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FACTORS INFLUENCING THE PURCHASE INTENTION OF THE BLACK MIDDLE-CLASS IN EMERGING MARKETS FOR GLOBAL BRANDS: THE CASE OF FASHION BRANDS IN SOUTH AFRICA

by

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A THESIS

submitted in full fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

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Professor Richard Chinomona

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Abstract

With the rise of globalisation, consumers are increasingly faced with having to make purchase decisions between domestic and foreign products or brands. Therefore, it is important to gain a better understanding of what factors influence consumer decisions when considering a local or global product or brand. Although a number of studies have explored similar topics, a lack of research remains regarding a comprehensive theoretical model that provides a holistic view of factors influencing the decision to buy a global product. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate those factors that influence the purchase decisions of global fashion brands among black middle-class women in South Africa. More specifically, by means of a conceptual model, the present study proposes that ethnocentrism, price, brand knowledge (comprising of brand awareness and brand image), self-image, fashion involvement, brand love, attitude, and perceived quality influence consumers' buying decisions. The findings of this study seek to fill the gap in literature regarding how emerging black middle-class consumers in South Africa make buying decisions with regard to (global) fashion products. An empirical study was undertaken, in which 500 black middle-class females were asked to complete an online survey to determine which factors influence their choice of global fashion clothing. The obtained data was analysed by means of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using Partial Least Squares. The findings support all proposed hypotheses, but not all hypotheses were found to be significant. The strongest relationships were found between brand knowledge and perceived quality, brand knowledge and attitude, and self-image and attitude. The weakest relationships were between ethnocentrism and purchase intention, price perception and perceived quality and finally brand love and purchase intention. Furthermore, the findings revealed that quality is the main reason for consumers to consider buying global fashion-branded clothing. On the other hand, price is the biggest drawback of sales of global fashion brands. This study is of significant importance to fashion marketers since it provides adequate insight into how global fashion brands can position themselves and influence consumers' decisions to buy global fashion products. This study further provides a comprehensive model, adds to knowledge gaps, and provides several managerial implications and directions for future research.

Keywords: *globalisation; emerging markets; consumer behaviour; black middle-class; fashion; purchase intention.*

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Declaration

I, Annekee van den Berg, declare that this research report is my own work. It is submitted in full fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Marketing at the School of Economic and Business Science at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. I declare that this research has not been submitted before for any degree or examination, at the University of the Witwatersrand, or at any other institution.

Annekee van den Berg

July, 2017

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List of abbreviations

Abbreviation	*Full form*
AFDB	African Development Bank
AT	Attitude
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BA	Brand Awareness
BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
BI	Brand Image
BK	Brand Knowledge
BL	Brand Love
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa
CA	Cronbach's Alpha
CR	Composite Reliability
d	Omission Distance
ET	Ethnocentrism
FI	Fashion Involvement
FMCG	Fast Moving Consumer Goods
GNI	Gross National Income
HTMT	Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations
LSM	Living Standard Measure
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
P	Price
PI	Purchase Intention
PLS	Partial Least Squares
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling
PQ	Perceived Quality
Q^2	Stone-Geisser's Q^2
SAARF	South African Advertising Research Foundation
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SI	Self-Image
Std. Dev.	Standard Deviation
TAM	Technology Acceptance Model

TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
UJ	University of Johannesburg
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
ZAR	South African Rand

Chapter One (1). Introduction and background

1.1 Introduction

Globalisation is one of the major challenges that companies encounter nowadays (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2013; Khanna, Palepu & Sinha, 2005), which has increased the competition between local and global brands in the marketplace (Sun, Zheng, Su & Keller, 2016). Domestic market success does not necessarily result in foreign market success, which is a difficulty that retailers encounter (Cavusgil & Cavusgil, 2012). Globalisation has put global brands on the centre stage (Öszomer & Altaras, 2008), and it is not only globalisation that provides challenges to retailers, expanding across national boundaries has become a necessity that also provides opportunities for those organisations who are able to expand their reach to foreign markets successfully. Over the last decade, investing in new products has been a major focus for organisations, but this focus is shifting towards the need to focus on new markets (Yujuico & Gelb, 2010). As a result, multinationals increasingly market their global brands worldwide (Xie, Batra & Peng, 2015). Thus, organisations have shifted their focus towards foreign markets, and especially to those markets with the highest growth rates–emerging markets (Sheth, 2011, in Bressan & Signori, 2014; Yujuico & Gelb, 2010; London & Hart, 2004). Companies increasingly bring their global brands to consumers in emerging markets because the most significant economic growth in the coming decades will take place in these markets (Özsomer, 2012b), and companies originated from developed countries aim to win the 'hearts and sales' in emerging markets (Pauwels, Ergunca & Yildirim, 2013).

The less developed parts of the world are growing in importance to organisations (Bressan & Signori, 2014; Meyer & Tran, 2006), and due to their growth, these markets are expected to have an increasing important position in the world's economy (Wright, Filatochev, Hoskinsson & Peng, 2005). But emerging markets possess different characteristics to advanced economies (Baena & Cerviño, 2015; Khanna & Palepu in Lee, Abosag & Kwak, 2012; Dawar & Chattopadhyay, 2002), and therefore, globalisation will lead to organisational decline for companies that do not adapt to the shift towards less developed countries (Yujuico & Gelb, 2010). Emerging markets might challenge existing marketing theories and assumptions that are developed in the Western world (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006); marketing strategies developed

in the Western world might not even be applicable in a non-Western context (Zhang, van Doorn & Leeflang, 2014). The integration of emerging consumer segments from economies in transition into the global marketing strategies of organisations presents a significant challenge (Cui & Liu, 2001); while these markets are highly attractive, they expose organisations to significant challenges (Kandogan & Johnson, 2015). Understanding the requirements for success in emerging markets will become a make-or-break issue for most companies around the globe (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2013), and because they possess different characteristics to advanced economies (Lee et al., 2012), emerging markets may require enterprises to make necessary adaptations in their marketing programmes. Many researchers believe that the move towards global products is inconsistent with the demand in the (emerging) markets, whereas the local products are market-driven (Steenkamp & De Jong, 2010). The authors highlight the trade-off between local relevance and global efficiency (Steenkamp & De Jong, 2010).

The shift of (multinational) enterprises towards emerging markets is not surprising; as a consequence of their growth, emerging economies offer a large number of potential customers (Meyer & Tran, 2006). In emerging markets specifically, the emergence of a new middle-class is creating a significant number of first-time consumers of practically everything (Sheth, 2011). The rise of the middle-class in emerging markets is predicted to grow above 4.9 billion by 2030, with a spending capacity of $6 trillion; while evidence shows the decline of the middle-class in developed countries (Bamiatzi, Bozos & Lambertides, 2015). Additionally, consumers in those markets are given an extended choice of purchase options, under which foreign brands and products–and hence the attitudes and perceptions of consumers with regard to their acceptance of foreign products–are important (Nadiri & Tümer, 2010). Consumers in emerging markets are only a target for businesses when organisations are able to develop value propositions that appeal to the mass market (Dawar & Chattopadhyay, 2002). Marketing success depends on the degree to which the product attributes are successfully harmonised with the consumers' values and attitudes, and on profitably satisfying consumer needs and wants, but the drivers of consumer behaviour are diverse within and across cultures and contexts (Cleveland, Laroche & Papadopoulos, 2009). Emerging economies and developed economies have different social, political, and economical characteristics (Baena & Cerviño, 2015), and since emerging consumer markets and transitional economies account for more than 80% of the world's consumers, there is a major need to understand consumer behaviour outside the Western world (Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002).

This study specifically focuses on South Africa as an emerging economy. Sub-Saharan Africa is attracting the interest of many multinational enterprises, who are seeking for the next China (Euromonitor International, 2015), consumer-wise. This is not surprising, since Africa's middle-class is roughly the same size of the middle-classes in India or China (African Development Bank (AFDB), 2011). The middle-class is the so-called "middle of the pyramid" (Euromonitor International, 2013), and is the primary driver of consumption (Visagie, 2015). Due to the middle-class's role in consumption, they are also referred to as the "consumption class" (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), 2010). A country's middle-class is hereby a major consumer segment for multinational enterprises (Kandogan & Johnson, 2015).

Even though South Africa suffers from great inequality, its middle-class keeps on growing and driving consumption (Euromonitor International, 2014). The South African black middle-class is increasing in size (Mattes, 2015; Southall, 2004), and is the main contributor to the increasing size of the South African middle-class (Van der Berg, 2010). Therefore, the focus of this study will be on the South African black middle-class. After the 1994 elections, new consumer segments emerged, and with the rise of the black middle-class spending increased (De Bruyn & Freathy, 2011). The reason why the black middle-class is chosen for this study is mainly due to three reasons: firstly, the black middle-class is growing rapidly (Mattes, 2015); secondly, the black middle-class is the largest segment of the increasing size of the South African middle-class (Visagie, 2015; Van der Berg, 2010); and thirdly, the black middle-class has received relatively little attention in research (Donaldson, Mehlomakhulu, Darkey, Dyssel & Siyongwana, 2013).

This study focuses on consumer behaviour with regard to global fashion brands in South Africa. There are several reasons for choosing to focus on the fashion market. The first reason is that emerging markets offer great potential for global fashion brands (Saran, Roy & Sethuraman, 2016). Secondly, South Africa's retail markets experience constant growth (Euromonitor International, 2014). Thirdly, in emerging markets clothing is often seen as a symbol of status and wealth (Euromonitor International, 2015), and therefore an interesting sector to study in the present context. Fourthly, clothing (i.e. global fashion-branded clothing) is widely available in the country surveyed (Fetscherin, Boulanger, Souki & Filho, 2014). And finally, within Sub-Saharan Africa, South Africa has the biggest apparel market (Euromonitor International, 2015)

and consumption grows steadily, for example through the increasing number of shopping malls (Euromonitor International, 2015). The sale of apparel products in South Africa experienced record growth in 2014, even though the cost of living restricted consumer spending (Euromonitor International, 2015). Thus, (South) Africa is a fast growing market for apparel, and therefore an interesting target for global brands. The South African retail environment still provides opportunities for success for retailers, but the environment consists of local firms that compete for market leadership (such as Mr Price and Woolworths); in the mean time South African domestic firms lead in retail sales, and are expanding their markets to other African countries (Euromonitor International, 2015). This provides challenges for global firms, especially with local competitors such as Woolworths and Mr Price, which is the leading apparel and footwear retailer in South Africa with a market share of 9% in 2014 (Euromonitor International, 2015).

Similarly, the shift from multinational companies towards foreign markets also greatly affects consumers; it results in local and global products having to compete in the marketplace (Tu, Khare & Zhang, 2012), and consumers nowadays can choose products from all over the world (Bosbach, Maietta & Marquardt, 2015; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015; Lew & Sulaiman, 2014; Steenkamp, Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden & Ramachander, 2000). In other words, when global brands emerge in emerging markets, the "consumer choice is also emerging" (Reardon, Miller, Vida & Kim, 2005:738). Similarly, local brands provide strong competition for global brands in international markets (Sharma, Kumar & Borah, 2017). With these extended purchase choices, of critical importance to international marketers are consumers' attitudes and perceptions regarding their acceptance of foreign products (Nadiri & Tümer, 2010); because product acceptance and purchase are critical for survival (Carter & Maher, 2015).

In order to explore the African market, research is important, but there is only limited research available and consumer data from the African continent is scarce (McKinsey, 2012). This research aims to identify the factors that influence the purchase intention of consumers in emerging markets for international fashion brands. Marketing researchers often use purchase intentions as proxy measures of purchase behaviour (He & Wang, 2015). The consequence of a purchase intention is someone's willingness to buy (Beneke & Carter, 2015), and purchase intentions are seen as a final consequence of several factors in the consumer's shopping context (Das, 2014). This study focuses on the acceptance of foreign products by focusing on the

purchase intention of middle-class consumers in emerging markets towards global fashion brands, in one of the major Sub-Saharan economies–South Africa. South Africa offers an interesting context for global brand research (Haefner, Rosenbloom & Haefner, 2016). In Africa, industries that focus on consumers grew from 2000 to 2010 to US$568 billion and are expected to grow another $400 billion dollar by 2020 (McKinsey, 2012). South Africa is one of Africa's most important economies, and held the second position of the Sub-Saharan economies, after Nigeria (Kumar, Stauvermann, Loganathan & Kumar, 2015). In 2016, South Africa regained her position as Africa's largest economy (Doya, 2016). At the moment, Sub-Saharan Africa is drawing the attention from the consumer goods players (Berger, 2013), and due to the tripling in the size of the African middle-class over the last 30 years, the demand for the continent's products will grow (Cosmetics Business, 2013). In other words, Africa is ready for consumer-focused investments (McEwan, Hughes & Bek, 2015).

1.2 Problem statement and research gap

Contradictory to the increasing importance of emerging economies is the amount of in-depth marketing research done on these economies. Although consumer research has been conducted in emerging markets, most of the marketing research focuses on mature market economies (Baena, 2012; Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002). There is a need for in-depth marketing research across nations, because "needs may be universal, but attitudes, motivations and expressions of needs vary" (De Mooij, 2013:12), especially for the middle-class, since they are the people who, in contrast to the rich in each country, differ from one country to another in the dispensing of their income (De Mooij, 2013). Due to their influence on society, politics, and the economy of a country, it is important to analyse the middle-class in emerging markets, by focusing on their consumption element in economic development (López-Calva & Ortiz-Juarez, 2014). In addition, Zhang et al. (2014) found that consumers in different cultures have different factors that predict their behaviour, which stresses the importance of unravelling the factors that predict consumer purchase intentions in different contexts.

The call for research outside the Western world is answered by many recent studies that have been conducted in emerging markets, and additionally, the purchase intentions of consumers for apparel in retail stores has gained increased attention in research over the last decade due to

the rapid growth of the sector (Erdil, 2015). But knowledge gaps are still present; there is still a need for research that aims to understand which factors influence purchase intentions for global brands (Jani & Mzalendo, 2015; Akram, Merunka & Shakaib Akram, 2011), research that identifies the drivers of preferences for global brands (Dalmoro, Pinto, Borges & Nique, 2015; Xie et al., 2015), and research regarding global brand management (Davvetas, Sichtmann & Diamantopoulos, 2015). Additionally, it is important for marketers not to fall for the assumption that the motivations to purchase global brands are universal (Winit, Gregory, Cleveland & Verlegh, 2014). Research to explore the African market is important, and consumer data in the African context is scarce (McKinsey, 2012). Additionally, research on the middle-class in emerging markets is important, since research on consumer behaviour is still lacking (Kravets & Sandikci, 2014). And finally, the purchase intention and preference for global brands in emerging markets still hasn't been sufficiently researched (Carter & Maher, 2015; Dalmoro et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2015).

Additionally, despite its growth, the black middle-class is understudied (Donaldson et al., 2013) and researchers are only starting to explore the African market, which means that the availability of African market research is still limited (McKinsey, 2012). Research needs to address these matters, especially in a market where local brands dominate and consumers are conservative and perceive local brands as good enough (McKinsey, 2012). This study aims to address the gaps in research by adding to the body of knowledge about the Sub-Saharan African market, the emerging (black) middle-class, and by providing a comprehensive model to identify the key factors that influence the purchase intention towards global brands.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the present study is twofold: firstly, it seeks to investigate the key factors that influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among the black middle-class–specifically black middle-class females–in the South African emerging economy; and secondly, it seeks to explore the mediating roles of attitude and perceived quality on purchase intentions.

1.4 Research question and research objectives

1.4.1 Research question

In line with the purpose of the study, the main research question is as follows:

Which factors influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class consumers in South Africa?

Besides the main research question that this study aims to answer, the study has secondary questions. The secondary research questions are stated in Table 1.1

Table 1.1: Secondary research questions

- To what extent does ethnocentrism negatively influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands? - Is there a relationship between ethnocentrism and the attitude towards global fashion brands? - What is the relationship between price and perceived quality of global fashion brands? - To what extent does price influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands? - Is there a relationship between global fashion brand knowledge and the attitude towards global fashion brands? - Is there a relationship between global fashion brand knowledge and the perceived quality of global fashion brands? - What is the relationship between global fashion brand knowledge and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands? - To what extent does self-image influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands? - What is the relationship between self-image and the attitude towards global fashion brands? - To what extent does fashion involvement influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands?

- What is the relationship between the attitude towards global fashion brands and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands?
- To what extent does the perceived quality of global fashion brands influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands?

Source: Compiled by researcher (2015)

1.4.2 Research objectives

The study has both theoretical and empirical objectives.

1.4.2.1 Theoretical objectives

The theoretical objectives of this study are presented in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Theoretical objectives

- to review literature on the potential drivers of the purchase intention towards local and global brands;
- to review literature on (consumer) ethnocentrism;
- to review literature on (perceived) price;
- to review literature on brand knowledge;
- to review literature on brand awareness;
- to review literature on brand image;
- to review literature on self-image;
- to review literature on fashion involvement;
- to review literature on brand love brand love;
- to review literature on attitude;
- to review literature on perceived quality; and
- to review literature on consumer purchase intentions.

Source: Compiled by researcher (2015)

1.4.2.2 Empirical objectives

The empirical objectives of this study are provided in Table 1.3.

Table 1.3: Empirical objectives

The empirical objectives underlying the study are to investigate the relationships between:

- ethnocentrism and the consumers' attitude towards global fashion brands;
- ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands;
- the price (perception) of global fashion brands and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands;
- the price (perception) of global fashion brands and the consumers' perception of quality;
- brand knowledge and the attitude towards global fashion brands;
- brand knowledge and the perceived quality of global fashion brands;
- brand knowledge and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands;
- self-image and the attitude towards global fashion brands;
- self-image and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands;
- fashion involvement and brand love on respectively the purchase intention towards global fashion brands; and
- to determine the influence of attitude and perceived quality on the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class women in South Africa.

Source: Compiled by researcher (2015)

1.5 Justification of the study

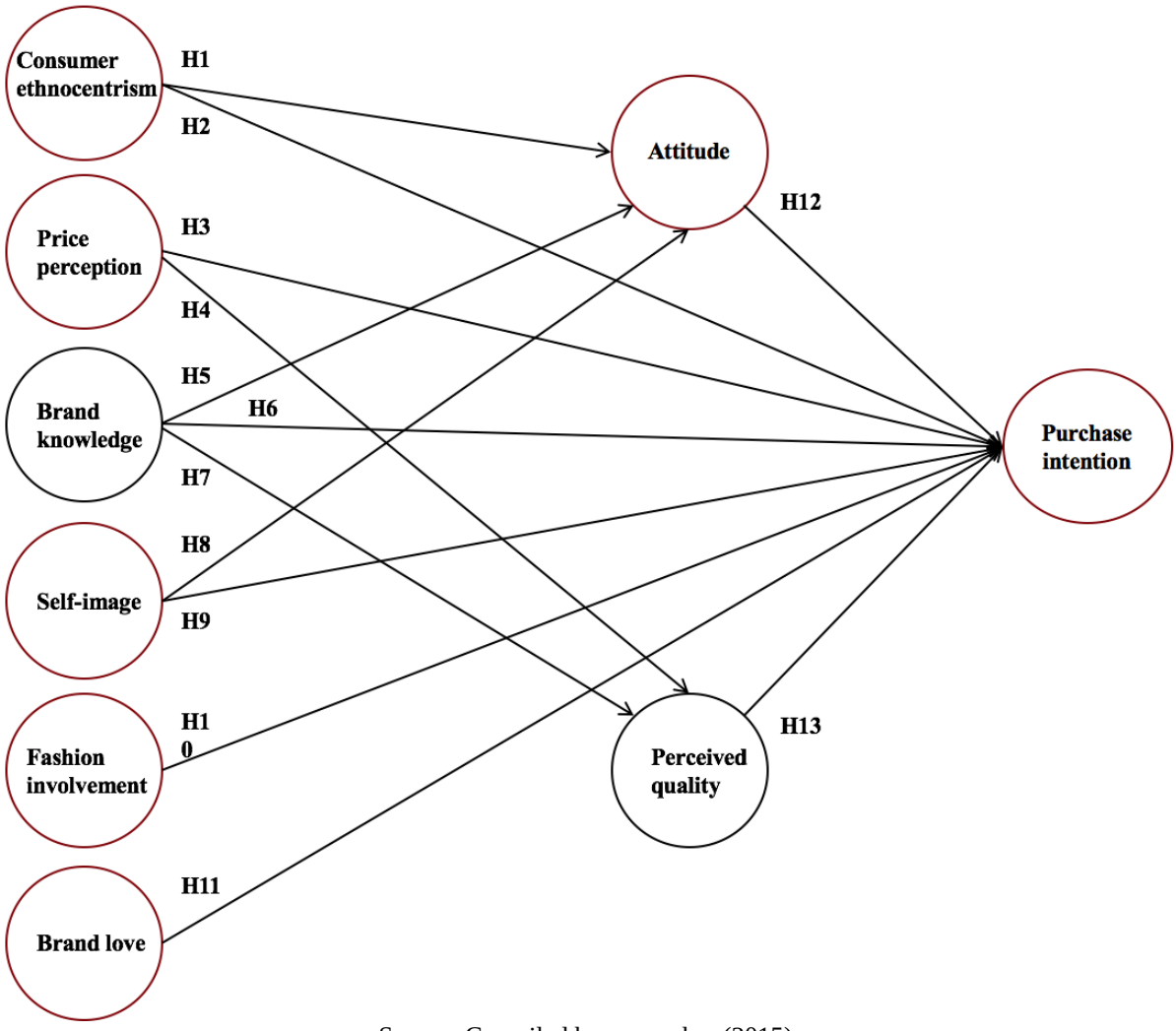
Companies are increasingly bringing their global brands to consumers in emerging markets because most economic growth in the coming decades will take place in these markets (Özsomer, 2012b). More specifically, the emerging middle-class in emerging markets is a potentially significant economic force in the coming decades (Kandogan & Johnson, 2015). Thus, emerging markets are becoming increasingly important parts of the world (Kose, 2011; Nakata & Sivakumar, 1997), and therefore research in emerging markets is increasingly becoming a necessity (Sheth, 2011). Research on drivers of purchase intentions towards global and local brands becomes increasingly important, because against the backdrop of globalisation, competition between local and global brands has increased significantly (Sun et al., 2016). Similarly, current research lacks consensus on whether consumers in emerging

markets prefer local or global brands. It is argued by De Mooij and Hofstede (2011:181) that "most aspects of consumer behaviour are culture bound", which implies that consumer behaviour is influenced by the cultural context that surrounds the consumer, in other words, consumer decisions are not made in isolation (Shukla, 2011), and therefore, consumer decision-making might vary according to different contexts. Existing models are mainly developed in the Western world to assume that consumers shop rationally with regards to brands, pricing and quality factors (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011). There is a recognised need for scientific research on the factors that influence purchase intentions of global brands in emerging markets (Zhu, Yu & Hu, 2016). Researchers are divided as to whether a consumer's decision-making process is universal or influenced by several contextual factors (Pauwels et al., 2013), and research findings are inconsistent. For example, Haefner et al.'s (2016) study among South African consumers resulted in findings that contradict common antecedents of the purchase intention towards global brands, and calls for more research to be done. In addition to the need for in-depth research in emerging markets, this study aims to address the following gaps in literature. This section starts by addressing the knowledge gaps in literature regarding the variables in the conceptual model, followed by gaps regarding the purchase intention towards global (or local) brands, and the lack of research on the African continent and the emerging black middle-class.

1.5.1 Knowledge gaps regarding the conceptual model

In terms of the conceptual model, there are a few variables that are especially interesting to investigate due to their newness, or due to their application in the context of an emerging market or an emerging middle-class. Figure 1.1 illustrates the conceptual research model in order to provide a clear overview of the variables of the conceptual model. The variables that contribute specifically to the existing body of knowledge due to the knowledge gaps are marked red. Those variables are attitude and intention, with additional information on how to explore emerging markets and how marketers can influence attitudes and behavioural intentions; price, because the role of affordability is often neglected and the mass market is extremely price sensitive; ethnocentrism, because little is known about South Africans and their degree of ethnocentrism; self-image, due to its increased importance and limited use on attitude and behavioural intention models; fashion involvement, due to little available information regarding the relationship between involvement and behavioural intentions, and finally brand love, about which there is still a lot undiscovered thus far.

Figure 1.1: Conceptual research model



Source: Compiled by researcher (2015)

A short explanation of the variables in the conceptual model that add to the existing body of knowledge and address knowledge gaps is provided hereunder.

1.5.1.1 Customer mindset, attitudes, and intentions

The first gap in research concerns the consumer's mindset, which consists of consumers' perceptions, attitudes, and intentions; in emerging markets there is still much to explore in this regard (Pauwels et al., 2013), and consumer behaviour studies in emerging markets are still scarce (Kipnis, Kubacki, Broderick, Siemieniako & Pisarenko, 2012; Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006). Additionally, Kumar et al. (2009) studied the purchase intention of Indian consumers for American brands, and call for future research that investigates other variables that influence the attitude of consumers in emerging markets for American products. Additionally, purchase intentions and preferences for global brands in emerging markets still lack sufficient research

(Carter & Maher, 2015; Dalmoro et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2015). Additionally, Riefler (2012) states that research in the field of brands is criticised for including attitude, or including the purchase intention. Similarly, current research has given contrary results, for example Haefner et al. (2016) recently found contrary results in the commonly assumed relationships regarding the purchase intention towards global brands among South African consumers. This study investigates which factors influence the consumers' (purchase) intention as well as the consumers' attitude towards global fashion brands.

1.5.1.2 Price

Secondly, purchase intentions are considered important predictors of actual purchase, but the role of price is often absent in research. Despite its importance in brand evaluation, price is a largely overlooked construct (Winit et al., 2014). Winit et al. (2014:106) state that there is a large amount of international research dedicated to the promotional part of the marketing mix, but despite its "obvious importance" for consumer decision-making and branding, price is largely overlooked. In many of the previous studies reviewed, price is not included in the conceptual model. For example, the Theory of the Reasoned Action (TRA) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) do not include price in their models, although behavioural control could possibly be linked to affordability, for example. Many studies have highlighted the importance of perceived value in the consumer's decision-making process, which is seen as one of the most critical determinants of consumers' purchase intentions (Beneke & Carter, 2015; Zeithaml, 1988). But research has shown that intentions and actions do not always correspond, due to factors such as product unavailability or financial constraints (Park, Maclnnis, Priester, Eisingerich & Iacobucci, 2010). The mass market in emerging markets is extremely price sensitive (Sarkar, 2014; McKinsey, 2012), and consumers have resource constraints (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006), therefore this study takes the price of global fashion brands into consideration as one of the factors that influence purchase intentions.

1.5.1.3 Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism has become more relevant than ever before due to the economic crisis, which revived consumers' ethnocentric tendencies at the expense of foreign brands and products (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2017). A better understanding of ethnocentrism can assist firms in developing more effective global marketing strategies (Pentz, Terblanche & Boshoff, 2017), but ethnocentrism is a construct that is under-studied in the African context (John & Brady,

2010). More generally, there is a need to further understand consumer ethnocentrism, and the influence of ethnocentrism on local, relative to global brand choices (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015). The relationship between ethnocentrism and foreign and global brands has received attention in research, but it is complex and demands further study (Özsomer, 2012a). Very little research has been conducted on South African consumers' attitude towards ethnocentrism (i.e. the preference for domestic instead of global products), and while it has been stated that in terms of status purchases, South African consumers prefer global brands (Bevan-Dye, Garnett & De Klerk, 2012), results regarding preference for local or global brands are inconsistent. Insufficient research has been carried out to unravel ethnocentrism and its consequences in Africa (John & Brady, 2010). John and Brady (2011) mention that until their 2011 study, the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitudes towards foreign imported products had not been described in African countries. Related to ethnocentrism and attitude as a mediator, Ramadania, Gunawan, and Rustam (2015), who studied the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitudes for low involvement product categories, call for future research that investigates the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes in high involvement categories (for instance, fashion). Additionally, there is still lack of research regarding the potential antecedents of favourable consumer perceptions towards foreign brands, and the studies that have investigated the link between ethnocentrism and product preference have provided inconsistent results (Kipnis et al., 2012). Thus, more research is required to investigate the country of origin 'bias' in emerging markets (Kipnis et al., 2012). The inconsistent results are evident in Haefner et al.'s (2016) study where it was established that although the relationship between ethnocentrism and the preference to buy domestic over global brands is widely acknowledged in literature, their study among South African students did not find evidence for this relationship. Haefner et al. (2016) call for more research on the non-confirmed hypotheses of their study, since they are contrary to previous studies' findings.

1.5.1.4 Self-image

Self-image is also a construct that requires further research. Despite the importance of the construct, research is still limited, and self-congruence models of attitudes and behaviours are used sparingly (Claiborne & Sirgy, 2015), and thus necessitates further research, because the relationship between consumers' self-identity and the brands they purchase is becoming an increasingly important source of brand value (Xie et al., 2015). According to Xie et al. (2015), despite this increased importance, self-image has not been studied in the context of local versus

global brands, and they found that this relationship differs between contexts, and therefore requires further research. The role of identity will become increasingly important, and therefore more research is needed on local and global identities (Westjohn, Singh & Magnusson, 2012). This study focuses on self-image congruity (in other words, establishing whether or not wearing global fashion brands is consistent with how consumers see themselves) and the influence of this congruity on the purchase intention towards global brands in the context of emerging black middle-class female consumers in the emerging South African economy.

1.5.1.5 Fashion involvement

In addition, there is still space for future research to analyse the relationship between factors, such as fashion involvement and consumer behaviour (Rajagopal, 2011). Rajagopal (2011) calls for future research that involves the soft (i.e. affective) factors that influence consumer behaviour, such as fashion involvement. For the purpose of comparison, Khare, Mishra, and Parveen (2012) call for more research in specific consumer segments in the field of fashion clothing involvement (such as metropolitan, employed, housewives, students, etc.). Additionally, to date research has failed to provide a comprehensive framework for the outcomes of fashion involvement (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012). Hourigan and Bougoure's (2012) research did not utilise brand names, and they call for future research with real fashion brands, while O'Cass (2004) calls for fashion involvement measures in different settings and with different brands in several categories, and stresses the importance of investigating both antecedents and consequences of involvement. This study aims to investigate a consequence of fashion involvement, in terms of the influence of fashion involvement on the purchase intention towards real (global) fashion brands among the emerging black middle-class.

1.5.1.6 Brand love

Finally, there is still much to discover in the field of brand love. Albert, Merunka, and Valette-Florence (2008) state that brand love requires more research, and according to Batra, Ahuvia, and Bagozzi (2012), a lot of work has to be done on brand love due to the increased importance of the construct for both theory and practice. The (limited) work that has been done was mostly carried out in developed countries (Sarkar, 2014). Both practitioners as well as academics stress the (managerial) importance of brand love (Garg, Mukherjee, Biswas & Kataria, 2016; Albert et al., 2008). Therefore, it is important that research aims to identify relationships that discover the influence that brand love has on behavioural variables, and tests those relationships in a

conceptual model (Albert et al., 2008). Albert et al. (2008) call for future research on brand love that takes a quantitative approach. There is only limited literature available on brand love (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010), and the existing body of knowledge still lacks two major aspects; firstly, it lacks a comprehensive measure of the construct, and secondly, it lacks a proper understanding of the construct (Bauer, Heinrich & Albrecht, 2009). Additionally, Garg et al. (2016) argue that the majority of studies done on brand love have focused on the conceptualisation instead of the consequences and antecedents. Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) also call for more research that addresses several aspects. Firstly, they call for more research that focuses on the outcomes and the antecedents of brand love, and for research on the influence of brand love on marketplace performance. Additionally, they call for research that identifies the role of brand love on multi-brand loyalty (i.e. consumer loyalty to a set of brands), since they propose that research direction has potential (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). This is in line with the aim of this study (i.e. this study focuses on global fashion brands instead of one or a few particular brands).

With regard to brand love, there is a lot undiscovered thus far. This research aims to address only a small part of the gap in the existing body of knowledge regarding brand love, and intends to place the construct in a different context (i.e. instead of investigating its influence on loyalty towards the existing brands, it investigates the influence of brand love for local brands on the purchase intention (i.e. behavioural variable) towards global brands). The findings of Venter (2015), who found that 44% of the sampled emerging black middle-class female consumers in Johannesburg, South Africa, indicated Woolworths to be their favourite clothing store, emphasise this research direction. In sum, while much previous research has focused the relationships between service quality, customer satisfaction, and behavioural intentions (Ibrahim & Najjer, 2008), this study aims to provide a more comprehensive model to predict purchase intentions.

1.5.2 Local or global brands

Given the importance and relevance of the topic, there is an absence of research in modelling the perceptions of consumers towards foreign products (Carter & Maher, 2015). There is a need to understand which factors influence purchase intentions towards global brands, because there is an increased need for companies to understand how consumers in different markets evaluate global products in comparison to local products (Jani & Mzalendo, 2015). Research shows

different purchase intentions towards local and global brands (Calvo Porral, Lévy-Mangín & Bourgault, 2013); that knowledge regarding the preference for local or global brands is still limited (Xie et al., 2015); and that insufficient research exists regarding the potential influential factors on favourable consumer perceptions towards foreign brands (Kipnis et al., 2012).

Additionally, the previous studies' results are inconsistent. Steenkamp et al. (2000) argue that they found evidence that consumers in emerging markets prefer global brands over local brands, and Cavusgil and Cavusgil (2012) confirm that consumers across the world have a preference for global brands. However, Calvo Porral et al. (2013) question the overall preference for global brands, since their study did not found support for this trend in the developed market of Spain. Öszomer (2012b) partially shares Calvo Porral et al.'s (2013) perspective, stating that consumers from developed markets want to be unique and original and therefore prefer products that are only available for them, while consumers from emerging markets want products that do not make them different to the developed world. In other words, consumers from developed markets search for uniqueness, while consumers from emerging markets search for a certain similarity between them and developed markets.

However, the statement of Öszomer (2012b) does not find consensus in literature. Kamwendo, Corbishley, and Mason (2014) state that it is widely known that consumers are inclined to prefer local products, and Trendwatching (2016) argues that one of the African megatrends for 2016 will be the love for the local (i.e. "local will be forever loved"). Dalmoro et al. (2015) call for more representative studies in emerging markets regarding those factors that drive the preference for global brands, and Strizhakova and Coulter (2015) call for future research on local and global branding. Consumer preferences for local versus global products and brands have received limited attention in prior research (Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010). Akram et al. (2011) also call for more studies regarding the purchase intention towards global brands, as well as for more studies involving other emerging markets and developing countries. Winit et al. (2014) stress that assuming that purchase motivations for global brands are universal should be avoided. Additionally, Davvetas et al. (2015) call for more research regarding global brand management.

In sum, this study aims to address an array of gaps evident in current research with regard to insight into consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards global brands.

1.5.3 Africa as an understudied region

Although research into consumers' purchase intentions towards foreign goods is not completely unexplored, there are countries that are relatively unstudied. Firstly, there is a need to conduct more research in emerging markets (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006), since to a great extent, past research focused on developed countries, or on developing countries in Asia (Dalmoro et al., 2015). Haque, Anwar, Yasmin, Sarwar, Ibrahim, and Momen's (2015) research reveals that research on this topic is conducted in the United States of America (USA), China, Taiwan, Japan, the United Kingdom (UK), Iran, Malaysia, Egypt and–because their study which was conducted there–Bangladesh. There is a need to conduct research in under-studied regions such as Arab-Asia, Latin America, and Africa, all of which will contribute to the existing body of knowledge (Whitelock & Fastoso, 2007). In their research on attitudes towards local and global brands, Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) conducted research among 13,000 consumers in 28 countries. But those 28 countries were located in America, Asia, and Europe. The question that arises is: Where Africa is in this context? Additionally, Kumar et al. (2009) state that there is more research needed on attitudes towards local and global brands in developing markets; research in that field focuses mainly on developed countries, and more recently on China. Kumar et al. (2009) add India to that list, but Africa still seems absent.

Cavusgil and Cavusgil (2012) stress that Africa requires more attention in research due to the growth of its middle-classes and urbanisation, which results in greater attractiveness of the continent. In Africa, the middle-class has tripled over the last 30 years (Cosmetics Business, 2013), and Sub-Saharan Africa in particular is currently drawing the attention of consumer goods' players (Berger, 2013) due to the fact that Africa's middle-class is roughly the size of the India or China's middle-class (AFDB, 2011). South Africa is the most unequal country in the world in terms of income distribution, but its middle-class keeps on growing, which drives the growth in consumption (Euromonitor International, 2014). For companies interested in this consumer segment, research in Africa is important, since they are only starting to explore the African market and there is limited market research available (McKinsey, 2012). As stated above, most research focuses on developed markets, and consequently emerging markets–such as South Africa–have received little attention in research (Venter, Chuchu & Pattison, 2016). Trendwatching (2016) states the following: "The explosion of interest in Africa from foreign brands is undeniable. But Africa's boom is also seeing a new wave of African brands' will and

able to reach out – and fulfil the needs of – the African consumers". For companies to compete successfully in the African market, they need to invest in consumer research, because consumer data is scarce (McKinsey, 2012). Additionally, South Africa provides an interesting context to investigate consumers' purchase intentions towards global brands (Haefner et al., 2016). This study responds to the call for consumer research in Africa.

1.5.4 Limited research on the (black) middle-class

Similarly, there is a need to research the middle-class and their values in emerging markets, since there is only scant research on consumer behaviour in the middle-class (Kravets & Sandikci, 2014). Because the growth of the middle-class in emerging markets provides many opportunities for marketers, a deeper understanding of this major social group is critical (Cavusgil & Cavusgil, 2012). The middle-class in emerging countries need to gain the attention of marketing researchers, because of the emerging middle-class's impact on the economy (Cavusgil & Cavusgil, 2012).

