the field as well as fill a gap in existing knowledge. As described, work in this field has, before this work, been somewhat fragmented and has tended to focus on one area of counterfeit luxury and/or on one aspect of attitude/behaviour. There may have been valid reasons for this, for example, the dominance of counterfeit luxury, but as has been shown, two other forms have gained considerable traction and should, therefore, necessarily be included. A similar and at least equally important point can be made about the inclusion of all the five functions of attitude along the importance of expectancy and readiness. Recognizing this meant the development of a superordinate and multidimensional scale that is inclusive and holistic. It uniquely allows for the proportionate inclusion of the main antecedents of behaviour that are directed toward traditional inclinations for the consumption of luxury.

Seen in this light, and as previously noted, this work therefore represents an important and evolutionary step forward in our understanding of alternative luxury. It shows, for the first time, that the antecedents of behaviour manifested in the consumption among lower income groups of counterfeit, second-hand and rented luxury are so aligned that they can and should be researched as one superordinate construct, even though material differences exist between each of the three forms of alternative luxury (second-hand, counterfeit and rented). Against this background, the present study can become a theoretical basis from which further work exploring alternative luxury can be developed.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction

This study investigated the concept of alternative luxury consumption among young people in a low-income segment in Nigeria. The construct of Alternative Luxury Consumption Readiness (ALCR) was created and validated through both qualitative and quantitative investigations. This chapter will present the most important theoretical and practical implications of the study findings. Furthermore, it will show the main limitations of the study, as well as the potential directions for future studies in the area.

7.2 Theoretical implications

Three objectives for this study were established in Chapter 1 these were

- To study the alternative luxury concept and theories associated with it
- To bring together a range of theories in the field of human behaviour associated with alternative luxury consumption.
- To align the theories with the three dimensions of alternative luxury consumption and from this alignment to develop an alternative luxury consumption readiness construct.

With regard the first two objectives, the most important theoretical implication of this study is its holistic and integrated approach to the three forms of alternative luxury consumption (second-hand, counterfeit and rented), which moves beyond the currently fragmented nature of work in this field. As noted above (see sections 2.1.2 and 2.1.3) existing literature typically focuses on counterfeit luxury, with a relatively small strand focused on reuse and rental, both in terms of broader approaches and those that concentrate on attitudes. An implication that can be drawn from such approaches is that the behaviour only has relevance in a single dimension of alternative luxury, while this study encompasses an inclination toward all three types. This allows for a broader, more inclusive and holistic perception of alternative luxury. Current practice, furthermore, appears to grossly undermine the significance of commonalities in the consumption outcomes of luxury by the low-income segment.

For this segment, the desired end goal is a critical rationale for indulgence and utility; hence, a need to understand this process because of its significant symbolic value erosion of the mainstream luxury market in an emerging market, where the future growth of authentic luxury potentially lies. The study is thus a critical steppingstone in the study of alternative luxury as it provides a cohesive construct capturing the three main ways in which alternative luxury is consumed (second-hand, counterfeit and rented). Thus, it filled a large gap in the literature, which was mainly based on individualized research on the three ways of consuming alternative luxury.

Concerning the third objective, this work reinforces the link between attitudes and behaviours and how they explain alternative luxury consumption behaviour. The functional theory of attitudes (Katz, 1960) has been demonstrated as very relevant and applicable in the domain of alternative luxury, particularly with the inclusion of and emphasis on expectancy as a key dimension in overcoming limitations in the original concept. As found, four of the five functions of attitude toward alternative luxury successfully predicted the buying, using, recommending, promoting, and justifying of alternative luxury.

Furthermore, it showed a cohesive merger of Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (1991) and its subsequent extensions by Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) and

Kruglanski *et al.* (2015), and their cumulative success in predicting behaviour in this domain. Furthermore, it expanded upon previous constructs that encompassed the link between alternative luxury attitudes and behaviour, such as counterfeit proneness (Sharm and Chan, 2011) and brand luxury index (Vigneron and Johnson, 2004).

Four research questions were also set out in Chapter 1 and these were:

1. What does alternative luxury consumption mean for the low-income segment?
2. Which of the different attitude functions is the best predictor of alternative luxury readiness?
3. How does each attitude function explain the alternative luxury behaviour?
4. Does alternative luxury readiness mediate the effect of the functions of attitude on alternative luxury behaviour?

