Factors influencing the consumption of digital music for women in South Africa

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ABSTRACT

This is a Research report for a study to investigate the factors that influence the consumption of digital music for women in South Africa, in order to better understand their implications for technology design and online shopping behaviour.

Online shopping, with its convenience and conjectured enjoyment, shows a slow uptake in South Africa and hypothetically the rest of the developing world. Parallel to that is the growing influence of women in the market place. Women being the largest consumer group in most markets and the only middle class segment that is growing in the economy globally, both these contexts presented an interesting case for research.

This study therefore used music, as a hedonic instrument, to investigate factors that influence online behavioural intention for women in South Africa. The study will use a largely welcomed model, the Unified Theory on Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) by Venkatesh et al (2012) to study two age cohorts, Generation X and Y.

The study measures Effort Expectancy, Habit, Hedonic Use and Online Risk as antecedents to behavioural intention for a female consumer to use an online shopping system. The results will later show that some of the hypothesis from the model are nullified and others have a negative effect to consumer online behaviour.

Key words: Digital Consumption, Music, Hedonic, Behavioural Intention, Perceived Risk, Habit, Women, Technology Use, Online Behaviour, Effort Expectancy.

DECLARATION

I, **Thabo Emmanuel Mokwele**, declare that this research report is my own work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgements. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in Strategic Marketing in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in this or any other university.

THABO EMMANUEL MOKWELE

Signed at ……

On the …….. day of …… 20…..

DEDICATION

This research report is dedicated to my father **Jonas Mokwele Mokwele**, he used to say "*education the wealth that no one can ever take away from you*". His passion for education and his unwavering confidence in my capabilities, are the reasons I keep studying. Thank you *Tlou*.

Thanks and glory be to God for my life and gift. To my spiritual head and leader, His Grace Dr. B.E. Lekganyane, thank you for leading the way. To my wife, Mapaseka Mokwele thank you for your continued support and encouragement. To my children the bar is set, it is now up to you to match or surpass it, and most of all thank you for making me aspire to be a better version of myself and to a great example for you all.

This journey would not have been possible if it was not for the support from my home and workplace, Kaya FM. Thank you to all from the MD to the Receptionists. To the Academic office especially Meisie Moya, thank you for always being there when needed. And to my supervisor Dr. Yvonne Saini thank you for guiding me through this journey and for setting very high standards. Not forgetting the MMSM class of 2016 especially my Syndicate Group (Group 6), thank you making this learning process a dream and for sharing your knowledge and experience so generously. My deepest appreciation and gratitude is to Dewald Geldenhuys for his big-heartedness and mentorship, thank you DG.

PS: *Education is more fun when you do it for the fun of it*.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the key themes contained in the entire study in terms of – the purpose of the study (Section 1.1), the context of the study (Section 1.2), the problem statement (Section 1.3), research questions (Section 1.4), research objectives (Section 1.5), the research gap and justification of the study (Section 1.6), the significance of the study (Section 1.7), delimitations (Section 1.8), definitions of terms (Section 1.9), assumptions (Section 1.10).

1.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the factors influencing the digital consumption and buying intention of women in South Africa, using music as a hedonic instrument of measure, in order to better understand the gap left by prior studies (Alreck & Settle, 2002; Gentry, Commuri, & Jun, 2003; Hyllegard, 2005; Fiore, Jin, & Kim, 2005; Ng & Mitter, 2005; Laforet, 2008; Davis & Sajtos, 2008; Kukar-Kinney & Close, 2010; Tifferet & Herstein, 2012; Lian & Yen, 2014; Davis, Lang, & San Diego, 2014; Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2016), regarding women and technology.

1.2 Context of the study

Economists, as reported by Brennan (2015), have estimated that the women segment is the greatest emerging market globally. This segment has a projected income of about $18 trillion by end of 2018. Therefore, and in comparison to other groups, women are a growing labour force globally. This translates into their growing influence in the consumer market. A number of reasons for this growth, focusing on the roles that women play domestically and economically, include:

i. Women are the most powerful consumer: They have the buying power and influence purchasing decisions of others.
ii. Women have a multiplier effect: As the primary caregiver in most societies, women purchase for many others besides themselves.

However, with these prospects in mind, there are other markets that are still struggling to attract the female segment to their products and services, i.e. online shopping. Hasan (2010) found, that men are more active online than women. Others argue that women are techno-phobic, hence, there is a slow uptake in terms of online shopping. The United States of America (USA) has seen a lessening of the digital gap, with the emancipation of women (Cummings & Krout, 2002).

There is a digital shift in the world, where most transactions and communications are conducted online. Women are said not to be '*adapting'* to this new of way of doing things, this could mean there is a need to re-learn their consumer behavioural patterns and adapt them to the digital world, or there is a *mal*-design of the digital platforms that fail to connect with the female segment.

It is thus logical that marketers, developers, designers, and strategists need to rethink their plans. They need to prioritise women as a strategic segment if they want their products and services to be consumed in the future.

The internet has also changed the way we consume things. Most of the academic literature that has tested various models on the use and acceptance of technology, assumed that young people are the major market for the usage of information and communications technology use (Lian & Yen, 2014). Moreover, most of these studies were done in universities, using the student population as a sample, which limits the universality of the findings to be applied to other groups.

There are only a limited number of these studies which focus on the adult population, even though there is growing evidence which suggests that as society ages, older adults are becoming an important potential market for future online shopping (Lian & Yen, 2014).

Technological advancements have disrupted many industries, including the music industry, changing the way music is consumed and distributed.

Technology brought about the de-materialisation of music from physical copies into digital artefacts. This resulted in the introduction of digital music platforms like iTunes (an online music store) or Pandora (a digital music streaming service), over and above other media platforms (radio and television) in the market place. Therefore, for the sustainability of the music industry, there is a need to understand the changing patterns of consumption and the influencers that drive that consumption. This research seeks to study the drivers that effect the consumption patterns of digital music by women in South Africa, particularly women in the Gauteng Province.

1.3 Problem statement

This study seeks to understand the factors influencing or affecting the consumption of digital music services, by women in the cities of Gauteng.

The digitalisation of music has led to most music shops closing down as the music has been de-materialised from actual CDs to digital artefacts. Consequently, the purchasing of music has shifted from the physical purchase of CD’s to online purchases, with the resulting growth in digital music platforms and online stores. Therefore, the personal interaction and aesthetic benefits (touch and feel) of the actual product has become obsolete.

Like any consumer-based market, there has been an impact on the music industry by the digitisation of products and services, especially with the digitalisation of music. This has resulted in many changes to the whole industry,

including how music is bought and consumed. Prior studies have shown that men have adopted the digital consumption of music (Hasan, 2010) but less has been reported or researched on the consumption patterns of women in this space. In South Africa, women constitute 52% of the entire population (StatsSA, 2015) who are potential purchasers of music.

Online music stores sell digital artefacts, but also serve as a streaming service where the subscriber can listen to their choice of music via a smart phone, computer or digital media player, without being required to own or download the actual digital copy of the music.

Buying digital formats to own, requires the subscriber to provide billing details in the form of a credit card or digital vouchers. After purchase, the digital product is then stored on the device for the user to exploit as and when they wish. Music streaming services however, require the payment of a monthly subscription fee. This allows the subscriber to listen to music which is tailor-made for them, based on the information they submitted regarding their personal music preferences and taste. The music stream subscriber does not own the music on the play-list. However, they are able to listen to the music when they connect via the internet to stream the playlist again, which costs both money and time.

Radio stations in South Africa, are still the main source of music and entertainment. Radio listeners enjoys an average of 4 hours and 40 minutes of listening per day (AMPS, 2015), with over 300 radio stations to choose from. Women are the biggest listenership group in South Africa with 30-60% of listeners being women, depending on the genre of the station (AMPS, 2015).

The purchase and streaming of music in digital format happens within the backdrop of public and private sector broadcasting. Online music services operate within the music broadcasters' environment, where access to music via FM and AM frequency, is readily available to access in cars, homes and even on mobile phones. Moreover, radio frequency consumption as compared to digital music platforms, requires no subscription fees, as it is 'free'. Music broadcasters

therefore, strive to keep the market's patronage by play-listing songs that would appeal to lucrative demographic groups.

Styven (2010) says that involvement is an important and well-recognised factor in consumer behaviour. This means that the person's involvement in consuming a product, influences their attitude and behaviours, including their decision processes, product knowledge and innovativeness. Richins (2008) explains that music on the other hand, as a hedonic artefact, is much more than just involvement; listening to music is an emotional and involving experience.

Just like the need to touch a product cannot be overlooked as an antecedent to purchasing digital artefacts, it is worse for a hedonic product such as music. Digital music has lessened the involvement of consumers in the buying process.

All these different dynamics have shifted consumption of music, from the traditional model to a new digital dynamic, which still needs to be studied in order to understand how it impacts the consumer behaviour patterns of certain segments in the market. This study hopes to achieve that by focusing on the female segment of the population.

1.3.1 *Sub-problems*

This study seeks to investigate…

I. The **Effort Expectancy** of a using a system will influence women's intention to use it.

II. The **Hedonic Motivation** to play, listen and buy music, will make women use a digital music service.

III. The **Perceived Risk** related to online transacting has an influence on the women's intention to use an online system.

IV. The **Habit** formed before and/or after using an online service will influence women intention to use a digital music service.

1.4 Significance of the study

Globally there is a shift in the consumption of music, from physical to digitised formats. South Africa has recently seen the downsizing and closing down of big music retail stores like Musica or Look & Listen, which was propelled by this new music format and its subsequent consumption or lack thereof. Global digital sales however, have seen a 20% growth from 2003 to 2008, when the physical products have seen a decline (IFPI, 2009).

It has been established that men are the biggest consumers of digital music. However, there is little empirical evidence explaining the consumption behaviours and patterns of music online.

In South Africa, women make up 52% of the market, and they are the part of the growing middle class (Stats SA, 2015). Globally, in the study of consumer behaviour and economics, women are the growing force and the biggest market, because of their increased access to education, employment and burgeoning income (Forbes online Magazine, 2016).

If there is a segment of the market that loves music for the emotional and entertainment benefit it brings, it is the female segment. However, there is scanty empirical evidence, even in the developing world, regarding women's online consumption behaviour with regard to digital and non-digital products. This study will therefore, add to the body of knowledge regarding women as consumers of online products.

As it will be shown in the literature review, Venkatesh, Morris, Davis and Davis (2003) used the UATUT model to test the acceptance of technology in general; they also tested if it could be applied to hedonic products, e.g. ringtones. However, they gave more emphasis to the acceptance and less to the hindering or motivating factors influencing the use of technology for personal use. Women as a subject of this study, present an interesting dynamic to investigate, since their online buying behaviour knowledge is still evolving.

It has been established that women enjoy the tangibility (touch and feel) of products, even when it comes to music. Nevertheless, with the consumption shift from actual CDs to digital, there is a need to understand the factors that can influence their buying decisions. The researcher believes it will be of great importance to learn what makes women refrain from consuming a certain hedonic product online, even when it has been established that it is one of women's preferred products. This study aims to investigate if women are not consuming digital music because of the medium used to sell it, the buying process, the marketing, or the design of the online platform, rather than the product.

The findings of this study will have a multiple effect in providing music broadcasters, media practitioners, the music industry, applications and software designers, and online retailers, with valuable knowledge about women's purchasing behaviour for hedonic products. If women, being the biggest market in the country and lovers of music, find it easy to consume digital music, it will bolster the music industry, and at the same time present new strategic challenges, for instance, to music radio broadcasters.

The opposite is also true, that the music industry might be impacted negatively when the largest market is not buying its product, thus opening the door to piracy and file sharing, which then leaves the artist and record company out of the income loop (Green & Sinclair, 2015). In addition, Hilbert (2011) found that most of the software and hardware applications women were exposed to, did not reflect their interests and did not meet their needs. If this study finds that this is a negative influence for women to buy music online, the findings will be of significance to how online stores and digital applications are designed.

