

Examining the luxury apparel behavioural intentions of middle-class consumers: The case of the South African market

Nicole Cunningham, Daniël Johannes Petzer

Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa

*Correspondence

Nicole Cunningham, Gordon Institute of Business Science University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa. Email: ncunningham@uj.ac.za

Present address

Daniël Johannes Petzer, Henley Business School Africa, Sandton, South Africa

Abstract

The study aims to offer an understanding of luxury apparel behavioural intention amongst middle-class consumers in emerging markets. There is a lack of understanding of luxury apparel behavioural intention amongst the middle class in emerging markets, leading to luxury apparel marketers developing irrelevant marketing strategies. Consequently, this study uses the theory of planned behaviour by incorporating additional luxury-context antecedents and including collectivistic constructs and income levels as moderators to understand luxury apparel behavioural intention amongst the middle class in South Africa. As South Africa is the preferred market for luxury apparel retailers when targeting Africa, the South African middle class was deemed an important group to understand. Through the online questionnaire, 629 responses were obtained. Covariance-based structural equation modelling and moderation analysis were used to assess the proposed relationships. The results show that the impact of luxury-context antecedents - fashion involvement, materialism-success, brand consciousness, status consumption - provide a deeper understanding to how consumers in emerging markets differ in their consumption of luxury apparel. The moderating role of collectivism reveals that middle-class consumers in emerging markets are concerned with conforming and face-saving when purchasing luxury apparel. In addition, the moderating role of income levels reveals that middle-class consumers with lower income are more influenced by their social groups compared to those with higher income, which suggests that lower-income groups are more aspirational and seek acceptance. Further insights are provided regarding the moderating role of collectivism and income levels on behavioural intention.

Keywords – luxury apparel; middle class; emerging markets; collectivism; income levels.

1 INTRODUCTION

Luxury apparel demand has increased amongst consumers in emerging markets like South Africa, prompting luxury retailers to recognise emerging markets as a growth opportunity (Euromonitor International, 2017; Seo & Buchanan-Oliver, 2015). South Africa is regarded as the most lucrative market for luxury apparel retailers in Africa, with an annual growth rate of 5% and an estimated value of over R5.9 billion (\$82 billion) by 2023 (Euromonitor International, 2018). Middle-class consumers are responsible for this growth, as they aspire to obtain social acceptance through the luxury apparel they purchase with their increased disposable income (Euromonitor International, 2018; Seo & Buchanan-Oliver, 2015).

Although middle-class consumers in emerging markets are becoming the focus amongst luxury apparel retailers, efforts to understand these consumers are lacking. This is due to the assumption that consumers who purchase luxury do so for the same conspicuous reasons. Consumers in developed markets have become accustomed to buying luxury apparel and no longer perceive their purchases as ostentatious, while emerging-market consumers have not experienced the same exposure to luxury apparel and do not use their purchases conspicuously (Burger et al., 2015; Euromonitor International, 2017; Seo & Buchanan-Oliver, 2015). Incorrectly using conspicuous consumption as the basis of marketing strategies has resulted in marketing efforts that do not resonate with middle-class consumers in emerging markets (Cui et al., 2015; Hermosilla et al., 2019; Seo & Buchanan-Oliver, 2015). Since consumers in emerging and developed markets differ in their demographic and psychographic profiles (Tanusondjaja et al., 2015), luxury apparel retailers should understand that middle-class consumers prefer not to be stereotyped as “flashy”, “ostentatious”, and “materialistic” in how they purchase luxury (Steinfeld, 2015) and adjust their marketing strategies accordingly.

Instead of basing marketing strategies on conspicuous consumption, factors like social impact (through collectivism) and income levels should form the basis of luxury apparel research within emerging markets. Consumers in Africa’s emerging markets are collectivistic, where others’ opinions are significant (Chikweche & Fletcher, 2014; Green et al., 2005), and they aspire to have social acceptance. Furthermore, emerging-market consumers’ income levels are key in their decision-making (Cui et al., 2015; Goldsmith et al., 2012). Accordingly, the behavioural intention of the middle class in emerging markets is expected to be more complex and a well-established theory should be used to determine their luxury apparel purchase intention. The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) is used as it is regarded as an accurate behavioural intention model, allowing researchers to include other constructs that may be interesting in a particular context (Ajzen, 1991; Phau et al., 2015; White, 2005). From a theoretical perspective, adapting the TPB by introducing luxury-context antecedents and incorporating moderators offers a comprehensive understanding of the behavioural intention

of middle-class consumers in an emerging market. This understanding will benefit luxury apparel retailers that recognise middle-class consumers within developed and emerging markets differ (Cui et al., 2015; Seo & Buchanan-Oliver, 2015), and require insights into how they should develop marketing strategies that resonate with their target audience.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Berghaus et al. (2018) luxury products should include the following characteristics: high price, high quality, aesthetic value, rarity, extraordinariness and symbolic meaning. Ko et al. (2019) who reviewed eight of the most commonly used definitions of luxury, five key elements were included in all definitions: quality, value, image, premium pricing and deep connection – similar to Berghaus et al. (2018). Therefore, based on the review conducted by Ko et al., (2019), a luxury brand is a branded product or service that consumers perceive to: 1) be high quality; 2) offer authentic value via desired benefits (whether functional or emotional); 3) have a prestigious image within the market built on qualities such as artisanship, craftsmanship, or service quality; 4) be worthy of commanding a premium price; and 5) be capable of inspiring a deep connection, or resonance, with the consumer (Ko et al., 2019, p. 406). Although the definition may appear generic, Ko et al. (2019) confirm that consumers in various countries may conceptualise the concept of luxury differently which justifies the development of a generic definition of luxury.

The definition of luxury may be considered generic however, the consumption of luxury apparel is not. The majority of research conducted on luxury apparel consumption frame the research based on conspicuous consumption undertones. While this focus may have been appropriate when a homogenous group of wealthy consumers were purchasing luxury apparel, it is no longer valid today (Chandon, Laurent, & Valette-Florence, 2016; Chen & Lamberti, 2015). Nowadays, consumers of luxury apparel are categorised as a heterogeneous group of consumers who are influenced by their social groups and culture and are typically middle-class consumers (Seo et al., 2015) who purchase luxury apparel to improve their social image and acceptance within their social groups (Hudders & Pandelaere, 2012; O'Cass, 2001). This indicates that research on luxury consumption should focus on overall behaviour to determine true motivations instead of relying as conspicuous consumption.

The TPB posits that the more favourable the attitude and social norm concerning behaviour and the greater the perceived behavioural control (PBC), the stronger an individual's intention to perform the behaviour (Chiu & Leng, 2015). Although the TPB has been criticised widely (Ajzen, 2011; Amin et al., 2016), it is still a comprehensive theoretical model for predicting human behaviour (Blackwell et al., 2006; Phau et al., 2015; White, 2005). The TPB is the most applicable theoretical model for this study for two reasons. Firstly, when consumers purchase luxury apparel, social value is important, as they buy luxury apparel to

conform to their social group's expectations (Jain et al., 2017). The TPB includes a measure of social value through social norms, making it an appropriate theoretical base for a study on luxury apparel consumption (Jain et al., 2017). Secondly, this study is the first of its kind, focusing on the middle class in South Africa as a whole and investigating the impact additional antecedents and constructs may have on the behavioural intention towards luxury apparel, which calls for the use of a well-established theory allowing context-related amendments. The TPB includes various antecedents and constructs to further understand behaviour, and researchers are encouraged to include applicable antecedents and constructs to better predict behaviour (Sutton, 1998). The most common luxury-context antecedents used to understand luxury apparel consumption are materialism, fashion involvement, brand consciousness, and status consumption (Celik & Kocaman, 2017), Kim et al., 2012, Park et al., 2007, Yim et al., 2014, Zhang & Kim, 2013). Although these antecedents are imperative to understand luxury apparel consumption (Jin & Kang, 2011; Park et al., 2007; Zhang & Kim, 2013), the above-mentioned studies did not measure all of the luxury-context antecedents in one study, thus this research incorporates these antecedents in one theoretical model. This study used the traditional constructs in the TPB (attitude, social norms, and PBC) and included additional antecedents and constructs to understand how South African middle-class consumers intend to purchase luxury apparel.

2.1 Luxury apparel and the South African middle-class

Most emerging markets show a growth in the middle class owing to the reduction in income inequality and the growing support of entrepreneurial activities (African Development Bank Group, 2014). Euromonitor International (2020) confirms this growth, reporting that in 2018 there were 679 million middle-class households within emerging markets with a spending power of \$17.2 trillion; while in developed markets, there were 176 million households spending \$11.8 trillion. South Africa reportedly contains the most lucrative middle class due to its size. The middle class in other emerging countries, such as Brazil, Russia, Egypt, and India, account for 3–8% of its population, while South Africa's middle class comprise 31% of the population (Africa Check, 2018). Consequently, retailers are becoming more cognisant of emerging markets like South Africa offering substantial expansion opportunities (Euromonitor International, 2017).

Middle-class consumers use luxury apparel to enhance their social status and reflect their wealth (Kardes, 2016). South African middle-class consumers demand luxury, but luxury apparel retailers have not realised that middle-class consumers in emerging markets differ to those in developed markets, assuming that all middle-class consumers have uniform spending habits (Williams, 2017). In addition, research on South Africa's middle class has been limited in two areas. Firstly, most research has focused on the black middle class, instead of South

Africa's entire middle class (Anderson & Nhlapo, 2009; Burger et al., 2015). This has prompted marketing strategies focusing on the consumer's race instead of their purchasing behaviour. Secondly, the definition of the middle class is another challenge in South Africa (Burger & McAravey, 2014). When defining the middle class in other markets, income levels are used. However, as income inequality is apparent in South Africa, using income as the sole classifier of the middle class would be unrealistic, and a broader definition is necessary (African Development Bank Group, 2014; Leibbrandt et al., 2012; Lemanski, 2017). In this study, the middle class are people who have achieved literacy (at least seven years of education); have access to key public services (electricity, clean water, and sanitation); are employed or live in a household with an employed member; have access to information; and live in a household with a stove and a refrigerator (Burger & McAravey, 2014).