Concerning the first research question, the study found that for the low-income segment in Nigeria, alternative luxury consumption was a way of engaging in luxury, it has become achievable something. It can be associated with Veblen's pecuniary emulation, but newly, in a democratized way, it includes the low-income segment in a world that they are otherwise barred from. The fact of the products being second-hand, counterfeit or rented is less important than the fact of being able to conspicuously consume them.

Risks associated with counterfeits are also less important than the associations that can be made, even if they may be more imaginary than real, with a higher social class. A goal must be attainable if it is to be acted upon and alternative luxury provides attainability of goals. It means acceptance and belonging among and within reference groups, it is a way of reinforcing identity, particularly for those that are younger. For this segment of the population, as with others, alternative luxury is consumed on their own terms and within the dictates of their own cultures, societies and social groupings.

Concerning the second research question, the study results suggest that utility is the statistically most significant factor influencing alternative luxury readiness. For the third research question, the utility function allows people from the low-income segment of a population to participate in the culture of luxury without the prerequisite of becoming rich. The social-adjustive function indicates a belief that consuming alternative luxury brings higher levels of social recognition, while the relatively weak positive association with the value-expressive function indicates that although a person’s values may be in line with the use of alternative luxury, it is not a key driver.

The ego-defensive function was found to be the second strongest predictor of ACLR, and this is explicable in terms of feeling confident, being secure, defending feelings of self-worth that are otherwise threatened by the wider society. The finding that the epistemic function does not correlate positively with ACLR is explicable in terms of the social setting of the low-income segment of the Nigerian population is positioned within. This does not require or expect knowledge of alternative luxury, it is immediate and pragmatic, based more on utility, being socially adjustive and ego-defensive. In terms of the fourth research question, it is posited that while there are caveats, alternative luxury readiness does mediate the effect of the functions of attitude on alternative luxury behaviour.

7.3 Managerial implications

Alternative luxury consumption behaviour presents a huge risk to the authentic luxury market because it provides cheaper and non-exclusive access to luxury, which has a significant effect in diminishing the social distinction that luxury provides. By implication, continued growth in alternative luxury will continue to weaken the aspirational meaning of luxury. The original buyers of authentic luxury may find reasons to detach from luxury usage because it is no longer serving its exclusive value of social distinction.

With ALCR as a predictor of this risk in any society, luxury managers can deploy this standardized measurement approach among the low to medium income segment to assess the levels of risk in any (sub) population. Since ALCR is a strong indicator of an individual's disposition to indulge in forms of alternative luxury, it can be a proxy guide on market risk and an effective market opportunity, including possible rates of luxury detachment by the current high-income users. ACLR's core assumption is that the more the percentage of individuals within a population with high ALCR, the higher the risk to the luxury business within the population. This can inform effective mitigating actions. The instrument may also be used to measure the effects of interventions, for example, by comparing scores before and after a change in marketing strategies aimed at decreasing the consumption of a specific alternative luxury channel.

ALCR is also well predicted by four attitude functions, which means that luxury managers can also understand the specific attitude change approach that will reduce the actual behaviour. Luxury managers can explore how to build effective attitude-based marketing communication to change the disposition of low-income segment to alternative luxury. On a positive note, ACLR can support the mass luxury approach of luxury brands that seek to preserve value by providing affordable luxury brands to the low-to-medium income segment. Although sparingly used by luxury brands, the concept of 'masstige,' has been presented and supported in many papers within the industry.

As Eight Luxury Marketing (2017) points out, masstige brands is potentially attractive to lower income segments based on important aspects of differentiation (such as aesthetics and extraordinariness) while still retaining the attractiveness of their higher end luxury products. Granot, Russell and Brashear-Alejandro (2013, p. 31) use the term 'populence, 'defining it as "a category of new luxury goods and services with a wide target audience." Pietrzak (2019, p. 1) cites "dramatic changes" that are likely to result in luxury losing its "elitist and exclusive character" while Prokopek (2014) warns that unless they can find the right path between exclusivity and massification, brand equity will be lost in the luxury industry.

This study supports such warnings and has shown that the most important predictor of the alternative luxury consumption seems to be the utilitarian function, which provides consumers with a way to enjoy luxury products without paying the price usually associated with them. Therefore, brands can become more strategic in how they penetrate emerging markets like Nigeria and other African countries by creating a mass version of their popular brands through luxury brand extension (masstige or populence), following a path led by luxury brands such as Coach, H&M and Victoria`s Secret. However, these practices, of down-trading, also come with a huge risk, which must also be evaluated side by side with the benefits of serving the mass market. It is proposed that ACLR can be an important tool in seeking to mitigate those risks.

