

I WANT IT ALL AND I WANT IT NOW. MOTIVATIONS OF COUNTERFEIT LUXURY CONSUMPTION AMONG AFFLUENT CONSUMERS.

Author

Julia Pueschel DRM, CNRS, Université Paris-Dauphine, PSL Research University, 75016 Paris,
Julia.pueschel@gmail.com

Abstract

This research investigates the motivations of counterfeit luxury consumption in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries. Using a Means-End-Chain approach, this research uncovers four dominant motivational patterns and complexities that drive affluent GCC consumers to purchase counterfeit luxury products: Value-Consciousness, Belonging, Hedonism and Self-esteem. Luxury brands and policy makers could use these main hidden final values to gain a holistic understanding of consumer motivations and develop stronger anti-counterfeiting strategies to discourage counterfeit consumption.

Keywords: Counterfeiting; Luxury brand; Means-end chain; GCC consumers

Introduction

Counterfeiting has grown drastically in the recent years and could reach the global economic value from US \$ 1.7 Trillion in 2015 to US \$ 2.3 trillion in 2022 (International Trademark Association (INTA) and the International Chamber of Commerce). INTA holds counterfeiting responsible for the loss of US \$4.2 trillion from the global economy and puts 5.4 million legitimate jobs at risk. Luxury brand manufacturers are concerned about not only losses in revenues but also the damage made to brands most valuable assets such as brand perceptions and reputation (Bian et al., 2016; Kapferer & Michaut, 2014). Taking into consideration the rapid growth of the counterfeit market it appears that anti-counterfeiting measures haven't produced useful results.

Given the consequences of counterfeiting and the dependence of the market on consumers desire for counterfeits, it is crucial to analyze why consumers actually knowingly purchase counterfeit products, despite social, economic or physical risks attached to them (Amaral & Loken, 2016; Bian et al., 2016; Pueschel et al., 2017; Rosenbaum, Cheng, & Wong, 2016).

Research about drivers of counterfeit consumption has grown in the past decade with more academics attempting to identify motivation, antecedents of motivations and drivers of such consumption (Bian et al., 2016; De Matos et al., 2007; Eisend & Schuchert-Güler, 2006; Kaufmann et al., 2016).

Studies about counterfeit consumption are mostly conducted in Western and Asian contexts (Eisend, 2016; Franses & Lede, 2017). Since counterfeit consumption is contingent on cultural contexts (Eisend & Schuchert-Güler, 2006; Eisend, 2016; Eisend, 2017; Burgess & Steenkamp 2006; Veloutsou & Bian, 2008), it calls for more cultural studies on the subject. The present research examines the local population in the United Arab Emirates. Two main reasons drive this focus. First, the population of UAE is among the most affluent in the world, scoring place 6 in GDP per Capita globally (Worldbank, 2016), so it appears surprising that individuals with sufficient financial means would purchase counterfeits. Hence it is expected that the obvious price advantage of counterfeits is not a primary motivation for consumption. Second, the research on luxury counterfeiting is very scarce in the region (with the exception of Fernandes (2013) and Pueschel et al. (2017)), where a massive accumulation of wealth caused profound changes in the society and values. The central premise of this research is that personal, social, cultural and religious aspects influence consumers' motivations to consume counterfeits (Ronkainen & Guerrero-Cusumano, 2001; Santos & Ribeiro, 2006) that might differ from other countries.

Specifically, the present research adopts a means-end chain analysis method that is appropriate for investigating consumers' motivational patterns (Gutman, 1982; Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). This method is widely used to uncover consumers' covert cognitive structures i.e., the hierarchical constructs that are not instantly clear (Guido, 2014; Lin, 2002; Reynolds et al., 1995; Wansink, 2000). The subsequent chapters are structured to obtain a better

understanding of the research object using the original perspectives derived from different research strategies (Turner, Cardinal, & Burton, 2015). Thereafter, a brief description of the MEC method, data collection and analysis are presented. The study reveals the dominant motivational patterns behind counterfeit luxury consumption and sheds light on motivational complexities faced by consumers. The findings are of major interest for public policy makers and luxury brand managers fighting counterfeiting.

Conceptual background

Counterfeit consumption

Counterfeiting is a significant threat to brand reputation and company's revenues (Kapferer & Michaut, 2014; Wilcox, Kim, & Sen, 2009; Wilke & Zaichkowsky, 1999). Since supply is driven by demand for the goods, numerous studies have focused on the underlying factors that influence demand for counterfeit products. Five main drivers have been identified to influence purchase of counterfeits: product characteristics such as price (Ang, Cheng, Lim & Tambyah, 2001; Bian et al., 2016; Harvey & Walls, 2003; Sharma & Chan, 2011; Staake & Fleisch, 2008; Tom, Garibaldi, Zeng, & Pilcher, 1998) and product attributes (Ang et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2005; Furnham & Valgeirsson, 2007; Wee, Ta, & Cheok, 1995); consumers demographic and psychographic variables (Bian & Veloutsou, 2007; Eisend & Schuchert-Güler, 2006; Jiang and Shan, 2016; Kwong et al., 2003; Rutter & Bryce, 2008; Tan, 2002); mood and situational context (Eisend & Schuchert-Güler, 2006; Gentry et al., 2001); ethical and lawfulness aspect (Cordell et al., 1996; Eisend, 2016; Martinez & Jaeger, 2016; Phau & Teah, 2009) and social and cultural context (Aaker et al. 2001; Trinh, 2014; Wilcox, 2009). Many factors that are considered in the literature as motivation, such as perceived risk, which is a type of perception, are in fact not a motivation itself, but its' antecedent that motivated the individual to avoid risk (Bian et al., 2016). For that reason the current stand advocates for further empirical support of deeper understanding of true motivation for counterfeit consumption (Tang et al., 2014).

Motivations and counterfeit consumption

Motivation signifies "those psychological process that causes the arousal, direction, and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal oriented" (Mitchell, 1982). In general, a motivated person is "moved to do something" (Ryan & Deci, 2000). When a consumer feels the drive, urge or need to acquire a product, he goes shopping. Hence, the motivation is a goal-oriented behavior (Mowen, 1995). In the context of consumer behavior, motivations are a function of many variables, which are not always related to the actual purchase of the products (Tauber, 1972). Consumers don't merely buy products they buy tangible or intangible benefits but are driven by two types of psychosocial motives: personal and social (Tauber, 1972).

When studying the motives of counterfeit consumption, the most referred factor appears to be the price advantage of these goods over their legitimate counterparts (Moore & Dhaliwal, 2004; Wang, 2005). Consumers desire to optimize their resources (Perez et al., 2010) by lowering

acquisition price and evaluating the benefits gained through purchase of a lower priced counterfeit product with attributes of a luxury brand. Some consumers strive to feel the intrinsic pleasure with the financial terms of the purchase transaction (Sharma & Chan 2011) and gain more control over their economic resources (Jirotmontree, 2013). Others desire to increase the number of items they purchase and possess, they perceive those possessions as a route to happiness and social recognition (Moschis & Churchill, 1978; Trinh & Phau, 2012) by projecting the social image that luxury brands convey (Perez et al., 2010).

The motivation to conquer social standing through “impression management” (Goffmann, 1959) or “superficial social adjustment” (Kapferer and Michaut, 2014) is very conventional, and the desire for status is one of the fundamental motives (Amaral & Loken, 2016; Fragile et al., 2011). A social group can influence the consumer behavior in regard to counterfeits in both ways, positive and negative. For example, Ang et al. (2001) found the social norm being a deterrent factor for non- buyers of counterfeits, while consumers of fake goods would be less normative. On the other hand, the acceptance of counterfeits in the group leads to personal acceptance of counterfeits (Phau & Teah, 2009; Tang et al. 2014).

Another critical component in the counterfeit buying process is the variety-seeking which incorporates the desire to seek novelty and variety (Phau & Teah, 2009). Wee et al. (1995) found this type of behavior more characteristic for less expensive products. While desire to be in-vogue and demonstrate the latest trends and “must-have” items (Bian et al., 2016) can enhance the appeal of fake items.