Forty percent of the spending power in the African continent is created by households with an average annual income of >$20,000, for which only 1% or 2% of the population is responsible (McKinsey, 2012). But this group is growing fast; it is growing faster than the overall average in numbers as well as in income (McKinsey, 2012). The black middle-class in South Africa is growing rapidly (Mattes, 2015): between 1993 and 2008 the middle-class grew from 7.7 million to 10.4 million, and the black to white ratio changed from 1:2 in 1993 to 2:1 in 2008 (Visagie, 2015). Thus, black people contribute most to the increased size of the South African middle-class (Van der Berg, 2010). Recent studies show that the black middle-class has grown from 350,000 in 1993, to 3 million in 2012 (Mattes, 2015). In contrast to the growth of the black middle-class is the dearth of research; the South African black middle-class has received little attention in research (Donaldson et al., 2013), which stressed the need for this study to focus on this particular group. Cronje, Jacobs, and Retief (2016) studied the urban black consumer in Gauteng, South Africa, and state that black urban consumers are an emerging spending power in the South African economy who have experienced increased social mobility since Apartheid. It is highlighted that there is more research needed to study this particular (emerging) consumer segment. Despite the emerging black middle-class's significant growth, there is limited knowledge regarding their behaviour in terms of status products such as clothing brands (Cronje et al., 2016). Additionally, Chase, Legoete, and van Wamelen (2010) found that although they

state that there is no typical 'black consumer', black consumers have different demands and different shopping experiences, and also are more brand-oriented than white consumers.

In summary, this research aims to address knowledge gaps regarding variables in the conceptual model, gaps regarding the consumers' purchase intentions and their perceptions of global brands, gaps in the understudied region and consumer segments in Africa, and gaps regarding consumer behaviour of the emerging (black) middle-class in (South) Africa.

1.6 Research design and methodology

The present study is positioned in the positivist research philosophy, and utilised a deductive research approach to test the proposed relationships within the conceptual model. Furthermore, by means of an empirical study, data is collected employing an online survey. The sample comprised 500 black middle-class females in South Africa, aged between 22 and 44. The measurement instrument is developed using existing scales, which are adapted to suit the context of the present study. A five-point Likert scale is utilised to measure the operationalised constructs (strongly disagree – strongly agree). The obtained data is analysed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), more specifically, with the statistical program Partial Least Squares. In order to test for reliability and validity of the measurement instrument, a pilot study with 52 respondents was conducted prior to the actual commencement of fieldwork. Furthermore, to assess the quality of the measurement model and structural model, several tools are utilised. For the measurement model, the reliability is verified using the Cronbach's Alpha (CA) and Composite Reliability (CR). To ensure convergent and discriminant validity, respectively the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) are used to verify the validity. A PLS-SEM algorithm enabled verification of the reliability and validity. Similarly, the structural model shows the paths and the relationships between the constructs. The bootstrapping tool enabled assessing the path coefficients and accompanied t-values to assess significance of the proposed hypotheses. The research design and methodology are further discussed in Chapter 5.

1.7 Contributions

The contribution of this study is threefold, that is, it is contextual, theoretical, and practical. This implies that the research adds value to the existing body of knowledge on Africa and the emerging (black) middle-class, in the marketing field, and can provide valuable insights for (fashion) brands and marketers. Due to the availability of global and local brands in emerging markets, both foreign and local retailers must understand why and how consumers make brand choices (Kumar, Lee & Kim, 2009). Therefore, this study can provide insight for both local and global (fashion) brands regarding the building and positioning of their brands in a new emerging consumer segment.

1.7.1 Contextual contribution

The contextual contribution of this study is rooted in the context in which the conceptual model is tested. As elaborated on in the justification of the study, Africa can be identified as an understudied region, and only limited research has focused on the emerging (black) middle-class. Furthermore, despite the considerable amount of research done on emerging markets, knowledge gaps are still present (Pauwels et al., 2013), and there has been scant consumer research conducted in emerging markets (Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002), especially on the middle-class in emerging markets and their values (Kravets & Sandikci, 2014). More specifically, this study focuses on the black middle-class in South Africa, which is rapidly growing (Mattes, 2015) and is the relatively new, middle-class majority (Visagie, 2015). Although it has experienced significant growth, the South African black middle-class has as yet received little attention in research (Donaldson et al., 2013).

Whitelock and Fastoso (2007) state that moving away from North America and Europe would be beneficial for the marketing field, since most of what is currently known is derived from research in Western countries (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002), and although there is an impressive amount of validated marketing scales available, only few of those validations have been done in emerging markets (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006). This implies that current marketing knowledge is mostly derived from studies and research in developed countries, which is a major limitation in the current body of research (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006). Developing countries provide a setting to challenge the theories and

assumptions that are developed in the Western world (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006), as highlighted by Haefner et al. (2016), who found contradictory results to commonly acknowledged research outcomes in South Africa. By carrying out research in these emerging markets, it seems that the less studied emerging economies will provide an opportunity to test relationships that are established in developed markets (or Asia), and test whether or not they hold outside the setting in which they are developed. Bruton, Ahlstom, and Obloj (2008) state that emerging markets are unique settings in which to test existing marketing theories. In addition to the context wherein current theories and models are developed (i.e. Western and developed countries), most existing research focuses on mature market economies (Baena, 2012). As mentioned in the introduction, emerging economies and developed market economies possess different characteristics (Baena & Cerviño, 2015), which implies that existing theories might be challenged in the developing world. Therefore, there is a need to build understanding of emerging economies and how they differ from mature economies (Bruton et al., 2008). Thus, it is important to rethink established knowledge in the light of emerging markets, since the findings of studies performed in developed markets are not necessarily generalisable to an (African) emerging market context.

In addition, it must be noted that it is hard to generalise about developing countries. Due to their similarities–but also differences–in characteristics (i.e. in history, size, economical development paths), there is a need for in-depth research of individual countries (Bruton et al., 2008). Research that contributes to the existing body of knowledge is research that studies under-studied regions, such as Arab-Asia, Latin America, and Africa (Whitelock & Fastoso, 2007). Burgess and Steenkamp (2006) also state that marketing scientists need to conduct more research into emerging markets, and that is what this study aims to do by focussing specifically on the emerging economy of South Africa to allow an in-depth research into this particular emerging market and its emerging black middle-class. In conclusion, by exploring the factors that influence consumers' purchase intentions towards global fashion brands and consumer behaviour here, this study adds to the contextual knowledge on consumer behaviour among the emerging black middle-class in South Africa.

1.7.2 Theoretical contribution

This study adds to the existing literature in a number of fields, namely consumer behaviour, especially in the emerging (black) middle-class in Sub-Saharan emerging markets, and it will

provide researchers and academics with a broader understanding of the factors that influence the consumers' purchase intentions towards global fashion brands among the emerging (black) middle-class. The theoretical contributions of this study follow the justification of the study regarding the knowledge gaps in current literature, the limited research on local and global brands, and consumer decision-making regarding purchasing those brands. Therefore, the theoretical contribution is expected to be to the comprehensive conceptual model, and secondly to the individual gaps in research regarding attitudes and intentions, price, ethnocentrism, self-image, fashion involvement, and brand love. As discussed in the justification of the study, the theoretical contributions of this study are firstly on the identification of drivers of purchase intentions towards global brands. Due to the increased competition between local and global brands there is a recognised need to identify the factors that influence purchase intentions toward global brands in emerging markets (Zhu et al., 2016). Furthermore, contributions are on filling the identified knowledge gaps in literature, which this study provides by incorporating those variables within its conceptual research model. Being primarily rooted in the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) and Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), the present study adds to the existing body of knowledge on consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards global (fashion) brands in emerging markets among the emerging (black) middle-class. Additionally, this study adds to the existing body of knowledge on the role of price in consumers' purchase intentions in the given context, to ethnocentrism in an African context, to the role of self-image, to attitudes and behaviour–especially in the context of global brands, to fashion involvement and consumer behaviour, and finally to the relatively new construct of brand love, on which there is still much to discover.

1.7.3 Practical contribution

The rise of emerging markets is inevitable, and they will become the core of global competition in which those companies originating from an emerging market will have an advantage (Sheth, 2011). Among these markets is Sub-Saharan Africa. Sub-Saharan Africa provides a challenge for global brands (McKinsey, 2012), but also offers investment opportunities for new players (Aye, Balcilar, Gupta & Majumdar, 2015). As highlighted in the introduction, understanding the requirements for success in emerging markets is becoming a make-or-break issue for organisations around the globe (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2013). Therefore, with regard to the practical contributions of this research, (international) businesses from developed countries will benefit from the results of this study due to an increased understanding of emerging markets,

and the findings of the study may provide implications for brands' branding strategies. Dawar and Chatopadhyay (2002) state that while multinational enterprises seek for billions of new consumers in emerging markets, their marketing programmes are scarcely adapted to these markets, which results in low market penetration, disappointing market share, and poor profitability. These enterprises could benefit from an increased understanding of what drives consumers' purchase intentions in emerging markets. In addition, the conceptual research model can be tested in different countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, as well as for different product categories.

The South African retail market is vibrant, and global brands that enter the market will encounter strong local competition. The market is growing, but the strong local competition is tailored to the South African consumers' needs. Fashion is not the only industry that faces strong competition; coffee (shop) giants and fast food restaurants may face the same challenges. In terms of fashion, South Africa domestic entities lead retail sales while competing for market leadership (Euromonitor International, 2014). In addition, most of South Africa's fast food industry is home grown, and nowadays 31 million people buy meals from such restaurants, and this amount is expected to reach 34.8 million people in 2017 (Euromonitor International, 2015). There is growth, but local competition is strong. International fashion chains, such as H&M, which is the second largest fashion chain in the world and only entered the South African market in November 2015, will face strong competition from brands such as Mr. Price and Woolworths. Therefore, this study may be of benefit for international business from developed countries that plan on entering emerging markets where strong local brands currently dominate. Additionally, a better understanding of local or global identity and consumer personality can be beneficial for marketers, and can become a basis for segmentation (Westjohn et al., 2012). It is important for global players and local players to have a good understanding of consumers' decision-making processes in their purchase of global and local brands (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015). Thus, from a local perspective, local brands might also benefit from the results of this research by identifying to what extent consumers do or do not have the intention to purchase international brands, as well as which factors influence this decision the most. If local players can adapt to this, they might strengthen their domestic position.

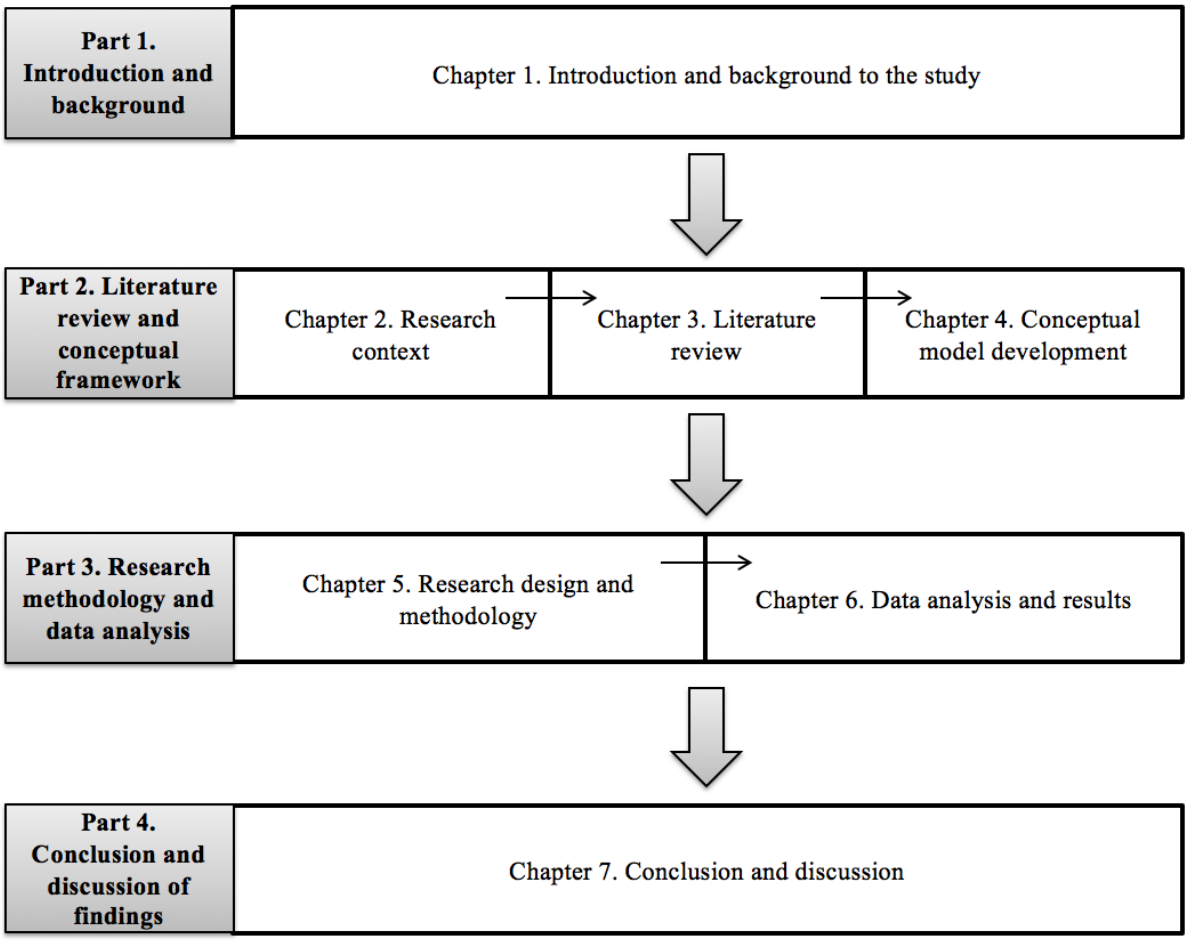
In conclusion, this study's findings provide both empirical and practical insights for (global) brands that plan to enter or expand their business in emerging markets, by indicating the key

determinants related to emerging market consumers' purchase intentions towards global brands. This study can provide both local and global brands with insight on positioning and building (fashion) brands in an emerging market among the emerging middle-class.

1.8 Outline

Chapter One of this research thesis introduced the research, by elaborating on the problem statement, the research purpose, the research question and research objectives, the justification of the study in terms of knowledge gaps in literature, the contributions of the study, and finally the outline of the proposed research. Chapter Two comprises the research context, by explaining the factors that form the context of the present study. This chapter hereby elaborates on globalisation, emerging markets, South Africa, the emerging (black) middle-class, and the fashion industry. Chapter Three contains a literature review, by focusing firstly on the theoretical grounding of the present study in terms of the theories that underpin the conceptual model. This is followed by the empirical literature, which elaborates on the variables within the conceptual research model, ethnocentrism, brand knowledge, price, self-image, fashion involvement, attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention. Chapter Four describes the conceptual model and hypotheses development, by providing literature support and current knowledge on each relationship within the conceptual research model. Chapter Five comprises the research design and methodology and the data analysis method. The chapter firstly elaborates on the research philosophy and research approach, and then provides the research design, operationalisation of the variables, and data analysis method. Furthermore, it describes the assessment of the quality of the research model, the mediator testing, and finally the pre-testing (pilot) instrument. Chapter Six provides the data analysis and a presentation of the results. The pre-testing instrument and demographic and descriptive statistics are discussed and presented, followed by an assessment of the quality of the data in terms of reliability and validity, path modeling, and hypotheses testing. Chapter Seven draws an overall conclusion on the findings, provides the contextual, theoretical, and practical contributions, the managerial implications and recommendations, and ends by providing the limitations of the present study and directions for future research. Essentially the thesis consists of four parts, as illustrated in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2: Thesis structure



Source: Compiled by researcher (2015)

1.9 Summary

This chapter presented an introduction and background to this study, by describing the problem statement, the purpose of the study, and research objectives (theoretical and empirical), including the conceptual model and hypotheses. The objectives were followed by the contributions and significance of the study, which show why this study is justified and adds to the existing body of knowledge by addressing gaps in current literature. The chapter ended with an outline of the research and the structure of the thesis. The upcoming chapter elaborates on the context of the present study, such as emerging markets, the fashion industry, and the (black) middle-class.

Chapter Two (2). Research context

2.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of five items that essentially determine the context of this research. The chapter hereby elaborates on globalisation, emerging markets, South Africa, the fashion industry, and finally the emerging (black) middle-class. These five items determine the context in the following way: globalisation has resulted in companies expanding their scope by looking at new markets, and especially those markets with the highest growth rates–emerging markets. Sub-Saharan Africa is increasingly attractive to companies because of the emergence of a new middle-class–the black middle-class–which provides a first-time consumer segment for basically any product, and therefore attracts the attention of consumer goods players, including global fashion brands.

2.2 Globalisation

This era is marked by globalisation (Vadhanavisala, 2015), and the global landscape is characterised by transformation (Cavusgil & Cavusgil, 2011). Never before has the market been so open, and by 2025, the economic heart of the world will have moved from developed countries to developing countries (International Monetary Fund, 2010, in Cavusgil & Cavusgil, 2012). As mentioned earlier, globalisation is one of the major challenges that companies face nowadays (Steenkamp & Burgess, 2013), and it has put global brands on centre stage (Öszomer et al., 2012).

2.2.1 Global brands

Global brands are one of the most obvious signals of the influence of globalised businesses (Townsend, Yeniyurk & Talay, 2009). There are various definitions for the term ‘global brands’ (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). Firstly, there are two schools of thought that define global brands: the first school bases its definition on the marketing standardisation literature (i.e. economies of scale and economies of scope), and the degree of a standardised marketing strategy decides whether a brand is a global brand or not (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). The second school takes

a customer's point-of-view, and a brand is global when consumers in different markets perceive the brand to be global (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). Özsomer and Altaras (2008:1) define 'global brands' as brands that have "global awareness, availability, acceptance, and demand and are often found under the same name with consistent positioning, personality, look, and feel in major markets enabled by centrally coordinated marketing strategies and programs". Another definition describes 'global brands' as those brands that are in multiple countries and which are perceived as 'global', and which brands have, to a certain extent, standardised their brand communications (Akaka & Alden, 2010). On the other hand, a 'local brand' is a brand that is characterised by two things, namely its availability in a specific location, or a brand that serves a single or concentrated market (Damofte, Johansson & Ronkainen, 2008 in Halkias, Davvetas & Diamantopoulos, 2016). According to Özsomer (2012b), local brands are unique, original, represent the local culture, and enjoy high awareness and availability in local markets. This study has adopted Özsomer and Altaras's (2008) definition because it includes awareness, availability, and acceptance in its definition.

2.2.2 Consumerism in a globalised world

Globalisation has resulted in organisations increasingly expanding their scope across national boundaries, to the extent that markets have become more integrated and organisations need to pay greater attention to coordinating and integrating their marketing strategy across these different markets (Douglas, Graig & Nijssen, 2001). Therefore, a branding strategy is a main priority for organisations operating in an international marketplace (Yu Xie & Boggs, 2006). Globalisation is defined as "the process of global integration of markets as nation-states break down barriers to international trade, and consumer preferences converges" (Townsend et al., 2009:539). The globalisation of the worlds' markets has increased due to expanding trade among nations and modern transportation and communication technologies (Cui & Liu, 2001). Additionally, drivers such as worldwide investments, production, marketing, and falling national boundaries have also contributed to globalisation (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006).

To enter a foreign market, international businesses have to find the right structure to manage their foreign activities effectively (Anderson & Gatignon, 1986, in Laufs & Schwens, 2014). That is, organisational competencies that meet the local context need to be created (Meyer & Tran, 2006). The degree of standardisation or adaptation of the marketing strategy is not an unstudied field since much research has been carried out on the degree of standardising

marketing programmes and processes across nations (Özsomer, Bodur & Tamer Cavusgil, 1991). However, the standardisation of marketing programmes and processes across nations has resulted in critical responses because there are significant differences between customers' needs and market conditions across nations (Özsomer et al., 1991). Globalisation and cultural homogenisation are not each other's equivalent, and it is questioned whether in the future standardised brands will be favoured over local brands (Cleveland, Laroche & Papadopoulos, 2009; Alden, Steenkamp & Batra, 1999). However, it has been stated that while global products might be stronger, local products are successful in their defence of the local market (Tu et al., 2012).

Globalisation has resulted in local and global products competing in the marketplace (Tu et al., 2012), and has significantly impacted the growth of the fashion industry (Rajagopal, 2011). The customer base has changed from being solely local to including both local and global consumers (Jani & Mzalendo, 2015). As a result of the availability of local and global products in the marketplace, consumers have an extended choice of purchase options (Bosbach et al., 2015; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015; Winit et al., (2014); Lew & Sulaiman, 2014; Nadiri & Tümer, 2010; Kumar et al., 2009), under which foreign brands and products. Therefore, a critical issue for international marketers is the attitudes and perceptions of consumers with regard to their acceptance of foreign products (Carter & Maher, 2015; Nadiri & Tümer, 2010). Additionally, due to globalisation people are increasingly aware of their environment in terms of culture, and they develop an identity or self-concept based on themselves in relation to the rest of the world (Westjohn et al., 2012). In line with the topic of this research, in India, global fashion brands are found to be popular, especially among young Indian women, and even though traditional clothing has not lost its popularity, global brands are on a winning streak in India (Khare et al., 2012). Thus, consumers are increasingly aware of other cultures, and increasingly faced with a choice between a local and a global brand, and global brands therefore have to compete with strong local brands that are "tailored" to the specific consumer needs of that particular market (Özsomer, 2012b:73). This provides a significant challenge for companies originating in developed countries, and requires understanding of consumer behaviour in emerging markets.

2.3 Emerging markets

Developing and transition economies are being looked at with increased interest from investors and researchers, but despite this increased attention, the term 'emerging market' is inconsistently used in marketing literature and practice (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006). Due to the heterogeneity of countries, the World Bank (2016) desists from using the term 'developing country' and defines South Africa as an upper-middle-income economy (World Bank, 2016). The United Nations (UN) classifies South Africa as a developing country and an upper-middle-income country (UN, 2012). This study adopts the World-Bank's and UN's definitions and classifies South Africa as an emerging economy, falling within the interval of an upper-middle-income economy with a Gross National Income (GNI) per capita of between US$4,036 and US$12,475. Phraladad in London and Hart (2010) states that emerging markets are underserved and even un-served, while the consumption in these market can lead to income generation; for instance, more than 50% of the cell phones were sold to people in emerging markets, under which South Africa falls (London & Hart, 2010).

2.3.1 The growing importance of emerging markets

Emerging markets are of growing importance, and it is widely acknowledged that emerging markets will account for most of the economic growth in the coming decades (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2013; Pauwels et al., 2013; Özsomer, 2012b). In addition to their growth prospects, there are several reasons for the attractiveness of emerging markets, namely the maturation of existing markets, (for companies with strong global reputations) the possibility to add immediately to their sales (Nakata & Sivakumar, 1997), and the fact that emerging markets may enable a high growth potential, profitability, and superior performance (Gupta, Balmer & Low, 2015). Emerging markets have fast economic growth rates, while in the mean time they are characterised by low incomes per capita, but they are developing from a lower state of economic development to a higher with a certain degree of success (Batra, 1999). Emerging markets are characterised by rapid economic growth, a dual economy (i.e. relatively small, elite, high-income market against large, low-income market and a high degree of inequality with regard to income and wealth (Batra, 1999), and a rising middle-class (Nakata & Sivakumar, 1997), which explains emerging markets' attractiveness to companies. The importance of emerging markets requires understanding how organisations can create and manage

relationships with stakeholders in the specific context of an emerging market (Bressan & Signori, 2014).

It is widely acknowledged that the characteristics of emerging markets are radically different to those of developed markets (Lagoarde-Segot, 2013; Sheth, 2011; Dawar & Chattopadhyay, 2002; Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002; Batra, 1999; Nakata & Sivakumar, 1997). These differences are: (1) market heterogeneity (i.e. skewness in income); (2) socio-political governance; (3) unbranded competition; (4) chronic shortage of resources (i.e. lack of power); and (5) inadequate resources (Sheth, 2011). It must be noted that South Africa does not meet all characteristics, and is, despite its inequality and developing status, also highly industrialised. Emerging consumer markets and transitional economies differ culturally, economically, and demographically from Western countries, while at the same time they experience unique and rapid change (Batra, 1999 in Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002).

2.3.2 Marketing for emerging markets

Emerging markets' macroeconomic characteristics differ to those in developed markets, and therefore, they influence the strategies of the actors in those markets (Leoarde-Segot, 2013). A critical element in international businesses' marketing programmes is to what extent should they standardise or adapt the marketing programme (Helm & Gritsch, 2014), and in an international setting, it is fundamental to know how to coordinate the generic marketing mix elements in different contexts (Douglas, 2000, in Helm & Gritsch, 2014). Multinational enterprises are expanding their global reach by taking their brands and products to emerging economies (Meyer & Tran, 2006), and consumption is increasing rapidly in developing economies, while at the same time mature markets in developed countries seem to be stagnating (Essoussi & Merunka, 2007). However, most multinational enterprises have effectively resisted targeting the local consumer, and simply introduced their offerings developed for their traditional markets (Dawar & Chattopadhyay, 2002). Despite the challenge regarding the standardisation of global marketing, most studies have focused on developed nations (Cui & Liu, 2001). Sheth (2011) states that many practices and perspectives need to be reconsidered, for example, customer satisfaction in a mature market needs to be transformed into converting non-users into users in an emerging market, and market orientation then becomes market development. In other words, existing marketing practices require a different approach in emerging markets.

2.4 The emerging economy of South Africa

Emerging economies are receiving interest from multinational enterprises due to their growth potential. Africa is no exception, and Sub-Saharan Africa is receiving increased interest from multinational enterprises, who are looking for the next China (Euromonitor International, 2015). This quest is not unusual, since Africa's middle-class roughly resembles the size of the middle-class in India or China (AFDB, 2011). Euromonitor International (2015) addresses five megatrends in the Sub-Saharan Africa region that influence all businesses: youth; urbanisation; mobile technology; an emerging consumer base; and economic growth. Sub-Saharan Africa is called a future first market, and companies state that Sub-Saharan African countries are their newest opportunity, due to inter alia their emerging middle-class consumers (Berger, 2013). Among the Sub-Saharan African countries is South Africa, which is one of Africa's most important emerging economies (Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002). Haefner et al. (2016) refer to South Africa as the southern African powerhouse due to the size of its economy, its share in the African GNP, and its increasing GDP per capita. South Africa is an upper-middle income country (Kumar et al., 2015), and held the position as Africa's most important transitional economy (Burgess and Steenkamp, 1998). South Africa lost its leading position as leading African economy to Nigeria (Kumar et al., 2015), but regained this position again in 2016 (Doya, 2016). However, besides South Africa's leading position within the continent, it is also an emerging economy. According to their GNI per capita standard, South Africa can be defined as a developing country (International Statistical Institute, 2015), but in spite of this status and its inequality, it is nevertheless a growing industrial nation (Kumar et al., 2015, Viosca, Berghiel & Balsmeier, 2006). However, even though South Africa has a large domestic market and natural resource base, labour instability and falling commodity prices are a barrier to economic growth, and negatively influences the economy's investment reputation (The Heritage Foundation, 2015).

Euromonitor International (2013) forecasts that by 2030 the South African population will reach 58.1 million people, which is a 10.9% increase since 2012, and Johannesburg will remain the biggest city in 2030. South Africa is the most unequal country in the world in terms of income distribution, but its middle-class keeps on growing, which drives growth in consumption (Euromonitor International, 2014). While informal retail is the norm in the rest of Africa (for instance, Egypt and Nigeria have respectively only 4% and 2% of formal retail), in

South Africa the six leading apparel retailers control 47% of the African market, and there are signs that formal retailing will increase drastically in the whole of Africa in the years to come (McKinsey, 2012). In conclusion, with formal retailing on the rise, the necessity for research is stressed. Additionally, South Africa is seen as a representative region for emerging economies due to the availability of retail data in the country, and because the country has one of the largest retail industries in the region (Aye, Balcilar, Gupta & Majumdar, 2015). Although the South African market is characterised by strong local players who lead the market, it increasingly faces international companies entering the South African market. This also applies to the fashion industry where the top three clothing companies are domestic, however, recently an increasing number of multinational fashion firms such as H&M, Zara, and Topshop have entered the South African fashion market. Therefore, South Africa is a suitable country in which to conduct this (fashion) retail-oriented study.

Sub-Saharan Africa provides a challenge for global brands, since most of the countries are conservative and consumers perceive local brands as being good enough (McKinsey, 2012). Sub-Saharan Africans are usually loyal to one brand and they are conservative when it comes to trying new products, and this is in contrast to North Africans who are loyal to a selection of brands (McKinsey, 2012). Global brands need to find a way to establish themselves in the local, conservative market. In conclusion, Sub-Saharan markets might provide challenges for global retailers, but it is extremely necessary for global fashion retailers to understand the consumers' purchase intentions of Africa's growing black middle-class for global brands, in order to benefit from the consumption growth in the area.

2.5 The fashion industry

Emerging markets offer great potential for the fashion industry (Saran et al., 2016), where fashion is one retail sector that most rapidly stretches across national borders into the global marketplace. However, despite its fast internationalisation rate, a great deal still remains to be discovered (Jin & Cedrola, 2016). Global fashion brands earn more than 50% of their earnings from foreign markets, where for example, H&M earns 90% of its revenue from outside its home country, while Idetex (the retailer behind Zara) and Nike respectively earn 80% and 68%

abroad. Therefore, internationalisation is very important for global fashion brands, where emerging economies are a potential market source for those brands.

2.5.1 An overview on fashion

Fashion is a major industry in global business, and encompasses different product categories, from clothing to the automotive industry (Saran et al., 2016). Kaiser (1997, in Pentecost & Andrews, 2010:4) defines fashion as "clothing and other physical and material objects put on the human body", but Paulicelli and Clark (2009:2) define fashion as being "both public and private, material and symbolic, always caught within the lived experience and providing an incredible tool with which to study culture and history". Barnes (2013) adds life span to the definition of fashion, and states that fashion is a product category with short-term popularity and is thus only popular for a short amount of time. Apparel constitutes the biggest sector within the fashion industry (Saran et al., 2016). Worldwide the fashion apparel market is valued at US$3 trillion, and is responsible for 2% of the worldwide GDP (Fashion United, 2016). Within the apparel segment, fashion for women holds the biggest share, namely US$621 billion (Fashion United, 2016).

Fashion has an important social and economic influence on society, although this influence is so far mainly recognised in Western societies (O'Cass, 2004). Historically, fashion is a manufacturing industry that strongly depends on the textile industry, which in many European countries has been the enabler of social, political, and economic transformations–also referred to as the industrial revolution (Paulicelli & Clark, 2009). Fashion was at the root of European colonisation, and more currently, fashion plays an important role in the changes of the global economy and markets (Paulicelli & Clark, 2009). Fashion goes hand in hand with (re)-branding, and influences perceptions of culture, and ultimately, most fashion aims to reach a global market (Paulicelli & Clark, 2009). Before the global fashion industry undergoes scrutiny here, it is necessary to address current changes occurring in the culture of fashion. Where consumers used to wear traditional clothing items (i.e. clothing with a traditional ethnic cultural origin), changes in consumer culture have now also changed consumers' tastes and consumption (Rajagopal, 2010). Rajagopal (2011) explains that consumption is largely influenced by the social value that a product or brand carries, and notes that consumer values are changing in terms of clothing, where social differentiation and the consumer's self-esteem now influences their preferences, although it cannot be ignored that self-esteem and social differentiation are

also rooted in cultural values (Rajagopal, 2010). This implies that cultural values such as individualism, or gender norms, which give rise to culture, still play an important role in the fashion industry.

O'Cass (2004) states that fashion means different things to different people. Fashion can be sub-divided into several main categories, which include high fashion (i.e. haute couture), ready-to-wear high fashion, and fast-fashion. Bruce and Daly (2006) in particular have divided the fashion market into luxury, high street, and supermarket discounter categories. High fashion ready-to-wear designer brands are for example Dior, Chanel, and Dolce & Gabanna. High fashion is the result of the work of fashion designers, who design the fashion, but fast fashion is inspired by trends, and inspired by events such as fashion shows, by trend spotters, and by trend-signs of leading consumers (Tokatli, 2008). Euromonitor (2014) argues that fast fashion has an "unbeatable competitive edge" due to its capacity to identify and deliver trends to the market in a very short time span. Fast fashion consumers expect constant change, and the short time-span between sourcing and availability in stores is achieved through supply chain management (Bruce & Daly, 2006). Thus, fast fashion is characterised by its quick response, and the main differences between fast fashion and high fashion and ready-to-wear is that fast fashion retailers are mainly inspired by the trends instead of doing the designing themselves, and they select what suits them from fashion shows, tailor it to their market, and offer it to their consumers in the shortest period of time possible (Tokatli, 2008).

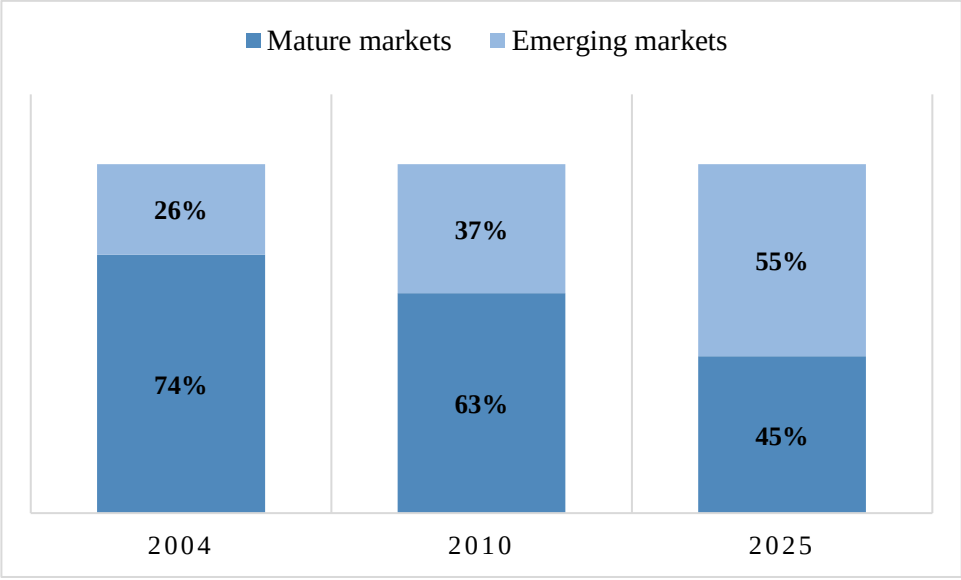
High fashion brands have been under pressure, while fast fashion sales figures have doubled in the same period (Tokatli, 2008), and fast fashion pioneers still hold top positions in the global clothing rankings (Euromonitor, 2013). The fashion industry is a turbulent industry, and fast fashion in particular operates in a very turbulent environment, which provides challenges for fashion retailers (Bruce & Daly, 2006). Zara and H&M are examples of fast fashion retailers, but fast fashion retail requires a number of characteristics, including having multiple stores around the world to reach as many as possible consumers, a highly responsive communication channel to match consumer demand with the operations, a short cycle from trend to availability in store, and to achieve this a highly responsive supply chain is required (Tokatli, 2008). Tokatli (2008) mentions that fast fashion retailers do not all work according to the same approach; some retailers manufacture (Zara), while others do not manufacture themselves and outsource the

production (H&M and Mango), especially to developing countries. It can be stated that the fashion industry fuels globalisation.

2.5.2 Fashion and globalisation

Globalisation has resulted in the expansion of brands and products across borders, and globalisation has also contributed to the growth of the fashion sector (Rajagopal, 2011). International clothing retailers such as Zara are considered to be major drivers of globalisation in the clothing industry, due to factors such as global sourcing (Tokatli, 2008) and expansion across borders. In combination with increased foreign trade, globalisation has changed the environment of clothing businesses; there are opportunities for growth across the borders of the home country and resource advantages such as lower priced labour and lower priced raw materials exist, but the potential also provides challenges due to more and more (foreign) competition (Dopico & Porral, 2012). In terms of sales, emerging markets specifically are defined as "juicy targets" for fast fashion brands (Tokatli, 2008:27). In other words, companies' shifts towards emerging markets also influences the fashion industry. The women's apparel market shows a shift towards fast-growing emerging markets, and a growth rate of more than 50% is expected in the coming 12 years (Remy, 2013). As Figure 2.1 indicates, emerging economies are currently responsible for more than 37% of women's "mid-market apparel" sales, but it is expected that this share will grow to over 50% in 2025, with a growth rate three times faster than the growth rate in developed markets (Remy, 2013:2).

Figure 2.1: The shift of women's apparel sales towards emerging markets



Source: Compiled by researcher (2017), based on Remy (2013)

While in general growth of the apparel market slows down, emerging markets drive growth with their cities as the major drivers (Remy, 2013). These growth forecasts stress the need to research the fashion and apparel market in emerging economies, and fashion retailing offers multiple interesting research directions (Pentecost & Andrews, 2010). Remy (2013) states that the growth will concern the mid-market and luxury apparel market specifically, and therefore the focus of this research is on mid-market fashion. It is in the mid-market specifically that the most growth is expected in emerging economies, which stresses the relevance of understanding which factors determine consumers' purchase intentions towards global fashion brands. Consumer behaviour is a critical strategic element in the apparel sector, of great importance to both apparel brand management and consumer perceptions (Kumar, Kumar & Narayana, 2016).

2.5.3 The fashion industry in (South) Africa

Consumer-facing industries provide most business opportunities in the African continent, under which apparel, consumer goods, and foods represent the largest amount of the growth (McKinsey, 2012). Additionally, the fashion apparel consumer market has become very diverse, with different brands, personalisation, and ethnicities in the global market (Rajagopal, 2011). Consumers' purchase intentions towards apparel in retail stores gained increased attention in research over the last decade due to the sector's rapid growth (Erdil, 2015), and although South Africa's retail market is yet to experience a constant growth (Euromonitor International, 2016; Euromonitor International, 2014), it also provides challenges for global brands because consumers are conservative and perceive local brands as 'good enough' (McKinsey, 2012).