The results of this study provide some insights into possible ways for authentic luxury management to intervene and decrease alternative luxury consumption. The fact that utility and ego-defensive functions were most important and that there was a direct association between the epistemic function and action suggest four possible paths.

7.4 Limitations and future research directions

The first limitation of this study is in the segment which was studied. While studying only the young, lower-income people from Nigeria, the study conclusions may only be generalized to this population. Furthermore, the ALCR scale may, for now, only be validly and reliably used for this population, as it has not been standardized on others. This is simultaneously the first recommendation for future studies, using ALCR and validating the model's stability on other populations, including those of different ages, income levels, and places of living. This is particularly relevant, as the literature review has revealed how these variables can affect findings.

Associated with this argument, is the second limitation that is that the study did not investigate the potential differences between ALCR and other study constructs in terms of age or gender. Although this was not the goal of the study, it would be informative and important to understand such differences if they exist. Thus, future studies may wish to investigate ALCR on larger heterogeneous populations to understand the differences among various groups that may exist. Additionally, there is a lack of moderators that increase ALCR and the effects of ALCR to action (Kruglanski et al., 2014).

Future studies will consider moderators like age, gender and lifestyle profile as these variations may explain the rejection noted in the study. Additionally, examining moderating variables like Income Level, Age, Generation, Cultural Differences, and Fashion Innovativeness can provide valuable insights into the complexities of alternative luxury consumption behavior.

By offering these suggestions, the research can contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the factors influencing consumers' readiness for alternative luxury consumption and their subsequent actions. Moreover, it can help marketers develop targeted strategies for the luxury industry and address the evolving preferences of consumers.

The third limitation of the study is the fact that ALCR does not encompass the epistemic function of attitudes, while the function does have a relationship with alternative luxury consumption. Future versions of the instrument should be updated in such a manner to also incorporate this domain of attitudes toward alternative luxury, as it is clearly relevant.

Three methodological limitations can also be identified. The first is concerned with incremental validity – although ALCR has provided a new vista of an integrated measurement scale for alternative luxury consumption, its incremental validity was not established in this study because the study was unable to determine whether the scale will increase and go above and beyond the predictive ability of what is currently obtainable.

The second concerns test-retest reliability – while this is critical to ensure the stability of a construct based on the consistency of its measurement, ACLR was not tested to establish if the construct will remain unchanged when measured against the same group of individuals at different times. The study was unable to determine whether ACLR would stay constant if measured again on the sample at another time, such as 3 or 6 months hence. This would require a cohort-based group tested at a different time to establish the degree of correlation in their responses to the same concept of ALCR.

The third methodological limitation is known group validity tests, which are important in establishing the degree of construct validity based on how ALCR can distinguish between individuals known to have the inclination to use alternative luxury and a group that does not have it. This could not be established in the study.

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Appendix

Research Consent Form

CONSENT FORM FOR PhD RESEARCH - Alternative Luxury Consumption in Nigeria

Dear Sir/ Dear Ma'am, Thank you for agreeing to participate in my doctoral research. Please see below the consent approval questions.

1. Please confirm that you have read and understood the information sheet for the study, and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask questions?

Yes/ No

2. Please confirm that you agree that I have clearly explained the purpose, principles and procedures of the study and any possible risks involved?

Yes/No

3. Please confirm that you are kindly aware that the study will involve discussing in a focus group/ filling a questionnaire at your convenience?

Yes/No

4. Please confirm that you kindly understand that your participation is voluntary and that you are free to withdraw from the study via email without giving a reason?

Yes/No

5. Please confirm that you kindly understand how the data collected will be recorded, used and stored and who will have access to it?

Yes/No

6. Please confirm that you agree to take part in the study.

Yes/No

7. Please confirm that you know you can withdraw by refusing to fill the questionnaire via email.

Yes/No

8. Please confirm that I have your agreement to use the data collected up to that point, should you want to withdraw from the project (via email).

Yes/No

9. Please confirm that I am authorized to use the data and analysis from the interview for my research with a cover of anonymity for you.(except where agreed otherwise in writing and by mutual consent)

Yes/No

The information shared will be used as anonymous in accordance with the data protection laws.

