Consumers’ Attitudes Towards the Purchase of Counterfeit Fashion Products in Pakistan

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This study examines the constructs that predict the consumers’ attitudes towards counterfeit fashion products in Pakistan. This study confirms these predictions by using a survey questionnaire to collect responses from 396 consumers of Pakistan. We employed structural equation modeling to ensure the proposed relationships. The study's findings found a positive and significant impact of value consciousness, brand consciousness, materialism, and social influence on consumers’ attitudes towards counterfeit fashion products (ATCFP). However, the perceived risk has an insignificant impact on consumers’ ATCFP. Further, among the respondents, ATCFP has a positive and significant impact on their intentions to purchase such products. This study’s findings provide industrialists and retailers with guidelines in developing better policies and designs to attract and capture new consumers and, more particularly, in the context of a developing country. The study theoretically extends the understanding of consumer attitudes to purchasing counterfeit fashion products in developing countries and consumers purchase intention and reasons to buy counterfeit fashion products. Besides, this study’s results may help the manufacturers of original fashion brand products to comprehend that a developing country’s consumers are affected by others. The innovative sellers of branded fashion products should be ambitious in connecting with their consumers and attaining word-of-mouth recommendations.

\textbf{Key words:} Consumers’ attitudes, Purchase intention, Counterfeit fashion products, Developing country, Pakistan
Introduction

Extravagant fashion goods business is more profitable and is increasing at an unprecedented development rate. Also, it is entangled by the constructors of counterfeit fashion products. Globally, counterfeiting is a growing problem. It is estimated to represent about 20 percent of China’s domestic trade and 5-7 percent of the total business globally (Chaudhry et al., 2016). Remarkably, the researchers like Amaral and Loken (2016) and Sharma and Chan (2016) suggested that, despite the availability of economic resources and facing social risks, various consumers purchase large amounts of counterfeit products. Therefore, in a more advanced and technological phase, this helps construct better-quality counterfeit products (Eisend and Schuchert-Guler, 2006; Phau et al., 2009) and increased expenditure along with little research being done (Gentry et al., 2006). Due to their popularity among consumers, expensive luxury brands provide opportunities for counterfeit manufacturers to produce similar products at less expensive and to benefit from generating income due to the predictable brand identification of such products. The manufacturers have introduced counterfeit products that are cheaper, of excellent quality and easily available in the markets. According to the BASCAP Report (2009), people who can afford genuine luxury brands actively seek to purchase counterfeit products. This selection results in the genuine brand doing less business. The related research shows that, compared to genuine brands, the counterfeit products are identical in terms of quality representation and that the consumers select the counterfeit products. It provides them with the benefit of more excellent value for money (Kattoulas, 2002; Phau and Teah, 2009). From the perception of illusory counterfeiting, the consumers are not conscious that the items are counterfeit and buy more inadequate quality products. Ultimately, such judgments affect the brand’s image (Grossman and Shapiro, 1988). On the contrary, from the perceptive of non-deceptive counterfeiting, the counterfeit products are bought significantly by consumers who, in the main, are familiar with the luxury fashion market (Wilcox et al., 2009).

Based on such assumptions, counterfeit products' purchase is a severe issue that needs to be reduced. Therefore, we considered that a review of the components, which affected the consumers’ acquisition of counterfeit products, would support the real factual products' producers in developing their particular plans to maintain their respective shares of the market. The consumers’ purchase behaviours are greatly affected by factors such as risk involved, brand consciousness, materialistic attitude; social influence; value for money; and many more. Such components affect the consumers’ purchase of counterfeit fashion products. The substantial factors, which predict the consumers’ purchases of counterfeit fashion products, are shown from previous research studies to be value consciousness (Wilcox et al., 2009); materialism (Furnham and Valgeirsson, 2007; Bhatia, 2018); perceived risk (Tan, 2002; Matos et al., 2007), social influence (Phau et al., 2009); and brand awareness (Phau et al., 2009; Djuhardi and Kusumawati, 2017; Bhatia, 2018). Nevertheless, such results illustrate the differences between consumers in developed and developing countries. Meanwhile, since the
income of a developing country’s people is far inferior to that of a Western country’s people; they have completely different views about counterfeit products. From such a viewpoint, this study offers ideas about the components that may impact Pakistan’s consumers’ attitudes towards counterfeit fashion products (ATCFP). This study’s findings will help to verify the earlier investigations into brand consciousness, social pressure, materialism, value consciousness, perceived risk and consumers’ ATCFP.