2.2 The conceptual model and hypothesis development

The proposed conceptual model (presented in Figure 1) demonstrates how additional luxury-context antecedents are incorporated into the TPB and the use of moderators (cultural variables and income) in this study.

2.2.1 Luxury-context antecedents of attitude and social norms

The first proposed antecedent to attitude in a luxury context is materialism, which is a "set of centrally held beliefs about the importance of possessions in one's life" (Richins & Dawson, 1992, p. 55). These beliefs impact the products consumers' purchase, where materialism is important to understand when appearance- and status-related products are involved (Park et al., 2007). For example, when consumers are materialistic, they acquire valuable possessions to communicate their success and wealth to their social group (Durvasula & Lysonki, 2010). According to Hudders and Pandelaere (2012), materialistic consumers purchase luxury apparel due to the associated happiness and reflection of wealth and success. As attitude reflects the emotional response within the TPB (Alserhan et al., 2015), it is suggested that materialism is an antecedent to attitude in a luxury context (Liao & Wang, 2009), and the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₁: Materialism significantly and positively impacts attitude.

Fashion involvement, the second proposed antecedent to attitude, is as "an individual's favourable feelings and associations about the accepted styles of luxury products as meaningful, important, and engaging" (Bhaduri & Stanforth, 2017, p. 179). Consumers who like fashion tend to seek approval for their purchases from their social group, thereby amplifying their involvement in fashion (Bhaduri & Stanforth, 2017). In a luxury context, fashion

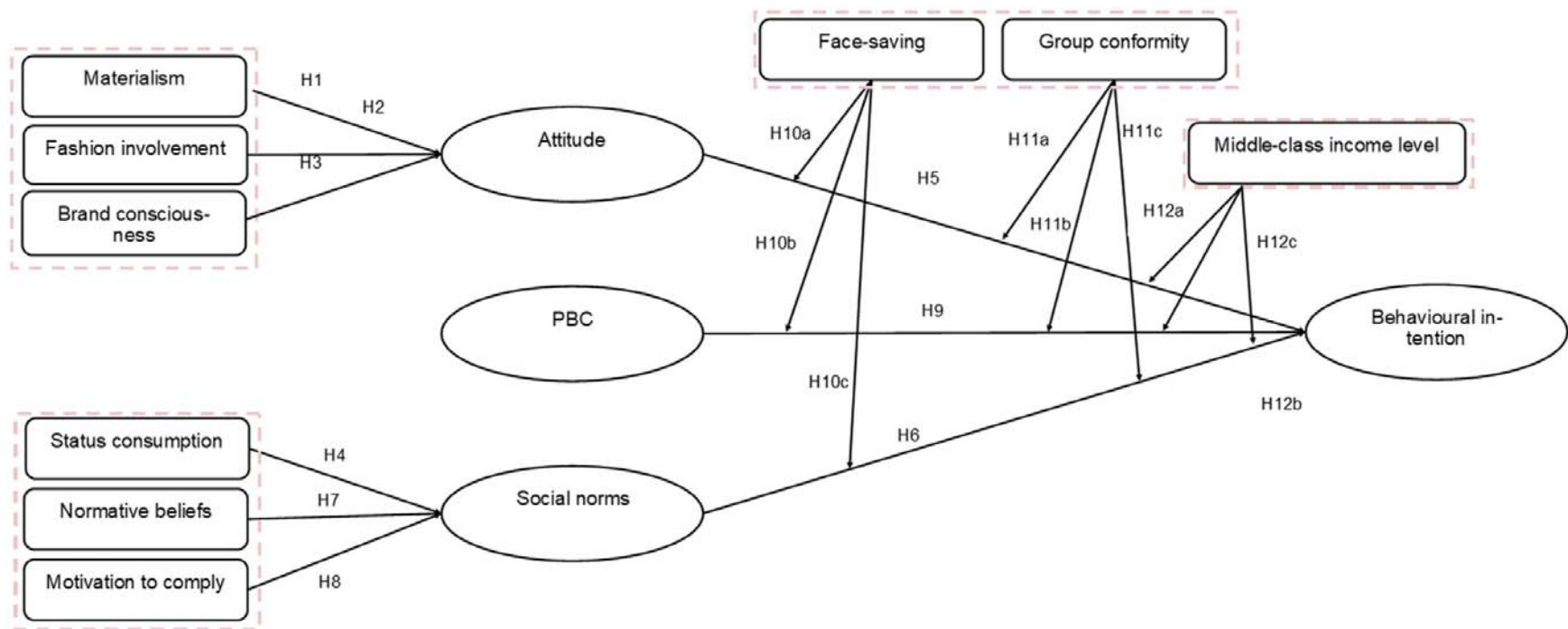


FIGURE 1. Presents the conceptual model developed for this study

involvement is crucial, as consumers who buy luxury apparel want to be regarded as trendsetters and seek approval from their social group (Jain & Mishra, 2020; Kim et al., 2012). Consequently, consumers who purchase luxury apparel are highly involved in fashion (O'Cass, 2004). This suggests that what the consumers deem fashionable will directly impact their attitudes, which are often socially motivated (Alserhan et al., 2015). Hence, the more consumers perceive the luxury apparel brand as being socially acceptable and trendy, the more positive their attitudes will be (Celik & Kocaman, 2017; Kim et al., 2012; O'Cass, 2004). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₂: Fashion involvement significantly and positively impacts attitude.

The final proposed antecedent to attitude, brand consciousness, is described by Ye et al. (2012) as the psychological preference for well-known brands. This is impacted by how exposed the consumers are to the brand and whether it reflects their personalities (Nan & Heo, 2007). Brand-conscious consumers tend to be sensitive to the brand name and seek products from a brand that reflects their personality (Nan & Heo, 2007). In a luxury context, a consumer's level of brand consciousness is amplified, as brand-conscious consumers tend to purchase expensive, well-known luxury apparel brands they believe enhance their image in their social group (Zhang & Kim, 2013). This is expected to impact consumers' attitudes towards luxury apparel, as brand-conscious consumers tend to develop favourable attitudes towards luxury apparel (Yim et al., 2014). This is because luxury apparel gives consumers a positive image amongst their social group, making them more conscious of the brands they purchase and shaping their attitude towards certain luxury apparel brands (Sharda & Bhat, 2018). This indicates that consumers' level of brand consciousness will impact their attitude towards specific luxury apparel brands (Zhang & Kim, 2013). Consequently, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₃: Brand consciousness significantly and positively impacts attitude.

Status consumption is proposed as the antecedent to social norms. Status consumption is "the motivations and practices that consumers adopt to improve their social standing through the use of products that signal social status to other consumers" (Grotts and Johnson, 2013, p. 284). Status consumption is influential in a luxury apparel context, as consumers seeking status purchase products that allow them to communicate status and wealth to their social group (Gil et al., 2012; Goldsmith et al., 2012; Phau et al., 2015). This indicates that consumers who purchase luxury apparel aim to validate their position within their social group (Grotts & Johnson, 2013). This is especially true within the South African context where consumers are status-motivated and purchase clothing according to their social group's expectations to obtain approval (Cronje et al., 2016). Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₄: Status consumption significantly and positively impacts social norms.

2.2.2 Direct effect of attitude, perceived behavioural control and social norms on behavioural intention

Attitude is based on a predisposition and determines whether people will respond favourably or unfavourably to an object (Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Schade et al., 2016). Researchers should focus on attitudes, as consumers use these to guide their intentions and behaviour (Ajzen, 2001; De Houwer et al., 2013). As luxury apparel purchases are emotionally and socially motivated, the attitude construct in the TPB gives researchers important insights into the behavioural intention towards luxury apparel (Alserhan et al., 2015). A favourable attitude towards luxury apparel urges consumers to commit to the behaviour and make favourable decisions (Jain & Khan, 2017; Loureiro & Araújo, 2014). Thus, the following hypothesis is presented:

H₅: Attitude significantly and positively impacts behavioural intention.

Social norms refer to whether the brand or product consumers purchase is socially acceptable in their social group (Lakmali & Kajendra, 2017; Son et al., 2013). Consumers want to adhere to their social group's expectations and purchase products based on others' opinions (Hegner et al., 2017). The social norms construct comprises normative beliefs (i.e., the trust placed in the social group and their opinion) and motivation to comply (i.e., complying with the social group's expectations) (Bearden et al., 1990), which are influential in luxury purchasing (Phau et al., 2015). As luxury apparel is used in a public setting, consumers are motivated by their desires to fit in and purchase luxury apparel allowing them to do so (Karjaluoto et al., 2016; Phau et al., 2015). Thus, as luxury apparel purchases reflect people's images and their social groups' opinions impact their intention to buy luxury apparel (Phau et al., 2015), the following hypotheses are presented:

H₆: Social norms significantly and positively impact behavioural intention.

H₇: Normative beliefs significantly and positively impact social norms.

H₈: Motivation to comply significantly and positively impacts social norms.

In the TPB, the PBC is the degree of difficulty that individuals perceive when performing a specific behaviour (Armitage & Conner, 2001). PBC allows the measurement of resources or opportunities that could be outside of consumers' control (Ajzen, 1991). For example, consumers may not feel as though they are able to choose the correct apparel, resulting in them not feeling in control. Thus, this construct lets researchers understand how consumers' perceived level of control impacts their intention to engage in behaviour. The most accurate method to measuring PBC is to include capacity (a person's ability to perform the behaviour) and autonomy (a person's perception of control over the behaviour) (Ajzen, 2002; Brickell et al., 2006; Kidwell & Jewell, 2010) – the greater the control, the more likely the person is to

perform the behaviour. Although luxury apparel purchases are usually within the consumer's control, thus making PBC irrelevant, PBC has been found to impact luxury apparel behavioural intention (Gil et al., 2012; Jin & Kang, 2011). This is because confident consumers may be willing to purchase luxury apparel, but the control they have over their financial resources may negatively impact their behavioural intention (Bagheri, 2014; Lakmali & Kajendra, 2017). Gao (2009) found that, in China, the PBC had the greatest impact on luxury apparel purchase intentions. As luxury apparel behavioural intention is expected to be affected by PBC, the following hypothesis is presented:

H₉: PBC significantly and positively impacts the behavioural intention of luxury apparel.