1.5 Delimitations of the study

When it comes to online music consumption, previous studies have tested the teen market in universities. This study focused on the Generation X (born between 1966 and 1976) and Generation Y (1977-1994) consumer as they are both economically active and active digitally, like on social media (AMPS, 2015). Thus, they are online and have the means to transact.

It was posited that the role of culture in the digital space for women, a predominantly male environment, could reveal interesting dynamics as a mediating factor toward user behaviour. This study therefore, looks at some of the external factors, such as social and cultural influences, and their impact on a South African woman's buying behaviour.

The target population, women in Gauteng, may be limited to give a much broader understanding of the emerging markets patterns in terms of online shopping behaviour. However, with Gauteng being the economic hub of South Africa and Africa, this study provides an indication of what the rest of the country, and possibly the continent, might be experiencing in terms of digital purchases of hedonic artefacts.

1.6 Definition of terms

Digital music - music available online, via online stores, as a downloadable artefact or via streaming.

Hedonic product - relating to or characterised by pleasure (Kim, Kim, & Wachter, 2013).

Perceived risk - a "combination on uncertainty plus the seriousness of outcome involved…as well as the expectation of the losses associated with the purchase and acts as an inhibitor to purchase intention" (Featherman & Pavlou, 2003, p.1).

Habit - a learned outcome which, only after a relatively long period of extensive practice, is stored in long-term memory and overrides other behavioural patterns.

Effort expectancy - the degree of ease associated with technology use (Kijsanayotin et al., 2008)

Behavioural intention – an individual's behaviour in his/ or her intention to engage in that behaviour (Azjen and Fishbein, 2000).

1.7 Assumptions

a. Amongst the women repertoire of products, it is assumed that music is one of the products a woman wants to consume daily, and this is based on her radio listening habits.
b. It is also assumed that women have the disposable income to exploit digital music and the means thereof, such as a computer and internet access to make online purchases.
c. Radio broadcasters and the music industry, are wrestling with this new digital format, therefore it is assumed that both industries are dependent on the intelligence that this study will bring.
d. It is assumed that the degree to which women intend to buy digital music, has a double-edged sword effect, in that the music industry can either suffer or gain as a consequence. Therefore, radio music broadcasters may need to revisit their model and strategy in terms of keeping women as their customers.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature in support of this research report. Largely, it has three aims, namely, to give an overview of the research landscape in relation to the hedonic use of technology (Section 2.1 and 2.2), the research model (Section 2.3) we will use for this study and the conceptual model, thereof, extrapolated from theory (Section 2.4).

2.1 Background discussion: Gender and use of technology

Market segmentation is an essential marketing strategy, as it helps divide the market into homogenous groups with the same purchasing needs (Kotler & Armstrong, 2012). Gender is an essential segmentation variable for research, and most studies show that men are more commercially active online than women (Hasan, 2010). However, relatively little research has been done on the gender differences in consumer behaviour with regard to technology (Tifferet & Herstein, 2012).

There is a persistent argument that women are technophobic and suffer from computer anxiety (Hilbert, 2011, Davis et al., 2014). It is argued therefore, that they are disadvantaged from benefiting from the digital revolution because they are less tech savvy, and this perpetuates the stereotype that technology is gendered (Hilbert, 2011) and that masculinity is embedded on technology (Davis et al., 2014). The factors driving this behaviour however, have not yet been established.

Previous studies on the acceptance of technology and e-commerce, have attempted to understand gender differences in purchasing behaviour, with most of them using gender as a moderating factor (Alreck & Settle, 2002; Gentry et al., 2003; Kukar-Kinney & Close, 2010). However, only some have studied the gender effects of online buying behaviour (Hyllegard, 2005; Laforet, 2008).

Cummings and Krout (2002) found that in the United States of America, the gender gap in online technology use has lessened, chiefly because more women than men, are using the cyber space. However, their study did not generalise this behaviour to developing economies like South Africa. The only comparability to developing countries was that men and women were found to be using the internet for different reasons.

Men have been found to like the internet for the experiences it offers; while women like it for the human connections it promotes (Hilbert, 2011). This explains why women have taken to social media so easily and why they are the biggest market for it, as opposed to other forms of online activity (Kim, Gupta, & Koh, 2011). This implies that women do accept new technologies that satisfy their need to connect with others. Ng and Mitter (2005) found that the only deterrent to the acceptance and use of technology by women is that over and above the issues of a lack of access and training, women were confronted with software and hardware applications that did not reflect their female interests and needs.

Therefore, this has implications for online retailers, especially since the exchange is digital and not physical. It means that the design and architecture of online stores need to be appealing to the female consumers' senses and match their buying behaviour.

2.1.1 *Consumer behaviour by Gender*

Much of the research conducted on women's buying behaviour, has found that the buying process is a sensory engagement which then transforms into an emotional experience, emphasising the fact that for an engaging online experience, it needs to appeal to a woman's senses; visually, architecturally, aesthetically and conveniently.

Tifferet and Herstein (2012) observed that women tend to make more impulsive purchases than men do. They observed this phenomenon when looking at hedonic shopping. A good hedonic experience, is explained by Arnold and

Reynolds (2003) as a more subjective experience that is associated with, “greater levels of playfulness that result in positive moods and higher levels of shopping satisfaction.” Fiore et al. (2005, p.671), expand on this definition by saying that a hedonic shopping process, “generates the highest levels of emotion and the actual purchase act serves as the climax of the buying process”. Hence, shopping for sensory products like food, cosmetics and clothes, which result in heightened enjoyment impulses and produce emotional arousal, is associated with hedonic shopping.

This makes it clear that there is a connection between enjoyment and impulse buying, which supports the earlier findings of Rook and Huch (1985), that there is a strong connection between impulse buying and hedonic value of consumption. This knowledge informed this study, to question the consumption of music by women. Since music by its nature and design, is a hedonic product, the music industry could then benefit from this finding by Rook and Huch (1985), concerning women and their inherent penchant to impulse buying.

2.1.2 *Gender, Technology and consumer behaviour*

The internet of things (IoT) puts us in a ubiquitous environment where digital communication and interaction by consumers, through the use of multiple devices, can happen anytime and anywhere (Davis & Sajtos, 2008). This further necessitates the need for this study, to understand online consumer behaviour, moderated by gender.

Richins (2008) found that listening to music is an emotional and involving experience. Silvera *et al* (2008) added another dimension when they established that there is a link between impulse buying and negative emotions, for example, anxiety. This infers that women may use their impulse buying as a means to improve their mental and emotional state. Therefore, music as an emotive product can make one feel happy or sad.

The only discovery that works against music in its digital format, is the fact that consumers with a high need to touch (to feel the aesthetics of a product as part of the decision process), are more susceptible to impulse buying (Tifferet & Herstein, 2012). Since digital music is online, there is no tangible product for the consumer to touch such as an actual CD, or to be able to feel the sleeve. This could be the very challenge that may hinder the consumption of digital music, with the exception of trial listening (sampling the product before purchase).

This study then combines two subjects (digital music and online shopping), which are still grappling with growing their footprint within a particular sector of the economy, and seeks to investigate the factors that influence (good or bad) the consumption of a specific product, within specific age groupings, by a specific gender.

2.2 Theoretical grounding

This research is based on the following model, the Unified Acceptance Theory and Use of Technology (UATUT) (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003) model (Figure 2.1) which unifies eight technology acceptance and user behaviour models, to create one that can be used as a basis to study user behaviour toward new technology. This model unified a number of frameworks that wanted to study why technology was used and adopted by individuals (Pascual-Miguel, Agudo-Peregrina, & Chaparro-Peláez, 2015). The first of these was Rogers' (1962) theory of diffusion, which looked at the innovation characteristics that influence the adoption of a technology. Secondly, the theory of reasoned action (TRA) by Fishbein and Azjen (1975), which hypothesises that behavioural intention is a major predictor for human behaviour, was included. Davis' (1989) technology acceptance model (TAM) and theory of planned behaviour (TBP), which extended the TRA principles, were also added. The fourth element was Bagozzi and Warsaw's (1992) Motivation Model (MM) which looks at the motivations behind user behaviour (Pascual-Miguel et al., 2015). Venkatesh et al. (2003) combined all these models to create a unified model that studies the user and

acceptance of an IT system. This unified model includes the four factors that are predictors of user and acceptance behaviours of a user; effort expectancy, performance expectancy, social influence and facilitating conditions. It also includes the moderating factors of age, experience and voluntariness, in the adoption process (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

The unified theory looks at the precursors that drive the behavioural intention to use an Information Technology system. However, in the beginning this model looked into the utilitarian application and benefits of a system at an organisational level, not at a personal computing level and not for hedonic uses.

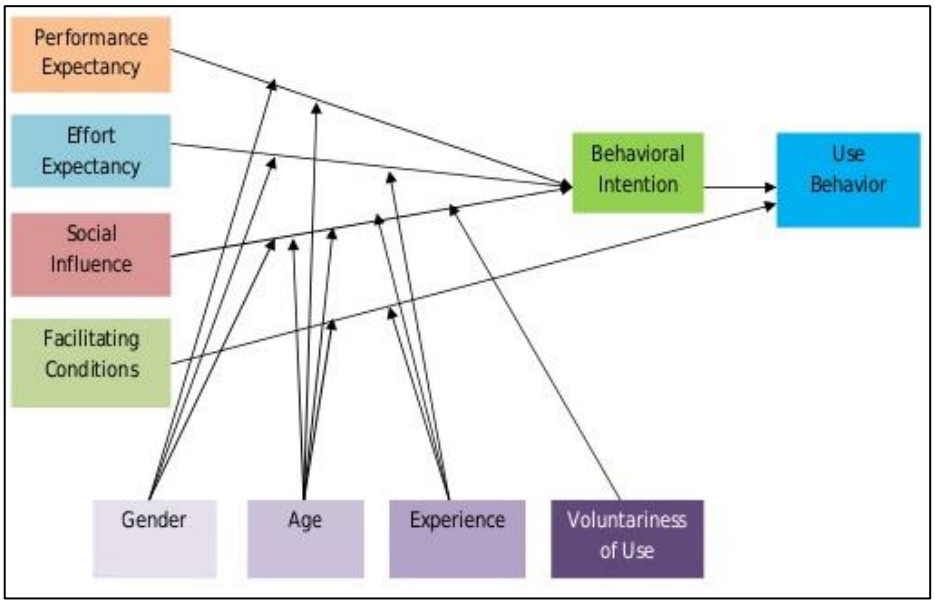

Figure 2.1: UATUT Model (Venkatesh, 2003)

Since its inception, this model has been tested and modified in the Information Systems (IS) space and applied in various categories: Enterprises Systems, Collaboration technologies in knowledge intensive firms, mobile internet for consumers, agile IS, e-Government for citizens, and the health IS in the healthcare industry (Venkatesh, Thong and Xu, 2016). The different studies are said to have repeatedly confirmed that the UATUT model and its main effects, are robust. Nevertheless, the studies rarely looked into the effects of age, gender,

experience and voluntariness. Thus, less focus was given to these moderating factors.

An enhanced UATUT model was developed by Venkatesh, Thong and Xu (2012) after testing the previous model on hedonic systems (systems that give pleasure); it was tested on the use of ringtones on mobile telephones, as these services are hedonic and not utilitarian. As a result of this testing, the researchers added hedonic motivation, habit, and price value, as precursors to the behavioural intention that may lead to the behavioural use of a hedonic system, when formulating the UATUT2 model (Venkatesh et al., 2012) (Figure 2.2).

According to Venkatesh, Thong and Xu (2016), the UATUT2 has a few limitations as it does not take into consideration, or pays less attention to, the culture, income, experience and other individualistic characteristics, that form part of a consumer's behaviour.