Literature review and conceptualization

The luxury fashion goods business is increasing at a remarkable rate (Bhatia, 2018). Several aspects, such as materialism, social influence, and value consciousness, relate positively to consumers’ ATCFP and, finally, lead to their purchase intentions. On the other hand, the findings of Bhatia’s (2018) empirical investigation showed that the consumers’ ATCFP are not predicted significantly by factors like perceived risk and brand consciousness. In the United Arab Emirates (UAE), consumers’ fundamental reasons for purchasing counterfeit products are self-ambiguity, value consciousness, and a lack of ethical judgment (Fernandes, 2013). Phau and Teah’s (2009) study provided evidence that the eminent cost and integrity are strong influencers of purchase intent while normative susceptibility, personal gratification, value consciousness, information susceptibility and innovation persuasion are weak influencers of purchase intent.

Additionally, consumers’ ATCFP are observed to impact their purchase intentions towards counterfeit luxury brands. Similarly, in the Malaysian context, the virtuous traits in terms of moral concern, religiosity and perception of lawfulness influence (directly and indirectly) the consumers’ ATCFP (Quoquab et al., 2017). In views of Sokolova and Kefi (2019), para-social interaction and credibility influence purchase intention. The perceived pressure and perceived ease of use have a definite link to intention to use Instagram. However, perceived usefulness is not associated with social networks’ help (Nedra et al., 2019). According to Cheah et al. (2015), concerning e-deals, consumers’ attitudes are predicted by perceived value and impacts on their ATCFP. The findings quantitative study of Aggarwal et al.’s (2019) quantitative study showed that social beliefs, tracked by the effects of expected apprehensions, are significant components that account for around 20 percent of each purchase intent. However, the unit change in price value beliefs explained about 18 percent of the purchase intent. In the USA and Turkey, key elements, which affect consumers’ purchase intentions, are ethical awareness, performance expectancy and consumer innovation (Ratten, 2015). Empirical evidence of Bigoin-Gagnan and Lacoste-Badie (2018) indicated packaging aesthetic evaluation as a good predictor of purchase intention. The factors such as order/delivery management, low/middle-income Generation Y luxury fashion consumers, trust and personalization were the vital features that impacted overall e-satisfaction (Kim, 2019). Hussain et al. (2017) compared consumers’ purchase intentions towards counterfeit products among Pakistani and UK citizens. Their findings reveal that Pakistani consumers are consumers with the perceived of counterfeit products. Products' perceived value is essential for the value of counterfeit products. Wu et
al.’s (2012) investigation highlighted the impact of scarcity on consumers’ purchase intentions. The variables, such as perceived value, perceived uniqueness and perceived sacrifice, are more robust than the scarcity influences through anticipated perceived quality, perceived sacrifice, expensiveness and perceived value. An analysis by Savastano et al. (2019) suggested that customers are progressively willing to use in-store innovations to attain more luxurious shopping practices.

Similarly, the Responsible Environmental Behaviour (REB) model (i.e. personal responsibility, pro-environmental attitudes, and the internal locus of control) are the strongest predictors of consumers’ eco-friendly food purchase intentions. However, He et al.’s (2019) findings do not support the association between knowledge-skill factors and consumers’ purchase intentions (REB model). Among Southeast University’s undergraduate students, Tong’s (2014) findings showed the positive and significant relationship between peer influence, perceived value, school identification, apparel product attributes and purchase intention. According to the investigation of Fazel-e-Hasan et al. (2019), employee hope is the significant factor in developing deviant preferences and insights into organisational performance. According to Sharma and Chan (2017), the social-adjustive attitudinal function is associated positively and significantly with evaluating a counterfeit product rather than with either the ego-defensive attitudinal function or the attitudinal knowledge function. Similarly, attitude forecasts the purchase intention of counterfeit apparel. A value consciousness and integrity have negative influences on purchase intentions. Furthermore, the people, who have lower-incomes, have more meaningful choices to purchase counterfeit apparel (Bakhshian et al., 2019). The factors, such as masculinity, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and collectivism, mediate the relationship between purchase intention and consumption status (Eastman et al., 2018). The return policy generosity has a significant role in enhancing customer purchase intention (Jeng, 2017). Kim and Lennon’s (2008) findings showed that verbal information significantly impacts purchase intentions. Watson et al. (2018) found a moderate effect of hedonic shopping motivation in between the positive affective response and augmentation.