2.2.3 Moderating role of face-saving and group conformity (collectivism)

Luxury apparel purchases were found to be socially driven, where consumers want to conform to their social group's expectations (Chiu & Leng, 2015). This suggests that when buying luxury apparel, consumers behave collectively, purchasing apparel they believe their social group will approve of (Phau et al., 2015). As luxury purchases are collective, it is worthwhile understanding collectivism's role in behavioural intention. Although the TPB offers social norms as a construct to explain how consumers behave according to their social group's expectations, this does not measure collectivism's role (Malhotra & McCort, 2001). Instead, two additional constructs developed by Lee (1991) – face-saving and group conformity – enable researchers to understand collectivism's role in the TPB. Incorporating these two constructs in the TPB has been supported by researchers (Chung & Psyarchik, 2010; Le Monkhhouse et al., 2012; Siu et al., 2016; Son et al., 2013), as it allows an accurate predication of behavioural intention.

Face-saving refers to the consumers' position in their social network (Jin & Kang, 2011), whereas group conformity relates to beliefs or actions altered by group pressures (Son et al., 2013). Siu et al. (2016) concurred that the TPB supports the idea that face-saving is a self-esteem maintenance process relating to a desire to avoid losing face in front of others. Consequently, humiliation may arise from how individuals are treated by their social group and consumers may feel forced to meet others' expectations to save face. Alternatively, group conformity is evident in cases where individuals feel pressure to comply with the social norms, regardless of their own views (Chung & Pysarchik, 2000). When including the constructs in the TPB, it is agreed that face-saving and group conformity should be used as moderators to independent constructs in the TPB (attitude, PBC, and social norms) and behavioural intention. This changes the weighting of the constructs and improves the predictability of the TPB model (Lee et al., 2006), and offers an understanding of the role collectivistic constructs play in luxury apparel behavioural intention. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_{10a}: Face-saving moderates the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention to purchase luxury apparel.

H_{10b}: Face-saving moderates the relationship between PBC and behavioural intention to purchase luxury apparel.

H_{10c}: Face-saving moderates the relationship between social norms and behavioural intention to purchase luxury apparel.

H_{11a}: Group conformity moderates the relationship between attitude behavioural intention to purchase luxury apparel.

H_{11b}: Group conformity moderates the relationship between PBC and behavioural intention to purchase luxury apparel.

H_{11c}: Group conformity moderates the relationship between social norms and behavioural intention to purchase luxury apparel.

2.2.4 Moderating role of South African middle-class income levels

Due to the study's context (luxury apparel behavioural intention), income levels are used to segment the middle class into emerging and established middle-class consumers. Emerging middle-class consumers have a disposable income of R9 084–R31 500 (\$626–\$2 173/€561–€1 948) per month, whereas established middle-class consumers earn R31 501–R65 350 (\$2 174–\$4 510/€1 949–€4 041) per month after deductions ("What you need to know about South Africa's middle class", 2016).

Segmenting the middle class into two income levels offers the potential to further understand the middle class and their intention to purchase luxury apparel. The two groups' behaviour is expected to differ as the established middle-class consumers (higher income) have been in the middle class for some time and may not purchase luxury as frequently, while the emerging middle-class consumers (lower income) may purchase luxury apparel more frequently to conform to social norms (Burger et al., 2015; Mai & Tambyah, 2011). Thus, behaviour amongst the two income groups is expected to differ through moderation, as income levels impact behavioural intention (Eizenberg & Salvo, 2015; Wong & Zeng, 2015). Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_{12a}: Middle-class income levels moderate the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention to purchase luxury apparel.

H_{12b}: Middle-class income levels moderate the relationship between PBC and behavioural intention to purchase luxury apparel.

H_{12c}: Middle-class income levels moderate the relationship between social norms and behavioural intention to purchase luxury apparel.

3 METHOD

3.1 Sampling

This study's unit of analysis included South African middle-class consumers at a certain income level, who reside in Gauteng and have purchased luxury apparel in the past six months from luxury apparel retailers. Gauteng was chosen as it is regarded South Africa's economic hub and where most luxury apparel purchases are made (Grange, 2015), and boasts the largest middle-class representation (Statistics SA, 2018). Non-probability sampling was executed by a well-established research agency that used its research panel to identify respondents who met the criteria. A sample of 650 respondents was predicted for this study, comprising 325 emerging middle-class and 325 established middle-class consumers.

3.2 Measuring instrument and data collection

Data was collected for this study via a self-administered online questionnaire comprising mostly close-ended questions. The questionnaire revealed the respondents' demographic profile and luxury apparel patronage habits, and included existing scales adapted from previous studies to measure the constructs in the conceptual model. Table 1 presents the constructs, their corresponding items, and the source of each scale. All scales in Table 1, excluding attitude and PBC, were measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale, where 1 indicated "strongly disagree" and 7 indicated "strongly agree". The attitude and PBC scales were measured using seven-point semantic differential scales with bipolar descriptors.

Data was collected using an online questionnaire, before starting the questionnaire, respondents were informed of their ethical rights and consented to participating in the study. The questionnaire's screening questions ensured respondents who completed the questionnaire formed part of the target population (i.e., middle class with a certain level of disposable income). Six-hundred and twenty-nine completed responses were received, with 318 respondents classified as emerging middle-class and 311 as established middle-class consumers.

TABLE 1. Constructs and their corresponding items used in the study

Construct	Code	Items	Source
Attitude	ATT1	I consider purchasing luxury apparel to be <i>extremely positive</i> or <i>extremely negative</i> .	Jain and Khan (2017)
	ATT2	I consider purchasing luxury apparel to be <i>extremely worthwhile</i> or <i>extremely worthless</i> .	
	ATT3	I consider purchasing luxury apparel to be <i>extremely beneficial</i> or <i>extremely useless</i> .	
Materialism	Sub-dimension: success		O'Cass (2004); Richins (2004)
	M1	I admire people who own expensive homes, cars and clothes.	
	M2	The things I own say a lot about how well I'm doing in life.	
Fashion involvement	M3	I like to own things that impress people.	Zhang and Kim (2013)
	FI1	Luxury apparel matters to me.	
	FI2	People turn to me for advice on luxury apparel.	
	FI3	I usually have one or more of the very latest styles of luxury apparel.	
Brand consciousness	FI4	I like to shop for luxury apparel.	Giovannini et al. (2015)
	BC1	I pay attention to the brand names of the luxury apparel I buy.	
	BC2	Brand names tell me something about the quality of the luxury apparel.	
	BC3	Brand names tell me something about how "cool" an item of luxury apparel is.	
	BC4	Sometimes I am willing to pay more money for luxury apparel because of its brand name.	
	BC5	Brand name luxury apparel that costs a lot of money is good quality.	
	BC6	I pay attention to the brand names of most of the products I buy.	

Social norms	SN1	Most people who are important to me think that I should purchase luxury apparel.	Jain and Khan (2017)
	SN2	I feel social pressure to buy luxury apparel.	
	SN3	The people who I listen to could influence me to purchase luxury apparel.	
Status consumption	SC1	I would buy luxury apparel because it indicates status.	Teah et al. (2015)
	SC2	I am only interested in luxury apparel that indicates status.	
	SC3	I would pay more for luxury apparel if it indicates status.	
	SC4	Luxury apparel is more valuable to me if it has some snob appeal.	
Normative beliefs	NB1	My family would support my decision to purchase luxury apparel.	Jain and Khan (2017)
	NB2	My friends would support my decision to purchase luxury apparel.	
	NB3	My partner/someone important to me would support my decision to purchase luxury apparel.	
Motivation to comply	MC1	I want to do what my family thinks I should do when purchasing luxury apparel.	
	MC2	I want to do what my friends think I should do when purchasing luxury apparel.	
	MC3	I want to do what my partner/someone important to me thinks I should do when purchasing luxury apparel.	
Perceived behavioural control	Capacity		Armitage and Conner (2001); Hagger and Chatzisarantis (2007)
	C1	I believe I have the ability to purchase luxury apparel. (Definitely/definitely do not)	
	C2	To what extent do you see yourself as being capable of purchasing luxury apparel? (Very capable/very incapable)	

	C3	How confident are you that you will be able to purchase luxury apparel? (Very sure/very unsure)	
	C4	For me to purchase luxury apparel would be... (very easy/very difficult).	
	C5	If I wanted to, I could easily purchase luxury apparel. (Strongly agree/strongly disagree)	
	C6	I am certain that I can purchase luxury apparel. (Completely agree/completely disagree)	
	Autonomy		
	AU1	Whether or not I purchase luxury apparel is completely up to me. (Agree/disagree)	
	AU2	How much control do you have over whether you will purchase luxury apparel? (Complete control/no control)	
	AU3	I feel in complete control over whether I will purchase luxury apparel. (Completely true/completely false)	
Behavioural intention	BI1	I will buy luxury apparel in the near future.	Soh et al. (2017)
	BI2	Whenever I need to buy apparel, it is very likely that I will purchase luxury apparel instead of general apparel.	
	BI3	There is a strong possibility to purchase luxury apparel.	
	BI4	I am likely to purchase luxury apparel.	
Face-saving	FS1	My decision to buy luxury apparel would be influenced by whether wearing the luxury apparel would hurt my reputation with people who are important to me.	Lee (1991)
	FS2	My decision to buy luxury apparel would be influenced by whether I feel ashamed when people who are important to me see me wearing the luxury apparel.	
	FS3	My decision to buy luxury apparel would be affected by whether I think the luxury apparel would improve my reputation to the people who	

		are important to me.
Group conformity	GC1	I feel that most people around me expect me to comply with their decision to buy luxury apparel.
	GC2	My decision to buy luxury apparel would be influenced by knowing that many other people would also buy luxury apparel.
	GC3	My decision to buy luxury apparel would be influenced by whether wearing the luxury apparel would make me fit in.