There are also other UATUT extensions that have tested this model at a personal level but within, and for organisational use. These researchers have added new moderating constructs, like individual differences (Niahaves & Plattfaut, 2010), and culture (Yeun, Yeow, Lim, & Saylani, 2010). The latter however, used different variables as predictors of behavioural intention, including attitude, anxiety, perceived credibility and self-efficacy.

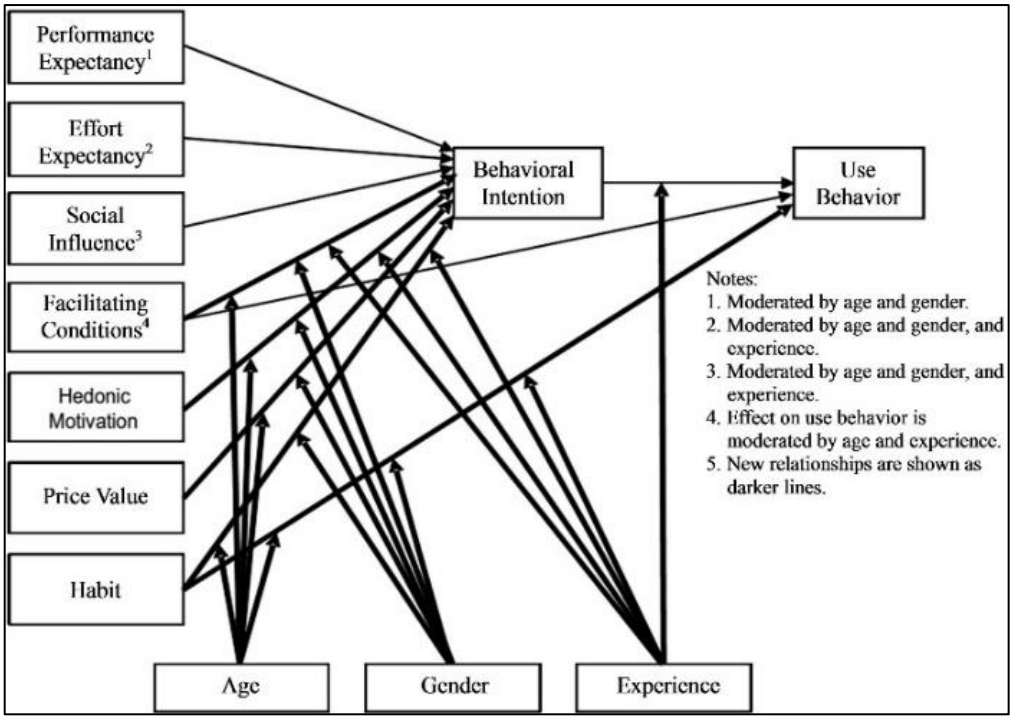

Figure 2.2: UATUT2 Model (Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2016)

Most of these modifications and extensions did not focus and zoom in on the personal-hedonic use of technology. Therefore, this study wishes to fill that gap, where the UATUT model can either be modified or extended for hedonic use, at an individual level and within a specific gender, taking into consideration the culture at play in that environment.

2.2.1 *Effort expectancy*

While studying other technology use and acceptance models, Venkatesh et al. (2003) concluded that the concept of perceived ease-of-use (taken from TAM/TAM2 model), complexity (MPCU model), and easy-of-use (IDT model) combined, seek to define effort expectation as the degree of ease associated with technology use (Kijsanayotin et al, 2008).

There are a number of empirical studies that were done to measure the effort expectancy variable and they all support effort expectancy as a driver influencing people to use new technology and software (Amin et al., 2008; Dasgupta et al., 2011; Luarn & Li, 2005; Puschel et al., 2010; Sripalawat et al., 2011).

Grounded in UATUT, Park et al. (2007) and Lu et al. (2009) used three constructs; performance expectancy; effort expectancy; and social influence, to explore what influences an individual's intention to accept mobile technology and data service, respectively. Both studies support that effort expectancy significantly influences human intention to use technology or digital services. Therefore, effort expectancy is a precursor to intention to use an IT system.

2.2.2 *Hedonic consumption*

The term hedonic, of Greek origin, means relating to, or characterised by, pleasure (Kim, Kim, & Wachter, 2013). Hedonic motivation usage of technology is growing because of its inherent benefits: lower search costs, greater availability of product information, increased convenience, and lack of sociality (Murray & Bellman, 2011).

Digital music services are hedonic information systems, thus they are pleasure orientated, as they are designed to give the user a pleasant experience by supplying the music they desire (Koster, 2007). Therefore, the digital music platform intends to give the end-user an enjoyable experience and aims to let the user experience fun while using the service.

Activities that offer variety, enjoyment and relaxation, engage users in pleasurable pursuits that are hedonically motivated (Venkatesh et al., 2012). Hedonic motivation stems from activities that are fun, exciting and enjoyable, thereby satisfying personal needs. As such,, music that is meant for pleasure and enjoyment, qualifies as having hedonic value that technology users will consider as an activity that is intrinsic (personal) to them (Kim et al., 2013).

Holbrook and Batra (1987) say that the user experiences of consumers, can satisfy intrinsic needs when the experience provides pleasure, fun, and excitement. Lee and Jun (2015) indicate that an interesting activity, intrinsically motivates people to be more engaged with technology. However, Nel, Raubenheimer, and Bounagui (2009) maintain that gender studies have shown that women are the least to enjoy the use of information technology, consequently affecting their participation on most digital platforms, including online shopping. This finding then, by default impacts women's interaction with digital music platforms in purchasing music online, as to do so requires an individual's ability (skills, knowledge and interest) and resources to download or stream music online.

Van der Heijden and Verhagen (2004) found that online store enjoyment has a significant influence on online purchasing intention. Venkatesh (2000) further found that the effect of enjoyment becomes stronger as the user gains more experience of the system. The common denominator is that when an IT system is engaging the user, thus increasing their activity and engagement with the system, their motivations to use the system increase and become more pleasurable and enjoyable, and thus make the user hedonically driven to use the system. It has also been empirically proven that hedonic motivation is a key driver in the use of technology (Kim, K et al., 2013). This implies that higher hedonic engagement motivation, leads to higher user intention. Therefore, the more successful the digital music service is at satisfying the intrinsic needs of the user, the more the user will repeat their usage of the system or service.

2.2.3 *Perceived risk*

Trust is an important factor for the marketing exchange to take place, both online and offline. The lack of direct contact with the physical store or physical product, erodes trust in an online platform (Nel et al., 2009). Mayer et al, (1995: p.710) argues that, “Trust is only needed in a risky situation” . The risk comes from the prevalence of online fraud and a lack of trust on the part of the online platform, should there be a dispute. However, there is perceived risk to online transacting.

Perceived risk is a “combination on uncertainty plus the seriousness of outcome involved…as well as the expectation of the losses associated with the purchase and acts as an inhibitor to purchase intention” (Featherman & Pavlou, 2003, p.454). The more a user perceives risk, the less secure they feel (Khalilzadeh et al., 2017). Lim (2003) also reported a link between trust and risk, as they both predict behavioural intention. Therefore, there is a strong link between perceived risk and the use of a digital music platform, with regard to purchasing intention.

2.2.4 *Habit*

Looking at the UATUT model there is a strong emphasis on the use of technology but the above constructs speak to the acceptance of the digital music platform, and not yet on the use. Venkatesh (2012) expanded his own model to include the hedonic use, so as to help the consumer technologists, better design and market technologies to consumers…at various stages of the use curve, as the original dealt with the acceptance of technology at organisational level and for utilitarian benefits.

The Instant Activation Perspective (IAP) model assumes that the repeated performance of a behaviour can result in a well-established attitude and an intention that can be triggered by that attitude (Azjen & Fishbein, 2000). However, Limayem, Hirt, and Cheung (2007) concluded that ‘habit’, was not a fitting predictor to influence purchase intention and purchase behaviour because it has a moderating effect.

Lustig, Konkel, and Jacoby (2004) maintain that habit is a learned outcome and only after a relatively long period of extensive practice can it be stored in long-term memory and override other behavioural patterns. Thus, the consumers with more experience of using a particular technology, will develop a cognitive lock-in that creates a barrier to behavioural change (Murray and Haubl, 2007). This means that for there to be a repetition of behaviour (habit) with an Information Technology system, there must be cues that trigger that habit (Venkatesh et al., 2012). For instance, if a woman checks her social networks when she commutes, then every time she is in the train or bus that is exactly what she will do. Therefore, there is a link between the use of technology and habit on behavioural intention.

2.2.5 *Moderating factors*

2.2.5.1 *Culture*

In South Africa, traditional roles and the African patriarchal family structure, have influenced women's status and their responsibility to their families and society, for thousands of years (Liao, Bei, & Widdows, 2005). Since the dawn of democracy in 1994, South Africa has seen a growth in women's economic participation. The political environment has ensured that there are programs in the macro and micro environment that seek to support and boost the economic emancipation of women. The Employment Equity Act 1998, the kills Development Act 1998 and National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality 1996 in line with the United Nations Accord all had a primary focus and objective to promote gender equality (RSA, 2015).

The South African government has encouraged women to participate politically, contribute to the labour market, and devote themselves to the development of society and the country. This economic freedom has brought along changes and challenges in the market and to the individual.

With the increase in personal growth and economic development, South African women are now exposed to and have access to great economic opportunities.

Like women in China and Taiwan, the women in South Africa have naturally adapted modern western values to self-actualise (Liao et al., 2005). This has resulted in internal conflict with the African traditional culture that they were born into, where they are expected to be home makers, wives and exemplary mothers, thus distilling a mixture of two cultural systems, interdependent versus independent (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

The Western influence in the adoption of technology on the South African woman, can not only be observed materially, but also through the levels of consciousness (Yang, 1981). This Western influence is via entertainment, media, movies and television (Liao et al., 2005). This new culture brings along a new cultural context that influences a South African woman's attitude towards herself, her family, and her society, and these attitudes in turn, influence her consumption values (Liao et al., 2005).

Tse and Wong (1988) found that a consumers' preferences and consumption values are strongly influenced by their social and cultural environment. When it comes to hedonic products, the cultural values of a consumer seem to be different. As a result of the hybrid cultural system South African women find themselves in, hedonic products versus utilitarian products yield different emotions from them, as found by Liao et al. (2005) when they studied women in Taiwan and China. Hedonic products by nature are not necessities, therefore some consumers experience guilt while purchasing them but this is dependent on the economic situation of an individual. If the consumer is not financially limited they would feel less guilty for buying feel good products such as entertainment, luxury or leisure orientated products, and vice versa (Liao et al., 2005).

Hedonic products for women tend to elevate their feelings of self-reward, especially those with high self-esteem and a sense of economic independence by virtue of their own status and achievement (Liao et al., 2005). The guilt after a hedonic purchase arises from the fact that it elevates self-interest or expression above family concerns. This is the case especially for women with a strong sense of family responsibility because when making consumption decisions, their family

comes first, regardless of their own preferences and feelings. This supports the researcher quest to test different roles, single or married, in this study, in order to understand if it has a role to play in influencing purchase intention.

2.2.5.2 *Age cohorts: Gen X and Gen Y*

Age has proven to be a determining factor in user acceptance of online shopping and consumer intention to shop (Lissitsa & Kol, 2016). Generational cohorts, as a subsection of age, have proven to be an efficient way to segment markets rather than just by age (Schewe & Noble, 2000) because these cohorts share the same generational identity and in the consumer context, each generation is driven by unique ideas as to the type of lifestyle they aspire to reach (Smith & Clurman, 2010).

As will be shown in Chapter 3, two generational cohorts were investigated for this study, Gen X (1961-1979) and Gen Y (1980-1999). Both these generations are characterised by higher rates of internet adoption compared to prior generations (Lassati & Kol, 2016). Table 2.1 provides a summary of the similarities and differences between these two generations.