If you have any questions about this study, please contact

Olubayo Adekanmbi at Olubayo.adekanmbi@cass.city.ac.uk

Focus Group Discussion Guide on Alternative Luxury Consumption (Replica, Reuse and Rental) among low-income Nigerians

This guide represents the general order of points to be used during the discussion. Other necessary points may be introduced during the course of discussion.

INTRODUCTION (5 MINS)
• Moderator introduces self, defines the rules around FGDs and role of note-taking • Explain the purpose of the interview, the confidentiality of responses, reasons for audio recording and anonymous identity of respondents. • Encourage respondents to express themselves without fear. • Explain that there are no wrong or right answers; hence freedom of expression is encouraged. • Ask respondents to switch off their cell phones or put it on silent/vibration as it interferes with recording and makes sessions last longer.
ICE BREAKER (3 MINS)
• Ask respondents to introduce self: Name, age, occupation, marital status (if applicable) and leisure. • What do you do for fun and how do you relax? • If you could create an imaginary life, what kind of life would you want to have?
UNDERSTANDING OF LUXURY BRANDS
• What types of products do you use? • If you were to classify products, how would you classify them? *Probe for luxury and non-luxury products.* • What do you understand by the term "luxury products"? *Probe fully.* • What do you consider as luxury products? • *For luxury products, ask:* in your opinion, what types of products are luxury products/Can you give me some examples of luxury products? *Probe for: fashion dresses, perfumes, jewelry, exotic cars, premium hotels, wrist watches, etc.* • Why do you consider these products to be luxuries?

- *For non-luxury products, ask:* what types of products are non-luxury products?
- Why do you consider these products to be non-luxury products?
- What is the difference between luxury and non-luxury products?
- What do you understand by the term “luxury brand”? *Probe fully.*
- What brands do you consider to be non- luxury brands? Why?
- What brands do you consider to be luxury brands?
- *If not mentioned, probe for:* Gucci, Bvlgari, Louis Vuitton, Hermes, Cartier, Dior, Rolex, Prada, Fendi, Channel and Burberry
- *For luxury brands, ask:* How did you get to know about these brands?
- *For each brand mentioned, say:* What do you know about this brand?
- What would you say is the difference between a luxury product and a non-luxury product? Why do you say so? *Probe*
- If you were to buy luxury items, what brand(s) would you consider buying? Why?

USAGE BEHAVIOUR

- In what situation would you buy or use a luxury brands? Why? *Probe fully for reasons for behaviour?*
- *Moderator say:* please tell me about your experience getting these luxury items?
- *Are there instances where you will just have to buy the original?* In what situation?
- Probe deeply if their past usage behaviour was by *buying original, buying fake, buying used ones or renting for one-off or occasional uses .*
- *For each access occasion, ask:* why would you buy original/ fake/buy used item/rent luxury products?
- *Moderator encourage the participant to share a true life story in that regard.*

USE OF COUNTERFEIT, REUSE OR RENTAL LUXURY PRODUCTS

- Are you aware of counterfeit, reuse and rental luxury brands? By counterfeit I mean the exact replica or what we like to call *China or fake* in Nigeria. Reuse is what we often call *Tokunbo*.
- *If aware, ask:* how did you get to know about it? *Probe for sources of awareness of each of the three options (Replica, Rental and Reuse)*
- Do you use counterfeit, reuse and rental luxury brands? *Probe*

- *If yes, say:* why do you use these alternative luxury products? *Probe fully*
- How often do you use these alternative luxury products? *Probe for occasion and circumstance each type of alternative is used, i.e. counterfeit/fake, used or rented*
- What motivates you to use alternative (counterfeit, reuse and rental) luxury brands?
- What is the first thing that goes through your mind when you use alternative luxury products (counterfeit, reuse and rental)? Why? *Probe for feelings, emotional connection ,personal meaning etc.*
- How do you think the people you respect or admire would react if they knew you that you use alternative luxury - counterfeit, reuse and rental?
- Would you be willing or free to tell someone that you use alternative luxury - counterfeit, reuse and rental? Why do you say so?
- Some people think that using alternative luxury (counterfeit, reuse and rental) is illegal, while some see it a smart way to get the good things of life. Please tell me what you think about the use of alternative luxury. Why?
- Do you think your usage of luxury brands has any impact on those who buy original brands? Why do you say so? *Probe fully*
- Do you often have some bad or negative feeling when you use alternative luxury brands (counterfeit, reuse and rental)? *Probe for feeling of guilt, regret, etc.*
- Have you ever regretted using alternative luxury (counterfeit, reuse and rental)? Why? *Probe fully.*
- Do you think people can easily tell them apart? Luxury and the alternative (counterfeit, reuse and rental)? Why do you say so?