Nevertheless, a developing country’s consumers exhibit less ethical behaviours than UK consumers. Khan et al. (2017) investigated the three Pakistan cities of Lahore, Faisalabad and Islamabad. Their findings emphasized that economic profits, materialism and experience significantly correlate with consumers’ attitudes towards counterfeit products. By contrast, hedonic benefits have no significant effect on consumers’ attitudes toward counterfeit products. In Bahawalpur’s Islamia University, among regular or private students, Zeashan et al.’s (2015) findings indicated that consumers' significant predictors of counterfeited products are subjective norms, price-quality inference, integrity, perceived risk and particular satisfaction are. According to Moon et al. (2018), pleasant behaviour is shown to be a solid interpreter of consumers’ intentions to purchase counterfeit attire. On the other hand, the vulnerability did not indicate a helpful attitude.
Consequently, the literature suggested mixed results. On the one hand, some scholars’ findings revealed a significant association between consumers’ ATCFT and brand consciousness while, on the other hand, Grossman and Shapiro (1988) claimed a negative association between them (Wang et al., 2005; Phau et al., 2009). Moreover, when investigating in a developing country consumers’ ATCFP and their purchase intentions, some studies applied a limited number of factors such as perceived quality, economic profits, materialism, past experience, perceived risk, price-quality inference, integrity, subjective norms, personal gratification and hedonic attitude (Zeashan et al., 2015; Khan et al., 2017; Moon et al., 2018). Indeed, the factors (materialism, value brand consciousness, the social influence, perceived risk, attitude towards counterfeit as well as purchase intention) have not been tested yet; therefore, we propose the following model (Figure 1) to investigate the intentions of consumers.

**Figure 1: Conceptual model of the study**

Different scholars, like Ang et al. (2001); Wang et al. (2005); Gentry et al. (2006); Prakash and Pathak (2017), have confirmed a positive and essential association between value-consciousness and customers’ ATCFP. As shown by Ang et al.’s (2001) findings and Hamelin et al.’s (2013) studies, consumers place fewer values on a poor-quality product. Counterfeit products take on the essential purposive prerequisite and the figurative significance (Furnham and Valgeirsson, 2007). In different regions, consumers have diverse orientations that affect their value insights (Şener et al., 2019). Ali et al.’s (2019) findings emphasized that, when purchasing a green luxury car, cultural and material values (vertical individualism and horizontal-vertical collectivism) play a mediating role between motivation and purchase
intention. According to Sadachar and Fiore (2018), experiential value has a significant correlation with service retailers, merchandise retailers, and mall patronage intention. Gentry et al. (2006) suggested that value is an important aspect influencing consumers’ attitudes towards counterfeit products. Consumers who are not eager to gain a more excellent value purchase counterfeit products and, in doing so, obtain esteem and image profits as well as the brand name. Value-conscious consumers are more concerned about the product’s value rather than its quality. Counterfeit fashion purchases provide the consumers with a greater value for money rather than quality. It means that they make better use of their scarce budgets and resources and, therefore, can shop for more products. Counterfeit purchases differ as per the certain product type since the product is rarely believed and is extremely self-expressive. Therefore, by spending less money on such products, the consumers do not expect them to be of high quality (Kotler and Keller, 2011). When consumers have plenty of money, they purchase recognized brand names. In the Indian context, consumers’ ATCFP is predicted through value-consciousness (Bhatia, 2018). Among African consumers, individual value perceptions were negatively associated with their purchase intent (de Klerk et al., 2019). On the other hand, Ajitha and Sivakumar (2017) proposed that behaviour is not affected by status value and materialism. Further, psychological traits among consumer have the great wish to purchase and preference on luxury cosmetic brands. Jain and Mishra (2018) stressed the significance among Indian consumers. The analysis found the conspicuous value to be the most substantial analyst of purchase intention. Consequently, the consumers’ attitudes are noted to vary in the different markets or according to their budgets to purchase quality products. However, in our context, no such evidence is available of such evidence. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

H1. Value consciousness has a positive and significant impact on consumers’ ATCFP.