Table 2.1: GenX vs GenY (Lissitsa & Kol, 2016)

Generation X	Generation Y
• Makes purchases based on traditional search and decision-making methods. • Avoids risk and has a low capacity for risk. • Have the reputation of being disloyal to brands and companies. • Cares about the opinions of others and needs reassurance that the choices they have made are sound. • Likes to search while shopping online.	• Shopping is about entertainment and experiential. • Driven to use status-seeking consumption as a means to display wealth and purchasing power. • Highly educated, makes decisions after prior research on topic. • Makes decisions quickly, less deliberately and adopts new opportunities. • Makes more frequent and impulsive purchases than Gen X. • Want products that match their personality and lifestyle. • Price and features are more important than brand. • Loyalty is fickle.

Agudo-Peregrina, Acquilla-Natale, and Hernandez-Garcia (2015) studied the validity of age segmentation on online shoppers and found that, age as a moderating variable has no effect on the relationship between purchase intention and purchase behaviour. Therefore purchase intention predicts purchase behaviour independently of the user's age. Once the older user overcomes the barriers of online shopping, the differences to the younger users disappear. This advice applies for online businesses and e-marketers that intend to segment their online market by age. However, age in this context will be used to extract knowledge around the consumer behaviour of two different age cohorts.

2.3 Conceptual Model

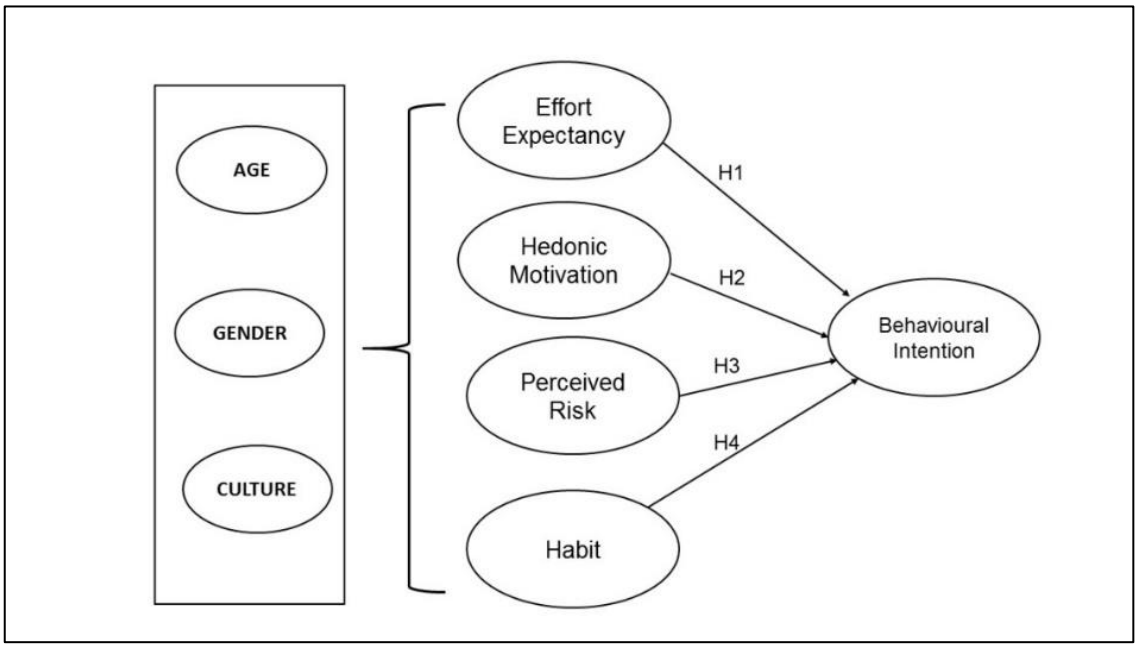

Figure 2.3: Conceptual Model

2.3.1 *Hypothesis*

H_{1O}: There is no relationship between Effort Expectation and Behavioural Intention.

H_{1A}: In using an online system, consumers have an expectation on how easy or difficult it would be to use it and this may influence their intention to use it.

H_{2O}: There is no relationship between Hedonic Motivation and Behavioural Intention.

H_{2A}: The consumer's behavioural intention to use an online digital platform is motivated by the type of products or service, they want to enjoy and their primary need in using the system.

H_{3O}: There is no relationship between Perceived Risk and Behavioural Intention

H_{3A}: Transacting online and the risk involved in exchanging personal and financial information may influence a consumer's intention to use a digital platform.

H_{4O}: There is no relationship between Habit and Behavioural Intention.

H_{4A}: The Habit, or lack thereof, to buy or consume digital products affects how the consumer will either use the digital platform or continue using it.

2.4 Conclusion of literature review

Research on the use of technology by women, is scant. Some studies have concluded that women enjoy hedonic shopping more offline, than online, while others posit that there is a masculinity in the design of technology, hence women are not engaged when it comes to online shopping.

With most things moving to the digital space, there is a need to investigate those factors that influence consumers to behave in a certain way, on a digital platform. Using music, an easily understood product, that has recently changed how it is packaged and its distribution mechanics to digital channels, gives us the opportunity to do just that.

The conceptual model adapts prior extension in order to test the hedonic use of an existing model at an individual level.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter identifies and describes the methodology. Broadly, it has three objectives, namely, to identify and describe the research strategy (Section 3.1.), the research design (Section 3.2.), as well as the procedure and methods (Section 3.3.). The chapter also describes the reliability and validity measures (Section 3.4.) that were applied to make the research credible, as well as the technical and administrative limitations of the research procedure and methods (Section 3.5).

3.1 Research paradigm and strategy

Cresswell (2014) and Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2016) describe research strategy as the plan and steps of how a research study will be approached, backed by the philosophical assumptions a researcher would bring into the study. There are three types of research strategies, these being the qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods research strategies. In this study, a quantitative research strategy is employed.

According to Bryman (2012), Cresswell (2014), Kumar (2011), and Saunders et al. (2016), quantitative research is a deductive approach between theory and research, with an emphasis on the quantification of information after the collection and analysis of that data. It is narrowly focused in its nature, with a precise, structured and rational approach, to test a behaviour, knowledge, opinion or attitude (Bryman, 2012). Quantitative research is usually based on a high number of respondents and it allows them to answer set questions that seek to test objective theories and/or models by studying their relationships with different variables (Cresswell, 2014). The data in this research strategy is in numeric form, statistical analysis can be applied to formulate meaning out of the data (Saunders et al., 2016). Quantitative research has the ability to capture a snapshot of the population in question, thus giving the researcher the capacity to generalise and replicate the findings (Cresswell, 2014).

Quantitative research is used in this study, as it allows for the testing of an established theory against old or new variables, in a different setting, in order to understand behaviour and choices made in that population.

Scholars, like Molteni and Ordanini (2003), followed a quantitative research strategy. The main objective of their study was to discover the approaches different consumers adopt when downloading online music. Since they wanted to study the online behaviour of the university student population, they tested online behaviour using this research strategy. Van Belle (2007), also followed the deductive research method. In their study, they wanted to discover the factors that influenced young South Africans to pirate software, music and video, via downloads. Their research was based on an existing model and they wanted to test new variables, hence they chose the quantitative approach. Huang (2005) is another scholar that applied the quantitative research strategy, as he was testing a number of hypothesis into file sharing consumption, on a new business model, designed for the music industry. As Cresswell (2014) said, the deductive approach is the best strategy to take when testing hypothesis and/or models.

The above examples follow Kumar's (2011) description that this strategy is a procedural plan to collect information from selected respondents, analyse the collected data, and communicate the findings. The researcher, therefore, made use of quantitative research to measure the factors that influence the consumption of digital music by women in the Gauteng Province in South Africa. Since quantitative strategy allows for the testing of objective theories by examining the relationship between variables (Cresswell, 2014), new variables which emerged from the literature review, were added to the study, for testing against an existing model, the Unified Acceptance of Technology and the Use of Technology (UATUT) (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

3.2 Research design

Bryman (2012), Cooper and Schindler (2014) and Saunders et al (2016) agree that research design is a plan on how the researcher plans to collect the data and it also shows how the data will be analysed. However, Cooper and Schindler (2014, p.125) expands the definition further by saying that research design is:

"…the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data, that helps the researcher with the allocation of resources and a plan and structure of the investigation conceived to obtain answers to the research question".

There are five generic research designs: cross sectional, longitudinal, case study, comparative, and experimental. The fundamental principle is that a research design is the way that a researcher collects data.

Literature highlights that the UATUT model (Venkatesh et al., 2003) was of a longitudinal design and testing the model over the utilitarian use and acceptance of technology by employees in organisations, involved four companies. Since music is a hedonic system, Koster (2007) initially tested a music streaming service for students in a university, by using the same model.. He chose to use a cross-sectional research design. Venkatesh et al. (2012), retested the original model on hedonic products, by using ringtones, and also chose to use a cross sectional research design to test the enhanced UATUT model. A cross-sectional research design has therefore, also been used for the current study..

Using a cross-sectional research design to test the model, involved the collection of data at a point in time. The data, based on the variables being tested, could then be analysed to detect patterns and gain an overall picture at that time of the study (Bryman, 2012; Cresswell, 2014; Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Saunders et al., 2016). This research design is best suited for studies such as this one, in that it is aimed at finding out the patterns of behaviour, a prevalence of phenomenon, or in understanding behaviour (Kumar, 2011).

Huang (2005), applied the cross-sectional research design when testing a number of hypothesis on a new business model for the music industry, which involved file sharing consumption. The conceptual model was tested on college students, who were senior marketing-related students, at a local university in Taiwan, because they were the best representatives of the digital era's new music consumers. Molteni and Ordanini (2003) also applied the cross-sectional research design when investigating the approaches different consumers adopt towards downloading online music, and because they wanted to study the online behaviour of the university student population at that time, this design was best suited for their study. A cross-sectional research design was also used by Van Belle (2007), wanted to discover the factors that influence young South Africans to pirate software, music, and video, via downloads. Their research was based on an existing model but they wanted to test new variables, so they collected data from students in that year, at the University of the Free State, using an online questionnaire.

All of the above-mentioned scholars benefitted from this design in that they were able to test an existing model and different variables, by adapting the instruments to suit their study. They were also able to test new hypothesis, in order to gain an understanding or deduce a pattern, from a particular population at a point in time.

A cross-sectional research design was considered beneficial to this study as it enabled the study of consumer behaviour of a cross-section of women, towards digital artefacts, by testing the UATUT model at a particular point in time.

3.3 Population and sample

3.3.1 *Target population and sampling*

A target population is the universe of units that is used to select a sample for a study (Bryman, 2012). These are the subjects of main focus for the research study, and can answer the questions we wish to measure (Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Cresswell, 2014; Kumar, 2011).

However, within this population a representative sample of the entire group needs to be selected on the basis of estimating or predicting prevalence of information regarding the entire population, so that conclusions can be drawn about the entire group (Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Cresswell, 2014; Kumar, 2011). Therefore, the sample for this quantitative study was selected from the target population of Generation Y (25 to 31 years old) and Generation X (32 to 43 years of age) women in the Gauteng province.

Scholars like Molteni and Ordanini (2003), when they conducted their deductive study looking at learning the approaches different consumers adopt towards downloading online music, picked a sample of internet users within a broader community of university students, as part of the young adults they needed to test. Van Belle (2007) followed a similar method when researching the factors that influence young South Africans to pirate software, music, and video, via downloads. They chose to research university students that were already active digital music users, and not the entire student population of the University of the Free State in South Africa.

Huang (2005) is another scholar that sampled within the student population at a Taiwan university, when he was quantitatively testing a number of hypothesis on a new business model for the music industry, into file sharing consumption. He researched his conceptual model on college students because they were the best representatives of the digital era's new music consumers. The target sample was

senior students who took one of three marketing-related elective courses at that university.