BANDWAGON, SOCIAL PRESSURE AND PECUNIARY EMULATION

- Please tell me, what makes you go for an alternative luxury item (counterfeit, reuse and rental)? *Probe for influence from friends, celebrities (idols), media, social media movies, things you see/hear around, etc. Ascertain reasons thereof.*
- *If influence by someone for instance, ask:* What is it about this person? What did this person say or do to make you go for an alternative luxury item - counterfeit, reuse and rental? *Probe fully*
- Do you do it because you want to be accepted into certain social groups for instance?
- Discuss the role or media and social media with specific interest in how general media influence their knowledge, awareness, interest and usage of alternative

luxury. Prompt with some of the examples below:

- Local movies e.g. Nigerian Yoruba movie titled Gucci Lomo
- Gossip Blogs on Nigerian celebrities who use counterfeit luxury
- Probe for second-hand postings on Jiji.ng, rental luxury websites, Instagram postings etc.

LUXURY BRANDS AND SELF-CONCEPT

- When you use a luxury brand, what do you imagine other people are thinking about you? *Probe*
- How do you feel when you notice people see you with a luxury brand?
- And how do you feel when you see others with luxury brands? *Probe for envy, desire to get same, desire to be like others etc.*
- How do you portray or carry yourself when you use luxury brands? *Probe for: making people know you are wearing a luxury or not.*
- *For each, ask:* why is it important to you? *Probe*
- What does the usage of a luxury product do for you? *If not mentioned, probe for helping to fit into a group, boosts self-esteem, acceptance, win respect etc.*

IDENTITY FORMATION AND EXTENDED SELF

- What impact does using luxury products have on how you see yourself? How?
- Do alternative luxury that is fake, rented or second-hand also have the same impact? *If yes, ask:* how so?
- How does buying luxury brands tell who you are?
- Does the use of the fake (alternative luxury) change who you are or how you feel about yourself?

ROLE OF ALTERNATIVE LUXURY – *Counterfeit, Reuse and Rental*

- What do alternative luxury items do for you?
    - Probe for its impact in - the kind of person I see myself to be; how to communicate my self better; help to me express myself; help me define myself or a symbol of social status;
- Is there any disadvantage to using luxury items? Why do you say so?

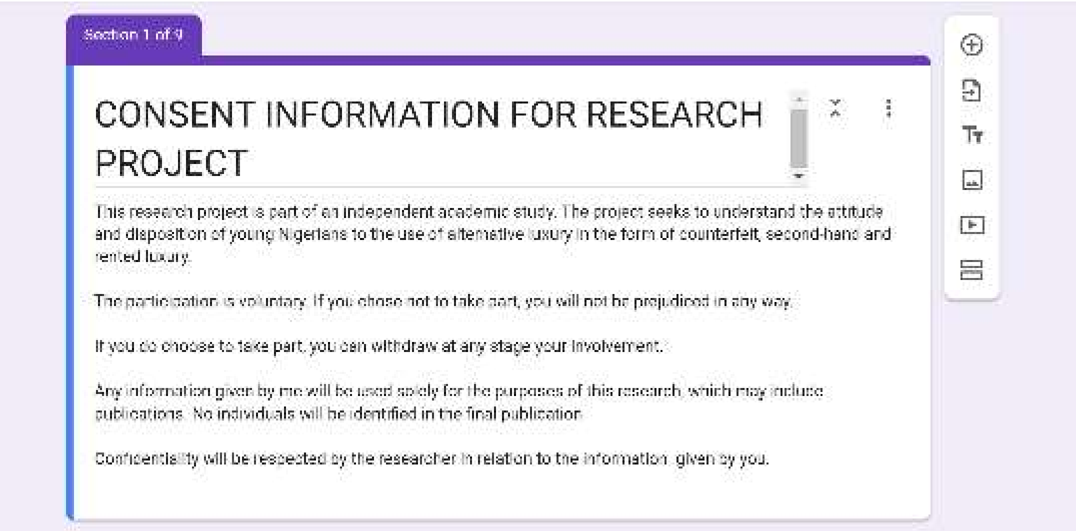
• *If there are disadvantages, say:* so why do you still use them?
LIKELY FUTURE PURCHASE
• Do you see yourself buying luxury brands in the near future?/Can anything make you buy original luxury brands in the near future? • Assuming you woke up tomorrow rich (with more money than you have now) do you think you will buy such original luxury item? Why/why not? • What do you think of low-income earners who save to buy (original) luxury brands? *Probe fully.* • Why do you think they buy such? *Probe fully*
CLOSING REMARK
• Anything you will like to add to the discussion before we wrap up? • Probe fully.