The brand has a significant economic value and guarantees quality that generic products often do not match (Qian, 2014). Regarding a relationship between counterfeit purchases, brand consciousness, and the domain, the research studies' findings underlined various results. Grossman and Shapiro (1988) and Bhatia (2018) claimed that brand conscious cobrand-conscious a significantly negative attitude towards counterfeit products. Also, the findings emphasized a significant connection between brand image and consumers’ attitudes towards counterfeit products (Djuhardi and Kusumawati, 2017). The study of Kautish and Sharma (2018) strongly recommended that fashion consciousness has a significant and positive effect on behavioural intentions. According to Cordell et al. (1996) and Wang et al. (2005), the greater the brand's status and position, the greater the consumer’s aspiration to purchase counterfeit luxury brands to satisfy the purchase intention for pomposity and performance. If the counterfeit product is of good quality and there is barely any observable variance to the original, even brand-conscious consumers purchase the counterfeit product. The consumers compare the pros and cons of buying a counterfeit prior to making a purchase (Phau et al., 2009). The research studies showed mixed findings with regard to the associations between consciousness and
consumers’ ATCFP towards counterfeit products. To confirm such an association, we proposed the following hypothesis:

**H2.** Brand consciousness has a positive and significant impact on consumers’ ATCFP.

However, the literature contains much more discussion about perceived risk in marketing (Mitchell, 1998). Further, the purpose of this study is to establish the relationship between perceived risk, decision-making and consumers’ behaviours (Forsythe and Shi, 2003). When making the purchase decision, an essential matter is to understand the consumer’s intention to reduce ambiguity and the critical moments of their purchase judgements (Mitchell, 1998). The perceived risk factor is comprised of several risks, such as financial risks, psychological risk, social risks, functional risks, time risk and physical risks (Sunitha et al., 2012). Consumers who perceive more or less risk with counterfeit products have either a favourable or an unfavourable attitude towards such products (Matos et al., 2007). For instance, in pirated software, Tan (2002) investigated the effect of perceived risk on the consumers’ purchase intentions. The findings showed that the consumers perceive pirated software as low risk and, accordingly, are more inclined to buy in this way. Every product focuses entirely on these risks, and each customer’s tolerance level differs with the types of risks and product category (Mitchell, 1998). Generally, consumers perceive counterfeit products' purchase to be uncertain, which may result in them purchasing an unreliable and faulty product (Prakash and Pathak, 2017). The shopping channel preferences of consumers can be shopping channel preferences Aydin, 2018). Similarly, Bian and Moutinho’s (2011) findings underlined that monetary peril is not an essential preventive in buying a counterfeit product, negative correlation between social risk and the intention to purchase counterfeit branded products. Gentry et al.’s (2006) findings underlined that the consumers obtain the profits of the luxury brand name without providing much more value. However, luxury brand name's profits counterfeit purchases, consumers are mindfully conscious that the product is of poor quality (Wilcox et al., 2009), and they realized, also, that there may be some fiscal risk embodied within it since there is no guarantee with a counterfeit product (Bian and Veloutsou, 2007). From the perception of composite purchase behaviour, since the product is rarely gotten and greatly self-expressive, the consumers are unwilling to have any venture (Kotler and Keller, 2011). Nonetheless, when purchasing fashion-associated products, consumers disregard the connected risk so that the less well-off persons can achieve their goals of pomposity (Wang et al., 2005). Likewise, there is a negative association between perceived risk and the intention to purchase apparel (Park et al., 2005). In the Indian context, perceived risk is connected to consumers’ ATCFP (Bhatia, 2018). However, in Pakistan, such a relationship has still not been confirmed. Based on the ignorance of such a context, we proposed the following hypothesis:

**H3.** The perceived risk has a significant negative impact on consumers’ ATCFP.

Materialism relates to the possession and attainment of a materialistic approach to achieve social life objectives and anticipated status. Materialistic consumers are preoccupied with much
more stuff than average consumers. They aim to plan quality and wealth, distinctiveness, and make cultural obligations (Mason, 2001). The existing literature advised that, when they are not pleased with their social lives, individuals may display unusual behaviours (Trinh and Phau, 2011), such as seeking reassurance through the purchase of gifts. The 2010 recession increased cosmetics' sales while there was a drop in the sales of basic goods (L’Oreal, 2010). The material essentials of achievement, significance, and contentment are the three aspects of materialism, affecting consumers’ willingness to purchase counterfeit luxury brands (Richins and Dawson, 1992). Similarly, materialism influenced consumers’ luxury consumption (Mostafa and Arnaout, 2019). The findings of Veblen’s (1899) study reveal that materialistically consumers purchase luxury brands along with the simple delivery of counterfeit luxury brands (Wilcox et al., 2009). Extremely materialistic consumers, who have less money, achieve their materialistic objectives by buying counterfeit luxury brands (Gentry et al., 2001). There is a significant relationship between materialistic consumers and consumers’ ATCFP (Bhatia, 2018). To further validate such a relationship, we proposed the following hypothesis:

**H4.** Materialistic consumers have a positive and significant impact on consumers’ ATCFP.

The social influence highlights how an individual applies to another individuals’ purchase behaviours (Ang et al., 2001). In other words, when compared to income, social class has a meaningful effect on the consumer’s purchasing behaviour (Martineau, 1968). Some researchers believe strongly that consumers make purchases to amaze others (Ang et al., 2001; Penz and Stottinger, 2005). They buy what others reflect and would imagine or wish to purchase. They are more aware of their self-esteem and motivated to gratify the civilization’s predictions. Also, they intend to make a good imprint on others. As Mellott (1983) proposed, individuals, use more merchandise to underline their social class status and attempt to pursue a class.

Consequently, they make an effort to buy branded products to maintain their wealth and status and social class. Based on the supposition that the status of the brand status dominates the consumers' branded products, they move to counterfeit products. ThConsumersurchase unique or counterfeit productConsumerslined develops a sound notion among their peers and reference groups (Bearden et al., 1989). Therefore, social influence affected ATCFP (Phau et al., 2009). Likewise, studies explored whether or not the brand image was a substantial predictor of ATCFP (Djuhardi and Kusumawati, 2017). In the Indian context, Bhatia (2018) has observed social influence’s significant impact on ATCFP. Consequently, in the different contexts, the researchers confirmed such a relationship. Therefore, by proposing the following hypothesis, we intended to prove social influence’s impact in Pakistan:

**H5.** The social influence has a positive and significant impact on consumers’ ATCFP.
In the literature about consumer behaviour, it is observed widely that there is a connection between behavioural intentions and consumers’ ATCFP. The theories, such as the theory of planned behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) and the theory of plausible performance (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), highlight that their purchase behaviours are predicted purchase intentions that, in turn, develop the ATCFP. However, from their findings, Penz and Stottinger (2005) and Gentry et al. (2006) claim that in the case of luxury consumers’ ATCFP occupies an essential position in promoting individuals to buy counterfeit luxury brands. A healthy consumer attitude to counterfeit luxury brands results in more probabilities of consumers purchasing counterfeit brands. On the other hand, critical consumer attitudes towards counterfeit luxury brands mean, irrespective of product types (Ang et al., 2001), fewer possibilities for purchasing counterfeit brands (Penz and Stottinger, 2005; Djuhardi and Kusumawati, 2017; Prakash and Pathak, 2017). There is a positive link between favourable brand attitudes and purchase intentions (Park et al., 2015). Similarly, Bhatia’s (2018) findings confirmed, from an Indian perspective, a positive and significant connection between consumers’ ATCFP and their intentions to purchase counterfeit fashion products. Consequently, the consumers’ attitudes towards counterfeit luxury brands have changed often, depending on whether they are content with their social lives (Trinh and Phau, 2011). In this regard, we proposed the following hypothesis to confirm the position in Pakistan:

H6. Consumers’ ATCFP has a positive and significant impact on their intentions to purchase CFP.

Methods

Context and respondents

We selected a developing country for this study. The participants are said to be consumers that have purchased counterfeit fashion-related products. Further, to validate this study from an ecological perspective (Hornik and Ellis, 1988; Cowan, 1989), we developed this study to investigate the consumers’ purchase intention within the context of either a mall or a shopping-related environment. Thus, we collected the data through a mall intercept with the support of Pakistan’s main shopping centres. Besides, we struggled to study the attitudes of consumers who previously had purchased counterfeit products. Therefore, we used a structured questionnaire to obtain answers from the respondents in Pakistan’s different areas. Accordingly, we distributed an online survey through email and printed copies of the questionnaire to the respondents and requested that they answer them.