African consumers want the latest fashions, demand high product quality, and are simultaneously price-conscious (McKinsey, 2012). But while 60% of North Africans perceive global brands to be more fashionable than local brands, only 11% of the Nigerians and 12% of South Africans share this sentiment (McKinsey, 2012). Thus, Sub-Saharan consumers do not necessarily perceive global brands as more fashionable than local brands, in contrast to Steenkamp et al.'s (2000) assertion that consumers in emerging markets prefer global brands over local brands. Commentators often assert that consumers in emerging markets prefer global brands because clothing is seen as a symbol of status and wealth (Euromonitor International, 2015). Consumers in emerging markets are becoming more and more aware of fashion brands, and subsequently their self-concept and brand awareness is increasing (Khare & Rakesh, 2010).

South Africa is Sub-Sahara's largest apparel market (Euromonitor International, 2015), and the sales of apparel products in South Africa achieved record growth in 2014, even though the costs of living restricted consumer spending (Euromonitor International, 2015). Despite the increasing worldwide popularity of internet retailing, South Africans still mainly purchase their products in stores due to South Africa's well-developed retail environment (Euromonitor International, 2015).

There is an especially relevant linkage between the fashion industry and city centres, since (retail) fashion plays a big role in these areas (Guercini & Runfola, 2015). The South African retail environment still provides opportunities for success for retailers, but there are a few local firms that compete for market leadership (Mr Price, Woolworths, Truworths). In South Africa, domestic firms lead retail sales (Euromonitor International, 2015), and even though there is increasing competition from international companies, the top three companies are still local, and local players have an advantage over global players due to their innate knowledge of the market, consumers, and seasons, prime store locations, and because they have an existing consumer base (Euromonitor, 2014). Local companies are expected to keep the lead (Euromonitor International, 2014), and this provides challenges for global firms, who will face strong local competition.

2.6 The middle-class

"African consumerism has arrived on the global stage." (Trendwatching, 2016)

Due to economic growth and an increasing disposable income, middle-class consumers in emerging markets is now given the ability to procure a diversity of products and services (Kardes, 2016). Due to the growth of this class, middle-classes in emerging countries fuel emerging markets and global economic activity (Douglas & Craig, 2011), and provide new opportunities for marketers and marketing activity (Cavusgil & Cavusgil, 2012). However, Kardes (2016) emphasises that before they provide opportunities for companies originated from developed countries, there is a need for accurate identification, quantification, and targeting of this consumer segment.

2.6.1 An overview on the middle-class

The middle-class of a country is highly important for economic growth and development; they provide a base of human capital, have important attitudes–such as savings and entrepreneurship, hold governments accountable and promote political stability, and last but not least they are the primary driver of consumption (Visagie, 2015). A decade ago, multinational enterprises aimed their activities at the top segments of customers (i.e. the so-called 'top of the pyramid'), the middle-class was largely ignored, and products required adaptions that would better meet their needs (Batra, 1999). But nowadays the middle-class is a major consumer segment for multinational enterprises, and especially the middle-class in emerging economies due to their current growth rates, their potential future growth, and their growth compared to developed markets (Kandogan & Johnson, 2015). This has been occasioned by factors such as rising incomes, the availability of credit, and increased demand by two-earner households (Batra, 1999). The (emerging) middle-class in emerging markets is creating a large-scale of first-time consumers of practically everything (Sheth, 2011). But the middle-class might be a challenging market to serve, since the middle-class falls in the category of consumers who–in contrast to the rich in each country–differ from one country to another in the disposal of their income (De Mooij, 2013).

The concept of a 'middle-class' is often vaguely defined (Kandogan & Johnson, 2015), and there are many varying definitions of this social class, as well as varying income-standards that define the middle-class, which results in varying estimations of the size of the middle-class (Mattes, 2015). Cavusgil and Cavusgil (2012:208) define the 'middle-class' as "salaried workers who do not own the means of production, and whose major function in the social landscape is the reproduction of mainstay vitality of society, culture, and capital". In line with this definition is Southall's (2004:521) definition of the middle-class as a government or corporate employee, with "no direct ownership of the means of production and is in a subordinate relationship to capital-owning employers". It must be added that a middle-class consumer can also be a small business owner. Homi Kharas from the OECD Development Centre (OECD, 2010) simply refers to the middle-class as the 'consumption class' due to their role in consumption. Ndletyana (2014) states that there the middle-class differs from the working class by inter alia, their suburban residency, ambition, and consumption, and states that there is consensus that this class consists of white collar, professional workers. Other

authors define the middle-class by their monthly incomes (R1,400 – R10,000), or by house ownership (Visagie and Posel, 2013). According to Ndletyana, (2014), other studies use the R10,000 – R25,000, or a minimum of R12,000 (Donaldson et al., 2013). The definition of R1,400 – R10,000 is problematic, since this also includes blue-collar workers who do not meet the other criteria of a middle-class.

2.6.2 South Africa's middle-class

The difficulty of a middle-class notion for a country such as South Africa is the high inequality in the country; the middle layer (0.20 - 0.80 or 0.25 - 0.75 percentile) is still quite poor. Two common approaches to define the middle-class, based on the middle share of national income distribution or on the absolute level of affluence and lifestyle (Visagie and Posel, 2013), find little overlap in the South African context, emphasising South Africa's high poverty levels and inequality. Therefore, a definition should be chosen carefully, since the 'real' middle-class in South Africa currently might not be the white collar, educated, professional, and consumption class. Therefore, this study adopts a definition according to the Living Standard Measure (LSM), which is a widely used marketing research tool in South Africa (McKinsey, 2010). The South African Advertising Research Foundation (SAARF) developed LSM. The LSM measures the standard of living by using various measures (The Report, 2013). The LSM can be defined as a demographic segmentation tool, which measures social class and living standards without applying race or income, but instead applies wealth, access, and geography (Truter, 2007). The Report (2013:176) on South Africa' LSM shows "social mobility with strong growth into the middle-class". Within the LSM measure, LSM 1 is the lowest class and LSM 10 is the highest class, with each class having its own average income (The Report, South Africa, 2013). The definition of middle-class defines the growth of this class, since various definitions result in varying size estimations of the black middle-class. From an LSM perspective, Anderson (2015) states that the emerging South African middle-class (i.e. LSM 7-10) has grown by 15% in the last decade.

2.6.3 The emerging (black) middle-class

Definitions and the estimated size of the middle-class differ greatly based on the criteria used to define the notion of middle-class, but most analysts agree that after Apartheid and several policy interventions, a sizable proportion of the South Africans are now part of the middle-class

(Mattes, 2015). This study focuses specifically on the South African black middle-class in South Africa; black in this study is defined as 'African', natively born in Sub-Saharan Africa (i.e. not white, Indian, or coloured) (Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002). The focus on the black middle-class is motivated firstly by the growth of this group, secondly because of the black majority in the country, and thirdly because previous research (for example Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions) focused on the white minority. Geert Hofstede, who developed cultural dimensions to map the culture of a country (i.e. power distance; individualism; masculinity; uncertainty avoidance; indulges) is widely recognised and respected in cultural literature. However, not much is known about the South African market, especially the mass market. This is emphasised by the fact that Hofstede's dimensions in South Africa are solely measured among the white minority. Geert Hofstede only measured cultural dimensions for the white South African minority, which means that the black majority has not been taken into account and therefore the results are not generalisable across the South African population.

However, the black middle-class continues to grow, and occupies an important position in South Africa's socio-economic sector (Donaldson et al., 2013). In South Africa, the growing black middle-class is an increasingly valuable target market for national and international marketers, from which growth is expected to come, and this mostly from the current black generation Y students (Bevan-Dye et al., 2012). But the growth of the black middle-class between 1993 and 2008 (i.e. from Apartheid to post-Apartheid) is not only significant for marketers, but is also a sign that South Africa has become "more open and dynamic" (Burger, Louw, Pegado & van der Berg, 2015:2). The South African middle-class is also of economic, political, and social significance for South Africa's democracy (Burger, Steenekamp, van der Berg & Zoch, 2015).

Despite varying size estimations, it cannot be denied that the black middle-class in South Africa is rapidly growing (Mattes, 2015). Between 1993-2008 it grew from 7.7 million to 10.4 million, and while the black to white ratio was 1:2 in 1993, this ratio was 2:1 in 2008 (Visagie, 2015). Chase et al. (2010) recognise that black shoppers will dominate the highest LSMs (9-10), while already being the largest group in the middle income groups (LMS 5-8). Additionally, van der Berg (2010) and Southall (2004) state that black people, 'Africans', are the largest part of the increasing South African middle-class. Mattes (2015) states that the rapid expansion of the black middle-class saw them rise from 350,000 in 1993, to 3 million in 2012, which is a result

of the removal of Apartheid restrictions, as well as affirmative action and Black Economic Empowerment (BEE). Other authors estimate the size of the black middle-class to be between 2.6 million and 4.5 million (Donaldson et al., 2013). Thus, there are different measures of middle-class (i.e. income, higher education, house ownership), but a sizable proportion of black South Africans can now be considered middle-class (Mattes, 2015). After the 1994 elections, new consumer segments emerged and with the rise of the black middle-class, spending increased (De Bruyn & Freathy, 2011). Burger et al. (2015) warn against a too optimistic prediction regarding the black middle-class in South Africa, because despite racial gaps in earnings and education decreasing, the country has still not experienced a more integrated and less polarised social landscape. Despite its growth, the South African black middle-class has received little attention in research (Donaldson et al., 2013), which stresses the need for this study to focus on this particular group.

2.7 Summary

This chapter described the context of the study by elaborating on the major contextual factors, namely globalisation, emerging markets, South Africa, the fashion industry, and the emerging (black) middle-class. The context was structured from broad to narrow, from globalisation– which resulted in the expansion of companies, brands, and products, to emerging markets. South Africa is an emerging market in Sub-Saharan Africa, where global fashion brands increasingly turn to due to market potential, encountering a strong domestic market, but similarly a rapidly growing emerging consumer segment. The following chapter elaborates on the literature that provides the foundation of the conceptual research model.

Chapter Three (3). Literature review

3.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of two parts: the theoretical grounding; and the empirical literature. The first section of this chapter describes the theories that underpin this research, inter alia the TRA, TPB, Self-congruity Theory, and the Associative Network Memory model. The theoretical grounding provides an in-depth description of the theories that underpin this study, by including the variables of the theories that this study has adopted, as well as the variables this study has not adopted, and the reasons why this research has not adopted them. The second section of this chapter describes the empirical literature in detail, namely: the variables in the conceptual research model; brand knowledge, consisting of brand awareness and brand image that are rooted in the Associative Network Memory model; price, because the role of affordability should not be neglected in a developing market context; ethnocentrism; playing a mediating role; self-image, as rooted in the Self-congruity Theory; fashion involvement; brand love; attitude, as a mediator and as one of the major behaviour predicting variables rooted in the TRA and the TPB; perceived quality, which plays a mediating role; and finally purchase intention, the outcome variable, which is also rooted in the TRA and TPB.

3.2 Theoretical grounding

There is a major need to understand consumer behaviour outside the Western world (Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002). This is vitally important because consumer behaviour is not a stand-alone phenomenon, or a stand-alone action. Consumer behaviour is directly linked to the culture in which the consumer lives, their environment, and their economic situation (Hoppe, Vieira & Barcellos, 2013). Additionally, consumer behaviour is a critical strategic element in the apparel industry and therefore apparel brand management and consumer perceptions are essential (Kumar et al., 2016). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to gain insight to consumer behaviour in emerging markets, and especially in their consumers' purchase intentions towards global (fashion) brands. Consumer behaviour is defined as "the study of the processes involved

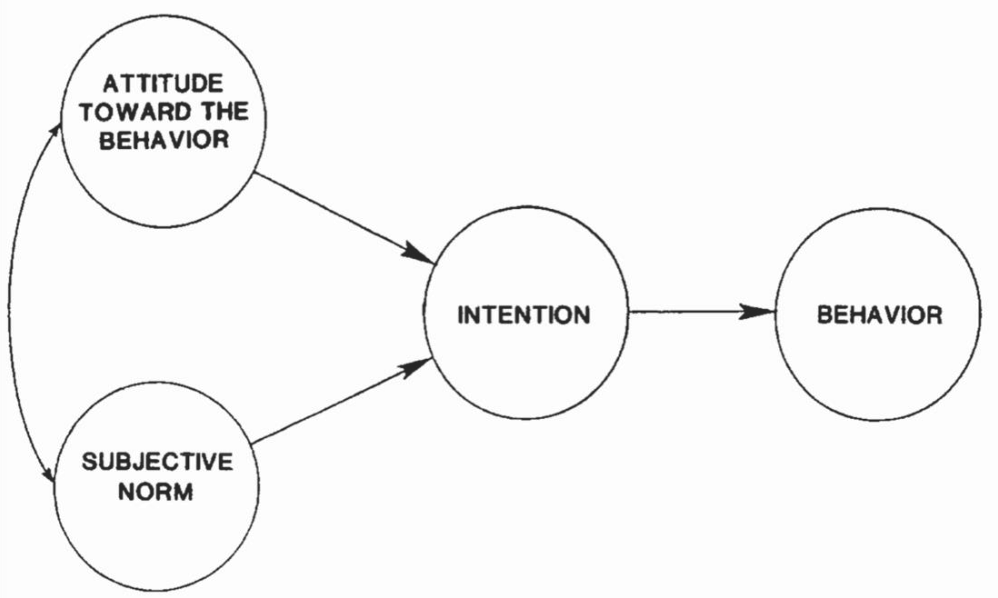
when individuals or groups select, purchase, use or dispose products, services, ideas or experiences to satisfy needs and desires" (Solomon, Russell-Bennett & Previte, 2012:3).

There are several relevant theories that underpin study. Researchers have developed models to understand and predict consumer behaviour, underpinned by the TRA and TPB (Yazdanpanah & Forouzani, 2015). The conceptual research model is based on the assumption that intentions influence actual behaviour, which is stated by authors such as Ajzen, 2011; Ajzen and Cote, 2008, and Ajzen, 1991, and is still assumed in many recent studies. Therefore, besides several theories that underpin the conceptual model, the present conceptual model is primarily rooted in the TRA and TPB.

3.2.1 Theory of Reasoned Action

The TRA states that the immediate antecedent of behaviour is the intention to perform that behaviour, and that the stronger the intention is the more likely it is that the behaviour will actually be performed (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). The TRA is based on the assumption that behaviour is caused by the intention to perform the behaviour, and the behavioural intention is caused by the attitude towards the behaviour and the subjective norm. The TRA is the foundation of many studies that have researched the relationship between attitude and behaviour, and is used in a wide variety of studies, varying from very simple, basic behaviours to more sensitive behaviours (for example, having an abortion) (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). Previous research has shown that the TRA is applicable in a wide variety of studies, and is therefore a useful tool to predict behavioural intentions. The TRA's underlying premise is that– for many kinds of behaviour–the cause of behaviour is the intention towards that particular behaviour, which is influenced and caused by both the attitude towards the behaviour (i.e. the positive or negative evaluation of the behaviour) as well as the subjective norm (i.e. a social item that covers the experienced social pressure to perform or not perform the behaviour) (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). Ajzen and Madden (1986) state that both attitude and subjective norm are antecedents of behaviour, and that those antecedents are equally important for predicting behavioural intentions. Figure 3.1 provides a conceptual representation of the TRA, and shows the relationships between the constructs.

Figure 3.1: The Theory of Reasoned Action



Source: Ajzen and Madden (1986)

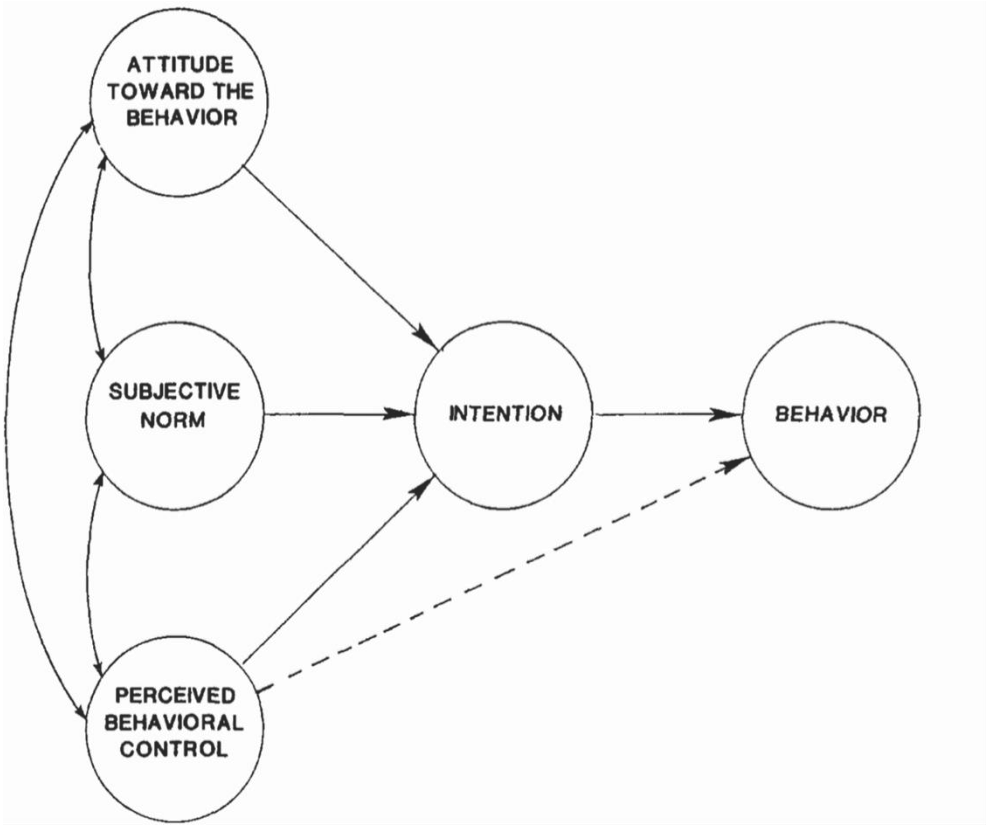
3.2.2 Theory of Planned Behaviour

Closely related to the TRA, is the TPB. Both models have the same underlying assumption, but the TPB is more extensive because it includes an additional variable; behavioural control. Ajzen and Madden (1986) state that the TPB is a more accurate prediction of behaviour, since it gives more accurate predictions of behaviour than the TRA. The TPB suits studies that aim to analyse consumer purchase decisions regarding foreign products (Smith, Liu, Liesch, Callois, Yi & Daly, 2010).

The TPB was developed as a conceptual framework to deal with complexities within human behaviour, and influential factors of consumer intentions are found in the attitude towards the behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived control over behaviour, where the intention of the behaviour finally leads to the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The TPB is one of the key theories for predicting and understanding consumer behaviour (Smith et al., 2010), and is well supported by empirical evidence in a variety of studies. The intentions can be predicted in a highly accurate way by the key variables attitude, subjective norm, and behavioural control, while the intentions "account for considerable variance in actual behaviour" (Ajzen, 1991:179). Ajzen and Madden (1986) considered the TRA to be incomplete due to the absence of a variable that deals with control (i.e. the extent to which the individual actually has control over the behaviour). Ajzen and Madden (1986) state that the intention to perform the behaviour is not

enough when there is no control over the behaviour due to internal and external factors, such as the ability to perform the behaviour, the skills to perform the behaviour, and the opportunities or time to perform the behaviour. The model in Figure 3.2 presents a conceptual representation of the TPB, which includes the influence of perceived behavioural control on both intentions as well as on the actual behaviour.

Figure 3.2: The Theory of Planned Behaviour



Source: Ajzen and Madden (1986)

The following sections elaborate on each of the variables of both the TRA and the TPB. Attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control are all three independent antecedents of the behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991). There are three salient beliefs that underpin behaviour, namely behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs (Ajzen, 1991), all of which are discussed and can be seen in the graphical representation of the TPB in Figure 3.2.

3.2.1.1 Attitude

The first salient belief used to explain behaviour is the behavioural belief, which is the foundation of the attitude towards the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). In both the TRA and the TPB

attitude is defined as "the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation or appraisal of the behaviour in question" (Ajzen, 1991:188). The consumers' attitude towards the brand or product is one of the key foundation factors of consumer behaviour, due to its influence on decisions such as brand choice (Keller, 1993). Keller (1993) praises Ajzen and Fishbein's (1980) model regarding attitude, in which attitude is defined as a consequence of two main factors: the 'salient' beliefs of the consumer of the product; and the 'evaluative judgement' of those beliefs. This means that an attitude is formed by both salient beliefs as well as the evaluation of that belief, in line with Ajzen's (1991) definition.

3.2.1.2 Subjective norm

The second salient belief that is a determinant of behaviour is normative belief, which is the foundation of the subjective norm (Ajzen, 1991). According to Ajzen (1991:188), a 'subjective norm' can be defined as the "perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour". In other words, the social pressure an individual perceives from his or her environment to do or to not do something. Smith et al. (2010) describe the subjective norm as the extent to which other people do or do not approve the behaviour, and it therefore relates to the extent to which the consumer is aware of the opinion of others. A subjective norm is sometimes referred to as the weakest link in the TRA and TPB models, and in varying studies it is found to be insignificant. In Paul, Modi, and Patel's (2016) study, subjective norm was not insignificant in their conceptual model, but the authors argued that consumers do not care that much about the approval of other people. Other studies on (Chinese) consumers' purchase intentions that tested the TRA found a non-significant relationship between subjective norm and purchase intentions, and in the context of apparel from the USA, they found that subjective norm did not significantly influence consumers' purchase intentions towards foreign apparel (Paul et al., 2016). Bianchi and Mortimer (2015) also found subjective norm to be a non-significant variable in their TRA-based conceptual research model. Subjective norm was found insignificant in both Chile and Australia in terms of its influence on consumers' purchase intentions towards local food. Finally, Son, Jin, and George (2013) also found subjective norm to be insignificant in their study investigating the purchase behaviours of Indian consumers of foreign goods. Therefore, this study does not include subjective norm in its conceptual model.

3.2.1.3 Perceived behavioural control

The third salient belief used in explaining behaviour is control belief, which lies at the basis of perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991). Perceived behavioural control is the major difference between TRA and TPB; it plays an important role in the TPB, and it is stated that perceived behavioural control both influences the intention towards the behaviour as well as performing the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). After the TRA, Ajzen (1991) identified perceived behavioural control as an additional influential factor that influences the intention towards the behaviour as well as the actual behaviour (Kidwell & Jewell, 2003). Some time ago, it was stated that perceived behavioural control constructs need more research to improve their measurement quality (Kidwell & Jewell, 2003; Spark & Shepherd, 1992). Perceived behavioural control includes the consumer's ability to actually perform the behaviour, and includes factors such as availability of resources. It is concerned with the difficulties that a person perceives to perform a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

As depicted in the illustrations of both models, perceived behavioural control is only present in the TPB, which is therefore an upgrade, and TPB is considered to be a more complete and a more accurate predictor of behaviour. Compared to the TRA, the TPB introduces a variable that includes the factor of the availability of the resources to actually perform the behaviour. Ajzen (1991) states that the behavioural intention can only be put to work if the individual has control over the behaviour, as mentioned above, for example due to factors such as time, money, and skills, and he defines this as the individual's "actual control over the behaviour" (Ajzen, 1991:182). In other words, the person should have the resources and/or the opportunities to achieve the behaviour, which also includes the obstacles that the individual encounters on his or her way to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Summarised then, perceived behavioural control that an individual has over the behaviour can be described as the individual's ability to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). It must be noted that there are various ways of 'control', for example, locus of control means that you believe that you shape the outcome, and this is stable across different situations, but perceived behaviour control has to do with the individual's own perception of their ability to perform the behaviour, which can differ across different situations (Ajzen, 1991).

3.2.1.4 Intention

In both the TRA and the TPB, the intention is the outcome variable of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control, while on the other hand, intention is the antecedent of actual behaviour. In this research, the intention is the dependent variable, depending on attitude and other variables detailed in the empirical literature. Ajzen (1991) proposes that intentions capture the motivational factors that influence actual behaviour and indicate the extent to which people try, and how much effort they are willing to put into the actual execution of the behaviour, as well as trying to perform the behaviour. He states "as a general rule, the stronger the intention to engage in the behaviour, the more likely should be its performance" (Ajzen, 1991:181). In sum, intention can be described as the individual's motivation to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Although intentions are often used to (successfully) predict behaviour, it must be taken into account that sometimes intentions are not very accurate predictors of actual behaviour (Ajzen, 2011), especially when there is a long time span between the intention and the actual behaviour, but also when the time span between intention and behaviour is relatively short (Ajzen, 2011). Although this is a critique, the more a theory is in the spotlight, the more it is criticised and debated, and the TPB is still one of the most influential (and well supported) models to predict consumer behaviour (Ajzen, 2011; Smith et al., 2010). In addition, the TPB is also applicable in a context that aims to analyse consumer purchase decisions (intentions) for important products (Smith et al., 2010), and the TRA has proven itself to be a robust model in different contexts (Jin & Kang, 2011). Based on the arguments above, this study adopts the underlying assumptions of the TRA and TPB to underpin its conceptual model.

This study adopts the attitude towards the behaviour and the intention to perform the behaviour, with the underlying assumption that the intention towards the behaviour predicts the actual behaviour. The subjective norm will not be included for a few reasons. Firstly, with regard to the subjective norm, Paul et al. (2016) used the TRA and TPB to predict green product consumption. But despite the importance of green product consumption and sustainable consumption was subjective norm found non significant in their conceptual model (Paul et al., 2016). They acknowledge that the subjective norm is the weakest link in behavioural intention models, and that consumers do not consider approval from others to be that important (Paul et

al. 2016). It is argued that the subjective norm is significantly less important when it concerns low involvement decisions (Mahon, Cowan & McCarthy, 2006), although apparel is widely acknowledged as a high involvement product category by for instance Khare, Mishra, Parveen, and Srivastava (2011). In addition, Sheeran, Norman, and Orbell (1999) state that intentions based on attitudes are better predictors of behaviour than intentions that are based on subjective norms. Therefore, for a decision such as which (fashion) brand to wear, this study will not include the subjective norm variable in its conceptual model. Secondly, this study will not adopt perceived behavioural control as a variable since perceived behavioural control is sometimes found to be insignificant. For example, in Jun and Arendt's (2016) recent study, they proposed that perceived behavioural control, in line with the assumptions of the TPB, influences the behavioural intention, but they also found that perceived behavioural control to be insignificant.

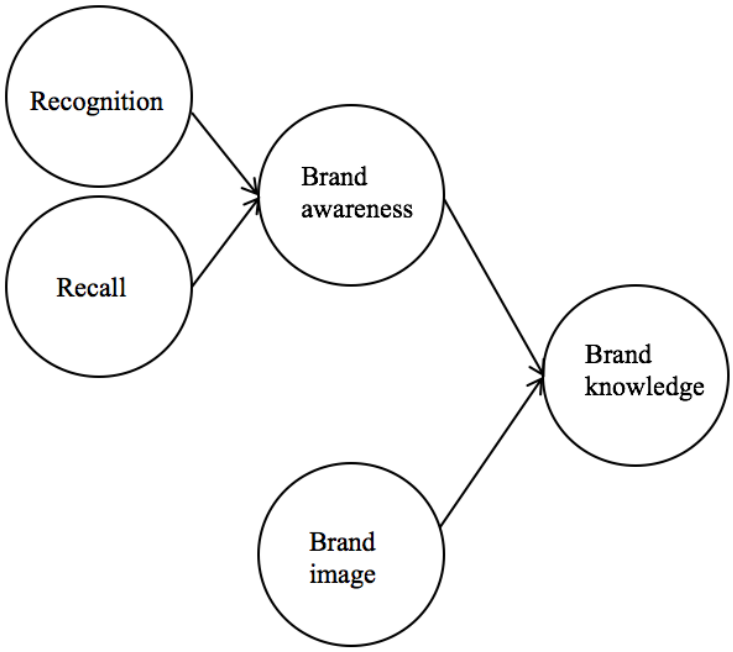
The assumption that intentions lead to behaviour is also found in the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), which also recognises the intention to buy as a major construct of acceptance (Hajli, 2015). In conclusion, in its conceptual research model this study adopts the purchase intention (and attitude) of the TPB and TRA for several reasons. Firstly, they are among the most influential and well-supported models that predict consumer behaviour (Ajzen, 2011; Smith et al., 2010), and they have proven to be robust in different settings (Jin & Kang, 2011). Therefore, the TRA and TPB's assumptions (regarding attitude and behavioural intention) are adopted for this study, and are the major underpinning of the conceptual research model. More specifically, the dependent variable of the conceptual research model will be the purchase intention of black middle-class female consumers towards global fashion brands.

3.2.2 The Associative Network Memory Model

The second model that underpins the conceptual research model is the Associative Network Memory Model. This model is relevant for the present conceptual research model due to its component of brand knowledge (i.e. brand awareness and brand image). Brand knowledge has proven to be a critical component in reaching the intended target market, and for international fashion brands in an emerging market context (Alimen & Guldem Cerit, 2010). Therefore, in addition to the TRA and TPB, the Associative Network Memory Model also underpins this study. This model views the consumer's memory as a network of nodes and links that connect these nodes and any other information stored in this memory network (Keller, 2013). This model is used for the consumers' knowledge of the brand, which consists of their brand

awareness and their perception of the image of the brand. The Associative Network Memory model is illustrated in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Associative Network Memory Model



Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Keller (1993)

3.2.3.1 Brand awareness

Brand awareness is the first dimension of brand knowledge, and it is related to the likelihood and ease with which a brand name enters someone's memory (Keller, 1993). Keller (1993:3) states that the requirement for brand equity is that consumers appropriately "discriminate" what they have seen or have heard about the brand during an earlier stage. Aaker (2009) also identifies brand awareness as one of a brand's equity dimensions. Brand awareness is closely related to brand familiarity, and brand awareness is about the strength of the brand in the consumer's memory, as a result of brand recall and brand recognition (Keller, 2013). Aaker (2009) describes brand awareness as the consumer's ability to recall or recognise a brand. Although their definitions differ slightly, both authors acknowledge that brand awareness consists of brand recall and brand recognition, or in other words, the ease with which a brand enters the memory.

Thus, brand awareness consists of two factors: brand recognition and brand recall. Keller (2013:73) defines 'brand recognition' as the "consumers' ability to confirm prior exposure to the brand when given the brand as a cue". In other words, will consumers recognise the brand

when they come across it for a second time? Brand recall is closely related to brand recognition, but has a slightly different function. Brand recall focuses less on the brand, but more on the functions and needs fulfilled by the brand. Keller (2013:73) defines 'brand recall' as the "consumers' ability to retrieve the brand from memory when given the product category, the needs fulfilled by the category, or a purchase or usage situation as a cue". Thus, instead of recognising the brand when coming across the brand for a second time, consumers have to think of the brand when they think of a certain product category or a certain need that needs to be fulfilled. Thus to achieve brand recall, consumers need to "generate" the brand from their memories in the correct way (Keller, 1993:3).

Brand awareness is a vital construct in marketing, due to its role in value creation (Aaker, 2009) and its influence on consumer decision-making (Lee, Knight & Kim, 2008; Keller, 1993). Since this study focuses on consumer decision-making, the influence on consumer decision-making is essential. Keller (1993) mentions three reasons why brand awareness is such an influential factor in consumer decision-making:

1) firstly, when consumers search for a certain product (category), brand awareness increases the possibility that the brand crosses their mind and therefore becomes an option for purchase;
2) secondly, brand awareness possibly influences the decisions about the brands that the consumer considers as a purchase option, even without for example a favourable attitude, it must be noted that this only applies to low involvement purchase decisions, which fashion is not; fashion (apparel) is widely recognised as a high involvement product category (Khare et al., 2011); and
3) thirdly, brand awareness is an essential ingredient for the brand associations that are in turn essential for the brands' image, which requires being established in the memory and mind of the consumer; at the moment there is enough brand awareness, and marketers can focus more on building the right brand image (Keller, 2013).

3.2.3.2 Brand image

Brand image is the second dimension of knowledge, and it is defined as the consumer's perception of the brand, and brand image has to do with how the brand is associated in the consumer's memory (Keller, 2013; Alimen & Guldem Cerit, 2010). Upadhyay (2016) describes brand image as the association of the brand in the consumer's mind, and includes the

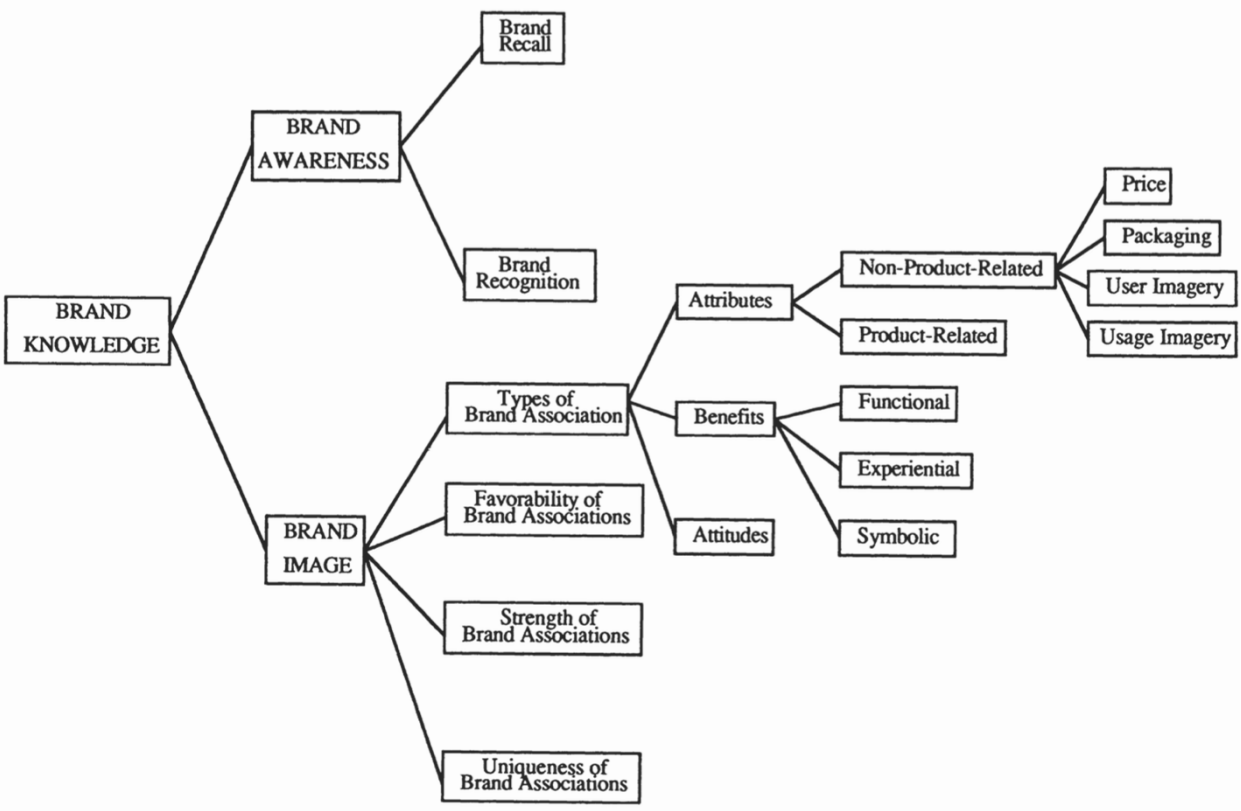
consumer's feelings and thoughts of the brand. Along with brand awareness, brand image plays a crucial role in consumer decision-making (Lee et al., 2008). The factors of favourability, strength, and uniqueness of those brand associations in the consumer's memory are the ones that create the differential effect (Keller, 1993). The brand associations in the consumer's memory thus need to be favourable, strong, and unique. Favourability implies that the consumer's evaluation of the product or brand is favourable in terms of the brand's attributes and benefits satisfying their need in order to create an overall positive attitude (Keller, 1993). The strength of the brand association concerns the strength in the consumer's memory, and can be both qualitative (i.e. the way the consumer thinks about the information) and quantitative (i.e. how often the consumer thinks about the information) (Keller, 1993). The last brand association is uniqueness, which is related to positioning, in other words the value proposition, the reason why consumers buy a brand (Keller, 1993). Uniqueness is formed by, for example, comparison with other brands (Keller, 1993). The favourability, strength, and uniqueness of a brand are important to the success of a brand due to their differential effect (i.e. superiority over other brands) (Keller, 1993).

3.2.3.3 Brand knowledge

Brand knowledge is an essential ingredient in creating brand equity, since brand equity is driven by the differential effect (Keller, 2013). Brand knowledge can be described as a shared knowledge that consumers have of a brand, resulting in mental associations (Högström, Gustafsson & Tronvol, 2015). Cazacu, Rotsios, and Moshonas (2014) identified that knowledge of a product plays a significant role in consumers' purchase intentions. In their study, knowledge was the variable that scored highest for its influence on the purchase intention, higher than attitude and subjective norm (Cazacu et al., 2014). Esch, Langner, Schmitt, and Geus (2006) established that brand knowledge, consisting of brand awareness and brand image, influences behavioural outcomes (in their study, brand knowledge was found to influence current purchase behaviour). The extensive model of brand knowledge (Keller, 1993), as provided below, briefly shows the components of brand knowledge, as well as how brand awareness and brand image are formed. As the image shows, brand knowledge is a complex variable, which consists of not only brand awareness and brand image, but how brand awareness and brand image are also formed from various brand associations and the consumers' abilities to recall and recognise the brand. This study will approach brand knowledge in its briefest form, as a combination of brand awareness and brand image, and will incorporate this

variable due to its influence on consumer behaviour (Cazacu et al., 2014; Esch et al., 2006), and the influence of its components–brand awareness and brand image–on consumer behaviour (Kakkos, Trivellas & Sdrolias, 2015; Shukla, 2011; Keller, 1993). Figure 3.4 presents an illustration of the Extensive Brand Knowledge Model as developed by Keller (1993).