3.3. Data analysis

IBM's SPSS version 25 was used to compute the descriptive statistics and assess the normality of the data. Through Mplus version 8, CB-SEM was used to estimate the measurement and structural models. Using CB-SEM was deemed appropriate as it accounts for measurement error (Strasheim, 2014) and tests interrelationships. When estimating the measurement model, the purpose was to test the psychometric properties of the scales adapted for this study by assessing the model fit, convergent and discriminant validity. CB-SEM was also used to estimate the structural model, specifically hypotheses H_1 to H_9 . As the data was not normally distributed, the measurement and structural models were estimated using the MLM estimator, which is robust to non-normality (Muthén and Muthén, 1998-2010:533) and the Satorra-Bentler chi-square fit index. Indirect effects were tested using Hayes's PROCESS macro, these tests focused on hypotheses H_{10} to H_{12c} . In addition, variance inflation factors were inspected and none were higher than 5 therefore indicating that there were no multicollinearity concerns. Moreover, Harman single factor analyses revealed that no single factor explained the majority of the variance in the study. Therefore, this reveals that multicollinearity and common method bias were not factors in this study.

4 FINDINGS

4.1 Demographics and patronage habits

Of the 629 respondents, there was an equal distribution in terms of income levels, with 50.6% being classified as emerging middle-class consumers (lower-income level) and 49.4% being classified as established middle-class consumers (higher-income level). The respondents comprised 53.9% males and 46.1% females. Most respondents were aged 30–41 (33.1%) and were married with children in their households (36.1%). Lastly, most participants (38.9%) spent less than R1 999.99 (\$138/€124) per month on luxury apparel, followed by R2 000–R3 999.99 (\$139–\$276/€125–€247) per month (32.8%).

TABLE 2. Construct reliability and validity (including descriptive statistics) for estimated measurement model

Construct and items	Mean	SD	Loading estimate	AVE	CR	Cronbach's alpha scores
Attitude				0.836	0.876	0.871
ATT1	2.19	1.088	0.735			
ATT2	2.15	1.147	0.921			
ATT3	2.32	1.144	0.851			
Materialism				0.799	0.842	0.843
M1	4.17	1.804	0.741			
M2	4.26	1.768	0.807			
M3	3.26	1.792	0.85			
Fashion involvement				0.767	0.852	0.850
FI1	4.17	1.610	0.74			
FI2	3.99	1.748	0.76			
FI3	4.12	1.756	0.796			
FI4	4.72	1.544	0.773			
Brand consciousness				0.796	0.897	0.896
BC1	4.85	1.621	0.824			
BC2	5.30	1.392	0.73			
BC3	4.49	1.664	0.766			
BC4	4.61	1.717	0.823			
BC5	4.38	1.649	0.658			
BC6	4.78	1.674	0.838			
PBC				0.832	0.954	0.952
C1	3.34	1.628	0.892			
C2	3.27	1.567	0.885			
C3	3.23	1.654	0.878			

C4	3.42	1.566	0.868			
C5	3.43	1.665	0.865			
C6	3.36	1.621	0.915			
AU1	2.52	1.929	0.698			
AU2	2.49	1.886	0.744			
AU3	2.59	1.902	0.747			
Social norms				0.756	0.802	0.777
SN1	3.51	1.755	0.663			
SN2	2.83	1.709	0.846			
SN3	3.29	1.810	0.759			
Status consumption				0.892	0.940	0.938
SC1	3.40	1.787	0.848			
SC2	2.87	1.721	0.92			
SC3	2.84	1.750	0.943			
SC4	2.64	1.679	0.857			
Normative beliefs				0.821	0.861	0.861
NB1	4.38	1.595	0.812			
NB2	4.45	1.531	0.813			
NB3	4.70	1.581	0.838			
Motivation to comply				0.849	0.887	0.880
MC1	3.19	1.681	0.902			
MC2	2.82	1.548	0.853			
MC3	3.56	1.829	0.793			
Face-saving				0.854	0.891	0.893
FS1	2.99	1.699	0.869			
FS2	2.86	1.653	0.781			
FS3	3.03	1.728	0.911			

Group conformity				0.854	0.891	0.888
GC1	2.86	1.636	0.785			
GC2	2.74	1.601	0.918			
GC3	2.87	1.741	0.859			

Abbreviations: AVE, average variance extracted; CR, composite reliability; SD, standard deviation.

4.2 Measurement model

The measurement model revealed acceptable fit (Satorra-Bentler $\chi^2/df = 2.717$; RMSEA = 0.052; CFI = 0.918; TLI = 0.909; SRMR = 0.060). Table 2 presents the construct reliability and validity for the model, and descriptive statistics for each item.

The results in Table 2 reveal that the data is reliable and valid, as the AVE values are above 0.5, the CR values are greater than 0.7, and the Cronbach alpha scores are above 0.7 (Hair et al., 2013; Hooper et al., 2008). To assess construct validity, the Fornell and Larcker (1981) procedure was followed, based on this procedure, it was observed that the square root of the AVE exceeded its correlation with most constructs, except for: fashion involvement and brand consciousness; social norms and status consumption; and social norms and group conformity. To further assess discriminant validity for these constructs, the procedure proposed by Shiu et al. (2011) was followed, allowing a fixed model to be measured against a free model. The fixed model is set to a fixed correlation of 1.0 and the free model is freely estimated (Farrell, 2010). If the free model, with a drop of one degree of freedom, presents a χ^2 value greater than 3.84, then discriminant validity between the two constructs is supported. These constructs revealed values greater than 3.84, providing sufficient evidence for construct validity. As the measurement model supplied sufficient evidence of construct validity and reliability, the structural model was estimated based on the conceptual model presented in Figure 1.

4.3 Structural model

The structural model tested H_{1-9} and revealed acceptable fit (Satorra-Bentler $\chi^2/df = 3.23$; RMSEA = 0.060; CFI = 0.903; TLI = 0.894; SRMR = 0.074). Although the χ^2/df is slightly above the cut-off of 3 and the TLI is slightly below the 0.09 cut-off, Hair et al. (2015) suggested that the range of absolute and incremental model fit indices be assessed and that the theory should not be compromised. The results of the structural model are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3. Results of the structural model

Structural paths	Estimate (β)	p-value	Outcome
Materialism \rightarrow attitude	-0.157	0.001*	H1 not accepted
Fashion involvement \rightarrow attitude	0.544	0.0001*	H2 accepted
Brand consciousness \rightarrow attitude	0.047	0.470	H3 not accepted
Status consumption \rightarrow social norms	0.620	0.0001*	H4 accepted
Normative beliefs \rightarrow social norms	0.157	0.0001*	H7 accepted
Motivation to comply \rightarrow social norms	0.262	0.0001*	H8 accepted
Attitude \rightarrow behavioural intention	0.294	0.0001*	H5 accepted
PBC \rightarrow behavioural intention	-0.077	0.032*	H9 not accepted
Social norms \rightarrow behavioural intention	0.297	0.0001*	H6 accepted

Note: *Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$.

H₁₋₃ were developed to test the relationships between the luxury-context proposed antecedents and attitude. Table 3 shows that materialism-success and fashion involvement have statistically significant relationships with attitude. The relationship between fashion involvement and attitude (H₂) was positive and significant ($\beta = 0.544$; $p = 0.0001$), since fashion involvement is related to a consumer's need to remain engaged with fashion trends and to receive social acceptance (Celik & Kocaman, 2017). Bhaduri and Stanforth (2017) add that due to luxury apparel being expensive, consumers want to be more involved, which impacts their attitudes. This is consistent with research on emerging markets (Kim et al., 2012; Zhang & Kim, 2013). Replicating the study in a developed market, Kim and Zhang (2015) found a significant and positive relationship between fashion involvement and attitude towards luxury. This is because consumers purchasing luxury apparel are more fashion-conscious, using luxury apparel to communicate status amongst their social group (Cui et al., 2015). Therefore, fashion involvement is an important element when studying luxury apparel consumption – regardless of whether the study is in an emerging or developed market.

The relationship between materialism-success and attitude (H₃) was negative ($\beta = -0.157$; $p = 0.001$). Zhang and Kim (2013) found materialism to have a marginally significant relationship with attitude in a luxury context; whereas this study found that the more materialistic consumers are, the more negative their attitude towards luxury apparel is. This indicates that the seminal materialism scale used (developed by Richins, 2004) in this study

may not be applicable to all emerging markets. The seminal scale consisted of three dimensions (happiness, centrality and success) and were used to measure the materialism construct in this study. However, only the items relating to the 'success' dimension met the factor loading criteria. Therefore, the measure of materialism in this study relates to materialism-success. Although Zhang and Kim's (2013) study was conducted in an emerging market, most of the items loaded onto the success and centrality sub-dimensions, which explains why this study's findings differ (as success was the only sub-dimension included). Cho et al. (2016) suggest that the materialism sub-dimensions (success, centrality, and happiness) will differ according to the country's level of collectivism. As in the case of this study whereby the materialism construct only measured through the success dimension. Although South Africa is collectivistic (Chikweche & Fletcher, 2014; Green et al., 2005), research has found that South African consumers relate materialism to happiness and not success (Guse & Jesse, 2014), suggesting that these consumers view their possessions as a means of deriving pleasure instead of the quality and quantity of their possessions (as shown by the success sub-dimension) (Cho et al., 2016). Furthermore, South African middle-class consumers tend to associate materialism with negative connotations (greedy, ostentatious), and due to the vast income inequality gaps in emerging markets, particularly South Africa (Sulla & Zikhali, 2018), they may not want to appear materialistic. This suggests that consumers across emerging markets differ in their perceptions of materialism.

The relationship between brand consciousness and attitude (H_4), was the only relationship in the structural model found to be insignificant ($\beta = 0.047$; $p = 0.470$), which contradicts the findings of Zhang and Kim (2013). A possible explanation of the finding in this study could be the lack of exposure to luxury apparel in South Africa. Luxury apparel stores are only available in selected shopping centres in three of the nine cities, Johannesburg, Pretoria, and Cape Town (Grange, 2015), indicating that consumers may be less aware and conscious of the luxury apparel available. In a study by Mukherjee et al. (2012) in India, the same finding was reported, as the consumers were only recently exposed to luxury apparel brands in selected locations. In a more recent study by Sharda and Bhat (2019), a significant and positive relationship was found between brand consciousness and attitude towards luxury apparel. This suggests that the more consumers are aware of a brand, the more conscious they become (Ye et al., 2012).