Scale validation of the collected data

Before launching the full-scale study questionnaire, we conducted a pilot study to check the instrument’s reliability and validity. By employing Cronbach’s alpha reliability (α), we found the overall internal consistency among the items to be in suitable ranges (0.738). Besides, the
factor loading assured, also, the relationship of the items with their respective factors. Similarly, we confirmed the validity of the instrument with experts in the field. Consequently, to some extent, based on the pilot study and with the assistance of 30 respondents, who were given sufficient time to complete the questionnaire, we made some changes to the self-administrative questionnaire. After that, we distributed a reliable and valid questionnaire for the main study. We also applied convenience and judgmental non-probability sampling due to the unavailability of the sampling frame. Initially, we distributed/send over 750 questionnaires to the participants. From them, we collected back 410 samples in the shape of raw data with a response rate of 54 percent. After the data cleaning process, we finished up with 396 valid responses that were fit for analysis.

**Measurement scales**

*Value-consciousness.* In this study, by using Phau and Teah (2009) and as measured by Bhatia (2018), we applied three components: brand consciousness. The sample item is “I am concerned about price and product quality.” We employed the five-point Likert scale technique beginning from the first point like “the strongly disagree” and ending with the five points focusing on “the strongly agree”.

*Brand consciousness.* To measure this factor, we adapted Ha and Tam’s (2015) method and applied four brand consciousness items. The scale's sample item is “It is important that others like the products and brands I buy”. We employed the five-point Likert scale beginning from the first “strongly disagree” and ending with “strongly agree”.

*Perceived risk.* We judged the perceived risk factor through four items borrowed from De Matos et al. (2007) and as applied by Bhatia (2018). The scale's sample item is “The risk that I take when I buy a counterfeit product is high”. We employed the five-point Likert scale beginning from the first “strongly disagree” and ending with “strongly agree”.

*Materialism.* We borrowed from Richins and Dawson (1992) to measure four items regarding this factor measured. The sample item of the scale is “I like to own things that impress people”. We employed the five-point Likert scale beginning from the first “strongly disagree” and ending with “strongly agree”.

*Social influence.* We adapted from Bearden et al. (1989) and Phau and Teah (2009) four social influence components. The scale's sample item is “I observe what others are buying and using before buying a product”. We employed the five-point Likert scale to assess this factor.

*Attitude towards counterfeit.* We adapted Wang et al.’s (2005), De Matos et al.’s (2007) and Phau and Teah’s (2009) methods to establish four items to measure the attitude towards counterfeit. The sample item of the scale is “Counterfeit products are as reliable as the genuine...
products”. The items were evaluated through a five-point Likert scale beginning from strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (5).

**Purchase intention.** We adapted Ang et al.’s (2001), Phau and Teah’s (2009) and De Matos et al.’s (2007) methods to establish four items to evaluate this factor. The scale’s sample item is “I would think about a counterfeit product as a choice when buying something”. We gauged such items by using a five-point Likert type scale (strongly disagree =1 to strongly agree=5).

**Data analysis and findings**

**Descriptive statistics, reliability and correlation matrix**

We employed descriptive statistics to observe the distribution of the samples. We noted the maximum range of mean as 3.789 (value consciousness) and the minimum range as 1.276 (perceived risk). Similarly, as shown in Table 1, the maximum coverage for standard deviation is 2.987 (perceived risk), whereas the minimum ranges are 1.002 (value consciousness). Further, we observed the internal consistency among the items through Cronbach’s alpha (α) reliability. We noted the scale's overall reliability to be 0.825 while, as shown in Table 1, the internal consistency of every factor is found to be within the acceptable scores. Finally, Table 1 shows the correlation matrix between the constructs ( independents and dependents).