When comparing purchase situation in the home country where the counterfeits are not widely available vs. on holiday, Eisend & Schuchert-Güler (2006) have discovered that in the latter situation, the counterfeit purchases fulfill surplus purposes such as “souvenirs” or “spending the last bit of money”. Furthermore, that being in a holiday mood, consumers are more inclined to engage themselves in counterfeit consumption (Rutter & Bryce, 2008). The buying process of counterfeits, breaking the relevant law can also trigger a “thrill of hunt” (Bian et al., 2016), heighten the sense of fun, augment the experience of adventure and enjoyment (Hamelin et al., 2013). Some consumers may experience a big deal of excitement of fooling others by telling them they would own the original (Perez et al., 2010), others merely desire to try the product (Gentry et al., 2006; Sharma & Chan, 2011, 2016) and in case this trial is successful, they might opt for original version (Gosline, 2009, 2010; Ritson, 2007).

Methodology and research process

Means – End Chain Analysis

This research employs the means-end chain (MEC) approach to investigate consumers’ motivations to buy counterfeits, and more precisely their cognitive motives through the creation of linkages between pertinent attributes, utility components that result from them and individuals’ values. MEC analysis has been applied widely through various research domains (Reynolds &

Phillips, 2009) such as marketing and advertising strategies (e.g., Jaeger & MacFie, 2001) and consumer behavior in luxury goods segment (Amatulli & Guido, 2011; Alonso & Marchetti, 2008). MEC has also been implemented cross-cultural studies (e.g., Baker, Thompson, & Engelken, 2004)

The MEC approach was developed by Gutman (1982) to portray how consumers categorize information about products in the memory, in order to understand their purchasing choices. It rests on the theory that consumers' behavior is directed by personal values that are defined as preferred "end-states of existence" that individuals endeavor for their lives (Gutman, 1982; Rokeach, 1973). The main assumption of MEC is that the consumers' decision-making process is represented through a hierarchical network of attributes, consequences and values. Therefore, the MEC is a model that pursues the explanation of how the attributes of a product or service (means) are linked to consequences that result from usage of the product to values (ends or desired end goals) (Gutman, 1982). The attributes relate to characteristics of the product (e.g. price, style). The consequences are understood as results that are provided to the consumer by the attributes (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). Each consequence supports one or multiple values (ends) in the life of the individual (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995). So, the ends are "valued states of being such as happiness, security, accomplishment" (Gutman, 1982, pp. 60-62).

The MEC analysis which is based on the in-depth interviews has the advantage of providing an exhaustive & deep insight through guiding the participants to construct a ladder by linking his motivations & consequences to the attributes of the product & reveal the final values that are related to his choice. The technique of repeating so-called why questions (Gutman, 1982; Reynolds & Gutman, 1988), where the interviewer questions the respondent why the attribute, consequence or the value is important for the respondent was applied. Through the usage of the product attributes of counterfeit luxury goods, unexpressed personal values have been elicited.

Laddering is an efficient method to draw these links (Wansink, 2003). The ladders of each individual respondent are decomposed into direct and indirect components and filed into implication matrix. The results of MEC are visualized in a hierarchical value map (HVM) (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). The present research uses the traditional laddering procedure (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988) to facilitate reflections on consumers' personal buying motivations of counterfeit luxury goods and on the relationship among "attributes-consequences-ends".

Procedure

In-depth interviews were initiated to understand more about the underlying mechanisms of luxury counterfeit consumption. 38 in-depth interviews were conducted with UAE national female consumers. This has two main reasons: the female population is more engaged in the shopping process, and as the researchers were females, the access was more comfortable from the cultural point of view, where the big emphasis is done on gender separation. The help of Emirati students was used to gain access to interviewees.

Table 1. Respondents

No	Pseudonym	Age	Occupation
1	Alia	40-45	Housewife
2	Fatma	18-25	Student
3	Mona	40-45	Teacher
4	Amina	18-25	Student
5	Hessa	30-34	Internal auditor
6	Shamma	35-40	Housewife
7	Noor	26-30	Lawyer
8	Sheikha	26-30	Lawyer
9	Salma	51-55	Housewife
10	Raja	46-50	Housewife
11	Shaila	30-34	Economist
12	Meead	18-25	Consultant
13	Woorod	18-25	Student
14	Falah	18-25	Student
15	Maitha	18-25	Student
16	Ghadeer	40-45	Computer Engineer
17	Hesma	26-30	Banker
18	Hala	18-25	Employed
19	Mouna	18-25	Student
20	Noura	26-30	Head of PR
21	Shahad	18-25	Student
22	Taghrid	56-60	Social Worker
23	Tarfa	35-40	Banker
24	Farah	18-25	Banker
25	Mosa	18-25	Student
26	Mezna	56-60	House wife
27	Ghada	40-45	Gov. Employee
28	Maryam	46-50	Armed forces
29	Shaima	26-30	Financial sector employee
30	Osha	18-25	Auditor
31	Samiya	26-30	Government employee
32	Maram	18-25	Student
33	Sumaya	26-30	Employed - private sector
34	Reem	18-25	Gov. Employee
35	Hanan	18-25	Financial sector employee
36	Warda	18-25	Student
37	Saleyma	26-30	Gov. Employee
38	Alya	26-30	Banker

As counterfeit consumption is rather a sensitive topic due to high perceived social risk (Pueschel et al., 2017), the interviewees were not informed about the exact topic of the research, and there was no initial distinction between buyers and non-buyers of counterfeits. The recruitment process started with the direct network of the researcher. Some of the respondents were students of the university where this research was conducted; then the snowballing procedure was used to recruit further participants, others were recruited through social media sites. The interviews were conducted in English since it is considered the primary communication language in UAE and even questions the position of Arabic as a first national language. If some

respondents didn't feel confident in expressing their exact thoughts and opinions in English, the help of an interpreter was used to ensure the depth of the responses.

The interviews started with an extended small talk and general questions about shopping habits. Not surprising, when talking about these habits, respondents speak predominantly about luxury brands, this allowed the researcher to remain assured that all the respondents are real luxury consumers and have confirmed the ownership and habitually excessive consumption luxury products. Later the questions about consumers' experiences with the counterfeits were posed. The approach of delaying questions about counterfeit experiences has proven itself as effective especially when dealing with a culture where face consciousness is highly valued. When the respondents manifested avoidance behavior, the techniques proposed by Reynolds and Gutman, (1988) were used to deal with blockages. When participants had difficulties identifying their motives the "Third Person Probe" was applied, where they were asked about how others they know feel about counterfeits in similar circumstances.

The interviews were conducted in different locations, some on the premises of the university and some at interviewees' home and lasted on average 37 min. The interviews were recorded and transcribed. A content analysis was carried out using Nvivo11 where different types of elicited elements were identified. The codes were assigned using the Reynolds and Gutmans' (1988) levels of analysis: attributes, consequences, and values. All the codes were revisited and revised, so some codes of the same hierarchical level were combined in summary codes. Based on the analysis of ladders, 8 attributes appeared. These attributes relate to 15 consequences, which in turn lead to 6 Values.

Fig. 1. Overview of means-end chain elements

Attributes	Consequences		Values
1 Quality	9 Avoid being fooled	17 Invest	25 Value consciousness
2 Price	10 Smart-shopping: expertise	18 Smart-shopping: saving	26 Self-esteem
3 Gold	11 Be in-vogue	19 Show cultural hierarchy	27 Hedonism
4 Accessibility	12 Buy more	20 Uphold culture	28 Pragmatism
5 Functionality	13 Collaborative consumption	21 Uphold religion	29 Belonging
6 Fashion	14 Easy to use	22 Pretend it's an original	30 Self-direction
7 Genuine brand attributes	15 Enhance social status	23 Be unique	
8 Informal consumption	16 Feel closer to family and friends	24 Resist to big corporations	

To address the issue of intra-coder reliability (Miles & Huberman, 2014) all the codes were triple-coded by the researcher at three different periods of time. From these results MECs were created for each respondent.

Results

The reasons for consumers purchase decisions are not always obvious (Wansink, 2003). Although a consumer might quickly respond to questions related to the product, these responses are often not the fundamental reasons for their decisions (Rokeach, 1973). Further, the attributes, consequences and values are reported to identify the main motivations for counterfeit purchases.