All these scholars accessed their target population at one point, from a university campus or a university website. The student population also represented the precise population that interacted and/or consumed what was being tested, i.e. digital artefacts. However, as described before, this study is different to the above mentioned studies, as it focused on studying the user behaviour of women in Gauteng, and within two different subcultures, Generation Y (25 to 31 years old) and Generation X (32 to 43 years of age). Probability sampling was used to achieve a minimum sample size of 200 respondents. The reason for this strata probability sampling is based on one of Gauteng's leading music radio stations, Kaya FM. Kaya FM is a music broadcast service that focuses primarily on the female segment in this market. This study, therefore, is of consequence to their marketing strategy and business model. The lack of digital consumption by this market, its primary market, lengthens Kaya FM's business model and the opposite applies in that the station may be forced to reconsider its model or find better ways to keep its audience by expanding its service to digital platforms.

The source of the elements for the study were obtained using the Kaya FM website, the station's social media subscribers, and it listenership email database.

3.3.2 *Description of respondents*

The researcher applied a stratified probability sampling method focusing on the two groups of women, the group of 18 to 37-year olds and the group of 38 to 53-year olds. This type of sampling involves dividing the population into a number of groups (strata) where the members of the group share particular characteristics (Robson, 2011). These two groups share similar characteristics in terms of age, tastes and buying behaviours. This similarity is important in that it ensures that the findings can be generalised to the larger population (Salkind, 2010).

3.4 The research instrument

A data collection instrument is a survey tool that has questions which need to be answered, and it is used to collect primary data (Cresswell, 2014; Kumar, 2011; Saunders et al., 2016). There are two prominent types of data collection instruments: observation schedule and interview schedule.

Kumar (2011) posits that in order to collect data, the researcher needs to construct a research instrument, or select and adapt one that has already been constructed. A 7-point Likert Scale questionnaire was used for this study (see Appendix A). This was in line with the use of a 7-point Likert Scale questionnaire in previous studies, such as looking at the behavioural use of the digital music system (Koster, 2007) and in the measure of the ringtone usages by Venkatesh et al. (2012), when he tested the hedonic application of their 2003 model. Therefore, a 7point Likert Scale questionnaire was considered appropriate for this study. This measuring instrument was modified as per the literature review, to include habit as a variable, as used by Lustig et al. (2004), and perceived risk, as tested by Nel et al. (2009). Therefore, an interview schedule was used for this study.

There are three types of structures for an interview schedule: the structured, semi-structured and fully structured. A questionnaire by its design, is a fully structured interview schedule. Fully structured interviews have, “a predetermined set of questions, using the same wording and order of questions…which assures the comparability of data” (Kumar, 2011, p. 145). This research project maintained the structure as used by its predecessors, the fully structured interview schedule.

Huang (2005) used a 7-point Likert scale questionnaire when testing a number of hypothesis on a new business model for the music industry into file sharing consumption. Other scholars, such as Molteni and Ordanini (2003), also used a fully structured interview schedule when they were studying the different approaches consumers adopt towards downloading online music, and because

they wanted to study the online behaviour of the university student population, a 7-point Likert Scale questionnaire was posted online, on the university website, for any of the students with internet access to participate in the study. Van Belle (2007) also used a quantitative instrument, a fully structured interview schedule consisting of 7-point Likert Scale type questions, in their study when they wanted to discover what factors influenced young South Africans to pirate software, music and video, via downloads.

The 7-Point Likert Scale is used by most researchers, as it is found to be more reliable than the 5-Point Likert Scale instrument, and it provides greater statistical significance than the latter (Huang, 2005; Van Belle, 2007).

Venkatesh et al. (2003) used a fully structured interview schedule, which Koster (2007) tested on a music streaming service, adapting it for his study, to include hedonic variables. A 7-Point Likert Scale questionnaire was used in the previous studies looking at the behavioural use of the digital music system and the same was also applied in the measure of the ringtone usage by Venkatesh et al. (2012) when he was testing the hedonic application of their 2003 model. Therefore, a fully structured interview schedule was adapted and used for this study. It was however, modified as per the literature review, to include habit as a variable as used by Lustig et al. (2004), and perceived risk as tested by Nel et al. (2009).

3.5 Ethical considerations

Research ethics deals with standards of behaviour that guide the researcher in relation to the rights of the respondents, as they become subjects of the researchers work and how they may be affected by it (Saunders et al., 2016). For this study, the respondents were made aware of the type of information needed from them, why the information was being sought, for what purpose it will serve, how they were expected to participate in the study, and how it could directly or indirectly affect them (Kumar, 2011). This was crucial since there was no personal interaction with the respondents when they answered the questions. Therefore,

a self-declaration letter preceded the questionnaire, explaining who was conducting the research, the objectives of the study, how it could affect them (if at all), and it also included general instructions on how to fill in the information.

3.6 Data collection and storage

Most of the authors consulted regarding data collection, do not clearly define it. They do however, allude to data collection as being the process whereby the researcher uses their research tool to collect data from a selected sample (Bryman, 2012; Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Cresswell, 2014; Kumar, 2011). There are four modes of research data collection: participant or ethnography, interviews (face-to-face, telephone, or internet-based), focus group discussion and documents research data collection.

This study employed an online survey data collection mode. A web-link, via WhatsApp (mobile), Facebook page and email, was sent to respondents. This web-link re-directed the respondents to a website where they could answer the questionnaire (Bryman, 2012). The collection of data via an online platform was chosen as online surveys have proven to be more effective because of their speed of data collection, and it gives access to difficult-to-contact and difficult-to-reach participants. In addition, it lowers the cost of large sample completion (Saunders et al., 2016). A web based survey tool, Qualtrix, was used as it has a database storage system that automatically stores data, which could later be retrieved for analysis.

3.7 Data processing and analysis

Data processing speaks firstly to the accuracy of converting raw data into categories appropriate for analysis, this includes editing, coding and data entry (Saunders et al., 2016).

Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña (2012 p. 71), says that data coding is that, “critical link between the data collecting and the explanation of meaning”. Thus, the coding of data implies giving numbers or symbols to the answers given in a questionnaire, so that the responses can be grouped into a limited number of categories (Saunders et al., 2016). This is done so as to transform the information into numerical values so that the information can be easily analysed, either manually or by computer (Kumar, 2011).

Data entry on the other hand, deals with the conversion of primary data into the computer for viewing, manipulation and analysis (Saunders et al., 2016). As Kumar (2011) observed, computers are helpful in this regard, for saving time and labour, for analysing data manually, and they are capable of handling complex statistical and mathematical procedures.

Data cleaning involves the the process of scrutiny the researcher undertakes on the data, to identify and minimise errors, incompleteness, misclassification and gaps that may exist, from the respondents (Kumar, 2011). One method of doing this is by running a frequency check on the answers received, as this will populate a frequency table that arrays data by assigning a numerical value in percentages to highlight the valid numbers, gaps and missing data (Saunders et al., 2016).

After these above steps, the data can then be reduced to a manageable size and summarised, observing patterns and then applying a statistical technique for analysis (Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2016). There are a number of data analysis techniques that could be used for this quantitative study: regression analysis, cluster analysis or structural equation modelling.

Molteni and Ordanini (2003), when they did their deductive study looking at learning the approaches different consumers adopt towards downloading online music, used the statistical program SPSS, for their analysis. Van Belle (2007) also followed a similar method. In their study, they wanted to discover the factors that influenced young South Africans, to pirate software, music, and video, via downloads. They applied a cluster analysis, as it was a well-established and

powerful method used to describe the market segmentation processes. Huang (2005), is another scholar that sampled within the student population at a Taiwan university, when he was quantitatively testing a number of hypothesis on a new business model for the music industry, into file sharing consumption. He used Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to analyse his data because he was testing a number of hypothesis for a new model.

The tool used for the analysis of this study, was the IBM's Statistical Package for Social Sciences, version 22 software (SPSS 22), and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) using AMOS 22. This tool was chosen as it is in line with the tools used in the original and subsequent models.

3.8 Research reliability and validity measures

This section is important in that the researcher needs to measure their own instrument, to check if the questions being asked are relevant, and if the variables or hypothesis being tested are congruent to what is being researched. Therefore, the researcher needed to do reliability and validity measurements on the instrument.

Research reliability has to do with the consistency and stability of the study over time (Kumar, 2011); it has to do with accuracy and precision of the research results (Saunders et al., 2016); and it has to do with the quality and integrity of the results (Miles et al., 2014). In essence, research reliability is important, in that it seeks to measure if the study can be replicated elsewhere and achieve the same result.

Validity checks if the study has measured, through its questions, what it set out to measure (Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Kumar, 2011; Saunders et al., 2016). In other words, validity refers to identifying if the research instrument, the questionnaire, is accurate (Cresswell, 2014). There are four main types of research validity: measurement validity, internal validity, external validity and ecological validity.

Internal validity checks whether the study and its findings are sound, especially in regard to the causal relationships between variables (Bryman, 2012). The implication here, questions if the data received is dependable, in that there is a causal relationship between two variables.

External validity is the degree to which the conclusions of a particular study hold for other people, in other places, and at other times. Consequently, the study's findings should be tested to ascertain if they can be generalised across other populations or groups. The groups of women chosen for this study represent a cluster of the population everywhere in South Africa that love music and will maximise the validity of the study. As such, respondents were required to first answer if they love music, in order to ensure that the responses received are from a correct sample.

Koster (2007) tested his research using an existing model (UATUT), and he wanted to adapt it to focus specifically on the user acceptance of technology based on the use of digital music services. The results gathered were analysed using SPSS, as it was used by the original model. This was his benchmark on how to measure the reliability and validity of his adapted questionnaire. The Cronbach's alpha scores in his study were shown to matched those of the original model.

Huang (2005) researched the student population at a Taiwan university when he was quantitatively testing a number of hypothesis on a new business model for the music industry, into file sharing consumption. He estimated the reliability and validity measures using the MLE with LISREL 8 for analysis, however it is not clear why he chose this option. He too used Cronbach's alpha, to test each of the hypothesis.

The reliability and validity measures for this study were done using IBM's Statistical Package for Social Sciences, version 22 software (SPSS22), whereby each instrument was tested as per the previous studies, to ensure they had a Cronbach alpha of no less than 0.7 for reliability and 0.6 for validity.

The questionnaire also included demographic instruments to measure the profile of the sample and its personality traits using binary scale questions. This section of the questionnaire was analysed using ANOVA, as per the original model.

3.9 Pilot study

Blanche et al. (2006) recommends that before a full study it is done, there is a need to do a pilot study with a smaller sample of the same population group, to detect any potential issues with the research instrument. A pilot study was conducted for this study using the Wits Business school MMSM class and Kaya FM staff, who were encouraged to share the survey link with their female colleagues and friends. The reliability and validity of the research measurement was also assessed from the pilot study data, as suggested by Radhakrishna (2007).

3.9.1 *Methodology of the pilot research*

Since the study intended to gather at least 200 responses from women in the urban cities of South Africa, a pilot sample target of at least 10% that matched the sample, was sought (Hertzog, 2008). More than 60 responses were received for the pilot.

3.9.2 *Feedback from the pilot research*

A total of 12 respondents were removed from the sample data because the questionnaires were incomplete, and a final sample of 54 respondents was analysed.

The feedback received, was that the study was quick and easy to complete. However, there were a few grammatical errors that were flagged and rectified for the main study.

Construct	Descriptive Statistics		Pearson's Correlation				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Effort Expectation	Hedonic Motivation	Perceived Risk	Habit	Behavioural Intention
Effort Expectation	5.54	1.09	1				
Hedonic Motivation	4.94	1.28	.630**	1			
Perceived Risk	4.93	1.41	-.152	-.505**	1		
Habit	5.12	1.04	.186	.387**	-.278*	1	
Behavioural Intention	5.24	1.14	.487**	.688**	-.481**	.333*	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.1: Descriptive Statistics and Pearson's Correlation

Validity and reliability measurements were also done and the analysis found that all of the constructs retained the items in the hypothesised constructs and the factor loadings were higher than the minimum acceptable value of 0.4. The lowest factor loading recorded was 0.511 and the highest was 0.945. Cronbach's Alpha values were all above the minimum required value of 0.7. Table 3.1 below shows the descriptive statistics and the Pearson correlation for the five constructs.