VISUAL REFERENCES FROM NIGERIAN MOVIES AND NEWS


Linda Ikeji's
Hermès
Purses are
FAKE???


D&G
PRINCE
I WAS THERE

SURVEY QUESTIONAIRE


Section 1 of 9

CONSENT INFORMATION FOR RESEARCH PROJECT

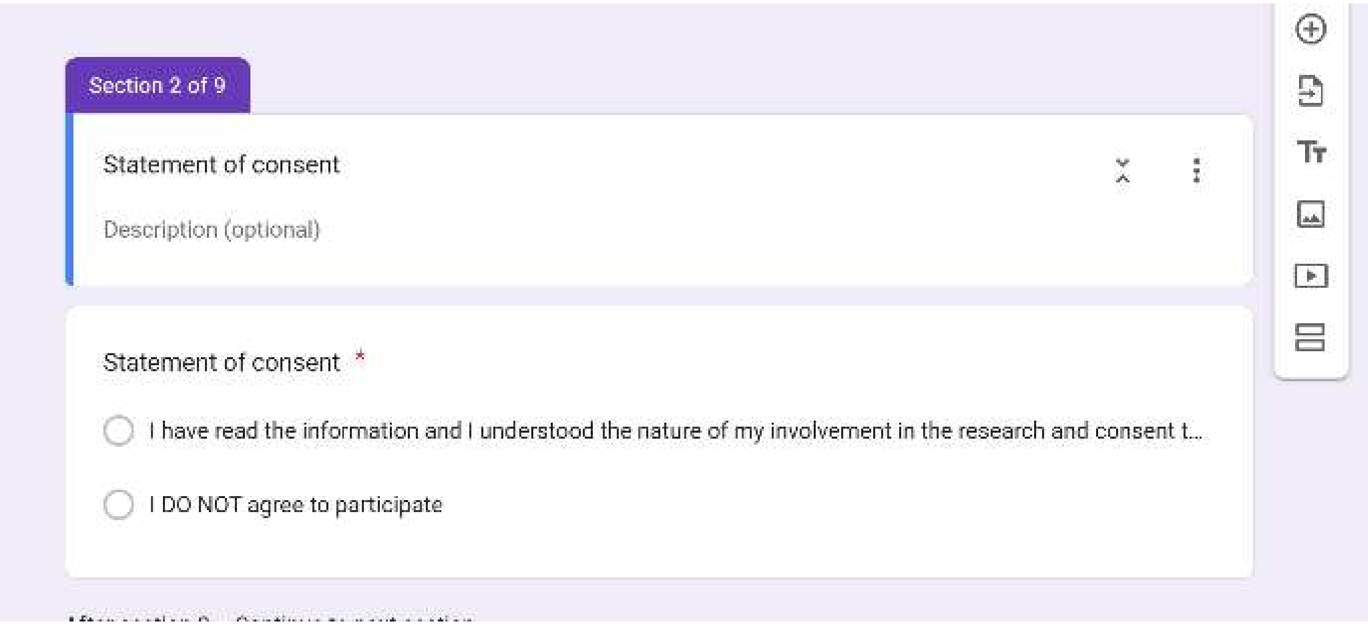
This research project is part of an independent academic study. The project seeks to understand the attitude and disposition of young Nigerians to the use of alternative luxury in the form of counterfeit, second-hand and rented luxury.

The participation is voluntary. If you chose not to take part, you will not be prejudiced in any way.

If you do choose to take part, you can withdraw at any stage your involvement.

Any information given by me will be used solely for the purposes of this research, which may include publications. No individuals will be identified in the final publication.

Confidentiality will be respected by the researcher in relation to the information given by you.


Section 2 of 9

Statement of consent

Description (optional)

Statement of consent *

I have read the information and I understood the nature of my involvement in the research and consent t...