H_4 and H_{7-8} were developed to test the relationship between antecedents and social norms. All three proposed antecedents – normative beliefs ($\beta = 0.157$; $p = 0.0001$), motivation to comply ($\beta = 0.262$; $p = 0.0001$), and status consumption ($\beta = 0.620$; $p = 0.0001$) – were found to have a significant and positive relationship with social norms, which resulted in H_4 and H_{7-8} being accepted. Normative beliefs and motivation to comply were established relationships within the TPB and the results of this study correspond with the findings of

Summers et al. (2006). Status consumption was the last luxury-context antecedent tested and the results suggest that consumers use luxury apparel to express their status amongst their social group. South African consumers are status-driven and use apparel to communicate this (Cronje et al., 2016). Thus, the more consumers are driven by their need to communicate status, the more they will conform to the expectations of their social group.

H₅, H₆, and H₉ were developed to test the structural paths between the three key TPB constructs (attitude, social norms, and PBC). All three relationships were found to be statistically significant, with the relationships between attitude and the behavioural intention (H₅) ($\beta = 0.294$; $p = 0.0001$), and social norms and behavioural intention (H₆) ($\beta = 0.297$; $p = 0.0001$) being positive and significant. However, the relationship between PBC and behavioural intention towards luxury apparel (H₉) was found to be negative ($\beta = -0.077$; $p = 0.032$), resulting in H₉ being rejected. The finding relating to attitude supports Babin and Harris (2016), as attitudes significantly impacts behaviour and are difficult to alter. Additionally, the finding relating to social norms and luxury apparel behavioural intention can be explained by luxury apparel being used to project the consumers' image (Loureiro & Araújo, 2014). Although PBC had a significant relationship with luxury apparel behavioural intention, it was negative. Armitage and Conner (2001) explained that PBC should not have a positive relationship with behavioural intention when the consumer is making a conscious choice. Consequently, the study confirms that purchasing luxury apparel is a conscious choice and a negative relationship between the PBC and behavioural intention should be expected in a luxury apparel context. The results are presented in Figure 2.

4.4 Moderation analyses

H_{10a–12c} were developed to test the moderation of the collectivism constructs (face-saving and group conformity) and the middle-class income levels. Table 4 presents the interaction effects and p-values for the first set of moderation analyses relating to the collectivism constructs – H_{10a–11c} – to test whether the collectivism constructs affect the three relationships in the TPB.

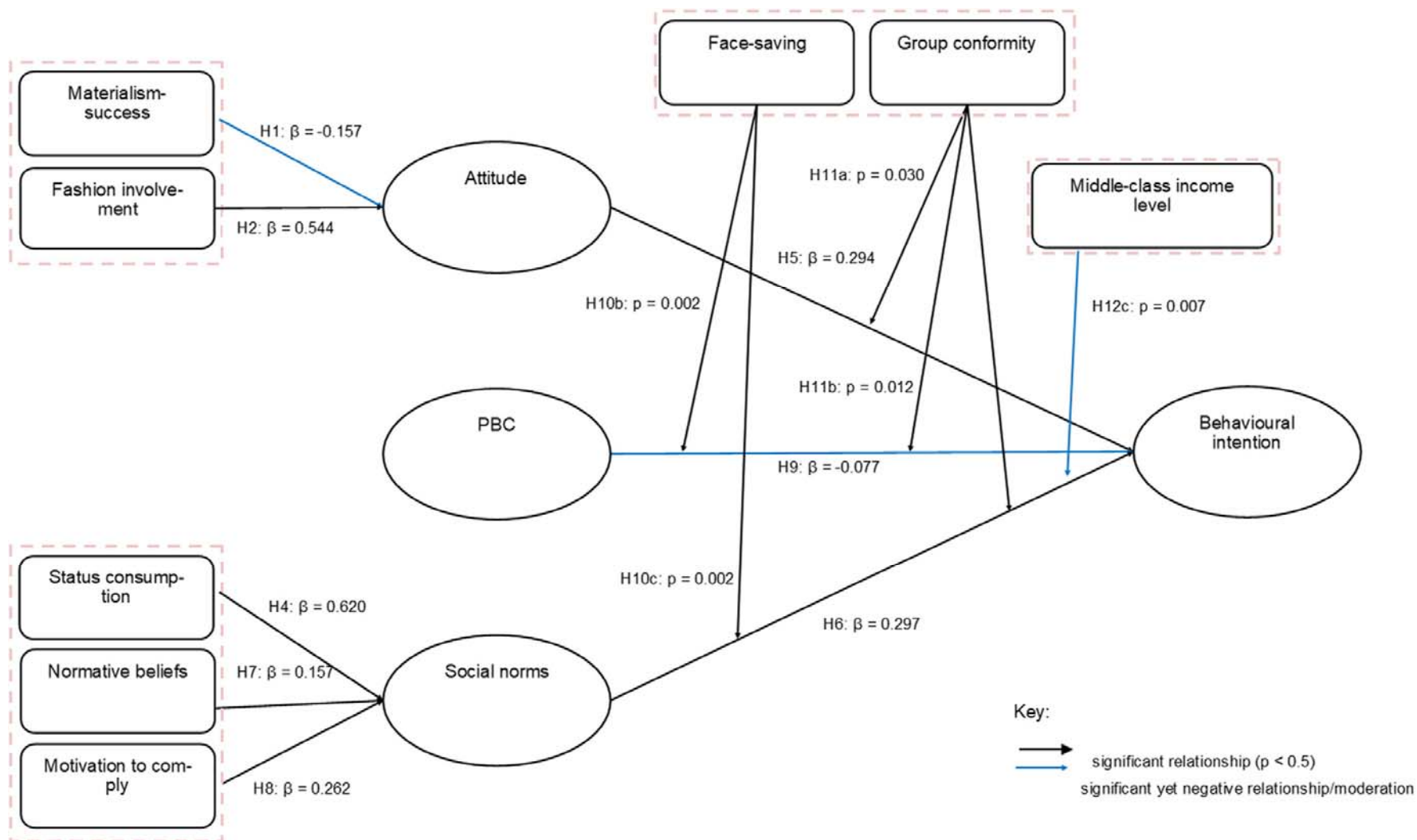


FIGURE 2. Presentation of structural equation modelling results

TABLE 4. Moderation analyses (face-saving and group conformity)

Constructs			Interaction effect [LLCI; HLCI]	p-value	Result
X	M	Y			
Attitude	Face-saving	Behavioural intention	-0.045 [-0.102; 0.012]	0.118	Not significant
PBC	Face-saving	Behavioural intention	0.059 [0.021; 0.097]	0.002*	Significant
Social norms	Face-saving	Behavioural intention	0.058 [0.021; 0.095]	0.002*	Significant
Attitude	Group conformity	Behavioural intention	-0.058 [-0.110; -0.006]	0.030*	Significant
PBC	Group conformity	Behavioural intention	0.053 [0.014; 0.092]	0.012*	Significant
Social norms	Group conformity	Behavioural intention	0.050 [0.011; 0.088]	0.012*	Significant

Note: *Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$; X = exogenous variable; M = moderating variable; Y = endogenous variable; LLCI = lower level confidence interval; HLCI = higher level confidence interval.

From Table 4, the only non-significant effect found was face-saving on the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention ($p = 0.118$), resulting in H_{10a} not being accepted. This could be because face-saving refers to consumers' social network and how they fit in based on their reputation and self-worth (Jin & Kang, 2011). As the relationship was tested after an attitude was formed, consumers may have considered their face-saving before forming their attitude, resulting in face-saving not moderating the relationship between attitude and behavioural intention. However, the interaction effects of face-saving on the relationships between PBC and behavioural intention (H_{10b}) and social norms and behavioural intention (H_{10c}) were found to be significant, reporting p-values of 0.002. This resulted in H_{10b-c} being accepted. Thus, consumers seeking to enhance their reputation amongst their social group, would purchase luxury apparel their social group approves of.

H_{11a-c} tested the interaction effects of group conformity on the key relationships in the TPB. The interaction of group conformity between attitude and behavioural intention was significant ($p = 0.030$), resulting in H_{11a} being accepted. The interaction of group conformity between PBC and behavioural intention was also significant ($p = 0.012$), resulting in H_{11b} being accepted. Lastly, the interaction of group conformity between social norms and behavioural

intention was significant ($p = 0.012$), too, resulting in H_{11c} being accepted. These results are due to South African consumers being driven by their need for social acceptance and purchasing products that will assist them in achieving this (Stiehler, 2016). Therefore, the more pressure consumers feel, the more likely they are to conform to their social group's expectations.

The last moderation analyses tested the effect of middle-class income levels (emerging and established middle-class income levels) on the three key relationships in the TPB, represented by H_{12a-c} . Table 5 presents these results.

From Table 5, it is evident that middle-class income levels do not affect the relationships between attitude and behavioural intention, nor PBC and behavioural intention, resulting in H_{12a-b} not being accepted. This indicates that income levels do not affect consumers' attitude or perceived control when intending to purchase luxury apparel. However, middle-class income levels moderate the relationship between social norms and behavioural intention. Social norms have a significant relationship with the intention to purchase luxury apparel in this study, which is understandable as consumers would be willing to spend more of their income to attain social approval. It can be observed that the behavioural intention for established middle-class consumers (higher-income earners) is higher than for emerging middle-class consumers (lower-income earners). The impact of social norms on behavioural intention is stronger for emerging middle-class consumers which can be explained by these consumers have only recently been exposed to an increase in disposable income and may be motivated to purchase luxury apparel that would allow them to conform with their social group's expectations and achieve social acceptance (Burger et al., 2015; Mai & Tambyah, 2011), while established middle-class (higher disposable income levels) may not feel as much social pressure.

TABLE 5. Moderation analyses (income levels)

Constructs			Interaction effect [LLCI; HLCI]	p-value	Result
X	M	Y			
Attitude	Emerging MC	Behavioural intention	0.018 [-0.163; 0.200]	0.841	Not significant
	Established MC				
PBC	Emerging MC	Behavioural intention	0.058 [-0.076; 0.193]	0.395	Not significant
	Established MC				
Social norms	Emerging MC	Behavioural intention	-0.171 [-0.294; -0.047]	0.007*	Significant
	Established MC				

Note: *Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$; X = exogenous variable; M = moderating variable; Y = endogenous variable; LLCI = lower level confidence interval; HLCI = higher level confidence interval.