The pilot study results proved that there was no need to amend the survey instrument, and more especially the constructs being measured. Therefore, a full study was then commissioned and the results thereof a discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 4. PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data gathered from a total of 1444 responses received. Of the 1444 responses received, 373 were incomplete and hence, excluded from the sample. The final sample had 1071 responses. A total of 12 respondents were removed because they were incomplete, 5 removed because they did not love music and a final sample of 1058 respondents was analysed.

4.2 Demographic profile of respondents

The employment status of the respondents is summarised in Figure 4.1.

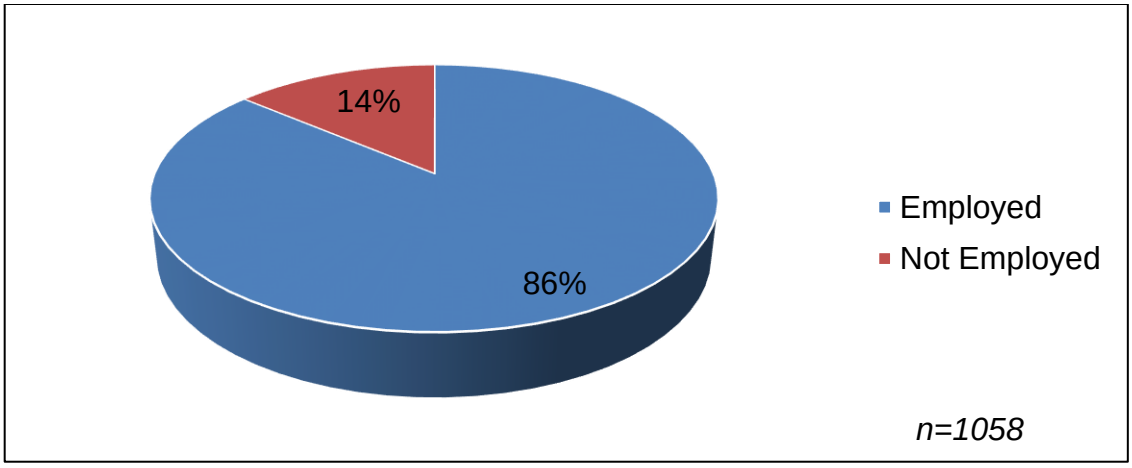

Figure 4.1: Employment status of respondents

Most of the respondents in the sample were employed (86%) while the other 14% were unemployed. The unemployment rate in the sample is below the national average of 27.7% (Statistics SA, 2017). This qualifies the assumption made that the target sample has access to technology and will have the economic means to participate in the e-commerce environment.

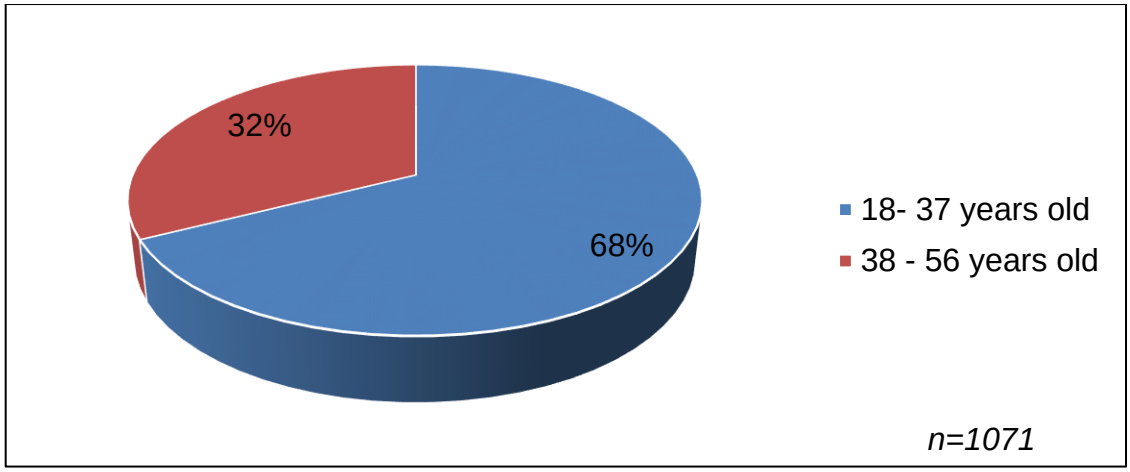

Figure 4.2: Age distribution of respondents

The age distribution of respondents is shown in Figure 4.2. A proportion of 68% of the sample were in the 18-37 year old age group, while the other 32% were in the 38-56 year old age group. Most studies done around hedonic use of technology used the student (youth) population for their investigation and with these results, we are able to broaden the study beyond the university into the workplace and households.

The marital status of respondents was also assessed, and the results are shown in Figure 4.3.

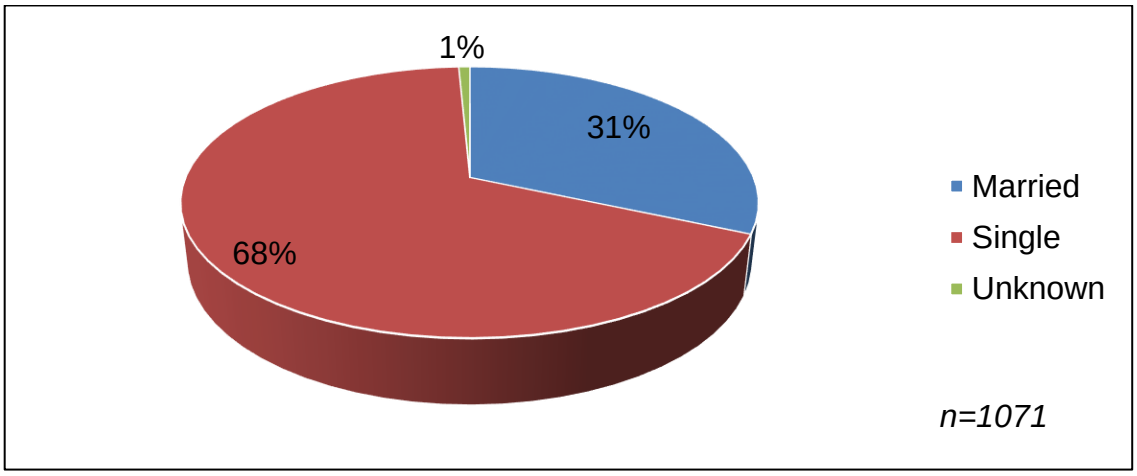

Figure 4.3: Marital status of respondents

The sample was predominantly made up of single people (68%), with another 31% indicating that they were married, while the other 1% did not indicate their marital status. The single people's majority helps to understand the power of choice and the freedom to exercise that choice, in light of the government's move to emancipate women and give them more opportunities of access to education, work and business.

Monthly personal income was also asked for and the results are shown in Figure 4.4.

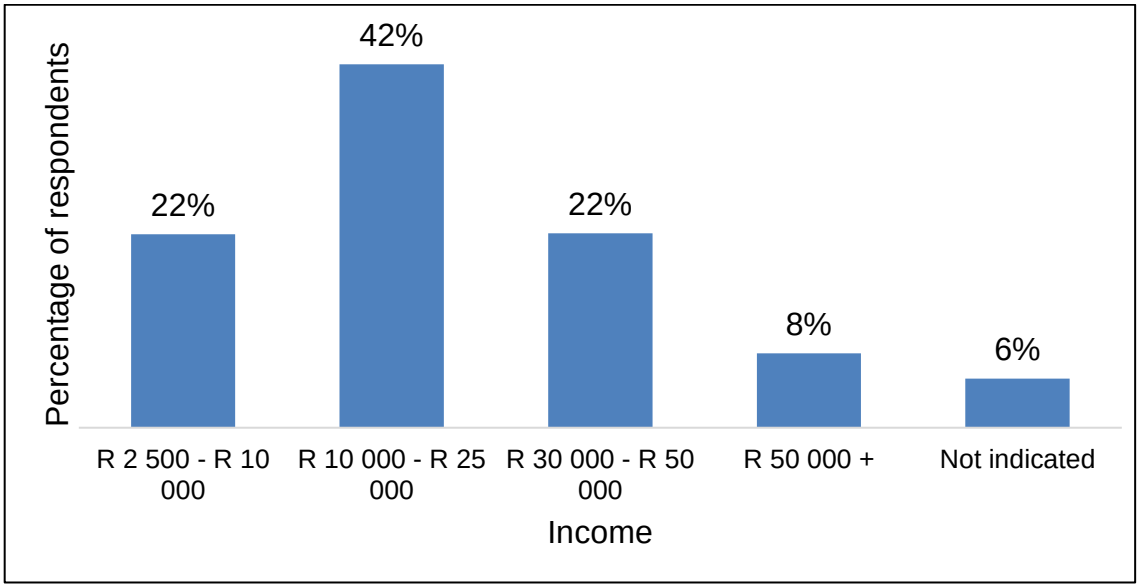

Figure 4.4: Monthly Income of respondents

A proportion of 22% of the sample had a monthly income of R2500 – R10 000, 42% had an income of R10 000 – R25000 per month, another 22% had an income of between R30 000 and R50 000 per month. This, however, does not extricate disposable income from expenses, this was to gather information on gross monthly income and economic activity.

4.3 Validity and reliability measurements

4.3.1 *Measurement scale validity*

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted to assess the validity of the constructs. The results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity can be found in Appendix B1. It is noted that all the KMO values were greater than the minimum required value of 0.5. This indicates that the sample was adequate to conduct factor analysis. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity had significant p-values (p-value < 0.05). This means that there were correlations among the items within each scale, as required for factor analysis. The results on the final constructs, factor loading, and total variance explained, are presented in Appendix B2.

The factor analysis results revealed that the Effort Expectation construct had one factor containing all the items within the hypothesised construct. The retained factor explained 56% of total variance in the items within the scale. Factor loadings were very high, ranging from 0.532 to 0.870. The scree plot below (Figure 4.5) also confirms that there is one factor retained, as indicated by a steep slope from 1 to 2 and then the graph flattens out.

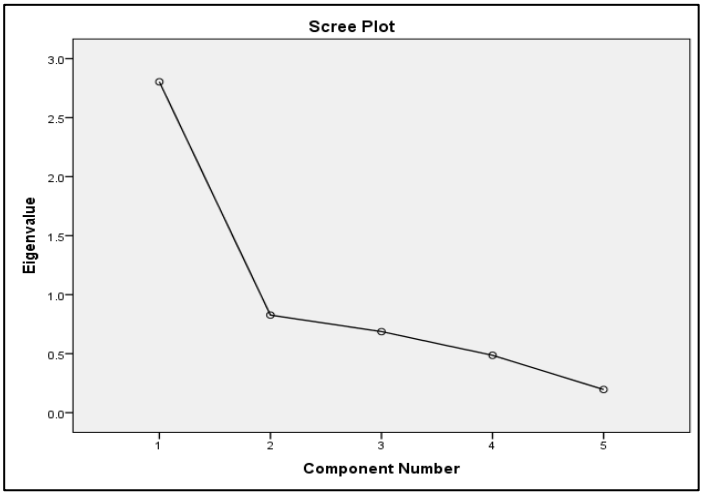

Figure 4.5: Effort Expectation scree plot

The Hedonic Motivation construct, also retained one factor which explained 69% of the variation in the items within the scale. All the items within the original hypothesised construct were retained within the construct and they had factor loadings above the minimum requirement with at least 0.4. The scree plot below (Figure 4.6) also confirms that there is one factor retained as indicated by a steep slope from 1 to 2 and then the graph flattens out.