I DO NOT agree to participate

CONSENT INFORMATION FOR RESEARCH PROJECT

This research project is part of an independent academic study. The project seeks to understand the attitude and disposition of young Nigerians to the use of alternative luxury in the form of counterfeit, second-hand and rented luxury.

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Statement of consent

- I have read the information and I understood the nature of my involvement in the research and consent to participate in the study.
- I do not wish to participate

Thank you.

SCREENING QUESTION:

1. Age (*Please state your answer by marking with **X** in the relevant box; if you choose ''less than 18'' or ''more than 44'' do not continue with the questionnaire*).	
[1] Less than 18 [3] 25 -34 [5] More than 44	[2] 18-24 [4] 35-44
2. I want to confirm if you are familiar with luxury brands and their alternative versions in form of counterfeit, second-hand and rented luxury in Nigeria. Please confirm if you have heard of any of these, below. (*Please state your answer by marking with **X** in the relevant box; if you choose "**None of the***	

above" *do not continue with the questionnaire*).	
[1] Louis Vuitton, Gucci, Prada, or Chanel	[2] Bend Down Boutique
[3] Akube shops	[4] Rental shop
[5] Fake Designer products	[6] China fake
[7] Okrika/Katangowa Designer	[8] Lugaya store
[9] Lagos Rent A Dress	[10] Wedding Gown Rental
[11] None of the above	
3. Please select an option (*if you choose "**I am not aware of any of the luxury brands above"** do not continue with the questionnaire*).	
[1] I am aware of some/all the luxury brands above and marked my choices.	[2]I am NOT aware of any of the luxury brands above
4. Have you have used any of the alternative luxury brands at any time? (*Please state your answer by marking with **X** in the relevant box; if you choose "**No"** do not continue with the questionnaire*).	
[1] Yes	[2] No

5. Personal earning per day		
[1] Under N500 ($1)	[2] N500-N999 ($1-2)	[3] Above $2 (above N1,000)

SECTION A: PERSONAL INFORMATION

(*Please state your answer by marking with **X** in the relevant box*)

SA 1: State your gender		
[1] Male	[2] Female	[3] Prefer not to say
SA 2: Marital status		
[1] Single	[2] Married	[3] Divorced
[4] Widowed	[5] Separated	[6] Prefer not to say
SA 3: Level of Education		
[1] Primary	[2] Secondary	[3] Graduate
[4] Postgraduate	[5] Prefer not to say	

	SA 4 General Attitude to life	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agre e**	**Strongly Agree**

1	Financial security is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5
2	Everything is changing too fast today	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am certainly more conventional than experimental	1	2	3	4	5
4	I like to try new and different things	1	2	3	4	5
5	I'd say I'm rebelling against the way I was brought up	1	2	3	4	5
6	I'm a ''spender'' rather than a ''saver''	1	2	3	4	5
7	My social status is an important part of my life	1	2	3	4	5
8	I act on my instinct	1	2	3	4	5
9	It's very important for me to feel I'm part of a group	1	2	3	4	5
10	Overall, I'd say I'm very happy	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION B(i): Please rate your agreement with the following statements (State your answer by marking with **X** in the relevant box).

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	There is nothing special about luxury brands, they are just like any other common brand.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I think luxury brands are just as good as most other common brands.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I do not consider luxury brands to have a good value-for-money.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Luxury brands are a meaningful symbol of social status.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Using luxury brands helps me fit in with people in my desired social class.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Luxury brands help me make a good impression on others.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Luxury brands reflect the kind of person I see myself as.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Luxury brands helps me communicate my self-identity to	1	2	3	4	5

	others.					
9	Luxury brands help me define my personality.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Luxury brands help me express myself.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Using luxury brands enhances my self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Using luxury brands boosts my self-confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Using luxury brands protects my self-image.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I feel proud when using luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I would buy a luxury brand because I wanted to know more about it.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Using luxury brands shows others that I know a lot about luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I can distinguish between a genuine and a fake luxury brand item.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I am quite knowledgeable about luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I want to be like the people I admire.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I often compare how I am doing with how my loved ones (boy or girlfriend, family members etc.) are doing.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Sometimes I buy a product because my friends buy it.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I have experience purchasing products to match people around me.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I tend to buy products because I want to share the lifestyle of mainstream groups.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I intentionally buy or use alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand).	1	2	3	4	5
25	I have no hesitation in buying an alternative luxury product (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand).	1	2	3	4	5
26	I am willing to buy and use alternative luxury products that are counterfeit, rented, or second-hand.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I buy and use alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand) in order to achieve important personal goals.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Buying alternative luxury products (counterfeit, rental, or second-hand products) is entirely within my control.	1	2	3	4	5