Implication Matrix

The ladders and elements were entered in LadderUX to produce a summary score matrix and create an Implication Matrix and the Hierarchical Value Map (HVM), i.e., to perform the analysis of both direct and indirect (elements are related through another element) relations between adjacent elements. The numbers in the matrix are expressed in a way, that direct relations are represented to the left in the cell and indirect to the right. So, “Price” (2) leads to “Smart – Shopping - Saving” (18) 12 times directly and 1 time indirectly.

Table 2. Implication matrix

	IMPLICATION MATRIX		9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	sum
1	Quality	2 0	12 0	0 1	2 1	1 0	1 0	1 0	0 2			3 0	1 1		0 1	3 4	0 1		0 1	0 6	0 2	1 1	0 5	0 1	27 27
2	Price			0 2	8 0	0 1			2 0	2 1		12 1	0 1	0 2	2 5	0 1		2 0	1 5	0 3		0 1	0 4	0 5	29 32
3	Gold	1 0									9 1	3 0		1 1	1 0	1 0	1 0	1 1	0 8	0 1			0 2	0 2	18 16
4	Accessibility			1 0	0 1	7 0	1 0	1 0	0 2	3 0		4 0	0 1		0 1	2 0				0 1	2 2	1 0	0 7	0 1	22 16
5	Functionality						2 0					2 0	0 2		0 1					1 2			0 1		5 6
6	Fashion				2 0	1 0	0 1			2 0				1 0	1 0	1 0				0 1			0 4		8 6
7	Genuine brand attributes	1 0	1 0	3 2	7 0	1 0			6 4	2 1			1 0	4 0	1 0	2 0				0 7	1 0	0 2	2 12	0 1	32 29
8	Informal consumption	1 0				1 1	1 0			6 0		1 0		0 1			1 0			0 1	4 2		0 5		15 10
9	Avoid being fooled		1 0															1 0	1 0					1 0	4 0
10	Smart-shopping, expertise			0 1	1 0											3 0	0 1		1 0	4 1	1 0		0 2	0 1	10 6
11	Be in-vogue				7 0				1 0	1 0				1 0					5 0				9 1		24 1
12	Buy more							3 1	2 0		2 1		1 0	3 1	2 0				1 1	1 4	3 0	1 0	2 8	1 0	22 16
13	Collaborative consumption								3 0		1 0							1 0					1 0		6 0
14	Easy To Use							1 0				2 0		1 0						0 1			0 1		4 2
15	Enhance social status								1 0		1 0		3 0							3 0			11 3		19 3
16	Feel closer to family and friends													2 0	1 0	1 0					0 1		9 4		13 5
17	Invest										1 0		1 0				1 0	7 0					1 0		11 0
18	Smart-shopping, saving											2 0	1 0	6 4	3 0			9 4	2 1	1 1	3 0	1 7	5 0	33 17	
19	Show cultural hierarchy													1 0	1 0				4 0				0 1		6 1
20	Uphold culture														1 0				0 1			1 0	5 0		7 1
21	Uphold religion																1 0	1 0		1 0		4 0	1 0	8 0	
22	Pretend it's an original																1 0		0 1	3 0	1 0		8 0	1 0	14 1
23	Be unique																		2 0						2 0
24	Resist to big corporations																						2 0		2 0
25	Value consciousness																								0 0
26	Self-esteem																						1 0		1 0
27	Hedonism																								0 0
28	Pragmatism																								0 0
29	Belonging																								0 0
30	Self-direction																								0 0
	sum	5 0	15 0	5 7	34 2	4 2	4 0	14 7	22 4	9 1	30 2	6 5	15 4	17 13	20 5	3 2	6 1	22 21	25 29	14 8	7 4	52 67	13 11		

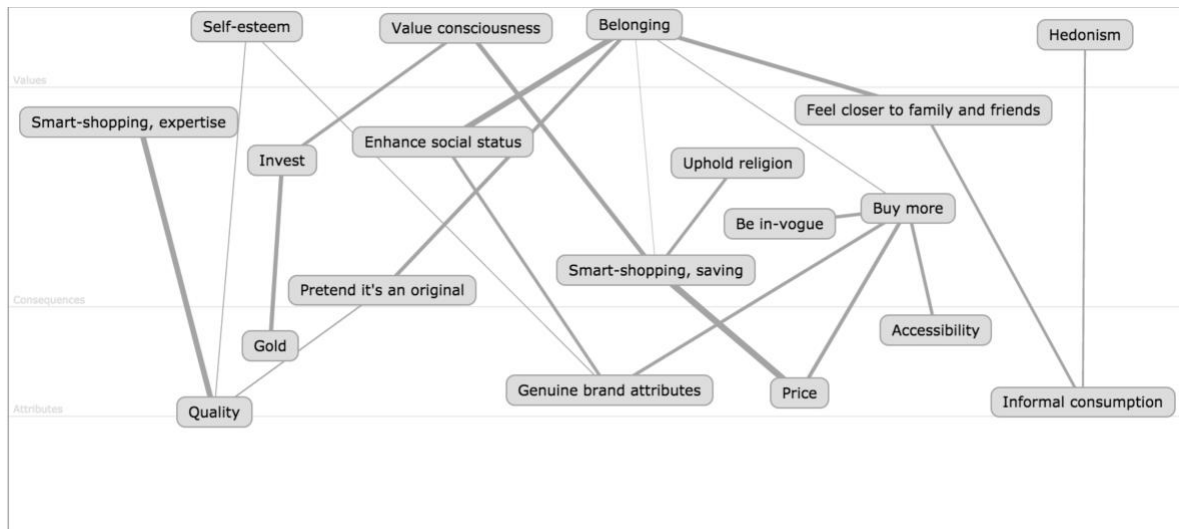
Hierarchical Value Map (HVM)

To construct a HVM the researcher needs to set the “cut off” values. These are the minimum numbers of links between the elements that must be identified before researcher considers the item. Multiple cutoffs (usually from 3 to 5) should be used because they permit the researcher the freedom to choose the one that offers the most information and the most stable set of relations.

Only the concepts that have been mentioned at or above the cutoff level were included in the HVM to produce the most informative and stable HVM (Gengler & Reynolds, 1995;

Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). The cutoff levels have been set at 5, the usual level as suggested by Reynolds and Gutman (1988). The complete set of data obtained in the in-depth interviews consists of 207 ladders, with an average of 5.4 ladders for each respondent.

Fig. 2. Hierarchical Value Map



Based on the strength of associations and the count of direct and indirect links for the elements “Belonging” and “Value Consciousness” seem to be the strongest motive for purchase of counterfeit luxury goods. The most dominant consequences are logically “Enhance Social Status”, “Smart-shopping, saving” and “Smart-shopping, expertise”, while “Price”, “Quality” and “Accessability” are the major attributes of counterfeit products. Further, values such as “Self-esteem” and “Hedonism” can be identified.

Dominant patterns

Belonging

The desire to “Enhance social status” is the predominant consequence driving participants value “Belonging”. Consumers buy the goods that have the attributes of original brands such as the brands' name or design to conform to social expectations. Participants describe the pressure to own and demonstrate luxury items that they face on a daily basis.

Show off yeah. It is to show off and as I told you they think that it (buying counterfeits) is to show people that we have the money to buy it and we have the style. (Mosa)

And so, the people buy counterfeits to convey the image of luxury consumers as expected from them but would like to hide the fact that they own a counterfeited item and “*Pretend it's an original*”.

They buy, people tend to buy the fake one, not to tell others that it's fake. They buy it to convince you that this is an original one. Original brand. Luxury item. (Saleyma)

To be accepted in the society respondents have to buy a lot of luxury items frequently. They feel the pressure from the society to present the latest trends, continuously “Be in-vogue”, demonstrate that they know the trends and follow the fashion.

R: Some people say, why spend money when I can buy it for half the price but then ...

I: Why would they say that? What kind of people would say that?

R: A lot! Because they want to show that they're part of a certain community and they want to have a lot of options to change their bags all the time because with all this fashionista peep that's being, like now there's this new trend of having 10,000 shoes and 10,000 bags and 100 outfits. Every day she's wearing a new shoe and a new bag and a new outfit and new jewelry. (Noura)

The attributes “Accessibility” that refers to the fact that the counterfeits can be easily purchased and “Genuine brand attributes” lead to consequences “Buy more” and “Be in-vogue”.