Figure 3.4: Extensive Brand Knowledge Model



Source: Keller (1993)

3.2.3 Self-congruity Theory

The third theory that serves as a foundation for the development of the conceptual research model is the Self-congruity Theory. One of the main authors of self-congruity research is Joseph Sirgy, who developed the Self-congruity Theory in 1982, because at that time literature on the self-concept was not expansive. "The self-concept literature in consumer behaviour can be characterised as fragmented, incoherent, and highly diffuse" (Sirgy, 1982:287). Therefore, Sirgy (1982) upgraded the existing body of knowledge about the self-concept, by developing the Self-congruity Theory, which is illustrated below. This model serves as a foundation for the conceptual research model because it assumes that a congruent self-image and product's image results in a purchase motivation, as Table 3.1 illustrates.

Table 3.1: Self-congruity Theory

Self-image	Product-image	Result	Self-image / product-image congruity	Self-esteem motivation	Self-consistency motivation	Purchase motivation
Positive	Positive	→	Positive self-congruity	Approach	Approach	Approach purchase motivation
Negative	Positive	→	Positive self-incongruity	Approach	Avoidance	Conflict
Negative	Negative	→	Negative self-congruity	Avoidance	Approach	Conflict
Positive	Negative	→	Negative self-incongruity	Avoidance	Avoidance	Conflict

Source: Compiled by researcher, based on Sirgy (1982)

Table 3.1 shows that self-image and product-image, if congruent, will lead towards a purchase motivation, mediated by self-esteem and self-consistency. The congruity model is based on amount of (mis-)match between the product's image and the consumer's image (Sirgy, 1982). In sum, the Self-congruity Theory assumes that consumers choose brands that are congruent with their self-image; consumers choose brands that are a reflection of their self-image (Shin, Hancer & Song, 2016). Sirgy (1982:288) states that there is "ambiguity and confusion on the precise conceptualization of self-concept in consumer behaviour literature. A number of investigators have discussed self-concept as a single variable and have treated it as the actual self-concept, i.e. as the perception of oneself". Nowadays, self-congruity studies still suffer from multiple definitions of the self-concept (Claiborne & Sirgy, 2015).

3.2.3.1 Four 'selves'

Sirgy (1986) reached beyond self-concept and instead made a distinction between four self-congruency variations that influence consumer behaviour, namely the actual self, the ideal self, the social self, and the ideal social self. The actual and ideal self are private constructs, while the social self and the ideal social self are public constructs (Shin et al., 2016). Thus, there are multiple selves instead of one, depending on the context and situation an individual is in (Claiborne & Sirgy, 2015). Claiborne and Sirgy (2015) posit that the match between the product

image and the self-concept influences a consumer's attitude and consumer behaviour, and this match is referred to as self-image congruence. This applies for any of the four self-concepts. The first self is the actual self; the actual self-congruity model explains how the match between the consumer's actual self-image and the product image influences their attitude towards the product (Claiborne & Sirgy, 2015). The actual self deals with how the individual sees himself or herself (Claiborne & Sirgy, 2015; Sirgy, 1986). In contrast, the ideal self deals with how the individual would like to see him or herself, while the social self deals with how others see him or her, and as a consequence, the ideal social self is about how an individual would like others to see him or her (Claiborne & Sirgy, 2015; Sirgy, 1986).

As a result of these four selves, there are also four self-image congruity models: the actual self-congruity model; the ideal self-congruity model; the social self-congruity model; and the ideal social self-congruity model (Claiborne & Sirgy, 2015). Claiborne and Sirgy (2015) explain that the actual self-image and product-image mainly influences the attitude, while the ideal self-congruity, self-congruity, and ideal social self-congruity models influence and predict the consumers' attitudes and behaviours related to these self-images (Claiborne & Sirgy, 2015). Thus, the actual self explains the match between product and consumer, while self-congruity can predict consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour.

Thus, information about the consumer's self-concept can be useful in consumer attitude and in consumer decision-making studies (Sirgy, 1982), because both attitudes and intentions are largely determined by self-congruity (Sirgy, Johar, Samli & Claiborne, 1991). Therefore, the extent to which consumers feel a congruency between their self-image and the image of global fashion brands is expected to influence their attitude and purchase intention towards global fashion brands; self-congruity strongly influences purchase motivations (Sirgy, 1985). This study specifically adopts the actual self, due to its role in self-image congruence (Hee Kwak & Kang, 2009), and its role in attitude formation and behaviour (Claiborne & Sirgy, 2015). Since self-image is recognised as an increasingly important aspect of consumer behaviour, it is a valuable variable to add in the–sometimes referred to as calculative–TPB (Shin et al., 2016). Additionally, because it is widely acknowledged that fashion is a product category consumers use to express themselves in terms of self-image and self-concept (Vigolo & Ugolini, 2016), the Self-congruity Theory is a relevant underpinning for the conceptual research model, due to the context of the present study.

3.3 Empirical literature

This section elaborates on the conceptual research model's variables. The basis of consumer decision-making models originates from the Western world, and assumes that shopping consumers engage with certain decision-making models, under which rational shopping and consciousness with regards to brand, price, and quality (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011). But there is no universal instrument for beyond the borders of the Western world (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011). With regard to the consumer's mind-set (i.e. consumer perceptions, attitudes, and intentions) in emerging markets, there is still much to explore in terms of how marketers can influence this consumer mind-set (Pauwels et al., 2013). Findings regarding consumer attitudes and behaviour in developed markets may not hold the same weight in emerging markets, and thus the generalisability of such findings is questioned in different contexts (Pauwels et al., 2013). This study aims to identify those factors that determine the intentions of middle-class consumers towards global fashion brands in an emerging market, by providing a comprehensive conceptual model. The conceptual research model consists of the independent variables of ethnocentrism, price, brand knowledge (i.e. brand awareness and brand image), self-image, fashion involvement, and brand love. The variables that also play a mediating role are attitude and perceived quality, and the ultimate dependent variable is the consumer's purchase intention. This section elaborates on the variables within the conceptual research model.

3.3.1 Ethnocentrism

The first variable within the conceptual research model that is proposed to influence consumers' behavioural intentions is ethnocentrism. Ethnocentrism stems from 1987, but has become more relevant than ever before due to the economic crisis that revived consumer's ethnocentric tendencies at the expense of foreign brands and products (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2017). Since the economic crisis in 2008, protectionism and isolation increased around the world (Ding, 2017). Ethnocentrism has to do with the product's country of origin, and it is widely acknowledged that country of origin influences the consumers' purchase decisions (Lew & Sulaiman, 2014). Consumer ethnocentrism refers to the consumers' preference for domestic products and a certain prejudice against foreign products (Yelkur, Chakrabarty & Bandyopadhyay, 2006 in Akram et al., 2011). Another way to explain consumer ethnocentrism is from a developed perspective (i.e. developed market), where consumers favour products that

are manufactured in their home country or from a country with cultural similarities to their home country (Watson & Wright, 1999). The variable that explains this preference is consumer ethnocentrism (Watson & Wright, 1999), and it will be critical for global brand managers to conduct local market research to gain insight into consumer ethnocentrism towards global brands (Alden et al., 1999). Due to the negative influence of ethnocentrism on purchasing global (foreign) brands and products, it is an important construct for (international) marketers. Strizhakova and Coulter (2015) state that consumer ethnocentrism is a central element within consumer decision-making regarding local brands, and Sharma (2011) states that consumers with a high degree of ethnocentrism refuse to purchase foreign products. Because ethnocentrism is strongly related to consumption behaviour and willingness to buy foreign brands and products, it is an important variable for international marketing research.

A country's culture is a key environmental characteristic in rooting differences in behaviour, and culture strongly influences behavioural intentions. The failure to take cultural differences into account has resulted in many organisations' failure (Steenkamp, 2001). Cultural values influence consumption values, which determines the consumers' choice for consuming certain products (Park & Rabolt, 2009). Additionally, consumers' purchase intentions towards fashion apparel are affected by these cultural values (Rajagopal, 2011). Culture is a crucial concept to understand consumer behaviour, and could be seen as a society's personality (Solomon et al., 2012). Culture is defined as "the accumulation of shared meanings, rituals, norms, and traditions, among the members of an organisation or society" (Solomon et al., 2012:361). It has been stated that emerging markets are deeply affected by cultural aspects (Bressan & Signori, 2014), and therefore it is important to incorporate psychological values, such as ethnocentrism and attitudes. How to position your offering in other cultures is a strategic dilemma, since Western positioning strategies that worked and were viable in a Western context, might conflict with consumption norms in host countries due to different cultural values and lifestyles (Ferguson, Kofi & Johnston, 2008). This study aims to capture the values of black South African middle-class consumers with the constructs of consumer ethnocentrism and attitude.

It has been stated that consumers in less developed countries are more ethnocentric than consumers in developed markets (Akram et al., 2011). Steenkamp and De Jong's (2010) research findings concur with this assertion, and state that the effect of ethnocentrism is more present in traditional economies, and negatively influences the attitude towards global products.

However, Ramadania et al. (2015) state that the lack of availability of a domestic product positively influences the evaluation of a foreign product. Vadhanavisala (2015) mainly studied the antecedents of ethnocentrism, and conceptualised one consequence of ethnocentrism (i.e. the consumers' purchase intention towards local products), but multiple antecedents such as demographic factors (age, gender, income, and education) and socio-psychological factors (cultural openness, patriotism, conservatism, collectivism, animosity, cosmopolitanism, and xenophobia). As McKinsey's (2012) research highlighted, South African consumers are relatively conservative. Also, South Africa experienced xenophobia, with attacks on 'foreigners' in 2009 and 2015. Vadhanavisala (2015) found that demographic factors generally do not influence ethnocentrism, but that xenophobia is the most important influencer of ethnocentrism. This is in line with Altintas and Tokol (2007), who also found that xenophobia is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism. Additionally, Shankarmahesh, Ford, and LaTour (2004), who studied the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism, found that a history of oppression increases the degree of consumer ethnocentrism. This underlines that ethnocentrism is a construct with many antecedents that differ according to context, but the presence of factors such as xenophobia and a history of oppression in the context of the present study, make ethnocentrism to be a variable worthwhile to consider in this study.

Ethnocentric consumers view purchasing foreign goods as wrong because it hurts the domestic economy (Vadhanavisala, 2015). The relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intentions is widely acknowledged, but its influence reaches further. Ethnocentrism influences the perception towards global brands in various ways. Ethnocentrism influences the perceived quality, and it has been established that consumers who are ethnocentric, are less likely to purchase foreign goods (Akram et al., 2011). In a fashion context, consumer ethnocentrism influences consumer behaviour towards global and local fashion according to their degree of ethnocentrism. Cleveland et al. (2009) state that consumer ethnocentrism positively influences consumer behaviour towards traditional clothing items, and negatively influences consumer behaviour towards global clothing. A low degree of ethnocentrism is thus related to wearing global fashion clothing (Cleveland et al., 2009).

In addition, the negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards non-domestic products is acknowledged, but has barely been studied in an African context

(John & Brady, 2011). As Sharma (2011) mentions, levels of ethnocentrism are not necessarily equal among a country, but rather they differ between the different social layers; the degree of ethnocentrism differs among consumers, and is dependent upon their degree of wealth, or to what extent they have or have not benefited from globalisation. Kamwendo et al. (2014) carried out one of the few South Africa studies on attitude towards foreign products and ethnocentrism, and calls for more representative samples. The study found that race influences ethnocentrism and the attitude towards foreign convenience goods; ethnocentrism was significantly higher among black South Africans than among coloureds, Indians, and whites (Kamwendo et al., 2014). It was found that black South Africans have a strong preference for local brands, and that imports should be limited to those products that not available in South Africa (Kamwendo et al., 2014). Another of the few South African studies incorporating ethnocentrism, is Haefner et al.'s (2016) study, which found that contrary to previous research, ethnocentric beliefs do not influence the preference of South African consumers for local brands in comparison to global brands. Heafner et al. (2016) also call for more research, due to the contradictory findings.

Due to South Africa's conservatism, the xenophobic events in its recent history, and history of oppression (i.e. all factors that contribute to ethnocentric tendencies), ethnocentrism is an important factor to take into account in the context of this research. In line with previous findings, this study adopts the proposition that consumer ethnocentrism directly negatively influences the purchase intention towards global products (Lew & Sulaiman, 2014), and the attitude towards global products (John & Brady, 2011; Steenkamp & De Jong, 2010).

3.3.2 Price

Price is a very sensitive variable in marketing that influences both sales and profitability, and is also apparent in the apparel sector (Miotto & Parente, 2015). Zeithaml (1988:10) defines the 'price' from a consumer perspective as "what is given up or sacrificed to obtain a product". Lee and Yun (2015:262) define 'price' as follows: "price is a monetary sacrifice needed to make a purchase". Zeithaml (1988) and Lee and Yun's (2015) definitions both assert that price is the sacrifice needed to purchase or obtain the product, although Lee and Yun (2015) specifically mention that this sacrifice is monetary. Therefore, this study will adopt Lee and Yun's (2015) definition.

Price is an important construct in marketing literature, especially in the context of the present study, since products in African markets need to meet the needs of highly value-conscious (McKinsey, 2012) and price-sensitive consumers (McKinsey, 2014). Burgess and Steenkamp (2006) state that one way to enable competition in emerging markets is to focus on serving the needs of the mass market segments, which presents the challenge of extreme price sensitivity and a resource-constrained mass market, while still being able to remain profitable. The high degree of price sensitivity is caused by the relatively low incomes (Batra, 1999) of consumers. In the case of South Africa, consumers seek for value-for-money offerings across consumer markets (Euromonitor International, 2015). A competitive price in an emerging market does not only imply a low price, but additionally has to do with perceived value (Batra, 1999); the value proposition of a product is thus very important to consumers (Beneke & Carter, 2015). Winit et al. (2014) propose that from a consumer's perspective, price consists of a certain price range that the consumer is willing to pay, which falls between a lower standard (for example, for quality reasons) and a higher threshold (for example, poor value for money), and that there is a certain flexibility within that price range. In the context of an emerging market, Delong, Bao, Wu, and Li (2004) found that despite the fact that Chinese consumers evaluate apparel brands from the United States more positively than Chinese apparel brands (on factors such as brand image, innovative design), Chinese consumers were more satisfied with the pricing of the Chinese apparel brands. Delong et al. (2004) concluded that the price/income ratio for apparel products requires attention.

The influence of pricing (Lew & Sulaiman, 2014) and price (Ashill & Sinha, 2004) on purchase intentions is therefore not surprising, where in emerging markets especially, the price might play a significant role. Sarkar (2014) states that consumers in emerging markets are price-sensitive, and a cost-benefit analysis plays an important role. McKinsey (2012) found that for African consumers, price is very important with regard to shop choice and for a specific item purchase, that the price sensitivity is high, and that 49% of consumers base their apparel choice on price and promotion. Thus, affordability is critical (Euromonitor International, 2014; McKinsey, 2012). In addition, only 25% of Sub-Saharan Africans are willing to pay a premium price for well-known clothing brands, in contrast to 45% of North Africans. Surprisingly, price is a largely overlooked construct (Winit et al., 2014). Many international studies have focused on the marketing mix, but price has been ignored, even though it is an important construct in

consumer decision-making (Winit et al., 2014), and thus in studies regarding consumer behaviour. In price-sensitive markets especially, price cannot be overlooked.

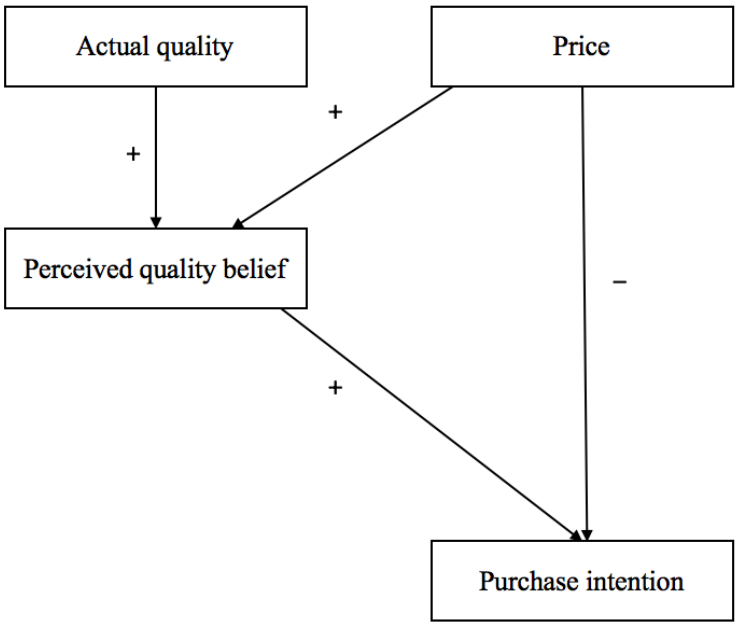
Purchase intentions are sometimes influenced by the recognised value (Das, 2014; Zeithaml, 1988), and value for money (Kakkos, Trivellas & Sdrolias, 2015). Many studies have highlighted the importance of perceived value in the consumers' decision-making process, which is seen as one of the most critical determinants of consumers' purchase intentions (Beneke & Carter, 2015). In some studies, perceived price is incorporated instead of actual price. The perceived price links to the 'reasonability' of the pricing, more than to the exact actual price, and captures the extent to which the consumer perceives the price as being right for the product or value for money, which can differ among consumers (Beneke & Zimmerman, 2014). Perceived price is a construct located between the perceived value and the actual price.

Additionally, price is a relative variable; the price of a brand compared to its competitor's price is therefore highly important (Miotto & Parente, 2015). Therefore, the price of global brands compared to their local counterparts should be taken into consideration when positioning a brand. Miotto and Parente (2015) argue that in the apparel sector, the' big middle' (i.e. not the cheapest brands and not the luxury brands, but the brands in between cheap and luxury, the mid-market) requires a competitive price. In their study eco-friendly apparel in South Africa, Sonnenberg, Jacobs, and Momberg (2014) found that price was a critical determinant in the purchase decision, and that the sampled South African consumers largely make their choices based on price. Bennur and Jin's (2013) study resulted in similar findings; they found that the must-have attributes for apparel varied among countries. For American consumers, quality was found to be a minimal requirement, while for Indian consumers, although the price is a minimal requirement, if an item is not affordable and reasonable, Indian consumers will not even consider the product (Bennur & Jin, 2013). A possible explanation of this difference is that India is a developing country, and consumers might have resource constraints (Bennur & Jin, 2013). This scenario would not be unthinkable in a South African context, where resource constraints are a widely seen phenomenon.

Thus, price is important for consumer decision-making and consumer behaviour, especially in emerging markets; but price is also related to perceived quality. The relationship between price and quality can be approached according to the price-quality heuristic. The price-quality

heuristic can be summarised in the following statement "consumers use as a rule of thumb that high prices indicate higher quality" (Kirchler, Fischer & Hölzl, 2010:275). As shown in the price-quality heuristic illustration in Figure 3.5, the price-quality heuristic assumes that a higher price is–in the mind of the consumer–related to higher product quality (Lee, 2013; Kirchler et al., 2010). In other words, there is a positive relationship between price and quality, and price is therefore a cue that consumers use to assess quality (Gneezy, Gneezy & Lauga, 2014).

Figure 3.5. The price – quality heuristic



Source: Compiled by researcher, based on Lee (2013)

As Figure 3.5 shows, a high price is negatively related to the purchase intention directly, and positively to the perceived quality of the product, and therefore, price serves as a proxy for quality. The price-quality heuristic in sum consists of price and quality related propositions; a high price directly negatively influences the purchase intention, but in the mean time this high price (together with a high actual quality) positively influences the perceived quality, which in turn positively influences the purchase intention. But recent studies showed that different results are possible, for example the studies of Beneke and Zimmerman (2014) and Beristain and Zorilla (2011). Beneke and Zimmerman (2014) stated that the price perception positively influences the purchase intention. Additionally, while initially proposed as a negative relationship by Beristain and Zorilla (2011), they found that a positive price perception also positively influences the perceived quality. In other words, a positive price perception

positively influences both the purchase intention and the perceived quality in the context of their study.

This study will incorporate price perception, which, according to Beneke and Zimmerman (2014), links more to the 'reasonability' of pricing, and will incorporate price in a way that a high price negatively influences the purchase intention towards global fashion brands, and that a positive price perception (for example, affordable and reasonable) positively influences the purchase intention. Also, due to Beneke and Zimmerman (2014) and Beristain and Zorilla's (2011) findings, this study also proposes a positive relationship between price and perceived quality. Due to the context of this study (i.e. global fashion brands in an emerging market), the price sensitivity of the market, the lack of research on price, and the relationship between price and quality, it is important to take price into account in the present study. This study will measure the influence of price on the purchase intention, and the influence of price on the perceived quality of global fashion brands.

3.3.3 Brand knowledge

Brands play an important role in Africans' purchase decisions (McKinsey, 2012), and are a critical element in an organisation's international marketing strategy, since they enable organisations to leverage their strong brands into other markets, assimilate acquired brands, and rationalise the international branding strategy of an organisation (Douglas & Craig, 2013). Because brands enable organisations to leverage their strong brands into other markets, this study adopts the components of brand knowledge in its conceptual model. According to Cazacu et al. (2014), knowledge occupies an important place in investigating consumer behaviour, including behavioural intentions such as purchase intentions. As mentioned in the theoretical grounding, brand knowledge consists of two components: brand awareness; and brand image (Keller, 2013). Högström et al. (2015) describe brand knowledge as a result or consequence of brand awareness and brand image. Therefore, in this study brand knowledge is a variable consisting of both brand awareness and brand image. Brand knowledge is part of one of the two brand equity approaches; brand equity can be used as a financial measure, and it can also be approached from a consumer's perspective (i.e. consumer-based brand equity), based on the influence of brand knowledge on how the consumer reacts to the brand's marketing actions (Keller, 2013; Alimen & Guldem Cerit, 2010).

Brand knowledge is important because it is the key to creating brand equity due to its differential effect (the main driver of brand equity is differentiation), and additionally it is important for marketers to know how brand knowledge exists in the consumer's mind (Keller, 2013). The idea behind brand knowledge is that the brand exists in the consumers' minds by brand associations in their minds, and by gaining knowledge about the brand (Ebrahim, Ghoneim, Irani & Fan, 2016). Consumers with lack of brand knowledge are not able to differentiate between brands (Delong et al., 2004), and brand knowledge therefore important in consumer decision-making. Several studies underpin the importance of brand knowledge for purchase intentions, as well as the importance of its components–brand image and brand awareness–on purchase intentions. For example, Sasmita and Suki (2015) found that brand awareness plays a great part in forming brand equity, resulting in purchase decisions. They found that the purchase decisions regarding a brand depend on product awareness or brand knowledge (Sasmita & Suki, 2015). Brand awareness was the key variable in Sasmita and Suki's (2015) model, and was strongest in its effect on brand equity, followed by brand image. Alimen and Guldem Cerit (2010) focused on international fashion brands in an emerging market (Turkey), and found that brand knowledge is a critical component in reaching the target market. Regarding the brand knowledge's individual components, in their study on the brand equity of global sportswear brands, Frank and Watchravesringkan (2016) found that both brand image and brand awareness significantly influence the formation of brand attitude. Das (2015) focused on the influence of brand familiarity on purchase intentions, which he conceptualised as previous experience with the brand and its image and use. He found that for fashion retail (i.e. clothing and accessories), brand familiarity significantly influences purchase intentions. In an Indian context, Bhardwaj, Kumar, and Kim (2010) propose that Indian consumers have more awareness and have a more positive brand image of an American brand than a local brand. Their study of 411 students in Mumbai, India, found evidence that consumers have greater awareness and a higher brand image for the American apparel brand than for the local apparel brand (Bhardwaj et al., 2010). This stresses the importance of taking awareness and image into account, since previous research seems to suggest that image and awareness, and familiarity, have a significant effect on consumer decision-making, and that global brands enjoy greater awareness and a more positive brand image.

In sum, this study conceptualises brand knowledge as a function of brand awareness and brand image, in line with Alimen and Guldem Cerit (2010) who state that fashion brand knowledge

consists of both fashion brand awareness and fashion brand image. Rehman and Kausar (2016) also state that brand awareness and brand image are the two main concepts that together form brand knowledge. Högström et al. (2016) see brand knowledge as the outcome of brand awareness and brand image, and Esch et al. (2006) also recognise brand awareness and brand image as two different kinds of brand knowledge, and link them to behavioural outcomes. By contrast, Bhardwaj et al. (2010) use the general brand impression construct, consisting of brand awareness and brand image, to measure the impression of global versus local brands. Additionally, Lee et al. (2008) do not talk about brand knowledge, but mention general brand impression as being reflected by both brand awareness and brand image, in order to understand the consumer's perception towards global versus local brands. Thus, although given different names (i.e. brand knowledge, general brand impression), brand awareness and brand image go hand in hand and relate to consumer behaviour. The following two sections will elaborate on these two components of brand knowledge; brand awareness will be described in depth, followed by brand image. Because brand awareness comes before brand image, brand awareness will be described first. Only when there is a certain level of brand awareness, only then can more emphasis be placed on brand image (Keller, 2013).

3.3.3.1 Brand awareness

Brand awareness plays an important role in developing marketing strategies (Radder & Huang, 2008). Brand awareness is related to the strength of the brand in the consumer's memory, in other words, it reflects the consumer's ability to identify the brand under different conditions (Keller, 2013). 'Brand awareness' is defined as the consumer's ability to recognise and recall a brand, and influences the formation and strength of the associations of the brand, which make up the brand image (Keller, 2013).

Brand awareness consists of brand recognition and brand recall, as illustrated in the illustration of brand knowledge. The aspects of brand awareness, brand recognition, and brand recall, are defined according to Keller (2013). 'Brand recognition' is defined as "consumers' ability to confirm prior exposure to the brand when given the brand as a cue" (Keller, 2013:74). 'Brand recall' is defined as the "consumers' ability to retrieve the brand from memory when given the product category, the needs fulfilled by the category, or a purchase or usage situation as a cue" (Keller, 2013:74). When these concepts are applied in a fashion context, brand recognition would be that consumers identify Zara in the Sandton Shopping Mall for example, and brand

recall would mean that they think about Zara when they think about clothing or when they are in need of a new clothing item. Brand recall and brand recognition are important during different stages of the purchase process; recognition is more important when the consumer decision is made in the store, and when consumer decisions are not physically made in store, then recall is more important (Keller, 2013).

Brand awareness is created when consumers learn about the brand, for example by experiencing the brand during different engagements with the brand (Rehman & Kausar, 2016). In other words, the greater the brand awareness, the more familiar the consumer is with the brand, and the greater the intention to buy or purchase the brand (Kakkos et al., 2015). The role of brand familiarity is also widely recognised in marketing literature (Dawar & Lei, 2009); consumers prefer to buy a brand that is well established and familiar to them (Wang & Yang, 2010). Due to its effect on purchase intentions, brand awareness is an important variable within marketing research. Keller (2013) explains that one of the benefits of brand awareness is the consumer's purchase motivation; the differential effect from the consumer's perspective is needed to motivate consumers in their decision-making. Radder and Huang (2008) explain that brand awareness is the first step towards behavioural intentions. Another benefit of brand awareness is the consumer's purchase ability; consumers sometimes lack knowledge to judge the quality of the product, and in an ambiguous situation consumers use heuristics to make their decision easier, and they might choose the brand that they are aware of or familiar with (Keller, 2013).

Brand awareness and brand familiarity are related, and sometimes seem to be interchangeably used. Dew and Kwon (2009) state that before consumers perceives themselves to be familiar with a brand, they initially need to be aware of the brand. The consumers' familiarity with a certain product or brand influences their adoption of a new product (Li & Lin, 2015), and additionally, the greater the consumers' experience of foreign brands, the less influential factors such as consumer ethnocentrism becomes (i.e. the preference for local products and prejudice of non-local products) (Rearden et al., 2005). Familiarity with a brand is seen as an influential factor on the perceived quality (Beneke & Carter, 2015), and Nguyen, Barrett, and Miller (2011) state that awareness contributes to perceived quality and brand loyalty, and the consumers' attitude (Laroche, Kim & Zhou, 1996). Thus, brand awareness not only influences the purchase intention (Shukla, 2011; Chi, Yeh & Yang, 2009; Esch et al., 2006; Aaker, 1990, in Das, 2014), but it also influences the perceived quality (Beneke & Carter, 2015; Nguyen et

al., 2011; Chi et al., 2009) and attitude (Maloney, Lee, Jackson & Miller-Spillman (2014); Laroche et al., 1996). In their study, Maloney et al. (2014) found that awareness is a determinant of the positive or negative attitude towards purchasing organic apparel. And in a South African clothing context, Radder and Huang's (2008) study on purchase intentions towards sportswear clothing (a high involvement product category) and coffee (a low involvement product category), found that brand awareness is important in consumers' decision-making process. But there are contrary results in terms of whether local or global brands enjoy greater awareness. In the emerging economy of India, Bhardwaj et al. (2010) found that consumers in emerging markets have more brand awareness of global apparel brands than of they do of local apparel brands. Contrary, Akram et al. (2011) state that local brands in emerging markets enjoy a higher level of awareness. A practical example comes from Zara where Venter's (2015) study among 500 black middle-class females revealed that Zara was the favourite store for 4% of the respondents (in comparison to Woolworths, which was the favourite store for 44% of the respondents), and Haefner et al. (2016) found that Zara–among the 10 global brands in their study–enjoyed the second least awareness. This shows that even though Zara is one of the major global fast fashion players, awareness among South African consumers is still relatively low, and additionally the brand enjoys low favourability. Simultaneously, worldwide, Forbes (2015a) cites Zara as the leader in fast fashion, and Zara occupies the 53rd place in world in the most valuable brands category (Forbes, 2016), which makes the worldwide popularity of Zara undeniable. It is clear that worldwide popularity does not necessarily means that consumers in emerging markets are also aware of well-known brands. Therefore, brand awareness is an important variable within the context of the present study. This study proposes that, as part of the brand knowledge construct, brand awareness influences the perceived quality, attitude, and ultimately the purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

In the case of this topic of study, the existence of online communities might be advantageous to global brands. Kardes (2016) states that middle-class consumers in emerging markets are aware of the 'Western lifestyle' due to various media. Social platforms such as Instagram allow consumers to become familiar with a product before the physical product is available in the consumer's country or region (for instance, outside the major cities), and online communities might create certain awareness and desire for a brand or product before it is directly available to the consumer.

3.3.3.2 Brand image

The second main concept of brand knowledge is brand image, which deals with the different brand associations (Alimen & Guldem Cerit, 2010). The image of a brand is defined as the consumers' perception about the brand, reflected by the consumers' mental association to the brand (Keller, 2013). According to the dimension of brand knowledge, brand image consists of the brand associations: the types of brand associations (attributes, benefits, attitudes); the favourability of these brand associations; the strength of the brand associations; and finally, the uniqueness of the brand associations (Keller, 1993). In sum, the associations need to be strong, favourable, and unique, and they are built on attributes and benefits (Keller, 2013). Product attributes are defined as "those descriptive features that characterize a product or service", and brand benefits are defined as "the personal value and meaning that consumers attach to the product or service attributes" (Keller, 2013:77).

Brand image is an important concept in marketing, and is a vitally important aspect of a brand (Keller, 2013). The effect of brand image is especially important in markets where it is difficult to differentiate products based on tangible features (Mudambi et al., 1997, in Chen, 2010); where brands do compete with similar product or brand categories it is important to distinguish between them (Erdil, 2015). Jin and Cedrola (2016) state that intangible assets such as brand image–in contrast to tangible assets–are critical; intangible assets such as brand image are critical for fashion brands to differentiate between when they expand beyond their domestic borders and internationalise. Additionally, the image that consumers in emerging markets have of foreign brands tends to be favourable; consumers in emerging markets have a more positive brand image of foreign brands than they do of local brands (Bhardwaj et al., 2010). Thus, for this study, brand image is important due to its ability to differentiate in new or different markets, and due to its influence on purchase intentions, attitudes, and perceived quality. But brand image also carries a risk; a standardised brand image may not fit with the cultural values of all countries (Park & Rabolt, 2009). Consumers purchase brands that possess the same or complementary images as their self-image (Hosany & Martin, 2012), which may differ in various cultural contexts.

The role of brand image on purchase intentions is widely recognised in literature, Islam, Rahman, and Hossain (2014) found that brand image plays an important role in female buying

behaviour towards fashion apparel, and argue that a desirable brand image is an essential ingredient in building effective and meaningful campaigns for fashion apparel in a global and intensely competitive apparel market. Esch et al. (2006) found that brand image has more influence on consumers' future purchase intentions than does brand awareness or familiarity with the brand. Brand image also influences consumers' attitudes towards the brand (Homer, 2008). Chung, Pysarchik, and Hwang (2009) did a study on the influence of country of manufacture and brand image on consumers' attitude and their purchase intention. They found that in a clothing context (sweaters), brand image influences the attitude and purchase intention (Chung et al., 2009). In a store context, Beneke et al. (2015) and Boa et al. (2011) found that the image of the store strongly influences the perceived quality of the store and the brands sold within the store. Thus, there is a suggested relationship between image and perceived quality in different settings.

However, the available literature is not fully consistent. In contrast to the proposed linkages and their conceptual models, Esch et al. (2006) found that while brand image does influence brand knowledge, it does not directly influence the future purchase intention. For example, Yagoi (2001, in Haque et al. 2015) found that brand image plays a key role in perceived quality, and in purchase intentions. In contrast, Ece, Yeee, and Walmala (2012, in Haque et al., 2015) found that consumers do not base their purchase intention on the brand's image. Due to the widely studied and acknowledged relationship between brand image and purchase intention in previous literature, this study adopts the assumption that brand image does influence the purchase intention. Brand image is used in this study because of its influence on the purchase intention, its role in markets where it is difficult to differentiate only on tangible features, such as fashion (i.e. where other factors than tangible benefits of a product might play a role), and because previous research has found that brand image plays a role in purchase intentions. Although research outcomes on brand knowledge are not fully consistent, several studies suggest that brand image influences purchase intentions and attitudes, and a few studies have found evidence of the link between brand image and perceived quality. Also, consumers in emerging markets are reported to have a favourable brand image of foreign brands as opposed to local brands.

Due to the acknowledged importance of brand knowledge and its components of brand awareness and brand image on consumer behaviour (Kakkos et al., 2015; Radder & Huang,

2008; Lee et al., 2008;), this study will investigate the relationship between brand knowledge and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Additionally, the relationships between brand knowledge and the attitude towards global fashion brands and the perceived quality of global fashion brands will be investigated, since brand awareness and brand image have been found to influence attitude, perceived quality, and the purchase intention.

3.3.4 Self-image

The time when consumers purchased products and brands merely for their functional usage is long past. It is acknowledged that consumers recognise brands as an instrument with which to create their social identity (Wolter, Brach, Cronin Jr. & Bonn, 2016), and that brands play a significant role in shaping consumers' identities (Huber, Meyer & Schmid, 2015). An increasingly important source of brand value has become the relationship between the brand and the consumers' self-identity (Xie et al., 2015), which is also sometimes referred to as self-congruity. Self-congruity between the consumer and the brand implies congruity between the consumers' self-image and the product's image (Isa, Saud & Ismail, 2015). Sirgy (1982) defines 'self-concept' as the sum of a person's thoughts and feelings about themselves. Summarised, the self-congruence theory states that consumers purchase products that are aligned with their self-concept (Sirgy, 1985; Sirgy, 1982).

But there are different conceptualisations of the self. To have a clear understanding of self-image, the different conceptualisations should be discussed. Sirgy (1986) made a differentiation between four self-congruency types that influence behaviour: the actual self; the ideal self; the social self; and the ideal social self. Jamal and Goode (2001:483) describe the different conceptualisations (based on Sirgy, 1986) of the self-concepts in more depth:

- the actual self is how an individual sees themself;
- the ideal self is how an individual would like to see themself;
- the social self is how an individual feels others see them; and
- the ideal social self. How an individual would like others to see them.

Rageh Ismail and Spinelli (2012) refer to the importance of the match between the (fashion) brand's personality and the consumer's personality, also referred to as self-congruency. The Self-congruity Theory states that there is a relationship between the 'personality congruence' (i.e. the self of the consumer and the product's image) and the consumers' choice (Sirgy, 1982).

Although the relationship between the consumers' self-identity and the brand is an increasingly important source of brand value, this has not been studied systematically in research on local versus global brands (Xie et al., 2015). Xie et al. (2015) found that brand identity expressiveness greatly influences behavioural intentions, but this influence might differ in different cultural contexts, which deserves more research. In addition, consumers can have a more local or a more global identity, which influences their behaviour. The role of identity will become more important, and therefore a better understanding of local and global identity and consumers' personality will be beneficial for marketers (Westjohn et al., 2012). There is a need to acquire more information about how local and global products form part of the local or global culture, and as a result how managers can use that information to position their brands in the markets (Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010).

Therefore, branding research stresses the role that brands play in consumers' identities (Bartsch, Diamantopoulos, Paparoidamis & Chumpitaz, 2016). Nowadays consumers not only use products for their purpose, but also use them to express their identity, and to express themselves within society (Lannon, 1995 in Veloutsou & Moutinho, 2009). Brands and products are symbols that have a certain 'social meaning' (Levy, 1959, in Matzler, Pichler, Füller & Mooradian, 2011). They enable consumers to express their identity (Matzler et al., 2011). In other words, brands and products contribute firstly to the 'sense of self' of the consumer, and secondly to express and communicate that self-image to others (Matzler et al., 2011). But despite the importance of self-image, research is still limited; self-congruence models of attitudes and behaviours are used to a limited degree, despite the research already carried out (Claiborne & Sirgy, 2015).