**Table 1. Descriptive statistics, reliability and correlation matrix**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha (α)</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Value consciousness</td>
<td>3.789</td>
<td>1.002</td>
<td>0.783</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Brand consciousness</td>
<td>3.225</td>
<td>1.342</td>
<td>0.886</td>
<td>0.446**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Perceived risk</td>
<td>1.276</td>
<td>2.987</td>
<td>0.812</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>0.400**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Materialism</td>
<td>3.098</td>
<td>1.453</td>
<td>0.821</td>
<td>0.368**</td>
<td>0.357**</td>
<td>0.380**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Social influence</td>
<td>2.990</td>
<td>1.985</td>
<td>0.876</td>
<td>0.431**</td>
<td>0.319**</td>
<td>0.249**</td>
<td>0.297*</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Attitude towards</td>
<td>3.667</td>
<td>1.234</td>
<td>0.892</td>
<td>0.532**</td>
<td>0.349</td>
<td>0.376**</td>
<td>0.327**</td>
<td>0.212*</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>counterfeit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.592</td>
<td>1.112</td>
<td>0.772</td>
<td>0.348**</td>
<td>0.436**</td>
<td>0.332**</td>
<td>0.513**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Model fit and assessment of the hypotheses

To fulfil the statistical requirement (Susetyo and Lestari, 2014), we assured the model fit indices before validating the hypotheses. As shown in Table 2 and Figure 2, the non-significant values of $\chi^2$/CMIN (2.883; $p > 0.05$) (Table 2 and figure 2) confirm the fitness of the model with the available data (Marsh and Hancover, 1985; Hair et al., 2006). Later on, as also shown in Table 2 and Figure 2, the other fit indicators, such as GFI (0.963); AGFI (0.978), NFI (0.939), CFI (0.961) and RMSEA (0.037), are within the acceptable ranges (Kline, 2005; Hair et al., 2006; Cheung and Chan, 2009) and absolute fit/good fit (Yvette and Felix, 2007).

Table 2. Goodness of fit indices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model fit indicators</th>
<th>CMIN/df</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>AGFI</th>
<th>NFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suggested values</td>
<td>&lt; 3</td>
<td>&gt; 0.90</td>
<td>&gt; 0.90</td>
<td>&gt; 0.90</td>
<td>&gt; 0.90</td>
<td>&lt; 0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: CMIN = $\chi^2$/Chi-square/df; df = degree of freedom; GFI = goodness of fit index; AGFI = adjusted goodness of fit index; NFI = normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.
Further, as shown in Table 3 and Figure 2, the structural equation model's findings recommend a significant and positive impact of value consciousness on ATCFP (SE=0.023; CR=7.663; p < 0.05). It assists the proposed hypothesis. Therefore, hypothesis H1 is accepted. As shown in Table 3 and Figure 2, the SEM estimates weights, underlined as the brand consciousness, have a significant and positive impact on ATCFP (SE=0.027; CR=8.283; p < 0.05). Therefore, hypothesis H2 is accepted. Similarly, as shown in Table and Figure 2, the impact of perceived risk on ATCFP (SE=0.029; CR=1.002; p > 0.05) is significant rather than negative. Therefore, hypothesis H3 is not accepted. Also, as shown in Table 3 and Figure 2, the path assessments highlight that materialism is significantly and positively associated with ATCFP (SE=0.041; CR=6.931; p < 0.05). Therefore, hypothesis H4 is accepted. With regard to the impact of social influence on ATCFP, as shown in Table 3 and Figure 2, the results confirm the proposed paths (SE=0.037; CR=8.442; p < 0.05). Therefore, hypothesis H5 is accepted. Lastly, SEM results underlined a positive and significant impact of consumers’ ATCFP on purchase intention (SE=0.020; CR=5.549; p < 0.05). Therefore, hypothesis H6 is accepted.
Table 3. SEM outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>H.No.</th>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>Value consciousness</td>
<td>➔</td>
<td>Attitude towards counterfeit</td>
<td>0.214</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>7.663</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>Brand consciousness</td>
<td>➔</td>
<td>Attitude towards counterfeit</td>
<td>0.255</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>8.283</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>Perceived risk</td>
<td>➔</td>
<td>Attitude towards counterfeit</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>1.002</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>Not accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>Materialism</td>
<td>➔</td>
<td>Attitude towards counterfeit</td>
<td>0.338</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>6.931</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5</td>
<td>Social influence</td>
<td>➔</td>
<td>Attitude towards counterfeit</td>
<td>0.318</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>8.442</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6</td>
<td>Attitude towards counterfeit</td>
<td>➔</td>
<td>Purchase intention</td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>5.549</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: SE=standard error; CR=critical ratio; p=significance level ** p < 0.001***; p < 0.01; * p < 0.05