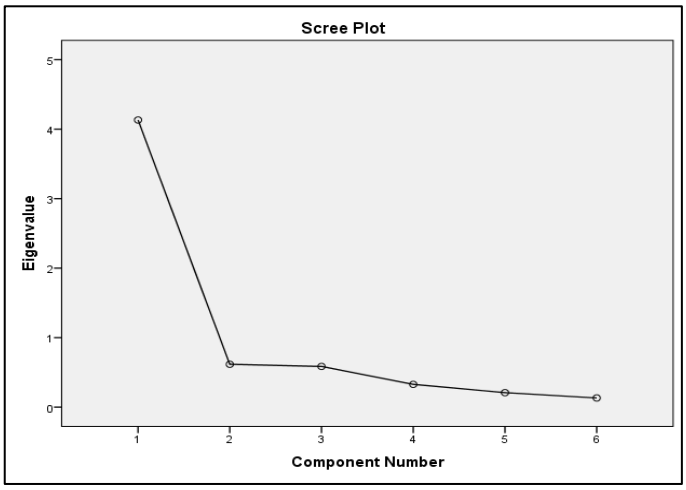

Figure 4.6: Hedonic Motivation scree plot

The Perceived Risk construct retained one factor which had all the originally hypothesised items. The retained factor explained 55% of variation in the items within the construct. All the items loaded highly (>0.4) onto the retained factor. The scree plot below (Figure 4.7) also confirms that there is one factor retained as indicated by a steep slope from 1 to 2 and then the graph flattens out.

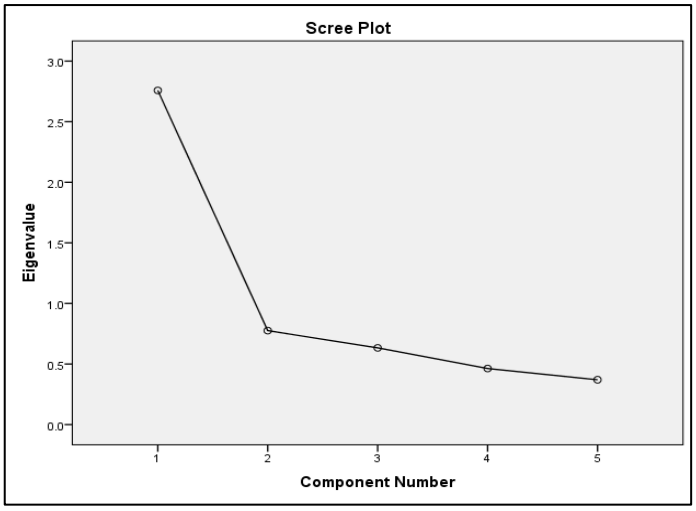

Figure 4.7: Perceived Risk scree plot

Habit and Behavioural Intention also retained one factor each. The retained factors explained 59% and 66% of the variance in the individual items respectively. All the items loaded highly onto their respective factor. The scree plots in Figure .8 and Figure 4.9 also confirm that there is one factor retained for each of the constructs.

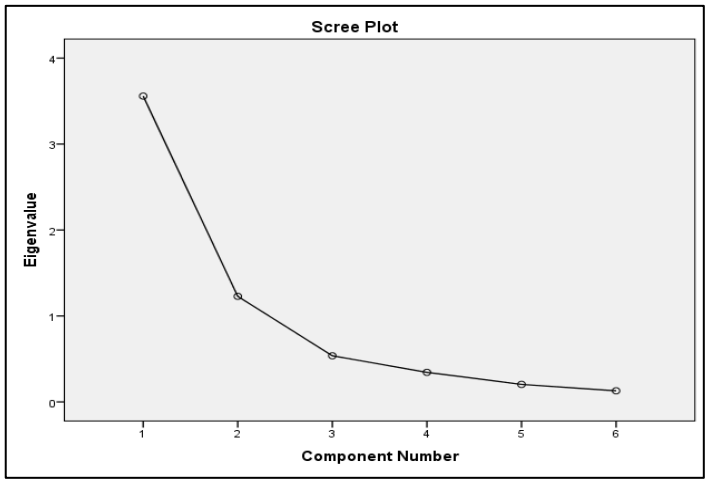

Figure 4.8: Habit Scree plot

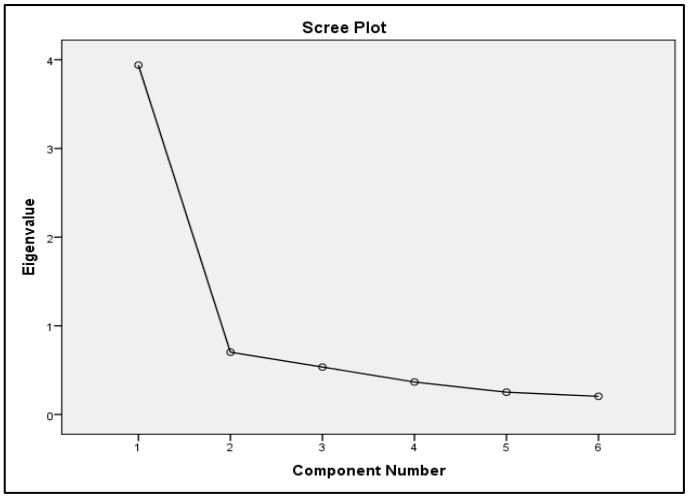

Figure 4.9: Behavioural Intention scree plot

The EFA results confirmed that indeed, the hypothesised factors had the items which had been suggested by the researcher.

4.3.2 *Reliability of the scale*

The reliability of the scale for the five constructs was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha and the results are summarised in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Reliability

Construct	Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability Level
Effort Expectation	5	.801	Very good
Hedonic Motivation	6	.909	Excellent
Perceived Risk	5	.791	Acceptable
Habit	6	.860	Very good
Behavioural Intention	6	.892	Very good

The results show that the Hedonic Motivation scale (6 items, α = 0.909), had an excellent level of reliability, while Effort Expectation (5 items, α = 0.801), Habit (6 items, α = 0.860) and Behavioural Intention (6 items, α = 0.892), had very good reliability, and Perceived Risk (5 items, α = 0.791) had an acceptable level of reliability.

The reliability results show that the items within each of the constructs could be combined together to form a summated scale for each scale since Cronbach's Alpha values were greater than 0.7, as required. The summated scale was computed by calculating the average of items within each construct.

This test validity checks validity and therefore confirms that the survey instrument, through its questions, achieved what it set out to measure. Therefore, the research instrument, the online questionnaire, was accurate.

The validity measurements of this research, show positive results regarding internal validity, external validity and ecological validity. Internal validity results show that there are causal relationships between constructs. Therefore, the data received is dependable. External validity results show that this study can hold true for women in developing economies worldwide. Therefore, these findings can be generalised across other populations or groups.

The two cohorts chosen for this study, represent a cluster of the population everywhere in South Africa and the developing world, and the universality of music as a product, maximises the validity of this study.

Table 4.2 shows the descriptive statistics and the Pearson correlation for the five constructs after computing the summated scale.

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics and Pearson's Correlation

	Descriptive Statistics			Correlations				
	N	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Effort Expectation**	**Hedonic Motivation**	**Perceived Risk**	**Habit**	**Behavioural Intention**
Effort Expectation	1071	5.41	1.126	1				
Hedonic Motivation	1071	5.11	1.275	.682**	1			
Perceived Risk	1071	4.93	1.301	-.292**	-.364**	1		
Habit	1071	4.92	1.350	.372**	.458**	-.312**	1	
Behavioural Intention	1071	4.94	1.271	.499**	.685**	-.444**	.539**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The highest rated construct was Ease of Use (mean = 5.41± 1.126), followed by Hedonic Motivation (mean = 5.11 ± 1.275), Behavioural Intention (mean = 4.94 ± 1.271) and Perceived Risk (mean = 4.93 ± 1.301). The lowest rated variable was Habit (mean = 4.92 ± 1.350).

It can be noted that Behavioural Intention was positively correlated to Effort Expectation (r = 0.499, p-value < 0.01), Hedonic Motivation (r = 0.685, p-value < 0.01) and Habit (r = 0.539, p-value < 0.01). There was also a negative correlation between Behavioural Intention and Perceived Risk (r = -0.444, p-value < 0.01).

4.3.3 *Hypothesis Testing*

Path analysis using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), was conducted to test the four hypotheses and the results are shown in Figure 4.10, Table 4.3 and Table 4.4.

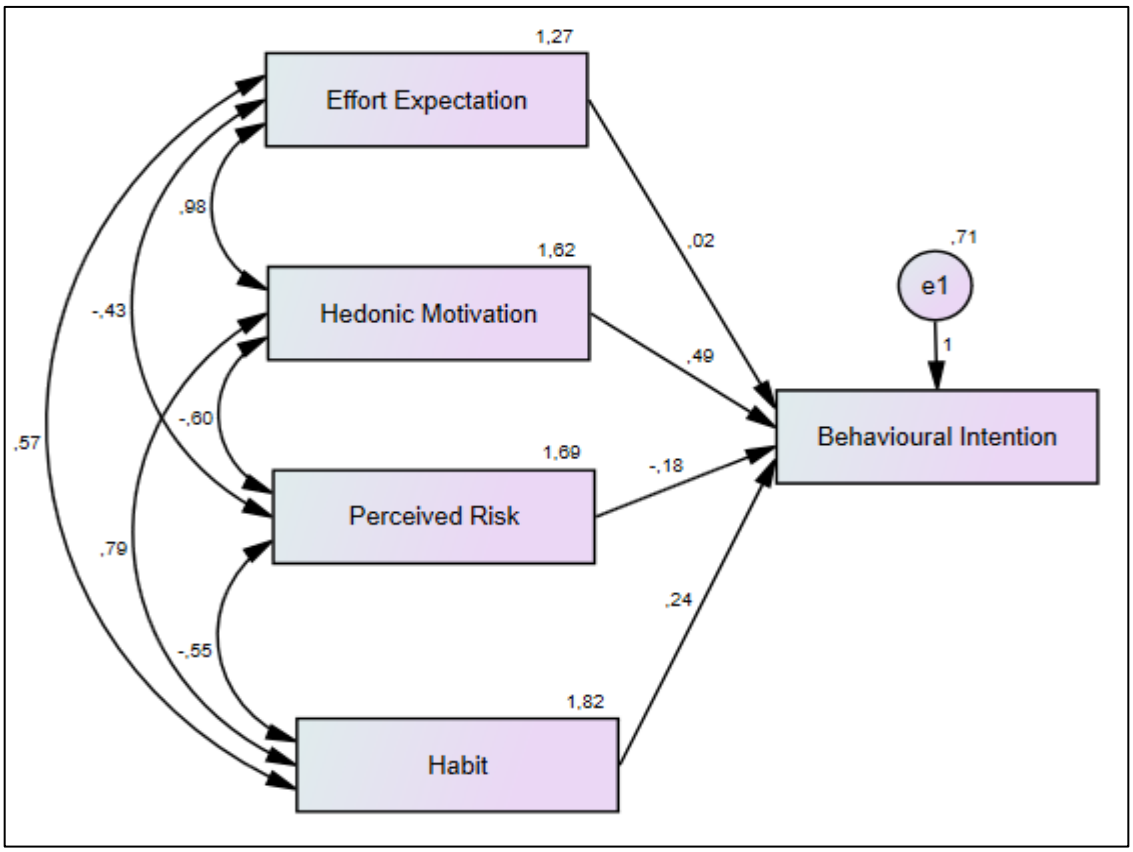

Figure 4.10: Unstandardised regression estimates

Table 4.3: Regression weights

			Estimate	Standardised Estimate	C.R.	P-value
Behavioural Intention	<---	Effort Expectation	.018	.016	.562	.574
Behavioural Intention	<---	Hedonic Motivation	.492	.494	16 .735	***
Behavioural Intention	<---	Perceived Risk	- .178	- .182	-8 .250	***
Behavioural Intention	<---	Habit	.235	.250	10 .766	***

***. P-value < 0.001 level

Table 4.4: Squared multiple correlations

	Estimate
Behavioural Intention	.562

The results show that there were strong relationship between variables, none of the variables were weak for the study. Therefore this proofs that instrument used and questions asked were relevant, and the variables tested were also congruent to the study. This implies that this results are reliable and relevant and can be generalised.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Hypothesis 1: Relationship between effort expectation and behavioural intention

H_{1O}: There is no relationship between Effort Expectation and Behavioural Intention

H_{1A}: Effort Expectation has a positive impact on Behavioural Intention

The results from Path analysis show that there is no significant relationship between Behavioural Intention and Effort Expectation (B = 0.018, β = 0.016, t-value = 0.562, P-value = 0.574). The relationship is insignificant since the p-value was greater than 0.05.