Self-congruity between the consumer and the brand implies congruity between the consumers' self-image and the product's image, which motivates purchases, and can be a tool to predict purchase intentions towards products (Isa et al., 2015). The consumers' lifestyles greatly influence and affect their behaviour, and consumers utilise brands to express their identity, to show the kind of people they are, and the desired images of their lifestyles (Catalin & Andreea, 2014). As mentioned earlier, brands are used to differentiate the products of one manufacturer from another manufacturer, and thus serve a major function of differentiation. But the function of differentiation goes further, since "brands can be used to create a unique social identity for a consumer" (Catalin & Andreea, 2014:106). There is a connection between the brand and the

consumers' identity (Veloutsou & Moutinho, 2009). Catalin and Andreea (2014) found that consumers express their social identity by means of brands, and brands hereby serve as a tool to create the consumers' unique social identity.

Thus, consumers attempt to express their self-identity by using certain brands and products (He & Wang, 2015). Xie et al. (2015:67) found that the extent to which a brand expresses someone's identity, "brand identity expressiveness", directly and strongly influences this person's behavioural intentions, and Lee and Lee (2015) found that the brand's self-congruity influences the purchase intention. This is consistent with other literature that states that self-social identity plays a big role in behavioural intentions. In line with the findings for brands is the function of clothing, since clothing is seen as an important tool to express identity (Giridhar, Joshi & Sadarangani, 2015). There is a relationship between clothing and consumer identity, and fashion hereby enables consumers to express their identities by how they dress (Rajagopal, 2011). Because brands serve a purpose of differentiation, which is related to the consumers' social identity, consumers prefer brands that fit their so-called perceived ideal identity, and reject brands that do not fit that ideal identity (Catalin & Andreea, 2014). Consumers thus choose a brand that fits with their self-image, and seek to reflect that identity by means of a certain product or brand choice (Catalin & Andreea, 2014), or in other words, consumers purchase brands that match their self-concept (Khare & Rakesh, 2010). To take it a step further, fashion clothing is related to someone's self-image, and it even may enable people to upgrade their self-image (Khare et al., 2011). Islam and Rahman (2016) add that consumers are most likely to be connected with fashion apparel brands that express their self-image and ideal self-image, which results in consumer loyalty towards a brand. Additionally, in the context of fashion clothing and accessories in the emerging economy of India, Das (2015) found that self-congruity between the self-image and the imagery of the 'average brand user' positively influences the purchase intention.

Due to globalisation, people are more aware of different cultures around the world, and they therefore develop a self-concept that is based on themselves in relation to the rest of the world (Westjohn et al., 2012). The role of their identity will become more important, and a better understanding of local or global identity and consumer personality can be beneficial for marketers (Westjohn et al., 2012). Local or global identity implies that consumers with a local identity perceive local products to be more attractive, and consumers with a global identity

perceive global products to be more attractive (Tu et al., 2012). More extensively, a local identity means that consumers "have faith in and respect for local traditions and customs, recognize the uniqueness of local communities and are interested in local events", while consumers with a global identity "believe in the positive effects of globalisation, recognize the commonalities rather than dissimilarities among people around the world and are interested in global events" (Tu et al., 2012:36). Additionally, social-class is also important, while in emerging economies the elite turn away from local products, in self-expression societies the elite turn specifically towards local products.

The relationship between the self-concept and brands is increasingly recognised (Khare & Rakesh, 2010), and self-congruity is found to positively influence purchase intentions towards fashion brands (Das, 2015), the concept of self-image is therefore important to take into account for this study. In line with Jamal and Goode (2001) who used the actual self in their research, this study also adopts the actual self. Firstly, due to the role of the actual self in self-image congruence. Hee Kwak and Kang (2009) found that although the ideal self and the actual self play an important role in self-image congruence, the role of the actual self is bigger in the self-image congruence formation. And secondly, because of the influence of the actual self in attitude formation. Claiborne and Sirgy (2015) state that the actual self-image concerns a match between the consumer's self-image and the product, and this match explains the influence on attitudes towards products. The relationship between identity and intention is increasingly seen as a valuable predictor in the TPB (Yazdanpanah & Forouzani, 2015). Thus, this study investigates the relationship between the consumers' self-image and the purchase intention towards global brands, due to the relationship between the self and brands, and the self-identity as a predictor towards behaviour (Yazdanpanah & Forouzani, 2015). Therefore, this study proposes that the consumers' self-image will influence their purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

3.3.5 Fashion involvement

Involvement is an important concept in explaining consumer behaviour (O'Cass & Choy, 2008), and is considered to be one of the most important variables in consumer behaviour research (Kim, Kim & Park, 2010). There are many different definitions of 'involvement'. Zaichkowsky (1985) was one of the first authors of involvement research, and he describes product involvement as the perceived personal relevance of the product, based on needs, values,

and interests. Goldsmith, Flynn, and Clark (2012:106) define 'product involvement' as "interest in and enthusiasm for a product category". These two definitions have much in common, although the definition of Zaichkowsky (1985) is much broader, O'Cass (2004) adds to the definition by stating that involvement concerns the interaction between object and consumer.
Involvement is an important variable in marketing research due to its influence in consumer-decision-making and purchase behaviour. Belleau, Haney, Summers, Xu, and Garrison (2008) state that involvement is significant in marketing because variables such as involvement provide insight into the connection or relationship between consumers and goods, which is important in the development of marketing strategies. A consumer's involvement is linked to multiple aspects in their decision-making and consumption, and consumers' decision-making differs according to their different levels of involvement (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012); involvement plays a role in what consumers want to own or possess (Belleau et al., 2008). Therefore, product involvement is a useful tool to study behavioural tendencies; different product categories enjoy different involvement dimensions and different consumer responses (Kim, 2005). Product involvement in apparel categories can be referred to as fashion involvement (Kim, 2005), and the extent to which a consumer is involved in fashion (whether strong or weak) can influence the consumer's choices in the marketplace of all types of products (Belleau, Summers, Xu & Pinel, 2007). Thus, fashion involvement is one category within product involvement, and this variable measures how important fashion clothing is for consumers and may explain fashion decision-making and consumption (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012). Fashion involvement is defined by O'Cass (2004:870) as "the extent to which a consumer views the related fashion activities as a central part of their life", and the more important fashion is for the consumer, the higher his or her degree of fashion involvement (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012). Joo Park, Young Kim & Forney (2006:436) define 'fashion involvement' as follows: "fashion involvement refers to the extent of interest with the fashion product category". Fashion involvement is relevant for the consumer's 'self', and has to do with the consumer's interest in showing his or her 'self' to the world (Goldsmith et al., 2012; Khare et al., 2012).

Ogle, Hyllegard, Yan, and Littrell (2014) found that fashion clothing involvement differs between different consumer categories, and that a high degree of fashion clothing involvement implies that fashion clothing is very important to consumers' sense of self (O'Cass, 2000, in Ogle et al., 2014). Apparel is a product category that likely enjoys a high degree of involvement

(Kim, 2009), and there is a relationship between the consumer's fashion involvement and the consumer's consumption of fashion, which results in higher value for retailers in terms of fashion purchases (Pentecost & Andrews, 2010), and results in an increase of fashion-related impulse buying (Park et al., 2006). The role of fashion involvement in consumer decision-making is widely acknowledged (Khare, 2014). Thus, fashion involvement has several consequences, namely highly fashion involved consumers have more fashion knowledge, are more confident in fashion shopping (i.e. buying the right product), spend more time on shopping, and are committed to fashion (Afonso Vieira, 2009). Sullivan and Heitmeiyer (2008) state that according to previous literature, apparel involvement influences purchase behaviour; purchase decisions are seen as a result of fashion involvement (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012).

Fashion involvement has been found to influence attitude (Zhang & Kim, 2013), and consumers' attitudes towards local and global brands is hereby largely influenced by their degree of fashion involvement (Shim et al., 1989, in Zhang & Kim, 2013). However, the knowledge regarding outcomes of fashion involvement is incomprehensive. Researchers such as O'Cass (2004) and Hourigan and Bougoure (2012) mainly focused on the antecedents of fashion involvement, and this was limited to the outcomes. Teng and Lu (2016) state that involvement is important for purchase intentions; when a person is highly involved in the product, their willingness to buy that product increases, and they found strong evidence for the positive influence of involvement on purchase intention. However, results on the influence of involvement on purchase intentions are contrary. Bachleda, Fakhar, and Elouazzani (2016) state that some studies have found evidence for the influence of involvement on purchase intentions, while other studies have not found evidence for such a relationship.

Despite the somewhat contrary results, this study, in line with Khare and Rakesh (2010), proposes that fashion clothing involvement influences the purchase intention. Additionally, Hourigan and Bougoure (2012) and Sullivan and Heitmeiyer (2008) suggest that there is a relationship between fashion or apparel involvement and the purchase intention towards fashion apparel. Therefore, due to the often recognised positive relationship between fashion involvement and the purchase intention towards fashion apparel, this study proposes that consumers with a higher degree of fashion involvement have a greater purchase intention towards global fashion-branded apparel.

3.3.6 Brand love

Brand love is a relatively new marketing variable (Unal & Aydin, 2013). Although brand love has not received much attention in research to date, interest in this relatively new marketing variable is increasing (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010). The definitions of brand love differ, but all follow the same school of thought, namely that emotional attachment is always incorporated into the definition. Carroll and Ahuvia (2006:81) define 'brand love; as "the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular brand name". Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010) define 'brand love' as the deeply felt affection for a brand. Albert et al. (2008) state that brand love can be described as a psychological state, which is superior to friendship. But brand love is not entirely irrational, instead it is a combination of a rational and an irrational state (Sarkar, 2014).

Brand love has only recently been introduced as a construct into consumer behaviour (Albert et al., 2008), and the influence of love has been found to be important in consumer behaviour and consumer identity (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Brand love originates from an emotional attachment; brand love is one concept of emotional attachment (Kang, 2015). The consumers' emotion towards brands is receiving increasing attention in research (Sarkar, 2014). Emotional attachment is important for marketers, since emotional attachment creates (brand) loyalty (Kang, 2015). Unal and Aydin (2013) add that brand love is important because it goes beyond satisfaction; satisfaction is not enough because companies strive for loyalty, and brand love can be the emotional relationship that makes the consumer loyal, and results in positive word-of-mouth.

Batra et al. (2012) state that the current literature on brand love does not properly distinguish between love as an emotion and love as a relationship. For example, brand loyalty is a major consequence of brand love, and goes further than satisfaction; it has a stronger affective focus and is the result of a long-term relationship between the consumer and the brand (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). It is related to the consumers' identity, and the brand is, in the situation of brand love, part of the consumers' identity (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Brand love consists of several aspects, Albert et al. (2008) list passion for the brand, brand attachment, a positive evaluation of the brand, and love declarations towards the brand. Eleven items of brand love were identified, namely passion, duration of the relationship, self-congruity, dreams, memories,

pleasure, attraction, uniqueness, beauty, trust, and declaration of affect (Albert et al., 2008:1071-72). Additionally, brand love can encounter obstacles; obstacles for brand love may include factors such as affordability (the brand is too expensive) (Sarkar, 2014). Sarkar (2014) states that consumers in developing markets are price-sensitive, and that yet in spite of this, brand love is not rational, it is based on factors such as the cost-benefit analysis.

To date, research on brand love seems to be limited in its approach. Most studies on brand love have investigated the influence of brand love on word-of-mouth and brand loyalty (for example, Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Their research has proven the effect of brand love on brand loyalty and on word-of-mouth. Bauer at al. (2009) found evidence for the link between brand love and the willingness to pay a premium price for a brand, as well as the willingness to forgive. Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010) propose a relationship between brand identification and brand loyalty, with brand love as a mediator variable. Their research found that brand love is driven by a feeling of community and identification with the brand, which results in the consumer being loyal to the brand and actively engaging in the brand (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010). Brand love is also a consequence of satisfaction with the brand, as well as brand trust, and will result in the customers' loyalty to the brand that he or she loves (Drennan, Bianchi, Cacho-Elizando, Lauriero, Guibert & Proud, 2015). Drennan et al. (2015) found that brand satisfaction was the most important antecedent of brand love. Islam and Rahman (2016) applied the concept of brand love in a fashion apparel context, and studied the relationship between brand love on brand image, and brand love on customer engagement, resulting in brand loyalty. Thus, most studies that include brand love, have brand loyalty as a consequence. Table 3.2 presents some studies of brand love and the product categories they studied.

Table 3.2: Brand love and the surveyed categories

Author.	**Product categories.**
Islam and Rahman (2016)	Fashion apparel brands.
Drennan et al. (2015)	Wines.
Fetscherin et al. (2014)	Soft drinks; mobile phones; shoes; and cars.
Unal and Aydin (2013)	Sport shoe brands.
Berkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010)	Clothes; soft drinks; and toothpaste.
Albert et al. (2008)	Shoes; cars; lingerie; watches; and perfumes.
Carroll and Ahuvia (2006)	Soft drinks and cereals.

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Sarkar (2014) identified obstacles for brand love in emerging markets, and the antecedents of brand love in this emerging market context. It was identified that hedonistic product categories are mainly subjected to brand love (Sarkar, 2014). Brand love is an interesting construct for this study due to the hedonistic nature of fashion; fashion products are more related to brand love than products with a more utilitarian nature (Hwang & Kandampully, 2012; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Venter's (2015) study of 500 black middle-class South African women on store environments, revealed that the favourite clothing store of 44% of the respondents was Woolworths, followed by Forever New (5%) and Zara (4%). This finding underlines how strong the South African domestic market is. Additionally, brand love does not necessarily need to be directed to one brand, consumers can love more than one brand at a time (Sarkar & Sreejesh, 2014). Additionally, brand love may be driven by self-consistency and self-esteem motives (Albert et al., 2008). This assumes that consumers love brands that are consistent with their 'self' and their self-esteem. This study adopts brand love from a local perspective–love for local brands, and proposes that local brand love negatively influences the purchase intention towards global brands. From a relationship perspective of brand love, this study proposes that when love

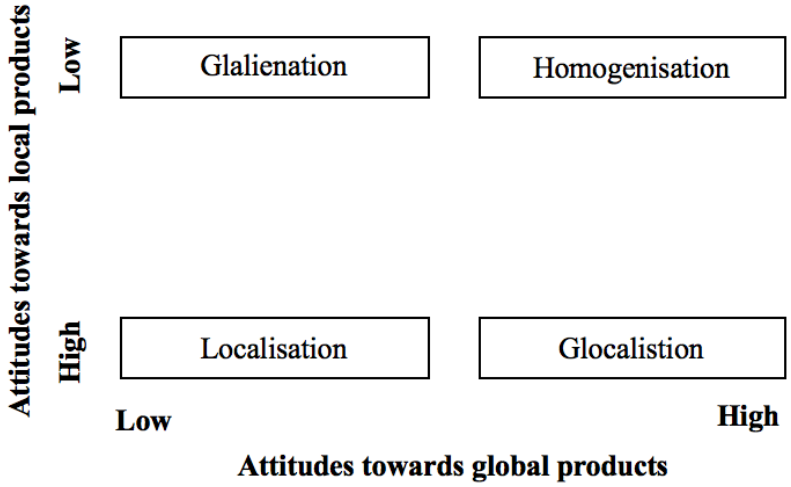
for local brands is high, consumers are less likely to purchase global brands. Therefore, this study proposes that the more love consumers feel towards their local brands, the less likely their purchase intention will be towards global brands.

3.3.7 Attitude

The TPB states that behavioural intentions are influenced by the attitude towards the behaviour (Ajzen & Cote, 2008), and attitudes of consumers are a central construct in the basic foundation of marketing research (Homer, 2008). Ajzen and Cote (2008:305) state that attitude refers to "a disposition to respond with some degree of favourableness or unfavourableness to a psychological object". Attitudes are acquired, and are shaped by the social backgrounds and experiences that shape our evaluative dispositions (Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Attitudes are also shaped by individual consumer characteristics. For example, Akaka and Alden (2010) state that the attitude towards global brands is influenced by consumer differences such as ethnocentrism. The consumer's attitude refers to a negative or positive evaluation of an individual towards a certain behaviour (Cazacu et al., 2014). Solomon et al. (2012) refer to attitude as a general evaluation of something, which can be people, objects, or issues. Hofstede and De Mooij (2011) state that most aspects of consumer behaviour are culture-bound, and while needs are universal, attitudes and expressions vary; the middle-class especially varies from country to country, depending on how they spend their income, in contrast to the rich of each country (De Mooij, 2013). Bressan and Signori (2014) add to this assertion, and state that the rich in emerging markets are more westernised than the poorer people.

Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) investigated the attitude of consumers towards local products and global products, and state that attitudes can be local or global. They found that local consumer culture consumers consume local products, in contrast to the consumers with a global consumer culture who are more likely to consume international products (Steenkamp & De Jong, 2010). The attitudes of consumers towards global and local products can take multiple forms, depending on the attitudes towards global and local products, according to which the forms vary, as presented in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6: Attitudes towards global and local products



Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Steenkamp and De Jong (2010).

Figure 3.6 shows that when attitudes towards global products are low and attitudes towards local products are high, the consequence is localisation. When the opposite happens (i.e. a high attitude towards global products and a low attitude towards local products), there is a situation of homogenisation, which means that products are completely standardised across markets. Glocalisation (i.e. high attitude towards global as well local products) is a hybrid form, as is glalienation, when both attitudes towards global and local products are low. This illustration can assist companies when entering a new market by mapping the attitudes towards local and global products, in order to anticipate them.

Attitude is an important construct within marketing. Due to its (strong) influence on purchase intentions, attitude's influence on behavioural intentions cannot be overlooked. Attitude is one of the key foundation factors in consumer behaviour due to its influence on outcomes, such as brand choice (Keller, 1993). In their studies in a similar context to the present study, Islam et al. 2014 found attitude to be an important predictor of female buying behaviour towards fashion apparel. Additionally, many studies have identified attitude as the main determinant of purchase intentions. The link between attitude and purchase intention is rooted in the TRA and TPB, which state that attitude, subjective norm, and behavioural control influence behavioural intentions (Cazacu et al., 2014). And this link is widely acknowledged in literature by, for example, Cazacu et al. (2014), Maloney et al. (2014); Rodríguez -Entrena, Salozar-Ordonez, and Sayadi, (2013); Zhang & Kim (2013); Teng et al. (2007), and Laroche et al. (1996). Yazdanpanah and Forouzani's (2015) study on the purchase intention towards organic food,

found that attitude was possibly the main predictor in consumers' intentions to purchase. In a fashion apparel context, Ryu (2011) investigated the relationship between attitude and shopping intentions for pop-up stores. Pop-up stores are short-term retail spaces, where, for instance, fashion brands can have a temporary retail sales space (Ryu, 2011). Ryu (2011) found that there was a strong relationship between the attitude towards pop-up fashion stores and the shopping intention in a pop-up fashion store. Maloney et al. (2014) found attitude to be the most influential antecedent of the purchase intention towards organic apparel products. Similarly, attitudes are essential for global brands in emerging markets. Jin, Gavin, and Kang (2012) found that among Chinese and Indian consumers, attitude was the main predictor of the purchase intention towards an American apparel brand. Haefner et al. (2016) also found attitude–used interchangeably with liking, to be an important construct. They state that brand liking equals brand attitude (Haefner et al., 2016). Although many hypotheses in their conceptual model were not confirmed, attitude was found to be the key construct in South African's purchase intentions towards global brands. Thus, the influence of attitude on purchase intentions cannot be overlooked. In multiple studies, attitude is identified as the key antecedent of purchase intentions.

This study specifically incorporates attitude towards global fashion brands. Brand attitude is a psychological construct that solely references a brand (Park et al., 2010), and brand attitudes are critical for success (or failure) of all businesses, especially for consumer goods in emerging markets (Reardon et al., 2005). Keller (2013:117) defines 'brand attitude' as "consumers' overall evaluations of the brand and often form the basis for brand choice". This study aims to identify the attitude towards purchasing a global fashion brand. Due to the widely acknowledged importance of attitude (attitude is a widely recognised predictor of purchase intentions), this study incorporates attitude as a central construct in its conceptual research model. Additionally, while needs are universal, attitudes and expressions of the middle-class especially vary among countries in how middle-class consumers spend their income (De Mooij, 2013). Therefore, the attitude towards global brands might be an important predictor of the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among the (black) middle-class in the emerging economy of South Africa.

3.3.8 Perceived quality

Consumers differ in their evaluation of local products and global products (Smith et al., 2010). And while Western consumers have a preference for domestic products, some studies show that consumers in emerging markets prefer non-domestic (i.e. global) products from a perceived quality point-of-view (Smith et al., 2010). Zeithaml (1988:3) defines 'quality' as "superiority or excellence", and 'perceived quality' as the "consumer's judgement about the product's overall excellence or superiority". The difference between quality and perceived quality is thus the consumers' perception, rather than an objective measure of quality.

An example of consumers in emerging markets preferring global products due to their quality is evident in Wong and Yong's (2008, in Smith et al., 2010) research in China. The study showed that products from Western countries are associated with quality and social status. It is important for global brands to emphasise on the quality aspect of their brands and products (Steenkamp, Batra & Alden, 2003), because perceived quality is still an important marketing tool. Perceived quality is often suggested as an antecedent of the consumers' preference for global brands in emerging markets (Smith et al., 2010), and consumers in emerging markets tend to believe that products from Western countries are of superior quality (Bevan-Dye, 2012). Kumar et al. (2009) support this assertion by stating that consumers in emerging markets perceive apparel from developed countries to be of higher quality than local brands.

For purchase decisions related to apparel, the perceived quality is important (De Klerk & Lubbe, 2008). Zeithaml's (1988) definition on perceived quality, perceived value, and price has been cited more than 10 thousand times. In their study on apparel, De Klerk and Lubbe (2008:46) found that for apparel, the consumers' perception of quality is not solely about "functional behavioural qualities", but also about "aesthetical behavioural qualities", it is thus both important what the product can achieve in terms of, for instance, durability and comfort, as well as in terms of aesthetics. Additionally, when female consumers judge the quality of an apparel item, the "sensory, emotional and cognitive dimensions" of its aesthetics play a big role; sensory dimensions refer to the nice feeling of a clothing item against your skin, the emotional dimension refers to the specific feeling the item gives during wearing, and the cognitive dimension deals with the symbolic significance (De Klerk & Lubbe, 2008:46). For apparel, quality is evaluated at different stages in the product's life cycle. Firstly, the consumer

judges the quality of the apparel item at the moment of purchase; secondly, during the wearing of the item; and thirdly, at the stage of disposal (De Klerk & Lubbe, 2008). This implies that the quality of the apparel is not only determined by factors such as durability, but that it is a much broader construct with many dimensions that determine the overall perception of quality. Perceived quality is found to influence purchase intentions in different contexts and across different product categories. For example, Asshidin, Abidin, and Borhan (2016) and Son et al. (2013) found perceived quality to be an important driver of purchase intentions towards foreign goods in emerging markets. Das (2015) found that perceived quality has a positive and significant effect on purchase intentions towards fashion (clothing and accessories), and also for food products (Das, 2014).

The influence of perceived quality on consumers' purchase intentions is thus widely acknowledged by researchers, for example by Das (2015), Haque et al. (2015), Llonch and Erdogan (2015), Strizhakova and Coulter (2015), and Das (2014). A high perceived quality is important for the consumers' purchase likelihood (Llonch & Erdogan, 2015). Haque et al. (2015) found that for Bangladeshi consumers, the perceived quality of the foreign products is an important factor in purchasing foreign goods. In addition, McKinsey (2012) found that product quality is the purchase criterion for African apparel consumers, and the relationship between quality and purchase intentions stresses the importance of the quality construct for this study. Additionally, Chi et al. (2009) found that perceived quality directly influences purchase intentions, and Kumar et al. (2009) state that consumers may purchase a brand when they perceive that the brand offers the right quality or the right features for them. Winit et al. (2014) found that brands perceived as global, benefit from a more positive perceived quality.

The right quality or features of a product may result in consumers choosing one particular brand over other brands, but while consumer purchases of a certain brand may be driven by the brand quality, Kumar et al. (2009) state that an increasing number of consumers purchase brands to satisfy their emotional needs as well, which is necessary for long term success. This underlines the importance of the more 'soft' constructs, such as desired self-image, attitude, and ethnocentrism. But the quality perception can not be overlooked. Due to the importance of perceived quality in evaluating global (foreign) brands in emerging markets, and for purchase intentions towards several product categories under which fashion and apparel products are grouped, this study incorporates perceived quality in its conceptual research model. In this

study, perceived quality plays a mediator role. In addition to the direct relationship between perceived quality and the purchase intention, Strizhakova and Coulter (2015) found that quality is a significant mediator in the relationship between consumer values and consumer choices of local brands. Additionally, it is proposed that perceived quality is influenced by brand knowledge (i.e. brand image and brand awareness) and the price perception.

3.3.9 Purchase intention

Purchase intentions are widely researched in marketing, and an explanation for this phenomenon is that behavioural intentions are related to actual behaviour (Ibrahim & Najjar (2008). Thus, purchase intentions are related to actual purchases. Information regarding purchase intentions can be valuable to managers in their decisions concerning product demand and market segmentation (Ibrahim & Najjar, 2008). Carter and Maher (2015) state that definitions of the purchase intention vary from willingness to buy to the behavioural tendency, but despite the differences in definitions, the outcome is always that the consumer will likely purchase the product. Purchase intention is defined as individuals' intention to purchase or buy a product or service (Das, 2014), and is the result of both the consumers' interest in the product, as well as the consumers' ability to buy the product (Kim & Ko, 2012).

Kim and Ko (2012) describe the purchase intention as a measurement of the consumers' future contributions to the brand. Therefore, this construct is of importance for (global) brands. As mentioned in the first chapter, purchase intentions are often used as proxy measures of purchase behaviour in marketing research, based on the assumption that purchase intentions are a good indicator of a customer's purchase behaviour, although this assumption is sometimes challenged (He & Wu, 2015), purchase intentions are one tool that can be used to estimate whether or not a consumer has the intention to buy a specific brand (Teng et al., 2007). In their study on apparel consumption, De Cannière, De Pelsmacker, and Geuens (2009) found that intentions are antecedents of the actual behaviour, and that the TPB predicted the behavioural intentions more accurately than did the Relationship Quality Model.

Consumers' purchase intentions are a popular dependent (outcome) variable in many studies; not only for conceptual research models based on the TRA and TPB, but also for studies that are not rooted in the TRA and TPB. Purchase intentions are an often-used as proxy measures of purchase behaviour within marketing research (He & Wang, 2015), which explains the

popularity of this construct in marketing research. Table 3.3 indicates several studies that have used purchase intentions as an outcome or dependent variable in their conceptual research models. Those studies have somewhat related contexts to the present study, and this highlights the suitability of purchase intention as a dependent variable for this study.

Table 3.3: Studies using purchase intention as an outcome variable.

Author	**Context**
Asshidin et al. (2016)	The purchase intention towards American and local products among Malaysian consumers.
Halkias et al. (2016)	The purchase intention towards well-known brands in different categories, from Snickers (USA) to Zara (Spain).
Paul et al. (2016)	Using the TRA/TPB, the purchase intention towards green products.
Venter et al. (2016)	The purchase intention towards sports apparel brands in South Africa.
Carter and Maher (2015)	The purchase intention towards foreign goods.
Das (2015)	The purchase intention towards retail fashion brands.
Zheng and Chi (2015)	The purchase intention towards environmentally friendly apparel.
Son et al. (2013)	The purchase intention towards foreign branded jeans in the emerging economy of India.
Jin and Kang (2011)	The purchase intention of Chinese consumers towards an American apparel brand.
Ryu (2011)	The shopping intention towards fashion products in a fashion pop-up store.
Bhardwaj et al. (2010)	Purchase intentions in an emerging market towards local versus global apparel brands.
Kumar et al. (2009)	Indian consumers' purchase intentions towards local versus global apparel brands.
Lee et al. (2008)	The purchase intention of students in Mexico towards a US apparel brand.

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

The consequence of a purchase intention is someone's willingness to buy (Beneke & Carter, 2015). Consumers' purchase intentions are seen as the final consequence of several factors in a consumer's shopping context (Das, 2014). But consumers' purchase intentions are influenced by different factors (Esch et al., 2006), and there is no consistency in those factors, due to the availability of different models and theories. Luo, Chen, Ching, and Liu (2011) state that purchase intentions can finally result in actual purchase behaviour, which is in line with the assumption of this research model. The stronger the intention to purchase, the more likely it is that the consumer will perform the purchase behaviour (Luo et al., 2011).

This research is therefore based on the assumption that behavioural intentions lead to behaviour (De Cannière et al., 2009; Ajzen, 2005), as mentioned in models such as the TRA and the TPB. Intentions are not always accurate in predicting actual behaviour (especially over a longer time span), but they are often used to successfully predict behaviour (Ajzen, 2011). The TPB is still one of the most influential and most supported models to predict consumer behaviour (Ajzen, 2011; Smith et al., 2010), and has proven itself to be a robust model in different contexts (Jin & Kang, 2011). Based on the TPB's robustness and underlying assumptions that intentions are a proxy for actual behaviour, this study incorporates the purchase intention as a measure to determine to what extent black middle-class females intend to purchase products from global fashion brands. The consumer's purchase intention is the conceptual research model's dependent variable, and all the relationships within the conceptual research model are explained in the following section.

3.3 Summary

The third chapter of this study consisted of a literature review, which had a twofold objective: to provide the theoretical grounding and underpinning of the study; and to provide the empirical literature. The theoretical grounding comprised of the TRA, the TPB, the Self-congruity Theory, and the Associative Network Memory Model, which form the basis for the conceptual model. The empirical literature described the variables of this research in depth, namely ethnocentrism, price, brand knowledge (consisting of brand awareness and brand image), self-image, fashion involvement, brand love, attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention. The

following chapter elaborates on the conceptual model, and the development of the proposed hypotheses in the conceptual research model.

Chapter Four (4). Conceptual model development

4.1 Introduction

The fourth chapter of this thesis focuses on the study's empirical objectives, which are the relationships between the variables within the conceptual research model. In other words, this chapter elaborates on the conceptual research model and the proposed hypotheses of this study. Each hypothesis within the conceptual model is reflected in the following paragraphs, in the same order as the hypotheses. The goal of this chapter is to study the proposed relationships in the conceptual model in depth. It asks the following questions: Why is the relationship important for this study? What information has other research found on the relationship, and in what context (i.e. what previous work is done on the relationship between the variables)? And finally, what does the proposed relationship imply for this study?

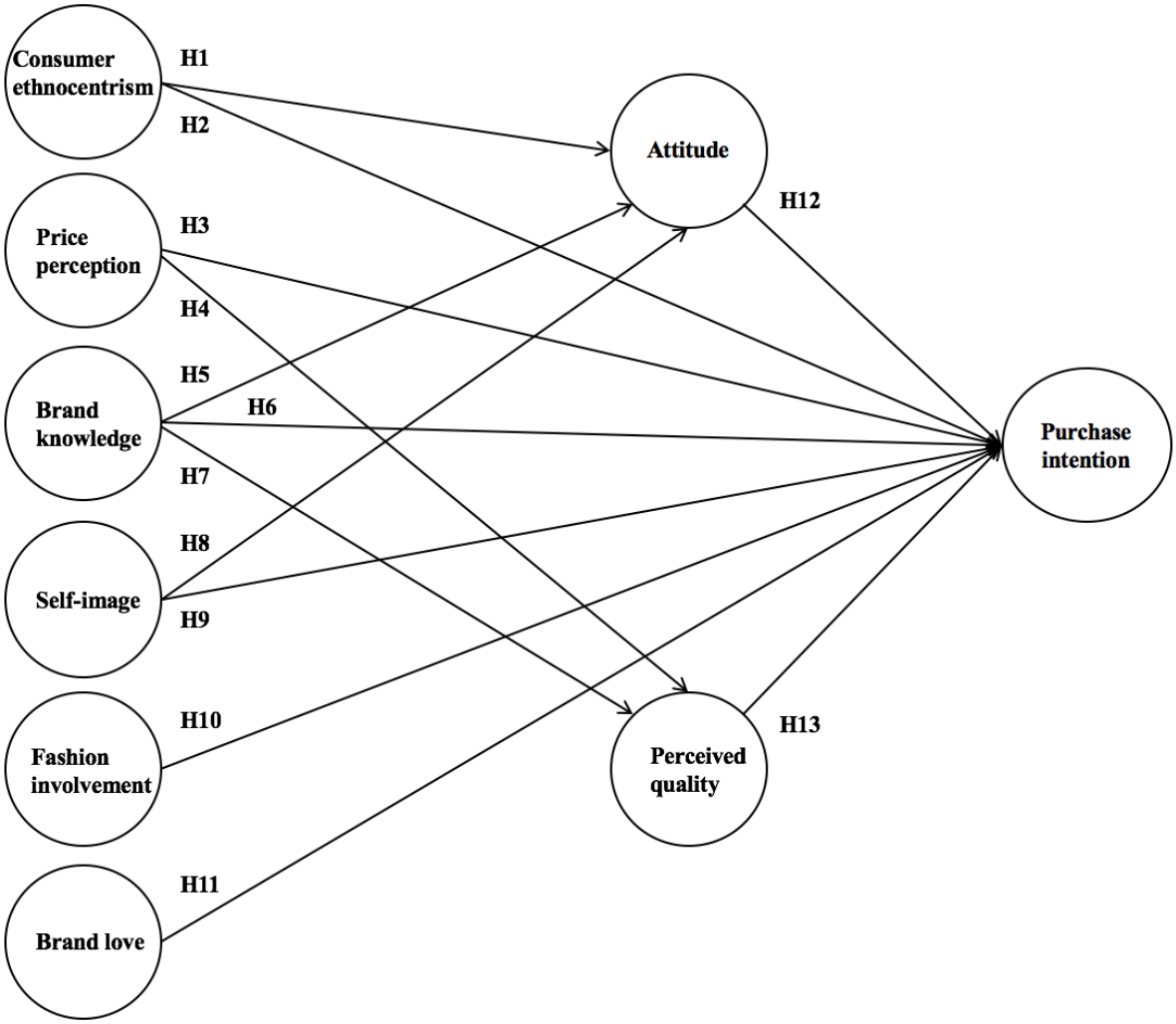
4.2 Conceptual Model

As stated in the introduction, the research question of this thesis is as follows:

Which factors influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class consumers in South Africa?

To answer the research question, the following conceptual model and thirteen hypotheses are presented, based on the literature review. The independent variables are ethnocentrism, price, brand knowledge, self-image, and fashion involvement, while attitude and perceived quality serve as mediator variables. The dependent and outcome variable is purchase intention. The conceptual research model (Figure 4.1) and accompanying hypothesis are presented below.

Figure 4.1: Conceptual research model



Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Based on the empirical literature, the proposed hypotheses are as follows:

H1. There is a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude.

H2. There is a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention.

H3. There is a positive relationship between price perception and purchase intention.

H4. There is a positive relationship between price perception and perceived quality.

H5. There is a positive relationship between brand knowledge and attitude.

H6. There is a positive relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intention.

H7. There is a positive relationship between brand knowledge and perceived quality.

H8. There is a positive relationship between self-image and attitude.

H9. There is a positive relationship between self-image and purchase intention.

H10. There is a positive relationship between fashion involvement and purchase intention.

H11. There is a negative relationship between brand love and purchase intention.

H12. There is a positive relationship between attitude and purchase intention.

H13. There is a positive relationship between perceived quality and purchase intention.

4.3 Hypotheses development

This section elaborates on each of the hypothesis as listed above and as reflected in the graphical representation of the research model.

4.3.1 Ethnocentrism and attitude (Hypothesis 1)

The first hypothesis of the conceptual model proposes a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitude. Ethnocentrism is an important variable in consumer research in emerging markets for two reasons: firstly, consumers are increasingly faced with products from different countries and increasingly have the choice between local and global products; and secondly, the country of origin is found to be an important factor in consumers' purchase decisions (Lew & Sulaiman, 2014). Ethnocentrism does not only have an effect on the purchase intentions towards global brands and products, but also on the consumers' choices and attitudes towards foreign products and brands (Reardon et al., 2005). In their study, Reardon et al. (2005) discuss the effects of ethnocentrism and economic development on the formation of brands and advertisement attitudes, and state that ethnocentrism's effect on attitudes towards an advertisement is stronger in emerging markets than in developed markets.

The relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude has been studied by a number of researchers, namely Bianchi and Mortimer (2015), Carter and Maher (2015), and Ramadania et al. (2015), but in research it has not achieved as much attention as has the relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intentions. In an African context in particular, this relationship has barely been studied (John & Brady, 2011). Among the research done on the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude, is Bianchi and Mortimer's (2015) study, which found that consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to the consumer's attitude towards local food in both Australia and Chile. Carter and Maher (2015) proposed a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the attitude towards foreign products. Both hypotheses are different, but state the same: consumer ethnocentrism positively influences the

purchase intention towards local products, while in simultaneously negatively influencing the purchase intention towards global products. Ramadania et al. (2015) also proposed a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the attitude towards foreign products. Their research involved 446 respondents in Indonesia and their attitude towards Malaysian products, and found that consumer ethnocentrism has a strong negative effect on the attitude towards foreign products, and, the higher the love for local products, the higher the rejection of non-local products (Ramadania et al., 2015). Additionally, Ramadania et al. (2015) made a distinction between foreign products that come from countries with similar cultures and foreign products that come from countries with cultures that are dissimilar. This comparison resulted in the finding that the negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the attitude towards foreign products is stronger when countries have cultural similarities than when countries do not have cultural similarities (Ramadania et al., 2015).