**Discussion and conclusion**

This study delivered an in-depth investigation of the influences that affect ATCFP. The data used in this study meant that five of the six hypotheses were accepted, and the analysis rejected one hypothesis. The results showed that social influence, value consciousness, materialism and brand consciousness are positively and significantly associated with consumers’ ATCFP. We also observed that consumers’ ATCFP had a significant impact on their purchase intentions. Our results reflect the findings of numerous studies by several authors like Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980 and Ang et al., 2001. We found that consumers possessed behaviours towards counterfeit fashion products and, also, that they had strong intentions about re-purchasing these products. These findings validate the results of Ang et al.’s (2001), Gentry et al.’s (2006), Chadha’s (2007) and Bhatia (2018) previous studies since they noticed that the development in value-conscious correlated positively to ATCFP. In other words, the insight of value is counted as the factor that clarifies the consumers’ ATCFP.

Accordingly, brand consciousness is the feature that inspired the respondents to have an optimistic ATCFP and, ultimately, buy them. Occasionally, consumers, who are associated with brand-conscious, do not have enough money to purchase original branded products, and, consequently, they aspire to buy counterfeit products (Cordell et al., 1996; Wang et al., 2005).

Likewise, Budiman (2012) claimed that consumers with less social status usually purchase counterfeits to achieve more excellent quality.
We found that ATCFP did not predict the perceived risk among the consumers. Such a view of risk is lower amongst those individuals since they are previously conscious of such products' low value (Wang et al., 2005). They adore the luxury brand name's advantage without giving up the more excellent value (Gentry et al., 2006). They have overlooked purposely the risk related to buying counterfeit products.

Otherwise, the results underlined that consumers, who are materialistic and have a significant ATCFP, authenticate a developing country’s counterfeit fashion products. Such relationships concurred with Gentry et al.’s (2001) and Wilcox et al.’s (2009) findings that materialistic attitude is significantly associated with counterfeit products. In a simple sense, consumers who have materialistic values, desire to have much more materialism (Mason, 2001). Those consumers who can bear the expenses of real pleasant brands purchase a lot of them (BASCAP Report, 2009) and those who cannot follow their materialistic intentions and buy counterfeit luxury brands.

This study also established a positive and significant link between social influence and the consumers’ ATCFP. These findings endorsed the previous research of Phau et al. (2009) and Bhatia (2018), who claimed that social influence was a robust predictor of ATCFP. Mellott’s (1983) and Bearden et al.’s (1989) related studies addressed that peers and reference groups substantially impacted individuals purchasing counterfeit goods since they wished to make a constructive imprint on others well as projecting wealth. However, the majority of people in Pakistan have either low or moderate incomes. They want to for more social status and pleasant products. Consequently, the individuals, who cannot afford luxurious fashion products, opt to buy counterfeit products which bring similar performance of presenting wealth to their peers. Besides, due to their materialistic propensities, counterfeit products are accepted by those individuals who can pay for original fashion brands.

In conclusion, we found that the factors, such as value consciousness, brand consciousness, materialism and social influence, were significantly associated with consumers’ ATCFP. Such factors have a significant impact in predicting the consumers’ purchase intentions. On the other hand, perceived risk is not a good predictor of consumers’ ATCFP.

This study had many limitations since we utilized the quantitative domain, which restricted our insights (Phau et al., 2001). Moreover, we considered that applying a quantitative method to examine through consumers’ ATCFP may offer more in-depth insights. This study used convenience and judgmental sampling, which meant that such practices were part of non-probability sampling. Consequently, we could not generalize this study’s non-probability sampling findings accurately to the whole population. However, this study’s results may help the manufacturers of original fashion brand products to comprehend that a developing country’s consumers are affected by others. The innovative sellers of branded fashion products should be ambitious in connecting with their consumers and attaining word-of-mouth
recommendations. This study provides an in-depth knowledge of consumers’ ATCFP. We selected the factors used in this study to demonstrate the consumers’ purchase intentions and their reasons for buying counterfeit fashion products.
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