Sometimes the desired item of the original brand is not available in the country. Especially it applies to limited edition collections. Consumers still want to own them faster than others, but collections are being sold out too fast. It is astonishing how fast the counterfeiters react to these demands and supply the market with the latest “IT-items”. Shamma explains that she wanted to buy the original “IT-bag”, but it was not available in the legitimate store, but she found the desired item as a counterfeit version. It was “Accessible” and gave her the possibility to “Be in-vogue”.

I say the truth. I have one [fake] bag Dolce and Gabbana - the rare one. I looked for it. For the original one here, they didn't have it [...] I don't know. Like, I don't like waiting. If I want something, I want it now. I will go buy and have it NOW! ... I WENT to Dolce and Gabbana!!! So...eehmm... my friend she asked me about that [fake] bag, she said: Is that original? How much is it? And so on. I said: No, it's fake and it's, and it's 1000 Dirham and it's handmade also. (laughs) (Shamma)

Data reveals that “Belonging” can be divided in two segments. First, “Belonging” to society, supported by the consequences “Enhance social status” and “Pretend it's an original”, and the second one is “Belonging” to immediate family circle and close friends, supported by consequence “Feel closer to family and friends”. Consumers don't want to be identified as counterfeit buyers and refrain from sharing their experiences with counterfeits with the broader audience and normally keep those experiences as “little secret” within a family. This attribute refers to the “secret product” itself, as well as the often-adventurous circumstances under which the counterfeits are purchased or “best practices” about the places and best suppliers of fakes. Respondent have stated that when they buy counterfeits they like to be accompanied by a family member. These shared experiences and “secret action” enable the consumers to perceive the

consequence of “Feeling closer to family and friends”. Mona describes her network of counterfeit sellers and buyers within her family – an experience she could only share with people she trusts:

This lady with her husband went to china. So, in her mind it was to buy fakes and sell them again - like a business. She's one of our family, you know. It's like secret you know, because it's illegal. ...So, I told my sister: “common buy from them!” and I said: “she's my sister!” (Mona)

Like Mona, Worood is also describing how she wants to support her close friend who is trying to build a business with counterfeits and help her start-up company.

I have one of my friends with me, she's my college-mate at college, she used to go to Thailand and buy the fake products, but it looks like original. She has her own business she used to sell them here. [...] I would like to support my friend in her business, to help her. (Worood)

Noor explains why people she tells about her consumer “misbehavior” only to close ones and is concerned that others might tease or judge her for buying counterfeits.

But, people they don't (tell others that they have a fake). They could ask me like, my sister for example my sister, they could ask me: this is of real or fake? Because it is really nice, how much? I want to buy it. Like this. Is it real or fake? I could tell my sister if it is fake or not.... But sometimes there comes a lady that she just wants to tease you. Okay? (Noor)

Hence, the findings underline that consumers purchase counterfeit luxury goods, on the one hand, to satisfy the need for belonging and acceptance by the society in general, which condemns counterfeit consumption. So, they have to hide the fact that they engage themselves in such consumption. On the other hand, experiences with fakes allow them to feel closer to their family members and very dear friends through joint activities with them.

Value Consciousness

It is not surprising that being exposed to the pressure to “over-consume” luxury, the people are trying to cope with it. Although all of the respondents could afford the genuine brands, they can buy probably many items of high luxury brands per year but have difficulties to keep up with the expectations to purchase plentiful per month.

"This AED 10.000 (\$US 2750), I can buy many things, fake, copy ones." [...] Instead of spending all this money on one piece. Yeah, yeah. (Shaima)

No, I didn't actually buy anything above AED 20.000 (\$ US 5500), till now, except the watch...About 45.000 (\$US 12.250). Other things like clothes and shoes and bags, I didn't buy (anything) above 20.000. (Saleyma)

“Price” is the most mentioned attribute of counterfeit luxury items. The obvious price advantage of counterfeits helps consumers to optimize their resources and lower acquisition price but cannot be regarded as a single driver behind this type of consumption in the given setting.

Consumers give their preferences to certain types of counterfeits – trendy and of the “right” quality. Consequently, the monetary saving allows the consumers to increase the number of the goods they can obtain for the same amount of money (“Buy More”), feel smart about their decisions and satisfy the “Value Consciousness”.

However, if the original bag was AED 20,000 (\$ US 5500), of course, someone would pay 2,000 (\$US 550) instead of 20. Save the 18. I can get 10 bags instead of one. (Samiya)

I know a family and they are rich. They can afford like thousands of those bags, but they say, why should I pay like 20,000 (\$ US 5500) on one bag where I can pay like 20,000 on like six different bags? Yes, we can afford it but why should we waste when we can get like more quantity? (Maram)

When consumers have a limited budget, although the allocated budget is sufficient to purchase an original, it is still not sufficient to buy multiple items. When consumers buy fakes, they experience a satisfaction of being a smart shopper (“Smart-shopping, saving” and “Smart-shopping, expertise”).

I don't care about other what they say about me because this is my money and I buy what I want, and I prefer to use my money in other things like help others and buy gold, so it's not important to buy (real) brands. (Warda)

Many participants explain their “Smart Shopping - Saving” by the desire to “Uphold religion”. They stress on their motivations to align with religion through their behaviors, views and also consumption, as the society in UAE values Islamic religion and traditions.

The ways to express these motivations are diverse. Some respondents describe their desire to help people in low-income countries by purchasing counterfeit products produced in these countries and not the real brands:

God told us to share our good, what he gave us. You must help people with your money. You might build a mosque, you might build a school in some poor country. There are so many good ways. But waste it on the brands - NO. (Alya)

I can buy a AED 1,000 (\$ US 272) bag and instead of paying 10,000 I would take the 9,000 and give it to charity or do something good for the poor people. And, it's not good to spend that much of money in one stuff that I can it for like half of the price. (Reem)

Consumers are willing to live in accordance with religious principles of Islam, preserving their culture and traditions. The notion of the copyright is not present in the culture or religion so, consumers view the counterfeits as a mean to make a “correct” or “smart” choice when making a decision to buy counterfeit or highly priced original luxury goods. Interviewees enthusiastically report about their intentions to participate in charitable actions and opposing these actions to excessive consumption of material goods.

While talking about luxury brands, many participants mention luxury jewelry. Interestingly, even those participants who said that they rejected counterfeit items in general, proudly announced that they buy ready-made or make exact copies of jewelry from luxury brands.

It was a real gold with real diamonds, but it was a fake one. [...] And the thing is, if you look at in the inside, it's engraved with the laser "Cartier". (Sheikha)

My friend, her aunt, she goes to the gold shop and gives them a sample of Van Cleef. They copy the exact same thing and they do the necklace, bracelets and earrings. (Hanan)

Overall in the sample money is better invested in precious materials such as gold, and since gold retains its value, unlike fashion items, respondents don't view these items as counterfeits of a lower quality and don't consider paying for the original item when the items along with a trademark can be easily and relatively cheap duplicated by any jeweler.

I prefer to buy this luxury accessories from gold shop because, also it looks the same as original accessories, and original accessories- it's too expensive, so in the gold shop I can get it cheaper than the original accessories. (Warda)

Hedonism

Many markets in the country selling fakes are situated in the city center (e.g., Karama market in Dubai or Madinat Zayed market in Abu Dhabi). These places and many markets in Asian countries that sell counterfeits remind the consumers of old traditional markets (souqs). Bargaining and negotiating is a part of Arabic culture. Since the country had undergone a fast transformation and "westernization", many, especially older consumers feel nostalgic about the old times, since they cannot experience the act of enjoyment while bringing the price of the item down or "hunting" and searching for the "best deal" in modern luxury malls. Maryam describes with excitement her tactics in negotiating the price for counterfeit on the market when she had to leave the shop to demonstrate no-interest and then come back to buy the item at a lower price.