Kumar, Fairhurst, and Kim (2013) proposed two relationships, namely the negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the attitude towards foreign goods, and the positive relationship between ethnocentrism and the attitude towards domestic goods. Using a sample of 800 Indian consumers and mobile phones and soap as product categories, they found evidence for both relationships; the higher the ethnocentrism, the more positive the attitude towards domestic goods, while the higher ethnocentrism is, the more negative the attitude towards foreign goods is (Kumar et al., 2013). The relationships were supported for both products and services (Kumar et al., 2013). This is in line with this study's proposition, namely that the more ethnocentric consumers are, the less positive their attitude towards foreign goods is likely to be.

John and Brady (2011) performed one of the few studies testing the negative relationship between ethnocentrism and attitudes towards foreign products in an African context. Their study took place in Mozambique, and they studied the Mozambican's attitude towards South African products. John and Brady (2011) propose a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitude towards foreign products, moderated by the type of product. Among 448 Mozambican consumers, the study found evidence that ethnocentrism has a negative relationship with attitudes towards foreign products, but is moderated by product type; ethnocentrism has a greater influence on attitudes towards agricultural consumables than towards processed consumables (John & Brady, 2011). Saffu, Walker, and Mazurek (2010) examined the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the attitude of consumers

towards a buying local campaign. Their study comprised two groups of 211 non-students and 209 students in the emerging economy of Slovenia. Saffu et al. (2010) propose that consumer ethnocentrism influences the attitude construct, and the final action such as the purchase. Their study has found a significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the attitude construct (Saffu et al., 2010). Also Sharkarmahesh, Ford, and LaTour (2004), who studied the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism thoroughly, found that consumer ethnocentrism negatively influences the attitude towards foreign products.

Salman & Naeem's (2015) findings partially support the findings above; while they found strong support for the relationship between ethnocentrism and the attitude towards local brands, they did not found support for the relationship between ethnocentrism and the attitude towards global brands. Thus, ethnocentrism positively affects the attitude towards local brands, but this does not necessarily mean that the attitude towards global brands is negatively influenced by ethnocentrism. Attitude did serve as a mediator between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards beverages in Pakistan, and it was found that the attitude towards local brands as well as the attitude towards global brands both significantly influence the purchase intention (Salman & Naeem, 2015). Deb and Chaudhuri's (2014) findings were somewhat contradictory to the literature described above. Although they proposed a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the attitude towards products of foreign origin, their study among 450 young Indian consumers found a positive relationship between ethnocentrism and the attitude towards foreign products (Deb & Chaudhuri, 2014). Deb and Chaudhuri (2014) state that other previous studies also found evidence for a negative relationship and a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards products of foreign origin. Qing, Lobo, and Chongguang's (2012) findings reflected on Deb and Chaudhuri's (2014) findings. Qing et al. (2012) studied the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the attitude towards purchasing domestic fruits and imported (i.e. US) fruits. In their study among 535 consumers in metropolitan Wuhan, China, their study found evidence for the significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the attitude towards purchasing domestic fruits, but their study did not find evidence for the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the attitude towards purchasing foreign fruits (Qing et al., 2012). Therefore, the hypothesised relationship between ethnocentrism and attitudes towards purchasing domestic and foreign fruits was only partially supported.

According to the literature above, it can be stated that that many studies have found evidence for a relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitude. Although the previous literature is not fully conclusive regarding the negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitude, this study proposes that there is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the attitude towards global fashion brands among black middle-class consumers in South Africa. In other words, the more ethnocentric consumers are, the less likely it is that they will have a positive attitude towards global fashion brands.

H1. There is a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude.

4.3.2 Ethnocentrism and purchase intention (Hypothesis 2)

The second hypothesis of the conceptual model proposes a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intention. As explained in the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude, ethnocentrism is an important variable in consumer research in emerging markets since consumers are increasingly faced with products from different countries, and increasingly have the choice between a local and a global product, and because the country of origin is found to be an important factor in the consumers' purchase decisions (Lew & Sulaiman, 2014). In addition, although ethnocentrism is a global phenomenon, the extent to which the consumers are ethnocentric differs per country (Akram et al., 2011). Ethnocentrism refers to the extent to which a consumer prefers a domestic product and is biased against foreign products (Yelkur et al., 2006 in Akram et al., 2011). In other words, the consequence of ethnocentrism is the preference for a local product over a global product. Lew and Sulaiman (2014) mention that ethnocentric consumers consider a domestic product first, despite the fact that a global product might be of a higher quality standard.

The relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intentions has been researched in many studies, such as Cheah, Phau, Kea, and Huang (2016), Bosbach et al. (2015), Carter and Maher (2015), Haque et al. (2015), Strizhakova and Coulter (2015), Vadhanavisala (2015), Lew and Sulaiman (2014), and Akram et al. (2011). The relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intentions is investigated from two perspectives. Firstly, from the perspective of the positive relationship between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards domestic products, and secondly, from the perspective of the negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards foreign products. Thus, ethnocentrism

positively influences the purchase intention towards local products as negatively influences the purchase intention towards global products. This is in line with what He and Wang (2015) propose, namely that ethnocentrism negatively influences the preference for global products, and ethnocentrism positively influences the preference for local products. He and Wang (2015) add that the positive relationship between ethnocentrism and the preference for a local brand is higher or stronger when the local brand has high brand equity, and the negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the preference for a global brand will reverse when the global brand has a high brand equity.

It can be stated that ethnocentrism has more complex relationships and consequences, and is influenced by factors such as brand equity. Additionally, ethnocentrism influences both purchase intentions as well as actual purchases (i.e. actual behaviour is the final consequence of the behavioural intention). Dmitrovic, Vida, and Reardon (2009) did not focus on the purchase intention, but on their actual purchase behaviour. Dmitrovic et al. (2009) proposed that ethnocentrism positively influences domestic purchase behaviour, and their study of 1,954 consumers in Eastern European countries, found that ethnocentrism directly drives domestic purchase behaviour. Rahmawati and Muflikhati (2016), in their study of 100 consumers in Indonesia, not only found that ethnocentrism negatively influences the purchase of foreign food products, but they also found that the perceived quality of the local foods available negatively influences the purchase of foreign goods. Haque et al. (2015) also found that ethnocentrism has a negative association in terms of the perceived quality of foreign products. This implies that when local products are of satisfactory quality, consumers seem less likely to purchase foreign products.

Cheah et al. (2016) investigated the relationship between ethnocentrism and willingness to buy foreign products. Their study among 435 Chinese consumers was concerned with the consumers' willingness to pay for Japanese products as well as for hybrid (i.e. originated in Japan, made in China) products. The study focused mainly on animosity, and they found that ethnocentrism did not influence the purchase intention towards Japanese products. This result is contrary to other literature, and the authors questioned this finding. Eren (2013) also researched the relationship between ethnocentrism and willingness to buy American products among 277 Turkish university students, and included the variable of animosity, and found that both ethnocentrism and animosity predict the willingness to buy American products (Eren,

2013). Bosbach et al. (2015), who conducted their study among 719 consumers in Germany, Italy, and Serbia, state that consumer ethnocentrism positively influences the preference for domestic food products. It was found that the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase behaviour was greatest in Serbia, which is a country with nationalistic tendencies (Bosbach et al., 2015). Bosbach et al. (2015) used purchase behaviour as a dependent variable, which differs from this study, which uses the purchase intention as the outcome variable.

Focusing on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intention, Carter and Maher (2015) set up a comprehensive model of the determinants that affect consumer perceptions and purchase intentions towards foreign goods. They proposed that consumer ethnocentrism has a negative relationship with the purchase intention towards foreign goods. Also the study of Hague et al., (2015) concluded that ethnocentrism negatively influences the purchase intention for foreign goods. They conducted their research among 260 consumers in two of the main cities in Bangladesh. Topçu and Kaplan (2015) propose that ethnocentrism negatively influences the willingness to buy foreign products, which can be used interchangeable with purchase intention. Their research sampled 292 consumers in Turkey, and found that the more ethnocentric consumers are, the more reluctant they are to purchase foreign products. Strizhakova and Coulter (2015) and Vadhanavisala (2015) found that ethnocentrism positively influences the purchase intention towards domestic products. Vadhanavisala (2015) study took place in Bangkok, among 400 respondents, and mainly studied the antecedents of ethnocentrism and only conceptualised one consequence of ethnocentrism, namely the purchase intention towards local products.

Lew and Sulaiman (2014) also studied the influence of ethnocentrism on purchase intentions towards products made in Malaysia (domestic) and products made in China (foreign). They found a positive relationship between ethnocentrism and the Malaysians' consumer purchase intention towards products made in Malaysia, thus, ethnocentrism positively influences the purchase intention towards domestic products. Akram et al. (2011) found that ethnocentrism played a mediating role between perceived brand globalness and perceived brand quality, as well-perceived brand prestige. Their research found that consumers who are highly ethnocentric are less likely to purchase foreign products, because their association of foreign products with quality and prestige is relatively weak (Akram et al., 2011). Finally, Shoham and Brenčič (2003), who studied the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on the purchase intention towards

local goods and the attitude towards local goods in an Israeli context, found that ethnocentrism has a significantly positive impact on the purchase of local goods. In other words, ethnocentrism has a significantly negative impact on the purchase of global goods.

While the findings above highlight the widely acknowledged positive relationship between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards local brands, and the negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards global brands, contrary results are available. For example, in Haefner et al.'s (2016) recent study of the relationship between ethnocentrism and global brands among South African consumers, they found that South Africa provides an interesting context for global brand research, which was underlined by the contrary (i.e. contrary to widely tested and acknowledged relationships) findings of their study. In their study of 177 students at the University of Johannesburg (UJ), they investigated the relationship between strong ethnocentric beliefs and the preference to buy local over global brands (Heafner et al., 2016). The global brands included brands from various categories, namely Zara (fashion), BMW (vehicles), Chanel (perfume), Levi's (fashion), and six other major global brands (Haefner et al., 2016). As shown above in the literature on this relationship, the relationship between ethnocentrism and positive purchase intentions towards local brands and negative purchase intentions towards global brands is widely studied and acknowledged. However, Heafner et al.'s (2016) study showed otherwise, and they did not find evidence for this relationship amongst South African consumers. Their contrary results highlight the relevance of re-testing this relationship in South African consumers.

Derived from the literature above, it is evident that consumer ethnocentrism does have a relationship with purchase intentions, whether it be negative or positive. There is a positive relationship between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards local brands, and a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards global brands. This study takes the latter approach, and proposes that there is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class consumers in South Africa. In other words, the more ethnocentric consumers are, the less likely it is that they will consider purchasing global fashion-branded items.

H2. There is a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention.

4.3.3 Price perception and purchase intention (Hypothesis 3)

As mentioned earlier, it is acknowledged that consumers in emerging markets are highly price sensitive. Therefore, it is important to incorporate price into the conceptual research model. That price is an important marketing variable in consumer behaviour studies and in studies regarding global brands is evident in the studies described hereunder. Winit et al. (2014) propose relationships between price and purchase intentions; when the prices of foreign brands increase, as a consequence the purchase intention towards local brands increases, and when the prices of local brands increase, the purchase intention towards local brands decreases. This dynamic was found present among all tested product categories, although not with the same strength (Winit et al., 2014), which implies that the relationship strength varies between different product categories. Lew and Sulaiman (2014) state that there is a negative relationship between a high price and purchase intention. This is in line with the price-quality heuristic, as shown in Lee's (2013) study. The price directly negatively influences the purchase intention, but there is more; price positively influences perceived quality, and perceived quality positively influences the purchase intention. Thus, while a high price may have a direct negative relationship with the purchase intention, indirectly price has a positive relationship with the purchase intention via perceived quality.

But price is a construct that is influenced and affected by different measures, such as conceptualisation, operationalisation, and external factors. For example, Unahanandh and Assarut (2013) highlight this in their investigation of the purchase intention of dairy products among Thai consumers. They propose a relationship between marketing variables, amongst which are price and purchase intention (Unahanandh & Assarut, 2013). In their study of 318 Thai consumers who consume dairy products on a daily base, they found that the level of involvement determines the price sensitivity; for consumers with low involvement, price does affect the purchase intention, while for consumers who focus more on the product's country of origin, the price is less important (Unahanandh & Assarut, 2013). Jegethesan, Sneddon, and Soutar (2012) did their research on fashion apparel (denim jeans) among young apparel consumers in Australia. They tested five attributes for their influence on purchase behaviour, and found that, from most to least important, style, price, brand, country of origin, and ethical aspects all influence purchase behaviour (Jegethesan et al., 2012). They found that price was an important determinant for young Australian apparel consumers in their purchase decisions

(Jegethesan et al., 2012). The studies above indicate that price influences consumer behaviour, that a high price negatively influences the purchase intention and simultaneously positively influences the perceived quality, in line with the price-quality heuristic. In line with the price-quality heuristic, this study assumes that a higher price might lead to a lower purchase intention towards global fashion brands, and that a 'reasonable' price might increase the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. In other words, this study will investigate the relationship between price perception (from a consumer's perspective, i.e. reasonable, unreasonable, affordable) and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

Son (2013) studied this relationship from the other side; a high price perception will negatively influence the purchase intention towards USA apparel. Son (2013) proposes a negative relationship between perceived price and the willingness to buy jeans from a global brand (i.e. Levis). The relationship was tested among consumers in India and the USA, and was found negative and significant only in India (Son, 2013). The study found that among Indian consumers, the higher the perceived price, the lower the willingness to purchase a pair of Levi's jeans (Son, 2013). Erdil (2015) studied the positive influence of price image on the purchase intention towards an apparel store brand. The study among 164 (masters and PhD) university students at four different universities in Istanbul, Turkey, found proof for the relationship between price image and purchase intention. Price image has a significant effect on purchase intentions (Erdil, 2015). Diallo, Chandon, Cliquet, and Philippe (2013) also studied price image's influence on purchase intentions regarding store brands choices, in a French context. They found that price image has a strong relationship (i.e. significant direct effect) with purchase intentions. In an African context, Jani and Mzalendo (2015) investigated the purchase intention towards foreign products. The authors conducted their research in Tanzania, focusing on domestic versus foreign wines. Their study found that when the quality is perceived to be similar, consumers are likely to go for the local wine, purely due to price (Jani & Mzalendo, 2015). Lew and Sulaiman (2014) propose a relationship between pricing and purchase intentions. Their hypothesis is dual; there is a relationship between pricing and Malaysians' purchase intention towards products made in Malaysia, and there is a relationship between pricing and Malaysians' purchase intention towards products made in China (Lew & Sulaiman, 2014). Their study aimed to investigate this relationship among Malaysian consumers and their purchase intention towards Chinese and Malaysian products.

Winit et al. (2014) earlier highlighted that globalisation has resulted in consumers increasingly having a choice between local and global products. They argue that price has a role in the evaluation of brands, but that price is a largely overlooked construct (Winit et al., 2014). Winit et al. (2014) propose that when the price of foreign products increases, the purchase intention towards local products increases (and vice versa), and when the price of local products increases, the purchase intention towards local products decreases (and vice versa). Thus, the price of local and global products influences the purchase intention towards local and global products. Winit et al. (2014) used a sample size of 558 students, and tested for four product categories (i.e. juice, jeans, coffee shops, and airlines), and found support for both hypotheses. Thus, it can be concluded that there is a dynamic between the price of local and global products and the purchase intention towards local and global products.

Zielke (2010) tested the shopping intentions for different grocery store formats, and the influence that different price and value perceptions have on shopping intentions. It was found that price level has a significantly positive influence on shopping intentions, and the proposed relationship between price level and shopping intentions was therefore supported (Zielke, 2010) among 306 students at a European university. Moon, Chadee, and Tikoo's (2008) study of 47 students in New Zealand focused on the purchase intention towards customised products, and they propose that to some extent, the price level does not influence the purchase intention towards customised products, since consumers are willing to pay a premium for customised products. They found that to a certain extent, price levels do not influence the purchase intention towards customised or personalised products (Moon et al., 2008).

Chiang and Jang (2007) conducted a study among 404 students in the USA and investigated the influence of perceived price on purchase intentions, and they found that the perceived price positively influences the purchase intention, which implies that the value factor is highly important for purchase intentions. Price is not often directly linked to purchase intentions. More often, price plays an indirect role, from price towards mediators such as value, perceived value, and attitude, which consequently influences the dependent variable of purchase intention. Among these studies is Lee and Yun's (2015) study of 725 consumers, which investigated the purchase intention towards organic foods. They proposed that the higher the perceived cost, the less likely consumers are to have a positive attitude towards the product (Lee and Yun, 2015). Lee and Yun (2015) used Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to analyse the data, and found

support for their proposed relationship; they found evidence that a higher price negatively influences the purchase intention towards organic food.

Based on the literature above, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between price and purchase intention, although these relationships are not very often directly hypothesised, and may be formulated in many different ways. In line with ethnocentrism (i.e. a positive relationship between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards local brands, and a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards global brands), price can be considered from two perspectives: the positive influence of a price perception that is, for example, reasonable or affordable according to purchase intention; and a negative relationship between a price perception that is, for example, high or unaffordable according to purchase intention. Price is thus conceptualised in different ways, from price perception (such as a reasonable price) with a positive influence on the purchase intention, to a higher price with a negative influence on the purchase intention. Price is often overlooked, despite its importance in decision-making (Winit et al., 2014). Due to the price-sensitivity of the mass market in emerging markets (Sarkar, 2014; McKinsey, 2012), this study proposes that there is a positive relationship between price perception and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class females in South Africa. In other words, the more affordable or reasonable the price of global fashion brands, the more likely the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Due to the lack of research on the direct influence of price on purchase intentions, especially in a price-sensitive emerging market, it is important to incorporate price in the conceptual research model, and to investigate the influence that pricing has on the purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

H3. There is a positive relationship between price perception and purchase intention.

4.3.4 Price perception and perceived quality (Hypothesis 4)

The relationship between price and perceived quality is often known as the price-quality heuristic, which is widely acknowledged in research, and implies the situation where consumers use price as an indicator, signal, or cue for quality (as indicated by Gneezy et al., 2014, Lee, 2013, and Kirchler et al., 2010). The price:perceived quality ratio remains an important aspect for consumer behaviour (Völckner & Hofmann, 2007), and since price can serve as an indicator of quality to consumers (Winit et al., 2014), it is important to incorporate this relationship in

the present study. But results on this relationship are contrary, and there is evidence between a positive price perception and a positive quality perception (Beneke & Zimmerman, 2014; Beristain & Zorilla, 2011), which will be discussed later. The more common findings of the relationship between price and perceived quality are discussed first.

The relationship between price and perceived quality is an interesting focus of study, especially in a global brand context, since consumers in emerging markets believe global brands enjoy higher quality. The global brands price-quality heuristic assumes that while price negatively directly influences the purchase intention, price positively influences the perceived quality, which in turn positively influences the purchase intention. Therefore, the heuristic assumes that there is a positive relationship between price and perceived quality. The first study that backs up the relationship between price and quality is that of Sharma and Garg (2016), who propose a positive relationship between the price perception and the perceived quality. In their New Dehli study they used a sample of 116 students and tested the relationship between price perception and perceived quality for two product categories, namely mobile phones and athletic shoes (Sharma & Garg, 2016). Using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) to analyse the hypnotised paths, they indeed found that the price perception has a positive influence on the perceived quality (Sharma & Garg, 2016). Gneezy et al. (2014) applied the role of price in the context of wine. They assumed that if the price was higher, the consumer would think that the product was of better quality (Gneezy et al., 2014). They found support for this relationship in wine sales; when the price of the wine increased, new demand arose because consumers assumed the quality was better (Gneezy et al., 2014). But expectations (of quality) play an important role, because expectations rise when the price increases, and when the product fails to meet the expectations, a higher price results in greater disappointment (Gneezy et al., 2014). Thus, there might be a direct relationship between price and perceived quality, but critical to this relationship is that expectations arising from price are met. Mastrobuoni, Peracchi, and Tetenov (2014) also located their study in wine. They also propose a positive relationship between the wine price and quality ratings (i.e. perceived quality). They found that consumers use price as a cue for quality, and they found a strong relationship between price and perceived quality for the price range €3-€5, but no relationship in the price range from €5-€8 euro (Mastrobuoni et al., 2014). In other words, the price positively influences the perceived quality, but only up to a specific point, and the effect decreases when the price increases above a certain level.

Olbrich and Jansen (2014) studied the price-quality relationship for private label brands among 30,000 households, and in both food and non-food product categories. They found that for food, price as an indicator for quality does not apply, but for non-food products there is a relationship; price affects the quality of the product, and a higher price is therefore related to higher product quality (Olbrich & Jansen, 2014). Ye, Li, Wang, and Law (2014) also propose a positive relationship between the paid price and the perceived quality. Their sample consisted of 43,726 reviews of 774 hotels, and they used the hotel ratings to measure the perceived quality (Ye et al., 2014). They found support for the relationship that price positively and significantly affects the perceived quality (Ye et al., 2014).

Although a high price seems to negatively influence the purchase intention towards foreign products (Lew & Sulaiman, 2014), some authors have a different view. Carter and Maher (2015) state that price positively influences the purchase intention towards a foreign product, because the price influences the perceived quality of the foreign product. Thus, since perceived quality plays a mediating role, this study proposes that price positively influences the perceived quality, but negatively influences the purchase intention. Kirchler et al. (2010:275) state that consumers use price as a 'rule of thumb' for quality, but that the relationship between price and quality differs per product category, and thus, the price-quality relationship is highly dependent on the type of goods in which you test the relationship. In an Austrian market, testing for eight product categories and using two panels (i.e. an expert panel and a consumer panel), Kirchler et al. (2010) found that the relationship between price and quality was moderately positive among the experts, and the more inexpensive the product category, the weaker the relationship. On the other hand, consumers associate a higher price with higher quality, and the relationship between price and quality was found to be stronger (Kirchler et al., 2010). Völckner and Hofmann (2007) performed a more combined measure of the relationship between price and perceived quality; they performed a meta-analysis on the relationship between price and perceived quality, using data from studies on this relationship between 1986 and 2006, and they found that the relationship between price and perceived quality is decreasing. Despite this decrease, the relationship is still significant, and price is still considered to be an important determinant of quality (Völckner & Hofmann, 2007).

In line with the authors above, some interesting findings arise from Beneke, Brito, and Garvey's (2015) study, and they proposed a positive relationship between perceived relative price and

perceived quality of private label brands. Beneke et al. (2015) operationalise perceived price as the consumers' price perception, in terms of being reasonable and affordable. In their study of 152 mall visitors in Cape Town, South Africa, they found that indeed the perceived relative price significantly and positively influences the perceived quality (Beneke et al., 2015). Thus, price perception influences the perceived quality. Beneke and Zimmerman (2014) also studied the relationship between perceived price and perceived quality for private label brands in a South African context. Using PLS-SEM to analyse the data obtained from 205 South African consumers, they found that the relationship between perceived price and perceived quality was significant, and it can therefore be concluded that price perception does influence the perceived quality (Beneke & Zimmerman, 2014). Similarly, Beristain and Zorilla (2011) found comparable results. While they proposed a negative relationship between price perception and perceived quality, in line with the price-quality heuristic, the results of their study in a store-brand context showed otherwise (Beristain & Zorilla, 2011). Using a sample of 405 consumers in Spain they found that contrary to their hypothesis, price perception (affordable, appropriate) positively and significantly influences the perceived quality of the store brands (Beristain & Zorilla, 2011). This provides evidence that the relationship between price and quality is more complicated and varies in different contexts, and although a high price might be associated with high quality, affordability is not necessarily a cue for low quality. These findings can possibly be explained in the light of a value perspective (Beneke et al., 2015), because in emerging markets people face resource constraints, or in the light of the low involvement product category, for which the relationship was tested.

Due to the above findings, and taking into consideration that two studies conducted in South Africa resulted in the finding that perceived pricing has–contrary to the price-quality heuristic–a positive effect on the perceived quality, this study proposes the same. From the literature above, it can be concluded that price has a relationship with perceived quality. Firstly, a high price has proven to be influential on the perceived quality, in line with the price-quality heuristic. Secondly, although the mainstream of previous literature would suggest otherwise, a reasonable or affordable price does not rule out quality, and might even have a positive effect on perceived quality. Due to the market, which is be value-conscious (McKinsey, 2012), this study tests the relationship between price and perceived quality, in line with the studies elaborated on above. Thus, contrary to most previous research, this study proposes that there is positive relationship between price and the perceived quality of global fashion brands. In other

words, the more reasonable and affordable the price of global fashion brands, the higher the perceived quality of global fashion brands.

H4. There is a positive relationship between price perception and perceived quality.

4.3.5 Brand knowledge and attitude (Hypothesis 5)

Due to its conceptualisation (i.e. brand knowledge consists of two aspects, namely brand awareness and brand image), the hypothesis stating brand knowledge has a positive effect on attitude are developed in two ways, namely brand awareness on attitude and brand image on attitude.

Firstly, some studies have investigated the relationship between brand knowledge as a whole, and attitude, without dividing the construct into awareness and image. For example, Siu, Kwan, and Zeng (2016) proposed a customer-based brand equity model consisting of brand loyalty, perceived quality, and brand knowledge and their influence on affective attitude. They studied 248 Chinese consumers who had previously consumed luxury products, and they found that brand knowledge positively influences the affective attitude construct (Siu et al., 2016). It must be noted that affective attitude differs slightly from attitude, due to its more 'emotional' nature. Despite this, they found that in their study, brand knowledge was the strongest predictor of attitude, stronger than brand loyalty and the perceived quality (Siu et al., 2016). Huang, Yang, and Wang (2014) also studied the relationship between brand knowledge and attitude. They studied the determinants of green purchase intentions, and proposed a positive relationship between green brand knowledge and green attitude, resulting in a purchase intention towards green products (Huang et al., 2014). From a sample of 430 Taiwanese members of a certain club, they found a positive relationship between green brand knowledge and green attitude, which is in line with the proposed relationship of this study, and suggests that the higher the green brand knowledge, the greater the attitude towards green brands, and, as a consequence, an increased green purchase intention (Huang et al., 2014). The influence of brand knowledge on attitude was the second strongest relationship in the conceptual model, following the influence of attitude on purchase intention (Huang et al., 2014).

4.3.5.1 Brand awareness on attitude

Frank and Watchravesringkan (2016) studied the relationship between both brand image and brand awareness and attitude. From a sample of 394 undergraduate students in the USA, the results of their study provided evidence that brand awareness influences attitudes towards a brand (Frank & Watchravesringkan, 2016). Thus, it can be concluded that the greater the brand awareness, the more positive the attitude towards the brand. Despite the fact that the study operationalised brand awareness and brand image similar to this research study, their research intended to measure the brand equity of global sportswear brands.

Halkias et al. (2016) used brand familiarity as a control variable in their conceptual model, and found that brand familiarity has a significant effect on both attitudes and purchase intentions (Halkias et al., 2016). They found among 253 consumers in Austria, using real brands in different categories from different countries, such as Toyota from Japan, Zara from Spain and Snickers from the USA, that brand familiarity significantly affects the attitude towards the brand, which influences consequently the purchase intention (Halkias et al., 2016). Jung and Seock (2016) had similar findings, among 212 American consumers, they studied the influence of corporate reputation on post-purchase intentions and attitudes, firstly measuring the impact of brand awareness and perceived quality on attitudes and purchase intentions. It was found that for an apparel brand (American Apparel), brand awareness played a significant role in attitude formation. Das (2014) studied the relationship in an Indian retail setting; he studied the relationships between attitude and purchase intention, self-congruity and attitude, awareness and attitude, and perceived quality and attitude. Using a sample of 355 Indian consumers, evidence was found for all hypotheses, among which the relationship between retailer awareness and attitude towards the retailer (Das, 2014), which provides evidence for the relationship between awareness and attitude. Also Maloney et al. (2014) found that awareness determines the positive or negative attitude towards purchasing. Maloney et al. (2014) studied the willingness to purchase organic products, more specifically, organic apparel products. Using the TPB and testing their conceptual research model among 142 students in the US, they found that awareness indirectly influences purchase intention: awareness directly influences attitude, which in turn influences the purchase intention (Maloney et al., 2014), stressing the importance of attitude as a mediating variable.

4.3.5.2 Brand image on attitude

As mentioned alongside the relationship between brand awareness and attitude, Frank and Watchravesringkan (2016) conducted a study in a similar context (i.e. global sportswear brands) on the relationship between brand image and attitude. The results of their study yielded several interesting results: firstly, brand image has a positive influence on the attitude towards the brand (Frank and Watchravesringkan, 2016). Secondly, they found evidence for the relationship between brand image and attitude (Frank and Watchravesringkan, 2016), and it can therefore be concluded that brand image influences the attitude towards the brand. Also in a wearable's context was the study of Chung et al. (2009), they studied the influence of brand image and country of manufacture on the purchase intention and attitude of Korean consumers in Seoul (n456). Chung et al. (2009) studied two product categories; clothing and TV's, and both product categories resulted in different findings. For both product categories, brand image was found to play a significant role in the attitude formation (Chung et al., 2009). But, the relationship between brand image and purchase intention was not found significant for TV's, but it was found significant for sweaters; brand image is for sweaters a determinant of both attitude and purchase intention (Chung et al., 2009).

Derived from the literature above, it is evident that brand knowledge has a relationship with attitude. Research mainly supported the relationship between brand awareness and attitude, and less attention was given to the relationship between brand image and attitude. Despite, this study proposes that there is a positive relationship between brand knowledge (i.e. brand awareness and brand image) and the attitude towards global fashion brands among black middle-class consumers in South Africa. In other words, the higher the brand awareness and the more positive the brand image of global fashion brands, the more favourable the attitude towards global fashion brands.

H5. There is a positive relationship between *brand knowledge* and *attitude*.

4.3.6 Brand knowledge and purchase intention (Hypothesis 6)

Knowledge plays an essential role in consumers' behaviour, including their purchase intentions (Cazacu et al., 2014). Because this study conceptualised brand knowledge as consisting of two constructs, namely brand awareness and brand image, this study develops the hypothesis from two perspectives, namely the relationship between brand awareness and purchase intention, and

the relationship between brand image and purchase intention. Firstly, previous research carried out on the relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intentions is provided.

The relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intentions has been studied in different contexts. For example, Cazacu et al.'s (2014) study on of 247 Greek consumers on their purchase intention towards water buffalo milk products in Greece found that the more knowledge consumers have of the product, the higher their purchase intention towards the product. Esch et al. (2006) conducted their study among 400 European students, and they found that both aspects of brand knowledge (i.e. brand awareness and brand image) are direct determinants of current purchase behaviour. They also found that both items of brand knowledge are not significant determinants of future intended purchase behaviour (Esch et al., 2006). Lin and Chen's (2006) research in Taipei regarding the purchase decisions of 369 Taiwanese people for products from Taiwan, China, and the USA, focused on the influence of product knowledge, product involvement, and country of origin on purchase decisions. They proposed a positive relationship between product knowledge and purchase decisions (i.e. information search intention and purchase intention), and among they established that product knowledge had a significant positive influence on purchase decisions (Lin & Chen, 2006). Additionally, Lin and Chen (2006) found strong support for the relationship between product knowledge and purchase intentions.

But not all relationships that were studied were found to be significant. For example, Venter et al.'s (2016) South African study proposed a conceptual model that aimed at investigating constructs such as brand familiarity, brand exposure, and brand knowledge on the purchase intention towards sportswear apparel brands. Using a sample of 150 students at the University of the Witwatersrand (Johannesburg, South Africa), the results were contrary to expectations; the direct relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intention was found to be insignificant, but brand knowledge as a mediator between brand exposure and purchase intention was found to be significant (Venter et al., 2016). Zheng and Chi (2015) also studied the influence of knowledge on purchase intention, and they found that environmentally friendly apparel clothing knowledge positively influences the purchase intention towards environmentally friendly apparel. The conceptual model was based on the TPB and the TRA, and tested among 178 students in the USA, but failed to provide evidence for the hypothesised

relationship; the effect of environmentally friendly apparel knowledge on the purchase intention of environmentally friend apparel was found to be insignificant (Zheng & Chi, 2015).

4.3.6.1 Brand awareness on purchase intention

The first component of brand knowledge is brand awareness, which is an important factor in purchase intentions (Chi et al., 2009). As elaborated on in the relationship between brand awareness and attitude, Jung and Seock (2016) studied the influence of corporate reputation on post-purchase intentions and attitudes, by firstly measuring the impact of brand awareness and perceived quality on attitude and the purchase intention. Their study confirmed the findings of the sample of the 212 American consumers, namely that for 'American Apparel', brand awareness significantly influenced the purchase intention towards the brand, confirming the proposed relationship. Similarly, Yunus and Rashid (2016) studied the determinants of the Malaysians' purchase intentions towards products originating from China. Their study proposes that there is a significant relationship between brand familiarity and the purchase intention towards mobile phone brands from China (Yunus and Rashid, 2016). From their sample of 200 Malaysian consumers, their study established that after perceived quality, familiarity is the highest influencer of purchase intentions (Yunus & Rashid, 2016). It must be noted that brand familiarity and brand awareness are often used interchangeably. Kakkos et al. (2015) proposed a positive relationship between brand awareness and the purchase intention for private label store brands. In their study among 171 consumers in Greece, they found evidence for the relationship between brand awareness and the purchase intention (Kakkos et al., 2015). They concluded that in line with previous studies, the higher the awareness and thus familiarity with a brand, the greater the intention to purchase (Kakkos et al., 2015). Das (2014) also proposed a relationship between awareness and purchase intention, and proposed in a retail setting a positive relationship between retailer awareness and purchase intention. In his study among 355 food retail shoppers in India, he found evidence for the relationship between retailer awareness and purchase intention (Das, 2014).

In a South African clothing context, in their study on decision-making towards sportswear clothing and coffee products, Radder and Huang (2008) found that brand awareness is important in consumers' decision-making process. In a sample of 300 students from a South African university, they tested their hypotheses for two product categories, namely coffee (low involvement) and sportswear clothing (high involvement) (Radder & Huang, 2008). For the

150 respondents for coffee and 150 respondents for sportswear clothing, awareness was important for decision-making (i.e. decision-making related to buying or choosing a particular brand); the role of awareness was important for both product categories, but was more important for the low involvement category, i.e. coffee (Radder & Huang, 2008). Finally, Chi et al. (2009) also proposed a positive relationship between brand awareness and purchase intention. Among 267 Taiwanese cellphone users, they found support for the relationship between brand awareness and purchase intention, and therefore they conclude that the higher the brand awareness the higher the purchase intention, since consumers are more likely to purchase brands that they are familiar with (Chi et al., 2009).

But surprisingly, results can be contradictory. Although they proposed a relationship between brand familiarity and the purchase intention towards global brands, Llocnch and Erdogan (2015) did not find a relationship between the variables. In Kim et al.'s (2008) study, where image and involvement played a significant role, awareness was found to be insignificant. Considering the literature above, it can be concluded that, although some results are contradictory, brand awareness, as part of the conceptualisation of brand knowledge, often influences consumers' purchase intentions.

4.3.6.2 Brand image on purchase intention

The second component of brand knowledge is brand image. Recently, Srivastava and Dey (2016) investigated the consumer behaviour of young consumers for local and global banks in India. From a sample of 331 students, the researchers established that brand image influences the purchase intention among young consumers, while brand awareness failed to be significant (Srivastava & Dey, 2016). Thus, in a banking context, there was evidence that brand image positively and significantly affects the purchase intention. In an apparel context, Erdil (2015) studied the purchase intention towards apparel clothing among 164 PhD and master students in Istanbul, Turkey. Erdil (2015) proposed a positive relationship between brand image and purchase intentions, and between store image and purchase intentions. The study found significant support for both relationships. It can be concluded that both brand image and store image significantly influence the purchase intention towards apparel clothing (Erdil, 2015), which shows the relevance of (brand) image for studies that focus on behavioural intentions.

Haque et al. (2015) also found that brand image (alongside perceived quality) was one of the most significant antecedents of purchase intentions towards foreign goods. In their study among 260 Bangladeshi consumers, using SPSS to analyse the obtained data, they found that amongst Bangladeshi consumers, brand image has a positive influence on the purchase intention towards foreign products (Haque et al., 2015). Tariq, Nawaz, Nawaz, and Butt (2013) also proposed a positive significant relationship between brand image and purchase intentions. Additionally, they found evidence for a positive relationship between product knowledge and the purchase intention, and they also found evidence that brand image influences the purchase intention (Tariq et al., 2013). Their study, conducted with 362 consumers in the emerging economy of Pakistan, focused on the purchase intention towards fast moving consumer goods (FMCGs), and they found that both product knowledge and brand image have an effect on purchase intentions (Tariq et al., 2013). Diallo (2012) stated that the image perception influences the purchase intention. The study of Diallo (2012) took place in Brazil, a BRIC nation and emerging market, among 379 mainly middle-class respondents, and found image as a strong predictor of purchase intention. Bao, Bao, and Sheng (2011) also studied the effects of store image on purchase intentions towards private label (store) brands. Store brands are brands developed by retailers. Bao et al.'s (2011) US study involved a sample size of 639 and investigated the relationship between store image and purchase intentions to determine the purchase intention towards store's private brands. Also in this study, the proposed relationship between store image and purchase intention was supported (Bao et al., 2011). Considering the literature above, it can be concluded that brand image, as part of the conceptualisation of brand knowledge, influences the purchase intention.

According to all the above literature, it can be concluded that brand knowledge has a relationship with purchase intentions. Even though previous studies on the relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intentions had contrary results, both aspects of brand knowledge (i.e. brand awareness and brand image) are often found to have a positive and significant relationship with the purchase intention. Therefore, this study proposes that there is a positive relationship between brand knowledge (and its components brand awareness and brand image) and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class consumers in South Africa. In other words, the more aware consumers are of the global fashion brands and the better the image of global fashion brands, the more likely their intention to purchase global fashion brands.

H6. There is a positive relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intention.

4.3.7 Brand knowledge and perceived quality (Hypothesis 7)

The relationship between brand knowledge and perceived quality is presented in the same order as the previous hypotheses, by developing the hypothesis by means of studying the influence of brand awareness and brand image on perceived quality.