This implies that the null hypothesis is not rejected, and it is concluded that there is no relationship between Effort Expectation and Behavioural Intention.

5.2 Hypothesis 2: The relationship between hedonic motivation and behavioural intention

H_{2O}: There is no relationship between Hedonic Motivation and Behavioural Intention

H_{2A}: Hedonic Motivation has a positive impact on Behavioural Intention

The results from Path analysis show that there is a positive and significant relationship between Behavioural Intention and Hedonic Motivation (B = 0.492, β = 0.494, t-value = 16.735, P-value < 0.001). The relationship is significant because the p-value was less than 0.05 and was positive because the coefficient of Hedonic Motivation was greater than zero. This means that the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. It is therefore concluded that Hedonic Motivation has a positive impact on Behavioural Intention

5.3 Hypothesis 3: Relationship between perceived risk and behavioural intention

H_{3O}: There is no relationship between Perceived Risk and Behavioural Intention

H_{3A}: Perceived Risk has a negative impact on Behavioural Intention

The results from Table 4.3 show that there is a negative and significant relationship between Behavioural Intention and Perceived Risk (B = -0.178, β = =0.182, t-value = -8.250, P-value < 0.001). The relationship is significant because the p-value was less than 0.05 and was negative because the coefficient of Perceived Risk was negative. This means that the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. It is therefore concluded that Perceived Risk has a negative impact on Behavioural Intention.

5.4 Hypothesis 4: Relationship between habit and behavioural intention

H_{4O}: There is no relationship between Habit and Behavioural Intention

H_{4A}: Habit has a positive impact on Behavioural Intention

The results from Table 4.3 show that there is a positive and significant relationship between Behavioural Intention and Habit (B = 0.235, β = 0.250, t-value = 10.766, P-value < 0.001). The relationship is significant because the p-value was less than 0.05 and was positive because the coefficient of Habit was greater than zero. This means that the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis. It is therefore concluded that Habit has a positive impact on Behavioural Intention.

The summary of all the hypothesis are shown in the Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1: Summary of all hypothesis

Hypothesis		Standardised Beta (β)	T -value	P-value	Supported or not
H1	Effort Expectation has a positive impact on Behavioural Intention	.016	.562	,574	Not Supported
H2	Hedonic Motivation has a positive impact on Behavioural Intention	.494	16 .735	<0.001	Supported
H3	Perceived Risk has a negative impact on Behavioural Intention	- .182	-8 .250	<0.001	Supported
H4	Habit has a positive impact on Behavioural Intention	.250	10 .766	<0.001	Supported

The hypothesis test is congruent with the internal reliability testing that the hypothesis are also consistent with the study. Therefore, making the results reliable, relevant and can be generalised.

CHAPTER 6. CONCLUSIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This section would discuss in detail the above results and compare them to findings made in prior studies that used UATUT (2012) model. So as we can bring to light differences or similarities (if any) with how hedonic users of technology in the developing world compare to the rest of the world.

6.2 Effort Expectation on Behavioural Intention

Effort expectation is the degree of ease associated with the use of technology (Kijsanayotin et al., 2008). Effort expectation posits that the user of technology is presumed to exert a bit of effort before, or while using the technology. In this case, the hypothesis for women in urban South Africa was rejected and therefore, this variable is rejected. Thus, it can be concluded that there is no relationship between Effort Expectation and Behavioural Intention to use a technology, for women in urban South Africa. It not the first time that this relationship has been nullified, as is indicated by Taiwo and Downe (2013), who states that ever since its inception in 2003, the UATUT model, has been scrutinised using different applications, and it has since become a dè-facto model of computing user acceptance of technology. After a meta-analysis was done to harmonise the different results, a deduction was made that there is a weak relationship between effort expectation and behavioural intention (Taiwo & Downe, 2013).

The reason for this weak relationship or rejection of the variable, could be that mobile telephony and internet usage is part of the sample respondent's daily lives and they therefore, have little or no phobia to use technology. The implications of this, is that there is no need for education or training as part of a marketing campaign to motivate for usage, and that this may rather be construed as condescending or patronising. The market proliferation of technology, can be

assumed to be at a growth or established stage in the product life cycle, thus qualifying the assumptions made at the beginning of this study.

6.3 Hedonic motivation on Behavioural Intention

This study used music, as a hedonic product, to measure the use of technology. The term hedonic, of Greek origin, means relating to, or characterised by pleasure (Kim, Kim, & Wachter, 2013). There is little empirical evidence explaining women's consumption behaviours and patterns, regarding music online, but the findings and analysis of this study can conclude that hedonic motivation positively impacts the behavioural intention to use technology.

Therefore, with all the prior studies stating that women are slow in the uptake of online use and shopping, this study indicates that if hedonic instruments are used for women in South Africa, this will positively influence their intention to use the technology platform.

Aesthetics, the touch and feel of a product before purchase, have also been nullified as a precursor to shopping because the user understands the limitations and the dynamics of online shopping. However, based on the research findings, it is possible to assume that an enhanced/high definition imagery could satisfy the need to touch and feel the product. However, this result doesn't nullify the earlier premise that there is a likelihood that women may not be consuming digital music because of the platform used to sell it, the buying process, the marketing, or the design of the online platform, rather than the product.

6.4 Perceived Risk on Behavioural Intention

Online shopping means that one has to share personal and financial information, therefore there is a risk involved. Perceived risk is thus a combination of uncertainty and the expectation of the losses associated with the online activity, and acts as an inhibitor to purchase intention (Featherman & Pavlou, 2003). This is the risk that obstructs the user in choosing to use an online shopping platform, especially with the upsurge of online fraud and pilfering of personal information.

More secured methods of payment, other than credit cards and debit orders, seem to be favoured and they need to be made available if online retailers are to gain women in this market. Digital vouchers, like iTunes has available and which are bought at most supermarkets, may be the best payment methods to introduce and encourage online platforms.

6.5 Habit on Behavioural Intention

Habit is a learned outcome and only after a relatively long period of extensive practice, can it be stored in long-term memory and override other behavioural patterns (Lustig et al., 2004). Every retailer wants repeat use, and habit as a variable of repeat use, has a positive impact on user intention. This speaks to the familiarity that encourages repeat usage.

This study supports prior studies on how most software and hardware applications that women are exposed to, do not reflect their interests and do not meet their needs, in order to increase use (Hilbert, 2011). If the opposite were true, the analysis would have returned a null hypothesis. Therefore, this study finds that the way the platforms are designed, may have an adverse impact on usage intention. Therefore, it is posited that this variable is reliant on how the online platform is designed and the more user friendly and easy to navigate the platform, the more it will build on habit and repeat usage.

6.6 Age, culture and income

As positioned in the literature review, culture, gender and economic status play an important role in consumer behaviour dynamics. South Africa being a cosmopolitan state that is still steeped in African tradition, presents an interesting case to measure whether the economic emancipation of women changes their consumer patterns to follow global trends, or is it unique.

This study divided the respondent age groups into two cohorts, generation X and Y. This was deliberate as most of the hedonic studies in technology have been conducted with the youth in universities. Therefore, this study adds to the existing body of knowledge by expanding the sample into the working class. There was also a presumption that the adult group's use of technology would be lagging behind that of the youth but the research found that there was no difference in behaviour between the two groups, both seem to be active online and with technology.

Of the 1071 respondents, 84% were employed women and 32% were in the older cohort (38-56 years old), with the rest being between the ages of 18 and37 years old. Most of the respondents were single (unmarried), compared to 31% who were living with a spouse. Even with these demographic and cultural variables, there was no apparent evidence that suggests a difference in online behaviour. Both groups showed autonomy in buying decisions, which supports the global trends that women are the growing online market and have the economic means to exploit those buying choices and decisions. However, a study can be done to investigate each group in depth, in order to track if there are stark differences in online consumer behaviour as this study did not delve much into the buying decision cycle of each cohort.

6.7 Recommendations

The purpose of this research was to investigate the factors influencing the consumption of digital music by women in South Africa. This was investigated using a technology acceptance model that has unified prior technology use models. Hedonic use was added as a variable to the modified model, in order to further understand behavioural intention. The chosen model could be limited or out dated, to fully give insight on the online behaviour of women when it comes to digital consumption. Therefore, there is room to devise a new model or embark on a longitudinal study that will broadly look into online shopping behaviour.

Despite the fact that there is a recommendation for the formulation of a new model, other recommendations based on the findings of the study have been mentioned within the conclusions. These include:

- Creating more user friendly online shopping platforms which are attractive to women and provide an hedonic appeal through their navigation of the online site
- Removing the perceived risk factor in using credit cards and debit orders by offering the purchase of vouchers at retail stores, which can be used to purchase products online without the need to provide personal details
- Understanding that there is a large proportion of the population that consumes music products and that perceptions of women not being technology savvy or of older generation individuals avoiding technology, need to be re-examined as marketers may be overlooking a large potential market for online purchases

6.8 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTITIONERS

As much as the intention of this is study was to measure the behavioural patterns of women in the consumption of digital music, this study is not able to conclusively establish some of the reasons why they do not consume music as this question begs for a different research strategy, a qualitative one, where behavioural patterns with regard to technology and transacting online could be explored in-depth. The tight timeframe and budgetary constraints of this study, limited the investigation to a quantitative strategy as a mixed approach was not possible.

On the administrative side, the limitations to this research is the inability to handpick the respondents before the study, in order to balance and ensure that each group of the strata, Generation X and Y, was well represented. The online questionnaire was used to filter through the respondents, with the hope that they would be truthful in their responses.

Performing an online survey helped with the understanding of the behavioural patterns of women in South Africa by looking at those in the economic hub of Gauteng and not necessarily the rest of the country. This could potentially have biased the findings.

Most of the studies done around women's buying behaviour, agree that the buying process is a sensory engagement, which then transforms into an emotional experience, emphasising the fact that for an engaging online experience, it needs to appeal to a woman's senses; visually, architecturally, aesthetically and conveniently. This presents an interesting prospect for further studies into newer technologies (Artificial Intelligence for instance), to prospect its use to enhance shopping experiences, as way to address the touch and feel aspect of shopping.

Commercial banks, like First National Bank, have included additional security measures that seeks to protect the consumer against fraud, in their digital platforms. These measures are designed to give power to the account holder

about transactions that are linked to their main account. This presents a new opportunity under Perceived Risk with regard to online Trust to further investigate online behavioural intention.

Social Media platforms like Facebook and Instagram, have now enabled online shops to operate on their platform. The uptake of Social media amongst the female segment has been successful, as expounded on in the Literature Review. Therefore, whether this has minimised the online transacting risk element, still needs to be investigated.

The use of online vouchers as a safer payment method versus the credit card and debit order method, seems to find acceptance in the South African Market, where people can buy online vouchers at supermarkets. It is still in its infancy in terms of other online platforms like iTunes, but the culture of buying vouchers is a standard in the mobile network market; airtime and data bundles still make up the largest part of the market. Whether this can translate to other online platforms needs to be investigated.

The different variables mentioned above exist separately from each other: Artificial Intelligence, Online Banking security, Social Media online shopping and digital vouchers. All these present an interesting case to investigate if we are to understand the online consumer behaviour of consumers.

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