29	I think buying alternative luxury products is morally right.	1	2	3	4	5
30	It is okay to buy or use alternative luxury products if I cannot afford the purchase price of the original product.	1	2	3	4	5
31	It is okay to buy or use alternative luxury because the luxury company could afford the tiny amount of loss from just one counterfeit product.	1	2	3	4	5
32	It is okay to buy counterfeit luxury goods because hardly anyone has been caught or punished.	1	2	3	4	5
33	It is not my fault if I buy or use alternative luxury products because the prices of authentic luxury products are too high.	1	2	3	4	5
34	Luxury brands appropriately showcases my identity to others.	1	2	3	4	5
35	Products say something to people around me when I buy a high-priced brand.	1	2	3	4	5
36	I buy and use alternative luxury products because I want to show others that I am wealthy.	1	2	3	4	5
37	I show my friends that I am different by choosing to buy or use alternative luxury products.	1	2	3	4	5
38	I choose alternative luxury products to create my own style that everybody admires.	1	2	3	4	5
39	I enjoy taking chances in buying different alternative luxury products to get some variety in my purchases.	1	2	3	4	5
40	I like to shop around for different types of alternative luxury brands just out of curiosity.	1	2	3	4	5
41	Buying and using alternative luxury products makes me feel like I am free to try new things.	1	2	3	4	5
42	I easily switch between any of the three forms of alternative luxury products (counterfeit, second-hand, or rental).	1	2	3	4	5
43	I buy alternative luxury brands, either in form of counterfeit, second-hand or rental products.	1	2	3	4	5
44	I regularly use alternative luxury brands, either in form of counterfeit, second-hand, or rental products.	1	2	3	4	5

45	I recommend that friend or relatives buy and use alternative luxury brands, either in form of counterfeit, second-hand, or rental products.	1	2	3	4	5
46	I say positive things about alternative luxury brands.	1	2	3	4	5
47	I do not feel ashamed when people around me know that I am using any form of alternative luxury brands	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION B(ii) Please rate your agreement with the following statements (State your answer by marking with **X** in the relevant box).

	Ideas on alternative luxury	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
1	Buying counterfeit product makes me feel good	1	2	3	4	5
2	I feel excited when buying counterfeit products	1	2	3	4	5
3	I enjoy buying counterfeit products regardless of the amount I save by doing so	1	2	3	4	5
4	I frequently use counterfeit products	1	2	3	4	5
5	Many of the branded products that are use are counterfeit products	1	2	3	4	5
6	I do not mind spending considerable efforts looking for counterfeit product	1	2	3	4	5
7	When I buy counterfeit products, I feel that I'm getting a good deal	1	2	3	4	5
8	I never even think about buying counterfeit products	1	2	3	4	5
9	Counterfeit products make it possible for me to own brands that I normally would not buy	1	2	3	4	5
10	I do not feel embarrassed using counterfeit products in front of others	1	2	3	4	5
11	Buying a counterfeit product is not morally wrong	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION B(iii) Please rate your agreement with the following statements (State your answer by marking with **X** in the relevant box).

	Luxury Brand Meaning	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neither agree nor disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
1	It is something that is very noticeable for everyone to see	1	2	3	4	5
2	It is something that is only for a special class of people	1	2	3	4	5
3	It is something that is extremely expensive	1	2	3	4	5
4	It is very exclusive and for only limited people	1	2	3	4	5
5	It is something that is very valuable	1	2	3	4	5
6	It must be very uncommon	1	2	3	4	5
7	It must be very unusual	1	2	3	4	5
8	It must be specially manufactured	1	2	3	4	5
9	It must be very luxurious	1	2	3	4	5
10	It must have good quality	1	2	3	4	5
11	It must be original	1	2	3	4	5
12	It must be better than others	1	2	3	4	5
13	It must be tasteful to me	1	2	3	4	5
14	It must be glamorous to me	1	2	3	4	5
15	It must be memorable to me	1	2	3	4	5
16	It must make me feel influential	1	2	3	4	5
17	It must make me feel fairly powerful	1	2	3	4	5
18	It must make me feel pleasing	1	2	3	4	5
19	It must make we feel well regarded	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your time.