4.3.7.1 Brand awareness on perceived quality

The first study that investigated the relationship between brand awareness and perceived quality is Abdolvand and Kia's (2016) study in Tehran, Iran, to investigate several factors that determine the consumers' re-purchase intention towards mobile phones. Focusing on the Nokia brand, they proposed a positive relationship between brand awareness and the perceived quality of that particular brand (Abdolvand & Kia, 2016). Their sample consisted of 385 students from the Islamic University, and they found support that brand awareness is statistically significant in its effect on the perceived quality, and it can thus be concluded that brand awareness does influence the perceived quality (Abdolvand & Kia, 2016). Jung, Lee, Kim, and Yang (2014) also investigated the influence of brand awareness on perceived quality, as part of their conceptual research model. For luxury fashion brands, they found that luxury brand awareness positively and significantly influences the luxury brand perceived quality (Jung et al., 2014), in line with the underlying assumptions of this study. Their research sampled both Korean and American consumers, and studied the influence of country of origin on luxury fashion brands (Jung et al., 2014).

Buil, Martinez, and de Chernatony (2013) composed an extensive conceptual model on consumer based brand equity, in which they also studied the relationship between brand awareness and perceived quality. They tested their model in the UK and Spain, on 302 and 305 consumers respectively, for major car, sportswear, and electronic brands (Buil et al., 2013). They found support for the relationship between brand awareness and perceived quality (Buil et al., 2013), and therefore it can be concluded that awareness of the specific sportswear, car, or electronic brands positively influences the perceived quality of those brands. Nguyen et al. (2011), from whom the brand awareness measurement scale was adopted, also proposed a positive relationship between brand awareness and perceived quality in their conceptual model. They argued that consumers are not able to assess the quality of the brand when there is no

awareness (Nguyen et al., 2011). The study took place in Vietnam (Hanoi) and Thailand (Bangkok) among 603 consumers (Nguyen et al., 2011). The results showed a positive relationship between brand awareness and perceived quality; the relationship between brand awareness and perceived quality was found significant in both Vietnam and Thailand (Nguyen et al., 2011).

Chi et al. (2009) proposed the relationship between brand awareness and perceived quality in two ways, in line with the conceptual model of this present study. Firstly, they proposed a positive relationship between brand awareness and perceived quality, and secondly they proposed that perceived quality is a mediator in the relationship between brand awareness and purchase intention (Chi et al., 2009). In their sample consisting of 267 Taiwanese cellular phone users, Chi et al. (2009) firstly found that brand awareness positively influences the perceived quality, and secondly, that perceived quality mediates the relationship between brand awareness and the purchase intention. Therefore, their study underlines the propositions of this research, i.e. the influence of brand awareness (as part of brand knowledge) on perceived quality, and the mediating role of perceived quality.

4.3.7.2 Brand image on perceived quality

The second relationship in brand knowledge and perceived quality is the relationship between brand image and perceived quality. Brand image plays an important role in predicting the quality of a product (Chiang & Jang, 2007), and has a positive relationship with the consumers' quality perceptions (Essoussi & Merunka, 2007).

The relationship between image and perceived quality is often studied in a store context, that is the influence of the image of the store as a predictor of the quality of the products the store offers. Beneke et al. (2015) found that in a South African store context, store image is highly important for perceived quality. Focusing on private label cereal brands (i.e. 'store brands'), they found that the store's image significantly and positively influences perceived quality (Beneke et al., 2015). Bao et al. (2011) also studied the effects of store image on perceived quality for private label brands, proposing that store image has a positive influence on the consumers' quality perception of a store's private brands. From a sample size of 639, their study found support for the proposed relationship, that is, the better the store's image, the higher the perceived quality of the store's private brands (Bao et al., 2011). Beristain and Zorilla (2011)

had similar findings, and found among 405 consumers in Spain, that store image positively influences the perceived quality. It must be noted that the above three studies focused on private label/store brands, which might limit the generalisability of their findings in different contexts. Wang (2015) used a sample of 552 investors in Taiwan to investigate what the key determinants were of the brand preference and the purchase intention towards funds. They found that brand image has a significant and positive impact on perceived quality, and that the relationship between brand image and perceived quality is strong; improving a fund's image could increase its preference and its purchase intention (Wang, 2015). This shows the wide applicability of the image construct, which proves its value in various contexts.

Chiang and Jang (2007) studied the relationship between brand image and perceived quality in a hospitality context. They sought to determine to what extent the determinants of their conceptual model influences the attitude of people to book their hotel online. They proposed a positive relationship between brand image and perceived quality, and tested that relationship among 404 students in the USA in a scenario where they could book a five-day trip to Orlando, Florida (Chiang & Jang, 2007). In line with the proposed hypothesis and previous literature, they found evidence for the relationship, and it was found significant and positive (Chiang & Jang, 2007), in line with the proposition of this study's conceptual model. Essoussi and Merunka (2007) studied the effects of country of origin and brand image on perceived quality in Tunisia, an emerging economy. Using a sample of 389 consumers and four different countries of origins for two product categories (i.e. cars and television sets), they proposed a positive relationship between brand image and perceived quality. This relationship was supported and found significant and positive, and it can therefore be concluded that brand image and perceived quality have a relationship.

From the above literature, it can be concluded that both aspects of brand knowledge (i.e. brand awareness and brand image) have a positive relationship with perceived quality. This study proposes that there is a positive relationship between brand knowledge and perceived quality of global fashion brands amongst black middle-class consumers in South Africa. In other words, the more brand knowledge consumers have, the higher they perceive the quality of global fashion brands to be.

H7. There is a positive relationship between brand knowledge and perceived quality.

4.3.8 Self-image and attitude (Hypothesis 8)

Already in 1985, Sirgy found evidence for the relationship between self-image and purchase motivations. Sirgy (1985) is one of the founders of self-congruence and self-image research, distinguishing between actual self, ideal self, the social self, and the ideal social self, and linking them to purchase motivations. The relationship between this self-concept and brands is increasingly recognised (Khare & Rakesh, 2010), and is therefore relevant to add to this study's conceptual model. While the relationship between identity and intentions is increasingly seen as a valuable predictor in the TPB (Yazdanpanah & Forouzani, 2015), attitude is another valuable predictor in the TPB. Das (2014) found that self-congruity of consumers plays an important role in attitude formation. His study investigated the relationship between self-congruity and the attitude towards the retailer, and found self-congruity to be a predictor of consumers' attitudes towards a brand, based on the assumption that consumers buy brands with an image that matches their self-image (Das, 2014). Therefore, this study proposes that self-image influences consumers' attitude, as well as their purchase intention.

Mobrezi and Khoshtinat (2016) conducted a study among 279 women in Tehran, and investigated the relationship between self-image and attitude. They found that women's self-image affects their positive attitude towards green products. Shin et al. (2016) also linked self-image to attitude. As an extension to the TPB, they added self-congruity to the TPB variables (i.e. attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control) (Shin et al., 2016). They sampled 1,845 consumers in the US, and applied the TPB to the purchase intention and purchase behaviour of local foods. They found a positive and direct link between self-congruity and the TPB variables, amongst which attitude and self-congruity significantly influenced the actual purchase behaviour (Shin et al., 2016), which shows how strong the influence of self-congruity is. The higher the self-congruity is, the more positive the attitude (Shin et al., 2016).

Erdogmus and Büdeyri-Turan (2012) proposed a positive relationship between brand personality congruence and attitude. They tested their conceptual model among 564 Generation Y shopping mall visitors in Turkey. They stated that the more perceived congruence between the consumers' personality and the personality of the brand, the higher the formation of attitude (Erdogmus & Büdeyri-Turan, 2012). Their study found partial support for this hypothesis. Full support was found in Kang, Tang, Lee, and Bosselman's (2012) study at 13 coffee shops in

Seoul, Korea; they proposed a positive relationship between self-image congruity and attitude, which in turn affects the consumers' re-purchase intention towards coffee. Kang et al. (2012) found a strong relationship between self-image congruity and attitude, in line with the proposed relationship of this present study, although this study tests the relationship for a high involvement product. Thus, when the congruity between the self-image and the image of the brand increases, the more positive the attitude will be towards the brand. Kang et al. (2012) focused on all the four selves, in contrast to Liu, Li, Mizerski, and Soh (2012), who focused only on the actual self, in line with this study. Liu et al. (2012) proposed that brand user imagery congruity (i.e. the image of the typical user of the product is consistent with the consumer's self-image) influences the attitude towards luxury brands. In their sample of 264 Australian students, they found that brand user imagery congruity has a positive effect on attitude (Liu et al., 2012). Brand user imagery congruity implies that the consumer's image (i.e. self-image) is consistent with the image of the typical user of the product or brand, which is very important for attitude formation and behavioural intentions (Liu et al., 2012).

Bosnjak and Rudolph (2008) also found evidence for the relationship between congruity and attitudes. They initially set out to investigate the relationship between undesired congruity and consumption related attitudes, focusing on 211 smokers. While the relationship between undesired congruity and intentions was not supported, they did find evidence for the negative relationship between undesired congruity and attitudes (Bosnjak & Rudolph, 2008). Ibrahim and Najjar (2008) studied the relationship between the actual self and ideal self and attitude, the influence of attitude on satisfaction, and finally the influence of satisfaction on behavioural intentions. Their data was collected in Tunisia, with a sample consisting of 231 female consumers and 132 male consumers (Ibrahim & Najjar, 2008). Regarding the relationships between the actual self and ideal self and attitude, they found that self-congruity has a significant effect on the overall attitude of consumers, and that the ideal self (more than the actual self) influences the consumers' attitude towards discount shops (Ibrahim & Najjar, 2008). Ekinci and Riley (2003) also found that the self-concept is an important antecedent of attitude. In two separate studies among 90 customers, they studied the relationship between self-concept and attitude in a hospitality setting (i.e. hotels and restaurants) (Ekinci & Riley, 2003). They found that in both studies the actual self as well as the ideal self influences the overall attitude and behavioural intentions, and therefore the relationships were supported

(Ekinci & Riley, 2003). In other words, both the actual self as well as the ideal self influence attitude formation.

As can be concluded from the literature above, consumers' self-image has a positive relationship with attitude. This study proposes that there is a positive relationship between self-image and the attitude towards global fashion brands. In other words, the more global fashion brands are congruent with the consumer's self-image, the more likely it is that the consumer will have a positive attitude towards global fashion brands.

H8. There is a positive relationship between self-image and attitude.

4.3.9 Self-image and purchase intention (Hypothesis 9)

Sirgy (1985) proposed that consumers' purchase motivations are a consequence of self-congruency; in a study of 168 women it was found that self-congruency significantly influences purchase motivations. In Sparks and Shepherd's (1992) study it was acknowledged that a person's self-identity influences their behaviour. A person's self-identity can predict their behaviour, independently from attitude, and therefore they used the TPB model in their study and added a variable for self-identity (Sparks & Shepherd, 1992). Their study found that the influence of self-identity on the behavioural intention was stronger than the influence of attitude as well as subjective norm on the behavioural intention; only the relationship between perceived behavioural control and behavioural intention was stronger (Sparks & Shepherd, 1992). In 1993, Kleine, Kleine, and Kernan acknowledged that even the normal products that people use on a daily basis are self-expressive, such as the clothing they wear to work. The social identity theory behind their reasoning states that there is a relationship between the self-concept of a person and the products that this person possesses (Kleine et al., 1993). The influence of the self cannot be ignored in this study due to several reasons, for example, consumers recognise brands as tools with which to create their social identity (Wolter et al., 2016), brands play a significant role in shaping consumers' identity (Huber et al., 2015), the importance of a match between brand personality and the consumer's personality (Rageh Ismail & Spinelli, 2012), and branding research recognises the importance of brands and consumer identities (Bartsch et al., 2016). Clothes are an integral part of someone's identity, as well as someone's self-image (Khare, 2014), and could therefore not be neglected in the context of this study.

Matzler, Strobl, Stokburger-Sauer, Bobovnicky and Bauer's (2016) study concerned visit intentions for a specific country as a holiday destination, and proposed that self-congruity influenced the visitors' intentions. They surveyed 2,116 citizens from five countries regarding their intention to visit Slovakia. Matzler et al. (2016) found a relationship between brand self-congruity and visitors' intentions, and self-congruity served as a mediator between brand personality and visitors' intentions. Mobrezi and Khoshtinat (2016) conducted a study among 310 women in the West of Tehran, using the TRA, and out of 279 usable questionnaires, they found that women's self-image affects their purchase intentions towards green products. Lee and Lee (2015) conducted a study among 455 Chinese consumers in three cities, and their research established that self congruency influences purchase intentions in the corporate social responsibility arena. Their research states that when a company is consistent with the consumer's self-image, the purchase intention towards the products of that company increase.

Sarwary and Chaudhry (2015) tested the relationship for apparel and FMCG; they studied the relationship between the 'four selves', among which the actual self was included. They found that for apparel, there was a significant relationship between the actual self and the purchase intention, in line with Sirgy's (1982) philosophy (Sarwary & Chaudhry, 2015). The actual self-concept influences the purchase intention towards certain branded apparel (Sarwary & Chaudhry, 2015), which is in line with the proposition of this research study. Zhou, Poon, and Wang (2015) studied the congruence between self-image and local and global advertisements. Their research took place in China, and the study found evidence that, in advertising, consumers' responses towards advertisements that are congruent with them, due to factors such as model ethnicity or product category, are more positive. Plewa and Palmer (2014) studied the relationship between self-congruence and purchase intentions in a sports consumption context. Their study used an online survey with a sample of 556 Australian respondents, and they found a significant and positive relationship between global self-congruence and the purchase intention towards the sponsoring brand (Plewa & Palmer, 2014). Hee Kwak and Kang (2009) studied the relationship between self-image congruence and the purchase intention towards team-licensed merchandise in Korea. After a pilot study, their survey, involving 260 respondents in Korea, found a significant relationship between self-image congruence and purchase intention (Hee Kwak & Kang, 2009). They found that both the actual self and the ideal self are important for building self-image congruence, but the actual self plays a bigger role in forming the self-image congruence (Hee Kwak & Kang, 2009).

Li, Wang, and Yang (2011) studied purchase intentions towards major car brands in China. They proposed that a higher degree of self-image and corporate brand congruity would result in a higher purchase intention towards the brand (Li et al., 2011). Using a sample of 477 consumers from four main cities in China, they found evidence for the relationship; the more self-congruity between the self-image and the brand, the higher the purchase intention (Li et al., 2011). Jamal and Goode (2001) studied the relationship between consumers and brands, focusing on jewellery. They investigated the relationship between self-image congruency and brand preference, and proposed a positive relationship between self-image congruency and brand preference (Jamal & Goode, 2001). Their study among 116 consumers in five cities in the UK found a strong relationship between self-image congruency and brand preference (Jamal & Goode, 2001). The local or global identity of the consumer also plays a role in their self-image. Strizhakova and Coulter (2015) found that the local identity function of brands influences the purchase intention towards local brands. Therefore, this study adopts a measurement scale that includes to what extent wearing global fashion brands is consistent with a consumer's self-image.

From the above literature it can be concluded that consumers' self-image has a positive relationship with purchase intentions. This study proposes that there is a positive relationship between self-image and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. In other words, the more congruent global fashion brands are with the consumer's self-image, the more likely the consumer has a purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

H9. There is a positive relationship between self-image and purchase intention.

4.3.10 Fashion involvement and purchase intention (Hypothesis 10)

In many aspects, the involvement of a consumer reveals their behaviour regarding decision-making and consumption (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012), and involvement is a useful tool to study behavioural tendencies (Kim, 2005). Kim et al. (2010) even refer to product involvement as one of the most important variables in consumer behaviour research. As explained before, fashion involvement is product involvement for apparel categories (Kim, 2005), and the role of fashion involvement on consumer decision-making is widely acknowledged (Khare, 2014). For example, apparel involvement influences consumers' purchase behaviour (Sullivan &

Heitmeyer, 2008). Therefore, fashion involvement is incorporated into the conceptual model as an antecedent of the purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

Bachleda et al. (2016) studied the relationship between involvement and purchase intention, as well as image and awareness as mediators in the relationship between involvement and the purchase intention. Awareness and image served as mediators between involvement and the purchase intention, and their study investigated the influence of sponsor awareness and image on the relationship between sports involvement and the purchase intention (Bachleda et al., 2016). Among 328 respondents in Morocco, they found that there is a direct relationship between involvement and purchase intention, and that image mediates this relationship, while awareness does not (Bachleda et al., 2016). This implies that image is important if companies want to increase purchase intentions via involvement (Bachleda et al., 2016).

Saran et al. (2016) also studied the role of consumer involvement in their study on the influence of several antecedents on fashion consumption, fashion impulse buying, and hedonistic fashion consumption. Their study took place among 652 shopping mall visitors in India, Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South African (BRICS), and they proposed a positive and significant relationship between consumer involvement and fashion-oriented hedonistic consumption (Saran et al., 2016). In line with the proposed relationship of this study, they found that consumer involvement positively and significantly influences fashion-oriented purchase decisions (Saran et al., 2016). Seo (2016) studied the influence of product involvement on behavioural intentions towards apparel. He studied the internet shopping (i.e. online shopping) intentions among generation Y African-Americans for apparel, and proposed that the level of (apparel) product involvement significantly influences the online behavioural intentions (Seo, 2016). This means that the more involved the individual is, the more likely this person is to shop online. In their study, product involvement referred to apparel product involvement, and internet purchase intentions referred to the intention towards purchasing clothing online. Among 240 generation Y African-American students at American universities, evidence was found for the relationship between the level of product involvement and online behavioural intentions (Seo, 2016). Thus, the more involved the individual is in clothing, the higher their intention to purchase clothing online, which is in line with the underlying proposition of this study–that the higher the involvement, the greater the intention to purchase.

Teng and Lu (2016) studied Taiwanese consumers' purchase intentions towards organic food. They hypothesised a positive relationship between involvement and purchase intentions; involvement in organic food positively influences the purchase intention towards organic foods. Among 457 Taiwanese consumers in three major metropolitan cities in Taiwan, their study found evidence for the positive relationship between involvement and purchase intentions (Teng and Lu, 2016). Also in an emerging market context (Pakistan), Tariq et al. (2013) did a study on the determinants of purchase intentions towards FMCGs. Among these determinants, they proposed that product involvement has a positive effect on purchase intentions (Tariq et al., 2013). With a sample of 362 Pakistani consumers, they found evidence for this relationship; the influence of product involvement on purchase intentions was found to be significant (Tariq et al., 2013). Kim et al. (2010) also proposed that product involvement is positively related to purchase intentions. In their study on online shopping, they sampled 264 Korean respondents with online shopping experience. Kim et al. (2010) found that consumers with higher levels of involvement had more intentions to purchase, and thus they found support for the positive relationship between (product) involvement and purchase intentions. Kim et al. (2008) studied the relationships between sponsor awareness, sport involvement, and corporate image on purchase intentions towards sponsors' products. Their study among 390 respondents in Seoul, Korea, found corporate image to be the most important predictor of the purchase intention, and involvement as the second most influential factor; they also found strong evidence for the relationship between sports involvement and purchase intentions towards sponsors' products (Kim et al., 2008).

Sullivan and Heitmeyer (2008) aimed to investigate the factors that determine store preference and patronage intentions of Generation Y apparel shoppers. In their study, sampling 140 generation Y shoppers in the USA, Sullivan and Heitmeyer (2008:294) found that shopping involvement is a predictor of future purchase behaviour. Lin and Chen's (2006) study on the influence of country of origin, product knowledge, and product involvement on purchase decisions for goods from Taiwan, China, and the USA, proposed a positive relationship between product involvement and purchase decisions, among which were purchase intentions. Their study among 369 Taipei residents found strong support for the proposed hypotheses, that product involvement does significantly positively influence purchase decisions and purchase intentions (Lin & Chen, 2006).

As described in the relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intention, Bian and Moutinho (2011) studied the influence of product knowledge on purchase intentions towards counterfeit goods. Although they studied the relationship between product involvement and purchase intention, Bian and Moutinho (2011) set out to investigate from a different point-of-view, namely to establish how a product's involvement negatively influences the purchase intention towards counterfeit goods. They argued that when consumer involvement increases, the decision-making process is more in-depth, they obtain more information, and therefore they are more capable of evaluating counterfeit goods (Bian & Moutinho, 2011). Bian and Moutinho (2011) used a sample of 321 consumers in Glasgow, UK. They thus proposed that a negative relationship exists between product involvement and the purchase intention towards counterfeit goods, which implies that the more involved consumers are in the product, the less likely their purchase intention is towards counterfeit goods. But the findings showed otherwise; there was no significant relationship found between product involvement and the purchase intention towards counterfeit goods (Bian & Moutinho, 2011). Another contrary result came from Huang, Chou, and Lin's (2010) study. With 398 bloggers in Taiwan, they studied the relationship between bloggers' involvement and purchase intentions. Contrary to their proposed hypothesis and previous findings, their study did not find a relationship between those two variables, possibly due to a lack of trust by internet vendors and perceived value (Huang et al., 2010).

Although findings are somewhat contrary, based on the above literature, there seems to be enough evidence to propose a relationship between (fashion) involvement and purchase intentions. This study therefore proposes that there is a positive relationship between fashion involvement and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class consumers in South Africa. In other words, the more fashion involved the consumer is, the greater their intention is to purchase global fashion brands.

H10. There is a positive relationship between fashion involvement and purchase intention.

4.3.11 Brand love and purchase intention (Hypothesis 11)

Although it is argued that brand love has a universal application, application thus far seems limited; brand love is usually linked to the same constructs (i.e. word-of-mouth, brand loyalty). Brand love is part of emotional attachment, and hedonistic products such as fashion items are more subject to brand love than products of a utilitarian nature (Hwang and Kandampully, 2012;

Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Fashion brands are thus subject to emotional attachment, among which brand love is such an emotional attachment. South Africa has a strong domestic market, and accordingly, the favourite fashion store for 44% of the black middle-class females in the Gauteng area is Woolworths, followed by Forever New (5%) and Zara (4%) (Venter, 2015). Therefore, global fashion brands have to compete with the favourite local brands, which have a strong domestic position among the targeted consumers.

The positive influence of brand love on brand loyalty and word-of-mouth are the most studied relationships regarding the brand love construct. Drennan et al. (2015) proposed and found evidence for a significant positive relationship between brand love and brand loyalty in their study in Australia, Chile, Mexico, France, and Portugal, that focused on wine brands. Fetscherin et al. (2014) also proposed positive relationships between brand love and brand loyalty and brand love and word-of-mouth. Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010) studied the relationship between brand love and loyalty, and between brand love and word-of-mouth. Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) studied the relationship between brand love and brand loyalty, and brand love and word-of-mouth. Bauer et al. (2009) found evidence for the relationships between brand love and the willingness to pay a premium price and to forgive.

Fetscherin et al. (2014) proposed a positive relationship between brand love and brand loyalty, brand love and word-of-mouth, and brand love and purchase intentions. Fetscherin et al. (2014) are among the few researchers that link brand love to purchase intentions. They proposed a positive relationship between brand love and purchase intentions due to the influence of brand loyalty on purchase intentions, since brand love is an antecedent of brand loyalty, the the authors proposed a positive relationship between brand love and purchase intentions. Among 800 consumers in Brazil, Fetscherin et al. (2014) found that brand love and brand loyalty and brand love and word-of-mouth are positive significant relationships. Regarding the relationship between brand love and purchase intentions, the relationship was positive but not always significant; it was non-significant for soft drinks and cars (i.e. due to an obstacle such as affordability), but it was significant for shoes and mobile phones (Fetscherin et al., 2014).

Albert and Merunka (2013) in their study of 1,505 participants in France, used PLS-SEM to analyse their data, and linked brand love to brand commitment, and word-of-mouth to the willingness to pay a premium price. They found a strong relationship between brand love and

commitment, and found that love influences attitudinal loyalty (Albert & Merunka, 2013). Unal and Aydin (2013) studied 398 university students in Turkey, and established several possible consequences of brand love: variety seeking (rejected); brand image (confirmed); and the social-self (confirmed). Their research also found support for consequences of brand love mentioned before, namely that brand love influences brand loyalty and word-of-mouth (Unal & Aydin, 2013). Rageh Ismail and Spinelli (2012) in their study of 250 students at a university in the UK, investigated the relationship between brand love and word-of-mouth, and found evidence that brand love influences word-of-mouth. Vlachos and Vrechopoulos (2012) studied the consumer's emotional attachment, based on factors such as the brand love construct described by Carroll and Ahuvia (2006). They hypothesised that the consumers' emotional attachments influence their re-patronage intentions, and in their study of 465 consumers in Germany, they found support for their hypothesis, that is, that emotional attachment does influence re-patronage intentions (Vlachos & Vrechopoulos, 2012). In other words, emotional relationships with consumers may pay off (Vlachos & Vrechopoulos, 2012). As mentioned before, brand love is a concept linked to emotional attachment (Kang, 2015). Hwang and Kandampully (2012) related brand love to the self-concept; the self-concept connection between consumer and brand influences brand loyalty, emotional attachment and brand love, and brand love also positively influences brand loyalty. This confirms that brand love is fuelled by the self-concept (i.e. the question arises as to whether or not there would be a greater self concept connection to local brands in comparison to global brands). Hwang and Kandampully (2012) tested the conceptual model in the context of (luxury) fashion brands with 107 students in the USA, and found evidence for all hypothesised relationships, among which the relationship between brand love and brand loyalty was tested.

Contrary to most brand love research, Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010) did not only use small and niche brands such as Harley-Davidson, like Carroll and Ahuvia (2006), but used a sample of six brands, while unfortunately only making use of a 2-item scale of brand love, which can be seen as a limitation. Bergkvist and Bech-Larsen (2010) proposed brand love to be a mediator variable between brand identification and brand loyalty. Also contrary to most brand love studies is Kang's (2015) research on the proposed relationships between brand love and brand image (H1), brand engagement (H2), and attitude and behaviour towards the brand (H3), and he found support for all three hypotheses. Kang's (2015) research was carried out in India among 160 randomly sampled undergraduate and postgraduate students, and he studied brand

love for smartphone brands such as Samsung, Blackberry, and Apple. Closest to the hypothesised relationships of this study, is Sarkar and Sreejesh's (2014) conceptual model. While focusing on brand jealousy, they suggested that brand love does not directly influence purchase intentions, but instead that brand love influences brand jealousy, which motivates purchase intentions (Sarkar & Sreejesh, 2014). Their study found support for this relationship, but it did not find a direct effect of brand love on purchase intentions (Sarkar & Sreejesh, 2014) in the specific context of their study.

According to the literature above, it can be stated that the relationship this study proposes is relatively new. It can be concluded that brand love is a construct that is used mainly related to post-purchase behaviour, and is not related to behavioural intentions or purchase behaviour. Brand love has been linked to brand loyalty and word-of-mouth, but the relationship between brand love and purchase intentions is a relatively new one, especially in the current context, where brand love is not positively linked to the purchase intention towards the 'loved' brands or loyalty towards those brands, but negatively to the purchase intention towards 'foreign' brands. This study proposes that there is a negative relationship between brand love and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class consumers in South Africa. In other words, the more love consumers display towards their local brands, the smaller and less likely their intention is to purchase global fashion brands.

H11. There is a negative relationship between brand love and purchase intention.

4.3.12 Attitude and purchase intention (Hypothesis 12)

The influence of attitude on purchase intentions is widely studied and acknowledged. The relationship between the attitude towards the behaviour and the intention to perform the behaviour is rooted in the TRA and the TPB. Chiu and Leng (2016) based their conceptual model on the TPB, and investigated the relationships between attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control, and purchase intention. Their research investigated the purchase intention of 295 students in Singapore and Taiwan regarding counterfeit sporting goods (Chiu & Leng, 2016). Their study found that out of all the TPB's constructs, attitude had the greatest influence on the purchase intention, similarly to Haefner et al. (2016), who also state that attitude is the key variable. Although they use attitude and liking interchangeable, and formed their hypotheses using liking, they argue that it is a surrogate term for attitude in their study

(Haefner et al., 2016). Among 177 South African UJ students, Haefner et al. (2016) found attitude to be the key variable in their model, and strong liking implies a strong attitude, which influences purchase intentions. Despite Haefner et al.'s (2016) contrary results, the importance of attitude in purchase decisions is still being proved. Halkias et al. (2016) assumed the relationship between attitude and purchase intentions, without even testing this relationship in their conceptual model. Their research investigated the influence of perceived brand localness, perceived brand globalness, competence, and warmth attitude, which in turn influenced intentions to purchase (Halkias et al., 2016). Jung and Seock (2016) had similar findings, and found evidence for the positive relationship between attitude and purchase intentions in an apparel context, namely that attitude towards the apparel brand (American Apparel) positively influences the purchase intention towards this brand among American consumers. Similarly, Mobrezi and Khoshtinat (2016) proposed and tested that the attitude towards green products influences the willingness to buy green products. Their study found support that attitude indeed influences the willingness to buy. As mentioned earlier, purchase intention and willingness to buy aim to result in the same outcome–the actual purchase behaviour.

Bianchi and Mortimer (2015) conducted a study to identify which factors drive local food consumption, also based on the TRA. Their study took place in Chile and Australia with 283 and 300 respondents respectively. In both of the countries studied, Bianchi and Mortimer (2015) found that the consumers' attitude towards local food positively influences their purchase intention towards local food. Carter and Maher (2015) also proposed a relationship between the attitude towards foreign products and the purchase intention towards foreign products, however, their conceptual model has not been empirically tested yet, which they indicate as a direction for further research. As mentioned in the relationship between brand awareness and attitude, Maloney et al. (2014) studied the willingness to buy organic apparel products. Rooting their study in the TPB, Maloney et al. (2014) investigated the relationship between attitude and purchase intentions. Their sample of 142 students in the US found evidence that attitude directly influences the purchase intention, and that attitude was even the most influential construct in determining the purchase intention. Phau, Teah, and Chuah (2015) studied consumers' attitude towards luxury fashion apparel that is made in sweatshops (i.e. a poor working facility where workers work long days for low wages (Phau et al., 2015)) in mainly undeveloped countries, usually for giants such as H&M and Nike, but also for luxury brands such as Victoria's Secret and Armani Exchange. Their study, based on the TPB, was carried out among 197 shopping

mall visitors in Australia, and showed that attitude towards the behaviour (i.e. buying luxury fashion apparel that is made in sweatshops) influences the purchase intention towards luxury fashion apparel made in sweatshops (Phau et al., 2015). Cazacu et al. (2014) also based their study on the TRA. In their study among 247 respondents in Greece that focused on the purchase intention towards water buffalo milk products, they proposed that attitude influences the purchase intention, and they found evidence for that relationship (Cazacu et al., 2014). In their research in India among 210 students, Son et al. (2013) also found a strong relationship within the TRA model between attitude and purchase intentions. They found that in the purchase behaviours of foreign goods, attitude had the biggest influence on purchase intentions, more than perceived behavioural control, and subjective norm was found to be insignificant. Similarly, Jin et al. (2012) also found attitude to be the most important predictor of purchase intentions. In a study among 551 Indian and 724 Chinese consumers about the purchase intention towards an American apparel brand, attitude towards the American apparel brand was for consumers in both countries the most important determinant (Jin et al., 2012). It is evident that attitude is a powerful antecedent of purchase intentions, and therefore it is important for marketers to create favourable attitudes towards global brands, which can be done by creating favourable attributes that cause favourable attitudes.

Balleau et al. (2007) also used the TRA in their research to measure the purchase intention of young consumers towards emu leather products. They proposed a positive relationship between the attitude towards the behaviour and the intention to perform the behaviour. Their study among 229 (mainly female) college students in the USA found that attitude significantly influences the purchase intention; the more favourable the attitude, the higher the purchase intention (Belleau et al., 2007). In Mahon et al.'s (2006) study, the TPB was used to predict consumption of takeaway food. They investigated the role of the TPB variables plus 'habit' to predict the consumption of takeaway meals in Great Britain (Mahon et al., 2006). In their study, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control were either insignificant, or played a minor role in comparison to attitude; they found attitude to be the most important predictor of behaviour (Mahon et al., 2006).

This is one of the most studied hypotheses that this study utilises, and it is clearly evident that attitude is an important predictor of purchase behaviour. This study therefore proposes that there is a positive relationship between attitude and the purchase intention towards global

fashion brands. In other words, the more positive the attitude of black middle-class consumers towards global fashion brands, the more likely they will have the intention to purchase global fashion brands.

H12. There is a positive relationship between attitude and purchase intention.

4.3.13 Perceived quality and purchase intention (Hypothesis 13)

Another well-studied variable in this research is perceived quality. Perceived quality is widely acknowledged to drive product purchase, is considered to be the primary driver of purchase intentions, and is an important construct in research regarding consumers in emerging markets, due to their perception that foreign products are of a higher quality than local products (Asshidin et al., 2016). Among the 210 Indian students that Son et al. (2013) studied, they found that after attitude, the second best significant antecedent of the purchase intention towards foreign goods in India is quality. Summarised, high quality is important for the purchase likelihood (Llonch & Erdogan, 2015). As shown in the conceptual research model, perceived quality plays a mediating role in the model, and serves as a mediator between the independent and dependent variables. Perceived quality plays this role more often, for example, this is evident in Das (2015) and Haque et al.'s (2015) studies. Haque et al. (2015) stated that ethnocentrism influences perceived quality and the purchase intention, but in addition, it is also a mediator between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards foreign goods.

Asshidin et al. (2016) investigated the effects of perceived quality on the purchase intention of Malaysian consumers towards local products as well as towards American products, to gain understanding about how Malaysian consumers perceive foreign products. Asshidin et al. (2016) randomly selected 236 Malaysian students who completed the questionnaire, and the study found that perceived quality is an important predictor of the purchase intentions towards both local and foreign products. Additionally, Jung and Seock (2016) also found evidence for this relationship, establishing that the perceived quality of American Apparel positively influences the purchase intention towards the American Apparel brand. Yunus and Rashid (2016:345) conducted their study similarly to Asshidin et al. (2016) among Malaysian consumers, and proposed a "significant relationship between product perceived quality and consumers' purchase intention towards mobile phone brands from China". Their study among 200 Malaysian consumers found that perceived quality was the highest influencer of the

purchase intention towards mobile phone brands from China (Yunus & Rashid, 2016). In Das's (2015) study, where perceived quality played a mediating role between self-congruency and brand familiarity, the relationship between perceived quality and purchase intention was investigated in an Indian fashion retail context. Among 374 Indian shoppers, Das (2015) found evidence for the relationship between perceived quality and purchase intentions, concluding that perceived quality positively influences the purchase intentions. Das (2015) also found that perceived quality has a strong mediating role, which assumes that purchase intentions can be enhanced by perceived quality. Haque et al. (2015) found that perceived quality (alongside brand image) was one of the most significant antecedents on the purchase intention towards foreign goods. Llonch and Erdogan (2015), who conducted their research among 290 consumers in Turkey, found that the perceived quality of global brands influences the purchase intention towards global brands. In line with ethnocentrism, this relationship seems to work two ways. For example, Strizhakova and Coulter (2015), who used a sample of 2197 consumers in seven countries (i.e. 300 consumers per country–Australia, Brazil, China, India, Russia, UK, and USA), proposed and found evidence for the relationship between the quality of local brands and the purchase intention towards local brands. In other words, purchase intentions towards local and global brands are influenced by the quality of the local and global brands.

Giridhar et al. (2015) researched the purchase intention of Indian consumers towards foreign apparel brands. Their findings indicate perceived quality is the most important antecedent of the purchase intention towards foreign apparel brands, and therefore it is recommended that new apparel firms that enter the Indian market focus on high quality and have marketing strategies that enable the delivery of high quality products (Giridhar et al., 2015). Das (2014) also studied the relationship between perceived quality and purchase intentions, and found evidence among 355 Indian food retail shoppers for this relationship. Thus, Das (2014, 2015) found support for the relationship between perceived quality and purchase intentions in both a fashion context and a food context, which shows the strength of this relationship across product categories (i.e. high involvement and low involvement). Jani and Mzalendo (2015) studied the relationship between perceived quality and purchase intentions in an African context. According to Jani and Mzalendo (2015), perceived quality plays a key role in the purchase intention towards foreign products. The authors conducted their research in Tanzania, focusing on domestic versus foreign wines. Their study found that consumers in Tanzania believe that foreign (i.e. imported) wines are of a higher quality, and have a higher status than local wines

(Jani & Mzalendo, 2015). Additionally, they discovered that when quality is perceived to be the same, consumers are likely to go for the local wine, for financial reasons (Jani & Mzalendo, 2015). This stresses the importance of including price in the conceptual research model.

Akram et al.'s (2011) study of 130 consumers, which led to 113 usable questionnaires, investigated the relationship between perceived brand quality and purchase intentions towards local versus global brands in the emerging economy of Pakistan. Akram et al. (2011) used global brands (Coca Cola, Nestle, Dove) and their local alternatives to measure the constructs. Their study found that perceived quality was the strongest mediator in their conceptual model (i.e. stronger than perceived brand prestige) on purchase intentions. Bao et al. (2011) also studied this relationship, using a sample size of 639, and proposed a positive relationship between private brands' perceived quality and the purchase intention towards private (store) brands. Their research found support for the hypothesis that the higher the perceived quality of private brands, the higher the purchase intention will be towards private brands (Bao et al., 2011). Additionally, in line with Akram et al.'s (2011) conceptual model, perceived quality played a mediating role in their conceptual model, and as in Bao et al.'s (2011) study, the proposed mediating effects of perceived quality are supported by the findings.