Then I kept looking, looking, looking, and asking, and I touched the [item] [...] I asked them (the seller) to see the other, the watch. I wear it (tried it). Then, I kept dealing with them, how about this? Then I left, and then came back. (Maryam)

It is not surprising to observe the link between the attribute "informal consumption" and value "Hedonism" since the purchase process and consumption of counterfeits have a ludic dimension to it. Some consumers want to experience enjoyment during adventurous shopping with friends, going to hidden places or stores with back doors, or places they can bargain and prove their negotiation skills, which are traditionally required when shopping on Arabic markets.

If you buy 2 or 3 different products you can reduce the prices because I have [buy] bigger quantity, because it's not a fixed price. (Alia)

It was just one of the shops that we were randomly passing by, and I found the bag to be in very good shape actually, and I was surprised, so they welcomed us. They told us there's a

back place where they keep the secret door. So, when we went there, I saw this stuff, so I thought, why not? Just process that one and take it. Second time, it was the same store. We went to the mall, and same thing. Came up, and everyone tried to get us to their shops, and we knew. We already had previous experience with that, and thought, surely, they have a back entrance or something like this. I was like, why not get me one of those bags? I was like, okay. One of the bags, and one wallet. (Tarfa)

Self-esteem

To be able to convince others that they buy the originals only successfully, it is crucial for the consumers control the “Quality” of the items so that they can be used as a deceiving tool. Consumers have to ensure that the look of the item is the closest to the original. Sometimes it is astonishing how much knowledge it would require to purchase a good fake item. Not only all the respondents were aware of different levels of quality of fakes such as A-Level, A-quality or number one fake; they use the extensive knowledge of originals to find the perfect match. Naturally, such consumers know exact differences between original and counterfeit items. It did not seem to be a great challenge for the interviewees to pick the perfect fake, just out of the reason that they know the luxury products and their exact attributes very well and they are eager to apply this knowledge to evaluate the fake and make the right choice or discard the “non-fit”.

For example Lady Dior, if it's the original one, it comes hard and the fake - softer, because I compare it to Lady Dior because I have Lady Dior (Fatma)

Some fake bags, that it's very good, like the copy is very good and you cannot make a difference, okay? (Hessa)

I bought one time a watch, this one (Shows her real Cartier watch), but not this one. The bigger one... Doesn't show it is copy... I know how to select the copy. (Mayam)

Participants are ready to compromise on minor differences if the shortcomings of the copy are only known to them and are not visible to the others. The ability to clever choose a right item allows them to feel “smart” about their decisions and to demonstrate expertise in luxury (“Smart-shopping, expertise) building their “Self-esteem”.

If no one will know this bag is fake, it's okay for me to wear it... I will not take it (bag) because (if) it's not look like an original. (If) It looks like original, I would take it, but if not, I will not accept it. (Warda)

Some consumers are motivated to enhance their self-esteem though announcement to the broad audience that they buy fakes and are not afraid to admit it.

Honestly, I once heard a lady from a very well-known family, people who are really rich, and they can afford it. However, she says that, "I do buy fake bags." And we told her, "How come? Like you're from this family, how come you're buying a fake bag?" She said, "Who would ever expect me not carrying a real bag?" (Samiya)

Concluding it can be noticed that the value “Self-esteem” is linked to the attribute “Quality”. In fact, respondents refer to counterfeits as an inferior version of genuine items but love their ability to assess the quality very precisely.

Conclusion and implications

Theoretical contribution

This article contributes to the nascent but expanding field of luxury counterfeit research and consumers’ motivations underlying such controversial behavior and demonstrates that cultural aspects play an important role in such consumption proving that counterfeiting is not “culture free” (Santos and Ribeiro, 2006; Eisend, 2017). Despite having received attention from academia, the more profound understanding of motivations that underlie counterfeit consumption is still scarce.

This research demonstrates the importance of various motivations beyond the traditional monetary advantages. It confirms that in specific cultural settings, where the citizens have undergone a rapid cultural and economic change, even the affluent luxury consumers who possess enough means to purchase the original, turn to shadow markets (Pueschel et al., 2017). The findings do not appear to validate the view that consumers who start having the income to afford the genuine brand, no longer purchase counterfeits (Eisend, 2017; Wee, Tan, and Cheok 1995; Yoo and Lee 2012).

The MEC methodology was applied, which allowed for a detailed examination of consumers' motives and cognitive motive structures. MEC assumes a hierarchical structure of counterfeit consumption decisions, starting with attributes and ending with core values. The results allow brand managers and policymakers identify core values and understand the consequences that counterfeit consumers strive for, as values that are ascribed to deep emotional needs, often represent the true reason behind consumers’ choices (Wansink, 2003). Therefore, the knowledge about consumers’ needs and wants is imperative when combating counterfeits.

This research had identified four predominant motives for luxury counterfeit consumption: “Value Consciousness”, “Belonging”, “Hedonism” and “Self-esteem”. The identified motive “Value Consciousness” was rather unexpected, as the sample consisted of affluent consumers. Although, the attribute “Price” is strong in the data, in contrast to previous findings that suggest that consumers buy fakes purely for their economic benefits (e.g., Albers-Miller, 1999; Dodge, Edwards, & Fullerton, 1996; Harvey & Wallas, 2003; Prendergast, Chuen, & Phau, 2002, Yoo & Lee, 2012), the current research demonstrates that consumers buy counterfeits to increase the quantity of goods they can purchase for the allocated budget. The diversity of fake goods and designs allow respondents to satisfy the desire for self-presentation as fashion forward and “in-vogue”, but moreover, to own the pieces faster than the others in the reference group to win their admiration.

Demonstration of wealth in UAE through highly visible social symbols is inevitable and allows better probabilities of climbing the social ladder. Emirati consumers are not only motivated to show their ability to pay horrendous prices for goods but also use them to obtain the perceived power when presenting them in the society (Vel, Captain, Al Abbas, & Al Hashemi, 2011). Further, since consumers in the present sample are purchasing counterfeits not to use them over a longer period of time and desire to adopt the “trendy look”, they have the possibility to either purchase the genuine luxury item, or its’ counterfeit version, or an item from a high-street store in a similar look: so-called “knock-offs” or “cat-walk copycats” which often “are very inspired” by design, however without the logo of the luxury brand. Counterfeits allow the consumers to obtain an item with a brand name and design of the original (“Genuine Brand Attributes”) and owing to steadily improving quality, in the consumers’ view counterfeits offer not just better durability than the high-street items, but sometimes even more than the original luxury goods (Jiang & Cova, 2012) for a comparable amount of money as the high-street versions. Further, consumers feel smart about their ability to save money. Since counterfeits provide a good value (Thaichon et al., 2016), consumers explain the possibility to use their resources in more honorable ways: e.g. - donating to a charity, building mosques or helping others. While the “political thinking” is not present in the society, the sentiments the respondents demonstrate, are different from what is described in the literature as a motivation to take revenge on big corporations or Schadenfreude (Marticotte & Arcand, 2017). In case of our respondents, their motivations are more of religious in character, although in the country with dominant Islamic norms, it would be forbidden to violate people’s rights, material or intellectual (Beekun & Badawi, 2005). Alserhan (2010) explains that for Muslims, the trade relationships, despite their nature of satisfying earthly desires, must be forged with a “divine intent” between both parties involved in the trade. Consumers feel that they can pursue this “divine intent” through the consumption of counterfeits: some want to help people in poor countries through buying their products or would opt for fakes to prove to themselves that they are not splurging on overpriced luxury products, since “wasting” is considered as a sin in Islam. The consequence “uphold religion” can be in this context regarded as a neutralization technique (Bain et al., 2016) or coping strategy to deal with moral risk (Pueschel et al., 2017), as it helps the consumers to gain social approval when reporting their counterfeit consumption through connection to “divine” intentions.

Third, consumers desire to “Invest” their money in golden jewelry that copies the design of luxury brands. These items are widely available in gold markets and not only look like their original counterparts from outside but also carry the necessary brand names and serial numbers. Gold retains its’ value, and so, consumers can easily “recycle” the jewelry that has been already demonstrated in public for a certain period of time. Consumers pay only a fraction of the amount to the jeweler for the work and view this process as a creative way to update their looks according to the latest trends. Very surprising though was the fact that consumers don’t even perceive this type of jewelry as counterfeit and are proud of their investments. Sparingness is also

welcomed by the society that expects a woman in her role as a wife and mother to manage resources wisely.