5 CONCLUSION AND CONTRIBUTIONS

5.1 Theoretical contributions

Overall, this study has provided an understanding of how middle-class South African consumers intend on purchasing luxury apparel through a wider lens compared to previous studies where conspicuous consumption was the focus (Atwal & Bryson, 2014). The use of the TPB within this study's context provides a theoretical contribution as it allowed for a better understanding of the middle-class (emerging market) consumers' behavioural intention towards luxury apparel. Specifically, by understanding how middle-class consumers in emerging markets form attitudes, their perception of control and social norms impact their intention to purchase luxury apparel. Further to the use of the TPB in this study, by including the luxury-context antecedents, the study provides further theoretical contributions, especially in terms of materialism-success, brand consciousness, and status consumption.

The study found that the more materialistic consumers are, the less positive their attitude towards their luxury apparel is (H_1). This is a theoretical contribution, as literature (Sharda & Bhat, 2018; Zhang & Kim, 2013) suggests that emerging-market consumers are materialistic in their attitudes towards luxury apparel, and it could be argued that consumers

in certain emerging markets are more cognisant of the social cost of being seen as materialistic (greedy and ostentatious). Therefore, consumers in emerging markets may not conform to the understanding of materialism in a developed context (across all sub-dimensions: success, centrality, and happiness) as measured using the seminal scale developed by Richins (2004). Instead, as the findings of this and other studies (Zhang & Kim, 2013) suggest that consumers from different cultures differ with regards to their perception of materialism – as in the case of this study where materialism referred to success. As materialism is linked to individualistic cultures (Liao & Wang, 2009), it explains why the relationship between materialism and attitude may differ depending on culture. The study conducted by Zhang and Kim (2013) where the perception of materialism between consumers in the USA and China were compared, confirms this as there were differences observed amongst these two groups. Consumers from collective cultures tend to purchase luxury goods in order to reflect success. Therefore, within emerging markets where the culture may be more collective, different perceptions of materialism may be evident (as compared to individualistic cultures), indicating that the sub-dimensions of materialism should be explored before claiming that a group is materialistic.

The brand consciousness luxury-context antecedent provides a theoretical contribution, as the relationship with attitude was found to be insignificant (H_3), contradicting the findings of other studies conducted in luxury contexts (Yim et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2013). Although South African consumers are brand-conscious (Chase, Legoete, & Van Wamelen, 2010), South African consumers have only recently been exposed to luxury apparel, which is available in two of the nine provinces in South Africa (within four shopping centres) (Grange, 2015) suggesting that the majority are less brand conscious because of their lack of exposure to luxury apparel. In a study conducted in India, consumers were not as brand-conscious as expected which was due to their recent exposure luxury brands and the availability of the luxury brands was limited to selected locations (Murkherjee, Satija, Goyal, Mantrala, & Zou, 2012). Consequently, the theoretical contribution is that consumers are typically only brand conscious towards brands that they are exposed to and as exposure increases, the level of brand consciousness would increase. This is supported by the notion that the level of a consumer's brand consciousness is based on the awareness and exposure to the brand (Liao & Wang, 2009; Soh et al., 2017).

The status consumption luxury-context antecedent provided a theoretical contribution, as the relationship between status consumption and social norms (within this context) is yet to be examined. As the result was significant (H_4), it reveals that middle-class South Africans are cognisant of their status, using luxury apparel to communicate this and obtain social approval. This suggests that when studying emerging-market consumers, status consumption

should be considered, as these consumers purchase products to obtain social approval and enhance their status amongst their social group.

Another theoretical contribution refers to the use of cultural variables as moderators to the key relationships in the TPB. The traditional TPB developed by Ajzen (1991) did not include measures for external influence – expect for social norms. By incorporating additional cultural variables – accounting for external influences – this study was able to more accurately predict luxury apparel behavioural intention. Furthermore, Lee (1991) introduced the cultural variables (face-saving and group conformity) as antecedents to certain constructs in the TPB and not as moderators, as in this study. Operationalising these cultural variables as moderators allowed the effect that the variables have on key relationships in the TPB to be measured. This provided more insight into the South African middle-class consumers, revealing they use luxury apparel to gain social acceptance with their social groups.

The last theoretical contribution relates to using income as a moderator to the key relationships in the TPB. Research on South Africa's middle class tends to utilise race to explain the increase in luxury apparel spending, but this ignores other possible influencers like income levels, which directly influence the amount of disposable income – a key consideration for luxury apparel purchases (Anderson & Nhlapo, 2009; "Bandwagon consumption", 2017; Burger et al., 2015). Therefore, this study contributes to the theoretical understanding of how consumers in emerging markets, particularly South Africa, are influenced by their different income levels when intending to purchase luxury apparel. More specifically, the study contributes by explaining that middle-class consumers with lower income (emerging middle class) are more impacted by their social groups, compared to those with higher income (established middle class). This suggests that middle-class consumers with lower levels of disposable income strive to meet the expectations of their social groups compared to those who have higher disposable income levels. This is a theoretical contribution as proposes that consumers with higher levels of disposable income do not necessarily strive to conform to their social group's expectations and are perhaps more individualistic in their purchasing behaviour of luxury apparel.

5.2 Managerial contributions

The study offers luxury apparel retailers various insights, especially within the South African market where luxury apparel retailers enter South Africa as a starting point for the rest of Africa (Euromonitor International, 2018). Research reveals that luxury apparel retailers should not focus on delivering generic materialistic undertones in their marketing strategies. The results of this study and Zhang and Kim's (2013) study differ in their perceptions of materialism. Consumers may differ in their perception of materialism, for instance, in South Africa the word 'materialistic' has a negative connotation (being greedy and ostentatious) which may be

explained by the country's large income inequity gaps (Sulla & Zikhali, 2018). Thus, marketers of luxury apparel retailers should aim to understand materialism perceptions amongst their target market (success, centrality, and happiness) before developing their marketing strategies. As is the case in this study where materialism relates to success. Although it is assumed that middle-class consumers are brand-conscious (Euromonitor International, 2018), the study revealed that brand consciousness does not have a significant relationship with the attitude of luxury apparel within the South African context. This may be explained by the fact that luxury apparel brands are still relatively new to South Africans – for instance, the Diamond Walk in Sandton City was only launched in 2015 (“Diamond Walk”, 2020). Therefore, as the study found that South African middle-class consumers are fashion conscious, luxury apparel retailers should focus on offering fashionable, high-quality apparel to impact attitudes, instead of relying on brand consciousness to shape attitude. Suggesting that luxury apparel retailers should ensure that their apparel reflects the latest trends and styles. This is especially important for emerging-market middle-class consumers who want to appear fashionable amongst peers (Cui et al., 2015; Euromonitor International, 2017). In order to achieve this, luxury apparel retailers could make use of influencers who consumers trust and whose appearance they would like to emulate (Karjaluoto et al., 2016).

Furthermore, the status consumption antecedent was the strongest relationship within the conceptual model, thus stressing its importance. This indicates that luxury apparel retailers should ensure their luxury apparel signals status to consumers and their social group (e.g. ensuring the store communicates status, and the apparel is of the highest quality). This could be achieved by ensuring that consumers consider the luxury apparel brand as exclusive and unique with regards to its availability (i.e. the use of flagship stores). Although luxury apparel in South Africa is only available through certain locations, luxury apparel retailers should not be tempted to proliferate the market by increasing the amount of physical stores drastically or offering an online platform. This would negate the exclusivity that consumers associate with luxury brands.

In addition to status consumption, the study revealed the importance of conforming to social norms. This indicates that luxury apparel retailers should continually search for new trends or behaviour which could impact the purchasing of the luxury apparel brand. As this study has shown, middle-class consumers with lower levels of disposable income strive to conform to their social group's expectations suggesting that these consumers will purchase luxury apparel items that will provide social acceptance.

The study also revealed that face-saving and group conformity are important constructs, suggesting that luxury apparel retailers should remain cognisant of what middle-class consumers regard as acceptable. This would ensure that middle-class consumers are motivated to purchase luxury apparel that allows them to conform to their social group's

expectations and manage their reputation favourably (Kardes, 2016). Lastly, luxury apparel retailers should not ignore emerging middle-class consumers with lower income levels, as this study revealed that although the intention to purchase luxury apparel was greater amongst the established middle-class consumers (higher incomes), the impact of social norms on behavioural intention was greater among the emerging middle-class consumers. This suggests that people with higher incomes do not use luxury apparel to conform to their social group's expectations, yet those with lower incomes do (Burger et al., 2015; Mai & Tambyah, 2011).

6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The study aimed to provide a more comprehensive understanding of luxury apparel behavioural intention in an emerging market, focusing on South Africa. Additional antecedents were included in the study in order to improve its applicability although a semantic measure of materialism was used it did not measure as expected, nor according to the seminal work by O'Cass (2004) and Richins (2004). This revealed that the perception of materialism in South Africa could differ to consumers in other countries and limits the applicability of the concept of 'materialism' (across the three dimensions, happiness, centrality and success) as this study revealed that materialism-success represented the concept of materialism. Thus suggesting that the development a materialism scale for emerging markets be explored. The availability of an updated definition of the middle-class also limited the study, a comprehensive definition of the middle-class within South Africa (where assets cannot be used due to the income inequalities observed) is needed. Another limitation of the study was the inclusion of Lee's (1990) cultural variables, although these were the most supported variables incorporated into the TPB, they were developed from a Confucius perspective suggesting that another perspective for emerging countries in Africa may be applicable and further researched. Another limitation was that the study was cross-sectional in nature and a longitudinal study may offer interesting insights into how brand consciousness of luxury apparel develops over time as consumers become more aware of the luxury apparel brands. Given the focus of the study (South Africa), this may limit the generalisability of the results, it would be beneficial to replicate the study in another emerging market with similar characteristics to compare similarities or differences.