Consequently, we can observe that the religious and traditional aspects also relate to value “Belonging”, which is mainly related to the consequences “Enhance social status”, “Pretend it’s an original” and “Be in-vogue”.

The society in the UAE has had a very rapid transition. The discovery of oil had enabled a fast accumulation of wealth for the country and its’ citizens. Newer and bigger malls appear every year; new brands are constantly opening their shops in the region. Luxury brands are trying to overbid each other offering consumers latest trends, inviting them to purchase more, and more. Among UAE nationals luxury became a part of their daily life, and the society expects from its’ members to own and demonstrate latest trends from best luxury houses. Consumption behavior is influenced by the society (Ang et al., 2001), the social position of the individual or aspired group, and so people seek the luxury products (Viot et al., 2014) that can help them to facilitate this assimilation. To cope with the pressure of the society, some consumers opt for counterfeits. The results demonstrate the desire to uphold the expectations of the society (“Belonging”) through status-related motives (Cordell et al. 1996) “Enhance social status”. Furthermore, the same value of “Belonging” can be supported by the other consequence “Feeling closer to family and friends” when consumers feel stronger bonds with their families and friends through sharing their experiences with counterfeits or satisfy their hedonic needs (value “Hedonism”) through shopping for fake items on markets where they can bargain and negotiate the prices like on old traditional Arabic markets.

Taking into consideration the consequences mentioned above it seems that fast-changing seasons, limited edition collections have created a “norm” for the consumer to frequently “update” their wardrobe and looks. The “artificial rarity tactics” (Kapferer & Valette-Florence, 2016) by introducing limited editions and capsule collections have forced the consumer to desire the certain brand and the “latest look” at any price (high or low). And so, genuine luxury brands themselves generate a need for counterfeits by creating “luxury pressure”. For the present sample of affluent luxury consumers, it seems to force them to turn to counterfeits, especially when the “IT - items” are not available or sold out in legitimate stores. The strategy many luxury brands have implemented to increase the profitability by moving their manufacturing partially to lower labor cost countries or increasing the volumes through licensing had backfired on them as predicted by Kapferer and Michaut in 2014. Indeed, luxury brands are facing a big challenge to find a right balance between satisfying the demand and retaining its’ exclusivity and rarity.

Many academics have studied counterfeit consumers across various nations (Rawlinson & Lupton, 2007; Penz & Stottinger, 2008; Penz et al., 2008; Teah et al., 2015; Veloutsou & Bian, 2008), there is still very little research exploring counterfeit consumers in Muslim countries (Riquelme et al., 2012).

Managerial implications

The present research can be regarded as a first exploratory investigation concerning the motives of affluent consumers in GCC country to purchase counterfeits. Since consumer behavior has to be understood within a cultural context (de Mooij & Hofstede, 2011), it is essential to bear in mind the insights that can serve as a guideline for creating effective campaigns to combat counterfeiting from the demand side.

This research has identified four main motivational patterns that are all strongly influenced by the culture in the UAE. The awareness of identified motivation patterns can help managers of luxury brands and policymakers to better design their brand protection strategies and foster the anti-counterfeiting campaigns.

It implies that brand managers could tailor their strategies to meet the needs of the ethnic minority segment (UAE nationals represent 20% of the population in UAE) and might design unique formats to reach this segment. Since “Belonging” is linked to status consumption, policy makers can create an advertisement campaign “someone will spot a fake anytime” or “no saved money is worth the embarrassment”. Further, since the GCC consumers are one of the major consumers of luxury goods (Bain & Company, 2014), luxury brands may consider introducing collections with specific design tailored to and available exclusively on GCC market and emphasize on the value “Belonging” by developing 1:1 relationships with their customers.

It is also prudent for managers to consider the importance of the desire to “Be in-vogue”. The approach “see now, buy now” that enjoys popularity among luxury houses recently and enables the consumers to purchase the collections fresh off the runway, as implemented by several brands (e.g., Burberry, Moschino, Ralph Lauren), could limit the immediate access of counterfeiters to the products. But one can only wonder how long it will take counterfeiters till production and distribution capabilities are improved further to bring the fakes to the customer at the time the collection is officially launched in-store. So, the problem remains a war of attrition.

Finally, since the government of UAE wants to ensure sustainable development in the country, ensuring the balance between economic and social development (Vision 2021), policymakers may want to create a campaign signaling that “originals are cheaper in the long run” (Staake & Fleisch, 2008, p. 54).

Limitations and further research

The study is exploratory in nature and based on qualitative methods purely. The data analysis used in this research was performed by a single researcher, which might affect the intra-coder reliability. It could be beneficial to test the motivational drivers by means of quantitative survey and identify the controls of different motivations and their influence on counterfeit consumption choices. The replication of this research in other affluent Muslim countries could

provide additional insights into cultural aspects influencing the motivations to purchase counterfeits.

Reference list

Aaker, Jennifer Lynn; Benet-Martinez, Veronica & Garolera, Jordi (2001). "Consumption symbols as carriers of culture: a study of Japanese and Spanish brand personality constructs," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, vol. 81, no 3, p.492–508.

Ahuvia, Aaron; Gistri, Giacomo; Romani, Simona; Pace, Stefano (2013). "What is the harm in fake luxury brands? Moving beyond the conventional wisdom," In *Luxury Marketing: A Challenge for Theory and Practice*, p.280–293.

Albers-Miller, Nancy D (1999). "Consumer misbehavior: why people buy illicit goods," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, vol. 16, no 3, p.273–87.

Alonso, Luciane Stefanos; Marchetti, Renato Zancan (2008). "Segmentation and Consumption of Luxury Fragrances: A Means-End Chain Analysis," *Latin American Advances in Consumer Research*, vol. 2, p.40–46.

Alserhan, Baker Ahmad (2010). "On Islamic Branding: Brands as Good Deeds," *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, vol. 1, no 2, p.101–6.

Amaral, Nelson B; Loken, Barbara (2016). "Viewing Usage of Counterfeit Luxury Goods: Social Identity and Social Hierarchy Effects on Dilution and Enhancement of Genuine Luxury Brands," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, vol. 26, no 4, p.483–95.

Amatulli, Cesare; Guido, Gianluigi (2011). "Determinants of Purchasing Intention for Fashion Luxury Goods in the Italian Market," *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, vol. 15, no 1, p.123–36.

Ang, Swee Hoon; Cheng, Peng Sim; Lim, Elison AC; Tambyah, Siok Kuan (2001). "Spot the Difference: Consumer Response towards Counterfeits," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, vol. 18, no 3, p.219–35.

Baker, Susan; Thompson, Keith E; Engelken, Julia; Huntley, Karen (2004). "Mapping the Values Driving Organic Food Choice," *European Journal of Marketing*, vol. 38, no 8, p.995–1012.

Beekun, Rafik I.; Badawi, Jamal A. (2005). "Balancing ethical responsibility among multiple organizational stakeholders: The Islamic perspective," *Journal of business ethics*, vol. 60 no 2, p 131–45.

Bain & Company's 2014 annual global luxury study includes Middle East in Top Ten List of Global Luxury Markets, (2014). Retrieved December 15, 2017, from <http://www.prwebme.com/2014/12/21/bain-companys-2014-annual-global-luxury-study-includes-middle-east-in-top-ten-list-of-global-luxury-markets/>

Bian, Xuemei; Veloutsou, Cleopatra (2007). "Consumers' Attitudes Regarding Non-Deceptive Counterfeit Brands in the UK and China," *Journal of Brand Management*, vol. 14, no 3, p.211–22.

Bian, Xuemei; Wang, Kai Yu; Smith, Andrew; Yannopoulou, Natalia (2016). "New Insights into Unethical Counterfeit Consumption," *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 69, no 10, p.4249–58.

Bloch, Peter H; Bush, Ronald F; Campbell, Leland (1993). "Consumer 'accomplices' in Product Counterfeiting: A Demand Side Investigation," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, vol. 10, no 4, p.27–36.