REFERENCES

Africa Check. (2018, March 5). This is how big South Africa's middle class really is. *BusinessTech*. <https://businesstech.co.za/news/finance/229307/this-is-how-big-south-africas-middle-class-really-is/>

- African Development Bank Group. (2014). *Tracking Africa's progress in figures*. https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Publications/Tracking_Africa%E2%80%99s_Progress_in_Figures.pdf
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179–211. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90020-T](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T)
- Ajzen, I. (2001). Nature and operations of attitudes. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 27–58. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.27>
- Ajzen, I. (2002). Perceived behavioural control, self-efficacy, locus of control, and the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 32, 665–683. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2002.tb00236.x>
- Ajzen, I. (2011). The theory of planned behaviour: Reactions and reflections. *Psychology & Health*, 26, 1113–1127. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08870446.2011.613995>
- Alserhan, B. A., Halkias, D., Boulanouar, A. W., Dayan, M., & Alserhan, O. A. (2015). Expressing herself through brands: The Arab woman's perspective. *Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship*, 17, 36–53. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JRME-09-2014-0024>
- Amin, H., Abdul-Rahman, A.-R., & Abdul-Razak, D. (2016). Malaysian consumers' willingness to choose Islamic mortgage products: An extension of the theory of interpersonal behaviour. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 34:868–884. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJBM-06-2015-0099>
- Anderson, B. A., & Nhlapo, M. S. (2009). *Changes in standard of living among population groups in South Africa: 1998-2006* (Population Studies Center Research Report No. 08-654). Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan.
- Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001). Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analytic review. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 40, 471–499. <https://doi.org/10.1348/014466601164939>
- Atwal, G., & Bryson, D. (Eds.). (2014). *Luxury brands in emerging markets*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Babin, B. J., & Harris, E. G. (2016). *Consumer behavior* (7th ed.). Cengage Learning.
- Bagheri, M. (2014). Luxury consumer behavior in Malaysia: Loud brands vs. quiet brands. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 130, 316–324. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.04.037>
- Bandwagon consumption. (2017, June 21). *Acumen*. <http://acumenmagazine.co.za/articles/bandwagon-consumption-5923.html>
- Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G., & Teel, J. E. (1990). Further validation of the consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence scale. In M. E. Goldberg, G. Gorn, & R. W.

- Pollay (Eds.), *Advances in consumer research* (Vol. 17, pp. 770–776). Association for Consumer Research.
- Berghaus, B., Müller-Stewens, G. and Reinecke, S. (2018). *The management of luxury: an international guide*. Kogan Page Limited, London, UK.
- Bhaduri, G., & Stanforth, N. (2017). To (or not to) label products as artisanal: Effect of fashion involvement on customer perceived value. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 26, 177–189. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-04-2016-1153>
- Blackwell, R. D., Miniard, P. W., & Engel, J. F. (2006). *Consumer behavior*. Thompson.
- Brickell, T. A., Chatzisarantis, N. L. D., & Pretty, G. M. (2006). Autonomy and control: Augmenting the validity of the theory of planned behaviour in predicting exercise. *Journal of Healthy Psychology*, 11, 51–63. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1359105306058847>
- Burger, R., Louw, M., Pegado, B. B. I. O., & Van der Berg, S. (2015). Understanding consumption patterns of the established and emerging South African black middle class. *Development Southern Africa*, 32, 41–56. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0376835X.2014.976855>
- Burger, R., & McAravey, C. (2014, March 11). What does the “middle class” mean in a polarised, developing country such as South Africa? *Econ3x3*. <http://www.econ3x3.org/article/what-does-%E2%80%9Emiddle-class%E2%80%99-mean-polarised-developing-country-such-south-africa>
- Celik, H., & Kocaman, R. (2017). Roles of self-monitoring, fashion involvement and technology readiness in an individual's propensity to use mobile shopping”, *Journal of Systems and Information Technology*, 19, 166–182. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JSIT-01-2017-0008>
- Chandon, J.-L., Laurent, G., & Valette-Florence, P. (2016). Pursuing the concept of luxury: Introduction to the *JBR* special issue on “Luxury marketing from tradition to innovation”. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(1), 299-303.
- Chen, S., & Lamberti, L. (2015). Entering the dragon's nest: Exploring Chinese upper-class consumers' perception of luxury. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 18(1), 4-29.
- Chikweche, T., & Fletcher, R. (2014). “Rise of the middle of the pyramid in Africa”: Theoretical and practical realities for understanding middle class consumer purchase decision making. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 31, 27–38. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JCM-10-2013-0729>
- Chiu, W., & Leng, H. K. (2015). Consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit sporting goods in Singapore and Taiwan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 28, 23–36. <https://doi.org/10.1108/APJML-02-2015-0031>

- Cho, H. J., Jin, B., & Watchravesringkan, K. (2016). A cross-cultural comparison of materialism in emerging and newly developed Asian markets. *International Journal of Business, Humanities and Technology*, 6(1), 1–10.
- Chung, J.-E., & Pysarchik, D. T. (2000). A model of behavioral intention to buy domestic versus imported products in a Confucian culture. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 18, 281–291. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02634500010343982>
- Cronje, A., Jacobs, B., & Retief, A. (2016). Black urban consumers' status consumption of clothing brands in the emerging South African market. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 40, 754–764. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12293>
- Cui, A. P., Wajda, T. A., & Walsh, M. F. (2015). Luxury brands in emerging markets: A case study on China. In S. Zou, H. Xu, & L. H. Shi (Eds.), *Entrepreneurship in international marketing: Vol. 25. Advances in international marketing* (pp. 287–305). Emerald. <https://doi.org/10.1108/S1474-797920140000025013>
- De Houwer, J., Gawronski, B., & Barnes-Holmes, D. (2013). A functional-cognitive framework for attitude research. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 24(1), 252–287. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10463283.2014.892320>
- Diamond Walk. (2020). *Gauteng.net*. <https://www.gauteng.net/attractions/attraction-diamond-walk>
- Durvasula, S., & Lysonski, S. (2010). Money, money, money – how do attitudes toward money impact vanity and materialism? – the case of young Chinese consumers. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 27, 169–179. <https://doi.org/10.1108/07363761011027268>
- Eizenberg, A., & Salvo, A. (2015). The rise of fringe competitors in the wake of an emerging middle-class: An empirical analysis. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 7(3), 85–122. <https://doi.org/10.1257/app.20130104>
- Euromonitor International (2017). *Country report: Luxury goods in South Africa*. Author.
- Euromonitor International. (2018). *Country report: Luxury goods in South Africa*. Author.
- Euromonitor International. (2020). *The future of the middle class*. Author.
- Farrell, A. M. (2010). Insufficient discriminant validity: A comment on Bove, Pervan, Beatty, and Shiu (2009). *Journal of Business Research*, 63, 324–327. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2009.05.003>
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (2010). *Predicting and changing behavior: The reasoned action approach*. Psychology Press.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18, 39–50. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378101800104>

- Gao, L. (2009). *Understanding consumer purchasing behaviour regarding luxury fashion-related goods in China* [Doctoral thesis, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University]. Polyu Electronic Theses. <http://hdl.handle.net/10397/83222>
- Gil, L. A., Kwon, K.-N., Good, L. K., & Johnson, L. W. (2012). Impact of self on attitudes toward luxury brands among teens. *Journal of Business Research*, 65, 1425–1433. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.10.008>
- Giovannini, S., Xu, Y., & Thomas, J. (2015). Luxury fashion consumption and generation Y consumers: Self, brand consciousness, and consumption motivations. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 19, 22–40. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-08-2013-0096>
- Goldsmith, R. E., Flynn, L. R., & Clark, R. A. (2012). Materialistic, brand engaged and status consuming consumers and clothing behaviors. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 16, 102–119. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13612021211203050>
- Grange, H. (2015, May 27). Luxury fashion brands flock to SA. *IOL*. <https://www.iol.co.za/lifestyle/style-beauty/fashion/luxury-fashion-brands-flock-to-sa-1863957>
- Green, E. G. T., Deschamps, J.-C., & Páez, D. (2005). Variation of individualism and collectivism within and between 20 countries: A typological analysis. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 36, 321–339. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022104273654>
- Grotts, A. S., & Johnson, T. W. (2013). Millennial consumers' status consumption of handbags. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 17, 280–293. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-10-2011-0067>
- Guse, T., & Jesse, E. (2014, July). *Materialism and psychological well-being among South African university students* [Conference presentation]. 7th European Conference on Positive Psychology, Amsterdam, Netherlands.
- Hagger, M. S., & Chatzisarantis, N. L. D. (2007). Self-determination theory and the theory of planned behaviour: An integrative approach toward a more complete model of motivation. In L. V. Brown (Ed.), *Psychology of motivation* (pp. 83–98). Nova Science.
- Hair, J. F., Jr., Celsi, M. W., Ortinau, D. J., & Bush, R. P. (2013). *Essentials of marketing research* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Hair, J. F., Jr., Celsi, M., Money, A., Samouel, P., & Page, M. (2015). *The essentials of business research methods* (3rd ed.). Routledge.
- Hegner, S. M., Fenko, A., & Teravest, A. (2017). Using the theory of planned behaviour to understand brand love. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 26, 26–41. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-06-2016-1215>