Burgess, Steven Michael; Steenkamp, Jan Benedict EM (2006). "Marketing Renaissance: How Research in Emerging Markets Advances Marketing Science and Practice," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, vol. 23, no 4, p.337–56.

Cordell, Victor V (1996). "Traits as Determinants," *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 35, no 95, p.41–53.

De Matos, Augusto Celso; Ituassu, Cristiana Trindade; Rossi, Carlos Alberto Vargas (2007). "Consumer Attitudes toward Counterfeits: A Review and Extension," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, vol. 24, no 1, p.36–47.

De Mooij, Marieke; Hofstede, Geert (2011). "Cross-Cultural Consumer Behavior: A Review of Research Findings," *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, vol. 23, no 3–4, p.181–92.

Dodge, H Robert; Edwards, Elizabeth a; Fullerton, Sam (1996). "Consumer Transgressions in the Marketplace: Consumers' Perspectives," *Psychology and Marketing*, vol. 13, no 8, p.821–35.

Eisend, Martin; Schuchert-Güler, Pakize (2006). "Explaining Counterfeit Purchases: A Review and Preview," *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, vol. 10, no 12, p.214–29.

Eisend, Martin (2016). "Morality Effects and Consumer Responses to Counterfeit and Pirated Products: A Meta-Analysis," *Journal of Business Ethics*, p.1–23.

Eisend, Martin; Hartmann, Patrick; Apaolaza, Vanessa (2017). "Who Buys Counterfeit Luxury Brands? A Meta-Analytic Synthesis of Consumers in Developing and Developed Markets," *Journal of International Marketing*, vol. 25, no 4, p.89–111.

Fernandes, Cedwyn (2013). "Analysis of Counterfeit Fashion Purchase Behaviour in UAE," *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, vol. 17, no 1, p.85–97.

Fragale, Alison R; Overbeck, Jennifer R; Neale, Margaret A (2011). "Resources versus Respect: Social Judgments Based on Targets' Power and Status Positions," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, vol. 47, no 4, p.767–75.

Franses, Philip Hans; Lede, Madesta (2015). "Cultural Norms and Values and Purchases of Counterfeits," *Applied Economics*, vol. 47, no 54, p.5902–16.

Furnham, Adrian; Valgeirsson, Halldór (2007). "The Effect of Life Values and Materialism on Buying Counterfeit Products," *Journal of Socio-Economics*, vol. 36, no 5, p.677–85.

Gengler, Charles E; Reynolds, Thomas J (1995). "Consumer Understanding and Advertising Strategy: Analysis and Strategic Translation of Laddering Data," *Journal of Advertising Research*, vol. 35, no 4, p.19–33.

Gentry, James W; Putrevu, Sanjay; Shultz, Clifford J (2006). "The Effects of Counterfeiting on Consumer Search," *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, vol. 5, no 3, p.245–56.

Goffmann, E., (1959). *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*. Double Day, New York, NY, 259 p.

Gosline, Renee (2009). "Simultaneous distinction, democratization and omnivorism effects: A longitudinal analysis of dynamic symbolic boundaries in counterfeit consumption networks," (Doctoral dissertation, Dissertation, Harvard Business School).

Gosline, Renee (2010), "Counterfeit Labels: Good For Luxury Brands?" Retrieved December 15, 2017, from www.forbes.com/2010/02/11/luxury-goods-counterfeit-fakes-chanel-gucci-cmo-network-renee-richardson-gosline.html#2cc430ea4f54

Guido, Gianluigi; Amatulli, Cesare; Peluso, Alessandro M (2014). "Context Effects on Older Consumers' Cognitive Age: The Role of Hedonic versus Utilitarian Goals," *Psychology & Marketing*, vol. 31, no 2, p.103–14.

Gutman, Jonathan (1982). "A Means-End Chain Model Based on Consumer Categorization Processes," *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 46, no 2, p.60–72

Hamelin, Nicolas; Nwankwo, Sonny; Hadouchi, Rachad El (2013). "'Faking Brands': Consumer Responses to Counterfeiting," *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, vol. 12, no 3, p.159–70.

Harvey, Patrick J; Walls, W David (2003). "Laboratory Markets in Counterfeit Goods: Hong Kong versus Las Vegas," *Applied Economics Letters*, vol. 10, no 14, p.883–87.

Hennigs, Nadine; Wiedmann, Klaus-Peter; Klarmann, Christiane; Behrens, Stefan; Jung, Jaehee; Sup Hwang, Choon (2015). "When the Original Is beyond Reach: Consumer Perception and Demand for Counterfeit Luxury Goods in Germany and South Korea," *Luxury Research J. Germany and South Korea Luxury Research J*, vol. 1, no 1, p.58–75.

INTA. (n.d.). Global impacts of counterfeiting and piracy to reach US \$4.2 trillion by 2022. Retrieved December 15, 2017, from https://www.inta.org/Press/Pages/Counterfeiting_Impact_Study_Press_Release.aspx

Jaeger, Sara R; MacFie, Halliday JH (2001). "The Effect of Advertising Format and Means-End Information on Consumer Expectations for Apples," *Food Quality and Preference*, vol. 12, no 3, p.189–205.

Jiang, Ling; Cova, Veronique (2012). "Love for Luxury, Preference for Counterfeits –A Qualitative Study in Counterfeit Luxury Consumption in China," *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, vol. 4, no 6, p.1–10.

Jiang, Ling; Shan, Juan (2016). "Counterfeits or Shanzhai? The Role of Face and Brand Consciousness in Luxury Copycat Consumption," *Psychological Reports*, vol. 119, no 1, p.181–99.

Jirotmontree, Atthaphol (2013). "Business Ethics and Counterfeit Purchase Intention: A Comparative Study on Thais and Singaporeans," *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, vol. 25, no 4, p.281–88.

Kapferer, Jean-Noël; Michaut, Anne (2014). "Luxury Counterfeit Purchasing: The Collateral Effect of Luxury Brands' Trading down Policy," *Journal of Brand Strategy*, vol. 3, no 1, p.59–70.

Kapferer, Jean-Noël; Valette-Florence, Pierre (2016). "Beyond Rarity: The Paths of Luxury Desire. How Luxury Brands Grow Yet Remain Desirable," *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, vol. 25, no 2, p.120–33.

Kaufmann, Hans Ruediger; Petrovici, Dan Alex; Filho, Cid Gonçalves; Ayres, Adriano (2016). "Identifying Moderators of Brand Attachment for Driving Customer Purchase Intention of Original vs Counterfeits of Luxury Brands," *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 69, no 12, p.5735–47.

Kim, Jae-Eun; Hyeon Jeong Cho; Johnson, Kim KP (2009). "Influence of Moral Affect, Judgment, and Intensity on Decision Making Concerning Counterfeit, Gray-Market, and Imitation Products," *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, vol. 27, no 3, p.211–26.

Kwong, Kenneth K; Yau, Oliver HM; Lee, Jenny SY; Sin, Leo YM; Tse, Alan CB (2003). "The Effects of Attitudinal and Demographic Factors on Intention to Buy Pirated CDs: The Case of Chinese Consumers," *Journal of Business Ethics*, vol. 47, no 3, p.223–35.

Lyonski, Steven; Durvasula, Srinivas (2008). "Digital Piracy of MP3s: Consumer and Ethical Predispositions," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, vol. 25, no 3, p.167–78.

Marticotte, François; Arcand, Manon (2017). "Schadenfreude, Attitude and the Purchase Intentions of a Counterfeit Luxury Brand," *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 77, p.175–83.

Martinez, Luis F; Jaeger, Dorothea S (2016). "Ethical Decision Making in Counterfeit Purchase Situations: The Influence of Moral Awareness and Moral Emotions on Moral Judgment and Purchase Intentions," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, vol. 33, no 3, p.213–23.

Miles, Matthew B; Huberman, Michael A.; Saldana, Johnny (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: a methods sourcebook*. Sage Publications, 408 p.

Mitchell, Vincent W. (1992). "Understanding Consumers' Behaviour: Can Perceived Risk Theory Help?," *Management Decision*, vol. 30, no 3, p.26–31.