- Hermosilla, M., Gutiérrez-Navratil, F., & Prieto-Rodríguez, J. (2018). Can emerging markets tilt global product design? Impacts of Chinese colorism on Hollywood castings. *Marketing Science*, 37, 356–381. <https://doi.org/10.1287/mksc.2018.1089>
- Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M. R. (2008). Structural equation modelling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 6, 53–60.
- Hudders, L., & Pandelaere, M. (2012). The silver lining of materialism: The impact of luxury consumption on subjective well-being. *Journal of Happiness Studies: An Interdisciplinary Forum on Subjective Well-Being*, 13, 411–437. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-011-9271-9>
- Jain, S., & Khan, M. N. (2017). Measuring the impact of beliefs on luxury buying behavior in an emerging market: Empirical evidence from India. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 21, 341–360. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-07-2016-0065>
- Jain, S., Khan, M. N., & Mishra, S. (2017). Understanding consumer behavior regarding luxury fashion goods in India based on the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Asia Business Studies*, 11, 4–21. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JABS-08-2015-0118>
- Jain, S., & Mishra, S. (2020). Luxury fashion consumption in sharing economy: A study of Indian millennials. *Journal of Global Fashion Marketing*, 11, 171–189. <https://doi.org/10.1080/20932685.2019.1709097>
- Jin, B., & Kang, J. H. (2011). Purchase intention of Chinese consumers toward a US apparel brand: A test of a composite behavior intention model. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 28, 187–199. <https://doi.org/10.1108/07363761111127617>
- Kardes, I. (2016). Reaching middle class consumers in emerging markets: Unlocking market potential through urban-based analysis. *International Business Review*, 25, 703–710. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2016.03.005>
- Karjaluoto, H., Munnukka, J., & Kiuru, K. (2016). Brand love and positive word of mouth: The moderating effects of experience and price. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 25, 527537. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-03-2015-0834>
- Kidwell, B., & Jewell, R. D. (2010). The motivational impact of perceived control on behavioral intentions. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 40, 2407–2433. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2010.00664.x>
- Kim, J. H., & Zhang, B. (2015). Attitude and purchase intent for luxury fashion goods: Cultural differences between Americans and Chinese. *International Journal of Costume and Fashion*, 15(1), 19–37. <https://doi.org/10.7233/ijcf.2015.15.1.019>
- Kim, K. H., Ko, E., Xu, B., & Han, Y. (2012). Increasing customer equity of luxury fashion brands through nurturing consumer attitude. *Journal of Business Research*, 65, 1495–1499. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.10.016>

- Ko, E., Costello, J.P. and Taylor, C.R. (2019). What is a luxury brand? A new definition and review of the literature. *Journal of Business Research*, 99:405-413.
- Lakmali, A. D. S., & Kajendra, K. (2017). Understanding Sri Lankan consumers' luxury fashion purchase intention: Status orientation as a complement to theory of planned behavior. *International Journal of Innovative Research and Advanced Studies*, 4(5):294–299.
- Le Monkhouse, L., Barnes, B. R., & Stephan, U. (2012). The influence of face and group orientation on the perception of luxury goods: A four market study of East Asian consumers. *International Marketing Review*, 29, 647–672. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02651331211277982>
- Lee, C. (1991). Modifying an American consumer behavior model for consumers in Confucian culture: The case of Fishbein behavioral intention model. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 3(1), 27–50. https://doi.org/10.1300/J046v03n01_03
- Lee, H.-R., Hubbard, A. S. E., O'Riordan, C. K., & Kim, M.-S. (2006). Incorporating culture into the theory of planned behavior: Predicting smoking cessation intentions among college students. *Asian Journal of Communication*, 16, 315–332. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01292980600857880>
- Lemanski, C. (2017). Citizens in the middle class: The interstitial policy spaces of South Africa's housing gap. *Geoforum*, 79, 101–110. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2016.12.011>
- Liao, J., & Wang, L. (2009). Face as a mediator of the relationship between material value and brand consciousness. *Psychology & Marketing*, 26, 987–1001. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20309>
- Leibbrandt, M., Finn, A., & Woolard, I. (2012). Describing and decomposing post-apartheid income inequality in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 29, 19–34. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0376835X.2012.645639>
- Loureiro, S. M. C., & Araújo, C. M. B. (2014). Luxury values and experience as drivers for consumers to recommend and pay more. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 21, 394–400. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2013.11.007>
- Mai, N. T. T., & Tambyah, S. K. (2011). Antecedents and consequences of status consumption among urban Vietnamese consumers. *Organizations and Markets in Emerging Economies*, 21, 75–98. <https://doi.org/10.15388/omee.2011.2.1.14291>
- Malhotra, N. K., and McCort, J. D. (2001). A cross-cultural comparison of behavioral intention models – theoretical consideration and an empirical investigation. *International Marketing Review*, 18, 235–269. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02651330110396505>
- Mukherjee, A., Satija, D., Goyal, T. M., Mantrala, M. K., & Zou, S. (2012). Are Indian consumers brand conscious? Insights for global retailers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 24, 482–499. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13555851211237920>

- Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (1998–2010). *Mplus user's guide* (6th ed.). Muthén & Muthén.
- Nan, X., & Heo, K. (2007). Consumer responses to corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives: Examining the role of brand-cause fit in cause-related marketing. *Journal of Advertising*, 36, 63–74. <https://doi.org/10.2753/JOA0091-3367360204>
- O'Cass, A. (2004). Fashion clothing consumption: Antecedents and consequences of fashion clothing involvement. *European Journal of Marketing*, 38, 869–882. <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090560410539294>
- Park, H.-J., Burns, L. D., & Rabolt, N. J. (2007). Fashion innovativeness, materialism, and attitude toward purchasing foreign fashion goods online across national borders: The moderating effect of internet innovativeness. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, 11, 201–214. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13612020710751383>
- Phau, I., Teah, M., & Chuah, J. (2015). Consumer attitudes towards luxury fashion apparel made in sweatshops. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 19, 169–187. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-01-2014-0008>
- Richins, M. L. (2004). The material value scales: Measurement properties and development of a short form. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31, 209–219. <https://doi.org/10.1086/383436>
- Richins, M. L., & Dawson, S. (1992). A consumer values orientation for materialism and its measurement: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19, 303–316. <https://doi.org/10.1086/209304>
- Schade, M., Hegner, S., Horstmann, F., & Brinkmann, N. (2016). The impact of attitude functions on luxury brand consumption: An age-based group comparison. *Journal of Business Research*, 69, 314–322. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.08.003>
- Seo, Y., & Buchanan-Oliver, M. (2015). Luxury branding: The industry, trends, and future conceptualisations. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 27, 82–98. <https://doi.org/10.1108/APJML-10-2014-0148>
- Sharda, N., & Bhat, A. K. (2018). Austerity to materialism and brand consciousness: Luxury consumption in India. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 22, 223–239. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-03-2017-0025>
- Sharda, N., & Bhat, A. K. (2019). Role of consumer vanity and the mediating effect of brand consciousness in luxury consumption. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 28, 800–811. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-09-2017-1564>
- Shiu, E., Pervan, S. J., Bove, L. L., & Beatty, S. E. (2011). Reflections on discriminant validity: Reexamining the Bove et al. (2009) findings. *Journal of Business Research*, 64, 497–500. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2010.04.004>

- Shukla, P., Shukla, E. and Sharma, S. (2009), "Conspicuous consumption in cross-national context: psychological and brand antecedents", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 8, pp. 16-19.
- Son, J., Jin, B., & George, B. (2013). Consumers' purchase intention toward foreign brand goods. *Management Decision*, 51, 434–450. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00251741311301902>
- Statistics SA. (2018). *Mid-year population estimates 2018* (Statistical Release P0302). <http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P0302/P03022018.pdf>
- Steinfeld, L. (2015). *Consumer types versus stereotypes: Exploring social tensions in the luxury market of South Africa* (Saïd Business School RP 2015-9). Saïd Business School, University of Oxford.
- Stiehler, B. E. (2016). Co-creating luxury brands in an emerging market: Exploring consumer meaning making and value creation. *Qualitative Market Research*, 19, 395–414. <https://doi.org/10.1108/QMR-02-2016-0018>
- Siu, N. Y.-M., Kwan, H. Y., & Zeng, C. Y. (2016). The role of brand equity and face saving in Chinese luxury consumption. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 33, 245–256. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JCM-08-2014-1116>
- Soh, C. Q. Y., Rezaei, S., & Gu, M.-L. (2017). A structural model of the antecedents and consequences of generation Y luxury fashion goods purchase decisions. *Young Consumers*, 18, 180–204. <https://doi.org/10.1108/YC-12-2016-00654>
- Strasheim, A. (2014). Testing main and interaction effects in structural equation models with a categorical moderator variable. *Management Dynamics*, 23(4), 31–68.
- Sulla, V., & Zikhali, P. (2018). *Overcoming poverty and inequality in South Africa: An assessment of drivers, constraints and opportunities* (Working Paper No. 124521). World Bank Group. <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/530481521735906534/Overcoming-Poverty-and-Inequality-in-South-Africa-An-Assessment-of-Drivers-Constraints-and-Opportunities>
- Summers, T. A., Belleau, B. D., & Xu, Y. (2006). Predicting purchase intention of a controversial luxury apparel product. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 10, 405–419. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13612020610701947>
- Sutton, S. (1998). Predicting and explaining intentions and behavior: How well are we doing? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28, 1317–1338. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.1998.tb01679.x>
- Tanusondlaja, A., Greenacre, L., Banelis, M., Truong, O., & Andrews, T. (2015). International brands in emerging markets: The myths of segmentation. *International Marketing Review*, 32, 783–796. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IMR-08-2014-0286>

- Teah, M., Phau, I., & Huang, Y.-A. (2015). Devil continues to wear “counterfeit” Prada: A tale of two cities. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 32, 176–189. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JCM-03-2014-0908>
- What you need to know about South Africa’s middle class. (2016, May 12). *BusinessTech*. <https://businesstech.co.za/news/banking/123511/what-you-need-to-know-about-south-africas-middle-class/>
- White, C. J. (2005). Culture, emotions and behavioural intentions: Implications for tourism research and practice. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 8, 510–531. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500508668234>
- Williams, D. (2017, September 29). Profiling Africa’s emerging middle class. *TranslateMedia*. <https://www.translatemedia.com/translation-blog/profiling-africas-emerging-middle-class/>
- Wong, W. M., & Zeng, X.-Y. (2015). Price and quality of remanufactured products related to consumer behaviour. *International Journal of Trade and Global Markets*, 8(1), 17–26. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1504/IJTGM.2015.067970>
- Ye, L., Bose, M., & Pelton, L. (2012). Dispelling the collective myth of Chinese consumers: A new generation of brand-conscious individualists. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 29, 190–201. <https://doi.org/10.1108/07363761211221729>
- Yim, M. Y.-C., Sauer, P. L., Williams, J., Lee, S.-J., & Macrury, I. (2014). Drivers of attitudes toward luxury brands: A cross-national investigation into the roles of interpersonal influence and brand consciousness. *International Marketing Review*, 31, 363–389. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IMR-04-2011-0121>
- Zhang, B., & Kim, J.-H. (2013). Luxury fashion consumption in China: Factors affecting attitude and purchase intent. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 20, 68–79. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2012.10.007>