Moore, Trevor T.; Chang, Jerry Cha-Jan (2006). "Ethical Decision Making in Software Piracy: Initial Development and Test of a Four-Component Model," *MIS Quarterly*, vol. 30, no 1, p.167–80.

Moschis, George P; Churchill, Gilbert A (1978). "Consumer Socialization: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis," *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 15, no 4, p.599–609.

Mowen, John.C.; Minor, Michael (1995), "Consumer Behavior", Prentice Hall International, Inc. NJ, 5e, 595 p.

Penz, Elfriede; Schlegelmilch, Bodo B; Stöttinger, Barbara (2009). "Voluntary Purchase of Counterfeit Products: Empirical Evidence from Four Countries," *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, vol. 21, no 1, p.67–84.

Penz, Elfriede; Stöttinger, Barbara (2008). "Original Brands and Counterfeit Brands—do They Have Anything in Common?" *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, vol. 7, no 2, p.146–63.

Perez, María Eugenia; Castaño, Raquel; Quintanilla, Claudia (2010). "Constructing Identity through the Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Goods," *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, vol. 13, no 3, p.219–35.

Phau, Ian; Teah, Min (2009). "Devil Wears (Counterfeit) Prada: A Study of Antecedents and Outcomes of Attitudes towards Counterfeits of Luxury Brands," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, vol. 26, no 1, p.15–27.

Prendergast, Gerard; Hing Chuen, Leung; Phau, Ian (2002). "Understanding Consumer Demand for Non-Deceptive Pirated Brands," *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, vol. 20, no 7, p.405–16.

Pueschel, Julia; Chamaret, Cécile; Parguel, Béatrice (2017). "Coping with Copies: The Influence of Risk Perceptions in Luxury Counterfeit Consumption in GCC Countries," *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 77, p.184–94.

Rawlinson, David R; Lupton, Robert a (2007). "Cross-National Attitudes and Perceptions Concerning Software Piracy: A Comparative Study of Students From the United States and China," *Journal of Education for Business*, vol. 83, no 2, p.87–94.

Reppel, Alexander E; Szmigin, Isabelle (2010). "Consumer-Managed Profiling: A Contemporary Interpretation of Privacy in Buyer–seller Interactions," *Journal of Marketing Management*, vol. 26, no 3–4, p.321–42.

Reynolds, Thomas J; Gutman, Jonathan (1988). "Laddering Theory, Method, Analysis and Interpretation," *Journal of Advertising Research*, vol. 28, no 1, p.11–31.

Reynolds, Thomas J; Phillips, Joan M (2009). "A review and comparative analysis of laddering research methods," in Naresh K. Malhotra (ed.) *Review of Marketing Research, Volume 5*, p.130 – 174.

Riquelme, Hernan E; Mahdi Sayed Abbas, Eman; Rios, Rosa E (2012). "Intention to Purchase Fake Products in an Islamic Country," *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues*, vol. 5, no 1, p.6–22.

Rokeach, Milton (1973), *The Nature of Human Value*, Free Press, New York, NY, 438 p.

Ronkainen, Ilkka A; Guerrero-Cusumano, Jose-Luis (2001). "Correlates of Intellectual Property Violations," *Multinational Business Review*, vol. 9, no 1, p.59–65.

Rosenbaum, Mark S; Cheng, Mingming; Wong, Ipkin Anthony (2016). "Retail Knockoffs: Consumer Acceptance and Rejection of Inauthentic Retailers," *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 69, no 7, p.2448–55.

Rutter, Jason; Bryce, Jo (2008). "The Consumption of Counterfeit Goods: 'Here Be Pirates?'" *Sociology*, vol. 42, no 6, p.1146–64.

Ryan, Richard M; Deci, Edward L (2000). "Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-Being," *American Psychologist*, vol. 55, no 1, p.68–78.

Santos, J Freitas; Ribeiro, J Cadima (2006). "An Exploratory Study of the Relationship between Counterfeiting and Culture," *Tékhnē-Revista de Estudos Politécnicos*, no. 5–6(June) p.227–43.

Sharma, Piyush; Chan, Ricky YK (2011). "Counterfeit Proneness: Conceptualisation and Scale Development," *Journal of Marketing Management*, vol. 27, no 5–6, p.602–26.

Sharma, Piyush; Chan, Ricky YK (2016). "Demystifying Deliberate Counterfeit Purchase Behaviour," *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, vol. 34, no 3, p.318–35.

Staake, Thorsten; Fleisch, Elgar (2008). *Countering Counterfeit Trade: Illicit Market Insights, Best-Practice Strategies, and Management Toolbox. Countering Counterfeit Trade: Illicit Market Insights, Best-Practice Strategies, and Management Toolbox*, Springer, Berlin, 231 p.

Tang, Felix; Tian, Vane-Ing; Zaichkowsky, Judy (2014). "Understanding Counterfeit Consumption," *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, vol. 26, no 1, p.4–20.

Tauber, Edward (1972). "Marketing Notes And Communications," *Journal of Marketing*, vol. 36, no 4, p.46–59.

Teah, Min; Phau, Ian; Huang, Yu-an (2015). "Devil Continues to Wear 'counterfeit' Prada: A Tale between Two Chinese Cities," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, vol. 32, no 3, p.176–89

Thaichon, Park; Quach, Sara (2016). "Dark Motives-Counterfeit Purchase Framework: Internal and External Motives behind Counterfeit Purchase via Digital Platforms," *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, vol. 33, p.82–91.

Tom, Gail; Garibaldi, Barbara; Zeng, Yvette; Pilcher, Julie (1998). "Consumer Demand for Counterfeit Goods," *Psychology and Marketing*, vol. 15, no 5, p.405–21.

Trinh, Viet-Dung; Phau, Ian (2012). "The Overlooked Component in the Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands Studies: Materialism - A Literature Review," *Contemporary Management Research*, vol. 8, no 3, p.251–63.

Turner, Scott F; Cardinal, Laura B; Burton, Richard M (2017). "Research Design for Mixed Methods," *Organizational Research Methods*, vol. 20, no 2, p.243–67.

Vel, K Prakas; Captain, Alia; Al-Abbas, Rabab; Hashemi, Balqees Al (2011). "Luxury Buying in the United Arab Emirates," *Journal of Business and Behavioural Sciences*, vol. 23, no 3, p.145–60.

Veloutsou, Cleopatra; Bian, Xuemei (2008). "A Cross-National Examination of Consumer Perceived Risk in the Context of Non-Deceptive Counterfeit Brands," *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, vol. 7, no 1, p.3–20.

Viot, Catherine; Roux, André Le; Krémer, Florence (2014). "Attitude towards the Purchase of Counterfeits: Antecedents and Effect on Intention to Purchase," *Recherche et Applications En Marketing (English Edition)*, vol. 29, no 2, p.3–31.

Wang, Fang; Zhang, Hongxia; Zang, Hengjia; Ouyang, Ming (2005). "Purchasing Pirated Software: An Initial Examination of Chinese Consumers," *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, vol. 22, no 6, p.340–51.

Wansink, Brian (2000). "New Techniques to Generate Key Marketing Insights," *Marketing Research*, vol. 12, no 2, p.28–36.

Wansink, Brian (2003). "Using Laddering to Understand and Leverage a Brand's Equity," *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, vol. 6, no 2, p.111–18.

Wee, Chow-Hou; Ta, Soo-Juan; Cheok, Kim-Hong (1995). "Non-price Determinants of Intention to Purchase Counterfeit Goods," *International Marketing Review*, vol. 12, no 6, p.19–46.

Wilcox, Keith; Kim, Hyeong Min; Sen, Sankar (2009). "Why Do Consumers Buy Counterfeit Luxury Brands?" *Journal of Marketing Research*, vol. 46, no 2, p.247–59.

Wilke, Ricky; Zaichowsky, Judith Lynne (1999). "Brand Imitation and Its Effects on Innovation, Competition, and Brand Equity," *Business Horizons*, vol. 42, no 6, p.9–18.

Yoo, Boonghee; Lee, Seung Hee (2012). "Asymmetrical Effects of Past Experiences with Genuine Fashion Luxury Brands and Their Counterfeits on Purchase Intention of Each," *Journal of Business Research*, vol. 65, no 10, p.1507–15.