Even though the perceived quality's influence on purchase intentions is widely acknowledged, there are also contradictory findings. Kakkos et al. (2015) did not find evidence among Greek consumers that perceived quality influences the purchase intention towards private label store brands. In their study of 411 students in Mumbai, India, Kumar et al. (2009) examined the influence of perceived quality on purchase intentions by comparing apparel brands from the United States with local apparel brands. They proposed relationships between perceived quality of local brands and the purchase intention towards local brands, and perceived quality of global brands and the purchase intention towards global brands (Kumar et al., 2009). The study resulted in interesting findings; contrary to other literature, for the Levi's brand there was a negative relationship between perceived quality and purchase intention, and the authors suggested other variables such as price to explain this finding. Additionally, the relationship between perceived quality and purchase intention was not significant for local brands; emotional value drove this purchase intention (Kumar et al., 2009). Lee, Kim, Pelton, Knight, and Forney (2008) and Knight and Young Kim (2007) proposed a positive relationship between perceived quality and purchase intentions; the higher the perceived quality, the greater the

intentions to purchase. Lee et al. (2008) studied the relationship between perceived quality and the purchase intention towards US apparel brands in Mexico among 256 Mexican students. Surprisingly, they found instead of the proposed positive relationship, a negative relationship between perceived quality and purchase intention, which is possibly the result of consumers favouring Mexican/domestic products (Lee et al., 2008). Knight and Young Kim (2007) studied the purchase intention of Japanese generation Y consumers (students) of two major metropolitan universities in Japan, for a US apparel brand, and also found a negative relationship. The negative relationship between perceived quality and purchase intentions is interesting to take into consideration for this research, due to South Africa's strong domestic market, market leadership by the domestic retailers, and black middle-class consumers' favour towards Woolworths (Venter, 2015).

This relationship is widely acknowledged and studied, and many more studies that support this relationship could be found. It is evident based on the above literature that perceived quality has a positive influence on purchase intentions. Thus, this study proposes that there is a positive relationship between perceived quality and the purchase intention. In other words, the higher the consumer perceives the quality of global fashion brands, the more likely it is that this consumer will have a behavioural intention (i.e. purchase intention) towards global fashion brands.

H13. There is a positive relationship between perceived quality and purchase intention.

4.4 Summary

Chapter 4 detailed the development of each of the hypotheses. This chapter covered the development of the proposed hypotheses: ethnocentrism and attitude (H1); ethnocentrism and purchase intention (H2); price perception and purchase intention (H3); price perception and perceived quality (H4); brand knowledge and attitude (H5); brand knowledge and purchase intention (H6); brand knowledge and perceived quality (H7); self-image and attitude (H8); self-image and purchase intention (H9); fashion involvement and purchase intention (H10); brand love and purchase intention (H11); attitude and purchase intention (H12); and finally, perceived quality and purchase intention (H13). Each relationship in the conceptual model (hypotheses)

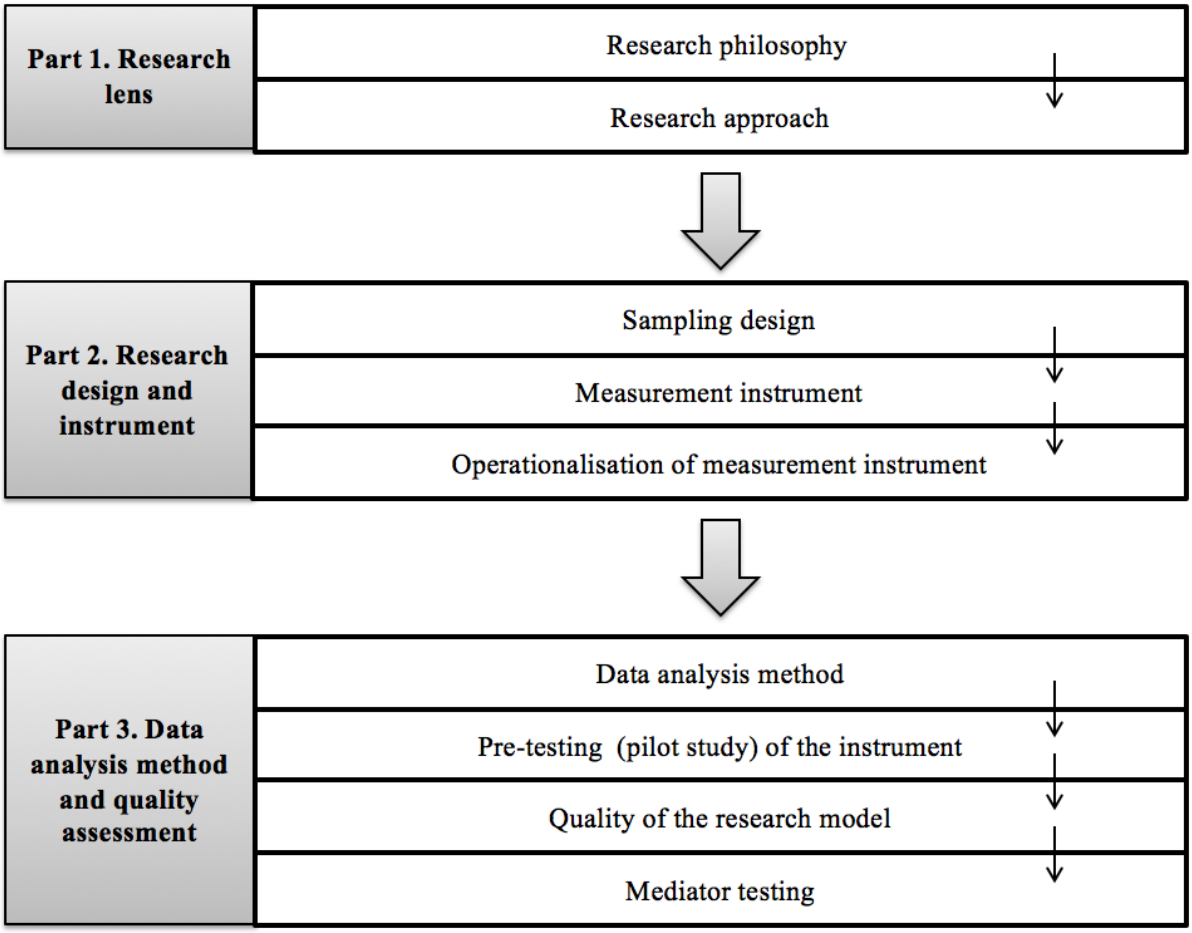
was described in depth, and elaborated on, by providing literature that highlighted the existence, importance, and significance of the proposed relationships. The next chapter elaborates on the research design and methodology, and on the study's data analysis method.

Chapter Five (5). Research design and methodology

5.1 Introduction

An extensive literature review was conducted (see Chapters 2 and 3) and a critical discussion of the conceptual research model was provided (Chapter 4), Chapter 5 presents the research design and methodology used in this research study. The outline of Chapter 5 is presented in Figure 5.1

Figure 5.1: Chapter structure



Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

As Figure 5.1 illustrates, the first part of the chapter provides the research lens, consisting of the research philosophy and the research approach. The second part provides the research design and instrument by elaborating on the sampling design, measurement instrument, and the operationalisation of the measurement instrument. The third part elaborates on the data analysis

and quality assessment, consisting of the data analysis method that is undertaken for this study, the pre-testing method in terms of a pilot study to assess the quality of the measurement instruments before launching the survey, an assessment of the quality of the research model in terms of the measurement model and the structural model, and then further elaborates on how this study measures the influence of its mediating variables.

5.2 Research philosophy and approach

This section elaborates on the research philosophy and the research approach. The research philosophy provides the lens through which the research and knowledge is viewed, and is the foundation of the methodology. The research approach elaborates on how researchers reach their conclusions (Babbie, 2008).

5.2.1 Research philosophy

The research philosophy of a study underpins the research strategy (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Saunders et al. (2009) approach research as an onion shaped phenomenon; the research philosophy is the outer layer of the onion, and the layers going inward are the research approach (inductive, deductive), research strategies (for example, experiment, survey, and case study), research choices (which methods to use), the time horizon of the methodology, and finally the data collection and data analysis. The research philosophy can be defined as the "development of knowledge and nature of that knowledge" (Saunders et al., 2009:107). In other words, the research philosophy provides a lens on how you view knowledge or a phenomenon. Saunders et al. (2009) state that research philosophies are not superior to each other, but rather suit different situations.

There are three main approaches for viewing a research philosophy, namely ontology, epistemology, and axiology; and four philosophies, namely pragmatism, interpretivism, realism, and positivism (Saunders et al., 2009). Adopted from Saunders et al. (2009:119), Table 5.1 provides a comprehensive overview of the approaches and philosophies.

Table 5.1: Research approaches and philosophies

	Positivism	**Realism**	**Interpretivism**	**Pragmatism**
Ontology: *the researcher's view of the nature of reality or being.*	External, objective, and independent of social actors.	Is objective. Exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence (realist), but is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist).	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple.	External, multiple view chosen to best enable answering of research question.
Epistemology: *the researcher's view regarding what constitutes acceptable knowledge.*	Only observable phenomena can provide critical data, facts. Focus on causality and law-like generations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements.	Observable phenomena provide credible data, facts. Insufficient data means inaccuracies in sensations (direct realism). Alternatively, phenomena create sensations, which are open to misinterpretation (critical realism). Focus on explaining within	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus on the details of situation, a reality behind these details, subjective meanings motivating actions.	Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge, dependent upon the research question. Focus on practical applied research, integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data.

		a context or contexts.		
Axiology: *the researcher's view of the role of values in research.*	Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance.	Research is value-laden; the researcher is biased by worldviews, cultural experiences, and upbringing. These will impact on the research.	Research is value-bound, the researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated and so will be subjective.	Values play a significant role in interpreting results, the researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view.
Data collection mainly used.	Highly structured, large samples, measurement, quantitative, but can use qualitative.	Methods chosen must fit the subject matter, quantitative or qualitative.	Small samples, in-depth investigations, qualitative.	Mix of multiple method designs, quantitative and qualitative.

Source: Compiled by researcher, based on Saunders et al. (2009)

This study investigated and explored the variables and the relationships between the independent and dependent variables in the conceptual research model, which can be referred to as the causal reality (Saunders et al., 2009), and used a relatively large sample with quantitative data. Therefore, this study followed a positivist philosophy.

5.2.2 Research approach

Following the research philosophy is the research approach. There are two major research approaches, namely deduction and induction (Saunders et al., 2009). Babbie (2008) states that while induction reasons from the particular to the general, deduction reasons from the general to the specific, and usually has a greater theoretical foundation. Another difference between induction and deduction is that induction almost never answers the question why the

phenomenon occurred, just that it did occur, and in contrast, deduction moves from why a phenomenon occurred to whether it occurred (Babbie, 2008). Additionally, induction usually uses qualitative data, while deductive research uses quantitative data (Saunders et al., 2009). When using quantitative data, the constructs in the conceptual research model need to be measurable. The deductive approach therefore requires researchers to operationalise the constructs in order to enable measurement (Saunders et al., 2009). This operationalisation procedure is explained in section 5.4. The deductive approach allows the researcher to start with a (research) question, which can be specified into a hypothesis (i.e. the conceptual research model) that can be empirically tested (Babbie, 2008). For this reason, the present study adopted a deductive approach, starting with a specified research question and resulting in a conceptual model with relationships that are tested empirically using quantitative data.

5.3 Research design

The study followed a positivist paradigm, and used a deductive, empirical, and quantitative design to generalise the sampled consumers over the population. Descriptive studies are often cross-sectional and involve observations of a sample of a population at one point in time (Babbie, 2008). The research method was cross-sectional in nature. The conceptual research model was empirically tested by means of gathering quantitative data. However, a pilot study was conducted prior to the commencement of the actual data collection to ensure the reliability of the instruments.

5.3.1 Sampling design

The sampling design consists of the population, sampling frame, sample size, and sampling method, which are described in brief below.

5.3.1.1 Population

The study population is the aggregation of elements from which the sample for the research is actually selected, wherein elements are defined as the units of which the population is composed, and which are selected for the sample (Babbie, 2008). The target population of this study was black middle-class consumers in South Africa. South Africa is often referred to as a rainbow nation due to its ethnic diversity. Steenkamp and Burgess (2002) broadly identify three

main ethical groups: people who are native born in Sub-Saharan Africa, i.e. 'black people', people who are native born in Europe, i.e. 'white people', and people of mixed race, i.e. 'Coloured people'. Van der Berg (2010) identifies four racial groups: blacks, Coloureds, Indians, and whites. Despite the black majority of South Africa, Geert Hofstede's study regarding cultural dimensions, only took the white minority into account. It is important to aim for a more representative sample of society. This study was conducted with the major ethnic group in the South African society, black people, specifically the black (emerging) middle-class.

The middle-class is a major consumer segment for multinational enterprises, and the middle-class in emerging economies is particularly receiving more and more attention due to their current growth rates, their potential future growth, and their growth compared to developed markets (Kandogan & Johnson, 2015). The concept 'middle-class' is often vaguely defined (Kandogan & Johnson, 2015), and there are many varying definitions of this social class, which results in different estimates of the size of the middle-class. As mentioned in the context, Anderson (2015) found that the emerging South African middle-class (i.e. LSM 7-10) has grown by 15% over the last decade. This research study adheres to the Anderson's (2015) definition, and added the requirements of a white-collar job or professional career, and higher education. In sum, this study used the following definition of middle-class: a white-collar professional, who has enjoyed a higher education and falls within LSM 7 (i.e. the highest range of the emerging middle-class) or LSM 8, 9, or 10 (i.e. the established middle-class).

The units of analysis of a study are those who are studied (Babbie, 2008), and the unit of analysis of this research is the individual consumer. As the units of analysis, the individuals that will be studied can be characterised in terms of their membership in a social grouping (i.e. black middle-class females) instead of a whole population (Babbie, 2008). The respondents were females for several reasons: (1) women are the most powerful consumers (Forbes, 2015b; Belleau et al., 2008), (2) women spend between 70% and 80% of all consumer spend, and (3) their spending power is growing every year (Forbes, 2015b). And, more specifically for this study, female consumers are more involved in fashion than male consumers (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012; Khare et al., 2011). With regard to fashion involvement, there are differences between male and female fashion behaviour (Pentecost & Andrews, 2010). Pentecost and Andrews (2010) found that, unlike males, females have a higher fashion 'fanship', they have a

more positive attitude towards fashion, they have a higher level of impulse buying for fashion goods, they shop more, and they spend more on fashion items. Lastly, the respondents were from urban areas, since urban spending is increasing twice as fast as rural spending (and thus accounts for most of the future growth), and because the urban incomes per capita are on average 80% higher than the country average (McKinsey, 2012).

5.3.1.2 Sampling frame

The sampling frame is a (quasi) list of elements from which a sample will be selected (Babbie, 2008). The respondents for the present study were selected from a sampling frame, while making use of an existing database of black female middle-class consumers. An established professional market research firm in South Africa was contracted for the data collection process. This market research firm sampled from their existing panel of black female middle-class consumers.

5.3.1.3 Sample size

Determining the sample size of the study offers the same challenges as determining an appropriate definition of 'middle-class'. Literature varies on what constitutes the right sample size; standards vary and opinions of authors clash. There is a lack of agreement among researchers about what an appropriate sample size is (John & Brady, 2011). The degree of representativeness of the sample is largely determined by the sample size of the study, the sample size is the number of respondents, and larger samples result in more reliable data sets (Lamb, Hair, McDaniel, Boshoff, Terblanche, Elliott & Klopper, 2010). Babbie (2010) states that sample sizes of less than 100 respondents are not likely to be representative. However, this study used the statistical programme SmartPLS, which is able to work with smaller sample sizes and has proven its capability in working with non-normal data and small sample sizes, even with less than 100 respondents (Hair et al., 2012). If the sample size is small, the PLS approach (Partial Least Squares) is recommended (Hair et al., 2011). The rule of thumb for the statistical programme used (SmartPLS) is that the sample size for a PLS model should be equal or larger than 10 times the largest number of formative indicators to measure a construct, or 10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in the structural model (Hair et al., 2011). Although PLS can handle small sample sizes, the larger the sample size, the more reliable the data sets (Lamb et al., 2010). Barrett (2007) states that a reasonable

sample size has at least 200 observations, and Schreiber (2008) states that a satisfactory sample size has five to 10 observations per item.

This study adopted the rule of thumb from Schreiber (2008). With a survey consisting of 45 items, this results in a minimum of 225 respondents for five respondents per item, and a minimum of 450 respondents for 10 respondents per item. This study used a sample size of at least 10 respondents per item, resulting in 450 respondents. To be sure, this study aimed for 500 respondents, to adequately satisfy the rule of thumb.

5.3.1.4 Sampling method

Sampling is the process of selecting observations from the study (Babbie, 2008). Probability sampling is important to the generalisation of the sample, which usually means that the sample is random (Babbie, 2008). This study used random stratified sampling, which is a method used to obtain a greater degree of representativeness due to decreasing the possible sampling error (Babbie, 2008), aimed at gathering a representative sample of black middle-class females in South Africa. Stratified sampling is useful because instead of selecting a sample from a total population, the researcher is able to ensure that information can be "drawn from a homogeneous subset of the population" (Babbie, 2008:215). Social class (i.e. middle-class), race (i.e. black), gender (i.e. female), and age (i.e. 22-44) are used for stratification. In this situation, random sampling implies that persons of the stratified population will be selected randomly from the sample (Babbie, 2008). In this study, the (online) surveys were emailed to the randomly selected members of the stratified population.

5.3.2 Measurement instrument

The measurement tool that was used for this study was an online self-administered questionnaire. A survey is the best method to collect original data to describe a population that is too large to observe directly (Babbie, 2008). The respondents of the online survey were asked to respond to several questions and propositions. A respondent is the person who provides data for analysis, by responding to a survey questionnaire (Babbie, 2008). The survey was accessible via a link that has been sent to the randomly sampled respondents within the panel, and was online between the 25th of May 2016 and 13th of June 2016. The 13th of June 2016 the survey was closed after reaching 500 valid responses. The survey began with several social-demographic variables to structure the population, because culture has several levels: global;

national; and micro (Steenkamp, 2001). Since societies became less homogenous due to factors such as migration, there is a need to study within the heterogeneity of a country (Steenkamp, 2001). The micro culture has its patterns of the national culture, but also has unique patterns of behaviour, and may be defined by language, ethnicity, religion, age, urbanisation, and social class (Steenkamp, 2001). In addition, the domain of micro culture is relatively unstudied (Steenkamp, 2001), which stresses the importance of identifying possible micro cultures. Therefore, the survey started with a paragraph of questions regarding demographic information to structure the population and identify patterns.

Surveys are useful when the research aims to describe the characteristics of a large population (Babbie, 2008), and representative samples are associated with larger surveys and use qualitative data (Denscombe, 2010). Therefore, the survey mainly used propositions and a few open questions, since propositions on their own might neglect and overlook important aspects that influence the respondents' purchase intention. There are different scaling techniques available to identify patterns. For the propositions, a Likert-scale was used to structure the answers and to identify the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variables. A seven point Likert-scale has seven response categories (1-7), and a five-point Likert-scale has five response categories (1-5), and both often vary from 'strongly disagree'-'strongly agree' (Babbie, 2008). It is found that the more scale points options respondents have, the more scale points respondents use (Dawes, 2008), which calls for a seven-point scale. However, Dawes (2008) found that neither a 10-, seven-, or five-point Likert-scale is less desirable than others, and due to the fact that mobile devices rather than laptops and desktops were used to answer the survey questions, a five-point Likert-scale was used so that it was user-friendlier for mobile device users.

5.3.3 Operationalisation of measurement instrument

After extensive literature review, the conceptual research model was designed and the to-be-measured constructs were studied. Thus an extensive literature study was used to conduct the research model, and the following step was the collection of empirical data. A 'construct' is defined as a theoretical creation that is based on an observation that cannot be observed directly or indirectly (Babbie, 2008), and therefore a more extensive method is required to measure the construct (such as a survey). Operationalisation is the process of specifying the meanings of the constructs in order to be able to measure them (Babbie, 2008). The operationalisation

procedure follows the same order as the theoretical perspective in order of constructs. The operationalisation of constructs involves an explanation of how the variables under study actually will be measured (Babbie, 2008). The study made use of existing scales of the constructs; existing measurement scales that proved their reliability in previous research helped to ensure the reliability in this research study (Babbie, 2010). The measurement scales were measured by means of an online questionnaire that was designed by a professional market research company. The adapted measurement items are listed below, including their quality. Existing scales were adapted to suit the context of the study. This study only adapted measurement items with a Cronbach's Alpha (CA) of >0.80. All questions in the questionnaire were answered on a 5-point Likert scale. The demographic items can be found in Appendix 1B, and the questions including their scales in Appendix 1C.

5.3.3.1 Ethnocentrism

To measure ethnocentrism, Jin et al.'s (2015) measurement items–as consistent with Shimp and Sharma's (1987) widely adopted scale–with a composite reliability of 0.89 were adopted and adapted.

Table 5.2: Measurement items of ethnocentrism

- *purchasing foreign-made products is un-South African;*
- *South Africans should not buy foreign products because this hurts South African business and causes unemployment;*
- *a real South African should always buy South African made products; and*
- *it is not right to purchase foreign made products.*

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Jin et al. (2015)

5.3.3.2 Price

For the measurement of price, this study adopted and adapted Dew and Kwon's (2009) items, with a CA of 0.825:

Table 5.3: Measurement items of price perception

- *global fashion brands are reasonably priced;*
- *global fashion brands are affordable;*
- *global fashion brands are expensive* (reversed item)*; and*
- *global fashion brands are inexpensive.*

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Dew and Kwon (2009)

5.3.3.3 Brand knowledge

As explained in the literature review, brand knowledge comprises brand awareness and brand image. Firstly, to measure brand awareness, Nguyen et al.'s (2011) measurement items were adapted, which measurement items had a CA of 0.818:

Table 5.4: Measurement items of brand awareness

- *I can recognise global fashion brands among other brands;*
- *I know what global fashion brands look like;*
- *some characteristics of global fashion brands come to mind quickly; and*
- *overall I have no difficulty in imagining global fashion brands in my mind.*

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Nguyen et al. (2011)

To measure brand image, Chiang and Jang's (2007) scale was adapted. The CA of their measurement items is 0.90.

Table 5.5: Measurement items of brand image

- *overall, I think global fashion brands are favourable;*
- *overall, I think global fashion brands are attractive;*
- *overall, I think global fashion brands are valuable; and*
- *overall, I think global fashion brands have a good reputation.*

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Chiang and Jang (2007)

5.3.3.4 Self-image

The measurement items of Jamal and Goode (2001) with a CA of 0.880 were adapted to measure self-image congruency. Their scale consists of the following items:

Table 5.6: Measurement items of self-image

- *wearing global fashion brands is consistent with how I see myself;*
- *people similar to me wear global fashion brands; and*
- *wearing the global fashion brands reflects who I am.*

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Jamal and Goode (2001)

5.3.3.5 Fashion involvement

For the measurement of fashion involvement, this study adapted Goldsmith, Flynn and Kim's items (2010), based on Goldsmith et al. (2012) and Mittal and Lee's (1989) scales, with a CA of 0.91, 0.94, and 0.74 for each item respectively. Mittal and Lee's (1989) initial scale measured

product involvement, and Flynn and Kim (2010) adapted the scale to fashion. The scale consists of the following items:

Table 5.7: Measurement items of fashion involvement

- *I have a strong interest in fashion clothing;*
- *fashion clothing is very important to me; and*
- *for me, fashion clothing does not matter* (reversed item).

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Goldsmith et al. (2012)

5.3.3.6 Brand love

For the measurement of brand love, this study adapted Drennan et al.'s (2015) items, who had originally adapted and shortlisted the items from Carroll and Ahuvia (2006). Drennan et al.'s (2015) measurement items have a CA of 0.880, and consists of the following items:

Table 5.8: Measurement items of brand love

- *I am very attached to my favourite local fashion brand(s);*
- *I am passionate about my favourite local fashion brand(s);*
- *my favourite local fashion brand(s) make(s) me very happy;*
- *my favourite local fashion brand(s) is/are wonderful brands;*
- *my favourite local fashion brand(s) is/are totally awesome; and*
- *my favourite local fashion brand(s) is/are a pure delight.*

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Drennan et al. (2015)

5.3.3.7 Attitude

To measure the consumers' attitude towards global fashion brands, the study adopted and adapted Davvetas et al.'s (2015) measure items, which have a CA of 0.93-0.96. This study has adapted Davvetas et al.'s (2015) original scale.

Table 5.9: Measurement items of attitude

- *my opinion o global fashion brands is good;*
- *I like global fashion brands;*
- *my opinion about global fashion brands is positive; and*
- *global fashion brands appeal to me.*

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Davvetas et al. (2015)

5.3.3.8 Perceived quality

Dew and Kwon (2009) and Bao et al.'s (2011) scales with a CA 0.938-0.958 and a composite reliability of 0.95 were adapted to measure perceived quality. The scales consist of the following items:

Table 5.10: Measurement items of perceived quality

- *global fashion-branded clothing items are well made;*
- *global fashion brands have reliable clothing;*
- *global fashion-branded clothing items are durable'*
- *global fashion-branded clothing items are of high quality;*
- *global fashion-branded clothing is a superior product;*
- *global fashion brands are of very good quality; and*
- *global fashion-branded clothing items are not at all reliable* (reversed item).

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Dew and Kwon (2009) and Bao et al. (2011)

5.3.3.9 Purchase intention

To measure the purchase intention, this study adapted Diallo's (2012) measurement items that had a CA of 0.87, and two items from Giridhar et al. (2015).

Table 5.11: Measurement items of purchase intention

- *the probability that I would consider buying global fashion brand products is high;*
- *I would purchase global fashion brand items next time;*
- *I would consider buying global fashion brand items;*
- *there is a strong likelihood that I will buy global fashion brand items;*
- *I will buy a global fashion brand items in the near future; and*
- *whenever I need to buy clothing items, it is very likely that I will buy a global fashion brand.*

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016), based on Diallo (2012) and Giridhard et al. (2015).

5.4 Data analysis method

Two main programmes were used to analyse the data. Firstly, the data was imported into Microsoft Excel to code and structure the obtained data and to create a file that was suitable for

statistical analysis and enabled import into the statistical programme. To test the proposed relationships within the conceptual model, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used. SEM has become the standard in many business research fields (Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams & Hair, 2014; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011). SEM enables "researchers to simultaneously examine a series of interrelated dependence relationships between a set of constructs, represented by several variables, while accounting for measurement error. SEM's ability to simultaneously test relationships incorporated into an integrated model has contributed to its widespread application" (Sarstedt et al., 2014:105). SEM has become the standard in analysing the cause-effect relationships between latent constructs (Hair et al., 2011), and allows researchers to test their complete models and theories (Rigdon, 1998, in Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle & Mena, 2012). SEM is especially favoured due to its capability to test the latent variables at observation level in the measurement model (i.e. outer model), and relationships between latent variables on a theoretical level in the structural model (i.e. inner model) (Hair et al., 2012).

However, there is more. The original SEM application supported a covariance-based approach (CB-SEM), but an alternative approach to SEM is developed: the variance-based Partial Least Squares approach (PLS) (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins & Kuppelwieser, 2014). Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) is a reliable estimate of complex models, while it only requires a few observations and and assumptions about the distribution of the data isn't required (Sarstedt et al., 2014). Therefore, the second programme this study used is the statistical programme for PLS-SEM, called SmartPLS, and it utilised its SmartPLS 3.0 software package (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015). PLS-SEM is a widely used research method in the field of marketing (Hair et al., 2012), and it has grown in popularity and has been used in an increasing number of studies in varying disciplines, including marketing and consumer behaviour (Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009). The PLS approach has the ability to overcome challenges researchers working with CB-SEM encounter (Hair et al., 2011). The use of the PLS path modeling in international marketing research is due to its ability to avoid problems arising out of a small sample size (i.e. PLS can be used in situations where other methods are not suitable), to PLS's ability to handle both reflective and formative measurement modes, and because PLS can estimate very complex models with many latent and manifest variables (Henseler et al., 2009). PLS allows statistical analysis when data is not normally distributed, when sample sizes are small, or for formative measurement of latent variables (Hair et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2012). Non-normal data is data that does not follow the normal distribution; and a

variable is formative when the indicators cause the variable, instead of the variable causing the indicators (Hair et al., 2014). In contrast to a manifest construct, a latent construct is not directly observable (Diamantopoulos, 1999). Hair et al. (2011) state that if the goal of the study is to identity the key predictor variables, PLS-SEM is the most suitable approach. The purpose of the present study is inter alia to investigate the key factors that influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class females in the South African emerging economy, which makes PLS-SEM a suitable approach for this study.

After the pilot study confirmed the quality of the measurement instruments, the rest of the data was collected, and the results were analysed to determine the reliability and validity (i.e. quality) of the measurement model and to test the hypotheses.

5.5 Quality of the research model

To determine the quality of the research model in terms of reliability and validity, several measures are available. A structural equation model with latent constructs consists of two major components: the outer model (i.e. measurement model) with the predictive relationships between the latent constructs and the indicators; and the inner model (i.e. the structural model) that shows the paths and relationships between the constructs (Hair et al., 2011). This study performed a pilot study with approximately 50 respondents, to control the reliability and validity of the measurement instruments.

5.5.1 Pre-testing the instrument (pilot study)

Before fully launching the survey, the survey was soft-launched with approximately 50 respondents to perform a pilot study to test the measurement instruments' reliability. This was especially carried out because data in emerging markets might have higher noise levels, and the reliability standards have been developed in a Western context (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006). The pilot study data consisting of 52 respondents was imported into the statistical programme SmartPLS to estimate the CA, the Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of the instruments for each variable in the conceptual research model. The pilot study measured the CA of all the constructs, namely brand awareness, brand image, price,

ethnocentrism, attitude, self-image, fashion involvement, brand love, perceived quality, and purchase intention. CA and CR should have a value of at least 0.70 (Chin, 2010), and the AVE should have a minimum value of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2012).

5.5.2 Measurement model

For the measurement model (i.e. outer model), the reliability and validity of the measurement model should be verified (Hair et al., 2014). The outer model is the model that forms the relationships between the instruments and the constructs (Hair et al., 2014). The measures used to determine reliability and validity are the CA, CR, and AVE, since they determine the quality of the measurement model. Reliability refers to the consistency of the measurement, while validity refers to the degree to which the used instruments measure what they are intended to measure. For the reflective constructs, a PLS-SEM algorithm enabled verification of the reliability and validity.

5.5.2.1 Reliability

The two main tools to assess reliability are CR and CA. The CR and CA prove the reliability of the indicators, and the CR should have a value of at least 0.70 (Hair et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2011). Lack of reliability is achieved when the CR has a value below 0.60 (Hair et al., 2011). The CA specifically measures internal consistency, and should also have a value of at least 0.70 (Chin, 2010). Hair et al. (2014) mention that the first step in reliability assessment is the internal reliability assessment, and while the CA is the traditional approach, the CR provides a more accurate measure due to CA assumption that all indicator loadings are equal in the population, and CA underestimation of internal consistency reliability. This study used both CA and CR to determine the reliability of the indicators.

5.5.2.2 Validity

For reflective measurement models, validity can be determined by the convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2011). To assess the validity of the measurement model, the convergent validity and discriminant validity is thus assessed.

5.5.2.2.1 Convergent validity

To test the convergent validity, the AVE is used. The convergent validity is determined by the AVE (Hair et al., 2011), which should have a value of at least 0.50, which means that the latent

variable explains more than half of its indicators' variance, and measures the variance captured by a latent construct (Hair et al., 2012).

5.5.2.2.2 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is a tool that is widely used to analyse the relationships between the latent variables (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015). The most common approaches to determine the discriminant validity are currently the cross loadings approach and the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Henseler et al., 2015). The cross loadings show whether a latent construct shares more variance with its own indicators than with the other indicators in the model (Hair et al., 2011). The AVE of each latent construct should be higher than the latent constructs' squared correlation with any other latent construct (Hair et al., 2011): the square root of AVE for each of the constructs along the diagonal should be greater than the off-diagonal values (Hsu, 2008). The cross loadings table shows if the square root of AVE is higher than the off-diagonal values in every case, which implies that the measurements that are supposed to be unrelated are in fact unrelated. They share more variance with their own indicators than with other latent variables in the structural model (Hair et al., 2011).

Henseler et al. (2015) recently developed an alternative approach, which is superior to the cross loadings and Fornell-Larcker criterion. They developed an alternative approach because the two usual approaches lack common research settings; they found that both approaches fail to detect a lack of discriminant validity, and the cross loadings approach specifically was found to be weak (Henseler et al., 2015). Therefore, this study will adopt this newly developed approach, the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations (HTMT), which is more sensitive than the other approaches, and is therefore more effectively able to identify weak discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). The first step in the HTMT ratio is to select the HTMT criterion, and the second step is to assess the discriminant validity using the HTMT criterion (Henseler et al., 2015). This study adopted $HTMT_{.85}$ since this is the most conservative rate, has the lowest specificity rate, and suits the strictest standards (Henseler et al., 2015).

5.5.3 Structural model

To determine the quality of the structural model (i.e. inner model), the path coefficients (significance of relationships between variables), Rsquare (R^2) and Stone-Geisser's Q^2 (Q^2) (predictive relevance) are used. The inner model consists of the relationship between the

constructs (Hair et al., 2014). Testing the research model includes estimating the path coefficients and the R^2, where the path coefficients indicate the strengths of the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables and the R^2 values the amount of variance explained by the independent variables (Hsu, 2008) (i.e. the degree to which a dependent construct is determined by the independent construct).

To assess the path coefficients' significance, bootstrapping is used (Hair et al., 2011). According to Hair et al. (2014:112) "bootstrapping is a resampling technique that draws a large number of subsamples from the original data (with replacement) and estimates models for each subsample. This way, the researcher obtains a large number (typically 5,000 or more) of model estimates, which can be used to compute a standard error of each model parameter". By doing this, the significance can be calculated by means of t-values (Hair et al., 2014). For each indicator, the weight and loading can be determined by bootstrapping to assess the significance (Hair et al., 2011). The bootstrapping sample needs to have a number of at least 5,000, and the number of cases are set at the number of observations (Hair et al., 2011), which is in this study is 500. Afterwards, the indicators that are significant in weight and loading should be kept, and the indicators that are non-significant do not contribute to the theory (Hair et al., 2011).

The path coefficients vary from minus one to plus one, which stands for strongly negative to strongly positive (Hair et al., 2014). Thereafter, the standard error and significance should be assessed using the bootstrapping function in SmartPLS (Hair et al., 2012). R^2 values can be described with values of 0,75, 0.50, or 0.25 as respectively substantial, moderate, and weak (Hair et al., 2011). But this rule of thumb does not apply in every context. Hair et al. (2012; 2011) argue that the R^2 level that is considered to be high varies according to the study's context. For example, in consumer behaviour studies, such as this research, a result of 0.20 is already considered high (Hair et al., 2011). The Q^2 is the predictive relevance, and can be obtained per construct by using the blindfolding tool, where a result larger than 0 implies that the independent variables have predictive power over the dependent (outcome) variable (Hair et al., 2011). Within SmartPLS, to assess Q^2 with the blindfolding tool, the omission distance *(d)* value should be between 5 and 10 (Hair et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2011). This study used the default *d* value setting, which is set at 7.

Burgess and Steenkamp (2006) state that data collected in emerging markets has higher noise levels, and therefore the Western reliability standards such as the CA (which needs to be higher than 0.70) are not met because these standards are developed in more homogenous and higher educated groups. They also state that when generalisability does not exist in the context of an emerging market, the theories have met their boundary conditions. By using proven existing scales, this study aims to reach the required reliability and validity standards, and utilised a pilot study to pre-test the instruments before full launching the survey.

5.6 Mediator testing

As in Akram et al. (2011) and Bao et al.'s (2011) studies, where perceived quality serves as a mediator, this study utilises the same procedure to test the mediating effects of the mediators of this study, namely perceived quality and attitude. Although to be used with caution, Baron and Kenny's method is suitable when the sample size is large (greater than 500) (Frazier, Tix & Barron, 2004). Due to the sample size of the present study (500), and usage of the method in comparable studies, Baron and Kenny's (1986) method was identified to test for mediation. Bao et al. (2011) adopted Baron and Kenny's (1986) suggested procedure, which consists of four main steps. The first step is to determine the significance of the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables, without the mediator. The second step comprises determining the relationship between the independent variables and the mediators, followed by testing whether or not the mediators are significant on the dependent variables. The final step is to calculate the full model, and identify whether or not the previous significant relationship between the independent and dependent variable is zero (i.e. full mediation) or reduced (i.e. partial mediation) (Bao et al., 2011). Akram et al. (2011) also used this method, and this study adopted Baron and Kenny's (1986) method to identify the mediating effects of attitude and perceived quality.

5.7 Summary

This chapter served a dual purpose. The first purpose was to describe the research methodology, and the second purpose was to elaborate on the data analysis method. The research methodology explained the research philosophy and approach, the research design, the sampling design, and the operationalisation of the latent variables. The research followed a positivist research philosophy due to the nature of the study, and a deductive research approach. The study followed an empirical, quantitative design. Furthermore, the study targeted black middle-class females in South Africa, stratified on social class, race, gender, and age. The data was collected by means of an online self-administered survey among 500 respondents, and was analysed using PLS-SEM. The data analysis method elaborated on the usage of PLS-SEM and the indicators to assess the quality of the research model (i.e. measurement model and structural model). Furthermore, a pilot study was used to ensure the quality of the measurement instruments, and finally the mediator testing method was explained. The data analysis method described in Chapter 5 is followed and executed in Chapter 6. Chapter 6 analyses and presents the obtained data.

Chapter Six (6). Data analysis and results

6.1 Introduction

The sixth chapter of this thesis contains the analysis and presentation of the obtained data. A brief overview of the pilot study is provided, followed by a comprehensive analysis of the demographic and descriptive statistics. Thereafter the quality of the model is discussed followed by the path modeling and hypothesis testing. The mediators are tested, a summary of the hypotheses results is given, and the chapter ends with a conclusion.

6.2 Pilot study

In order to test for reliability and validity of the measurement instrument, a pilot study was conducted prior to the actual commencement of fieldwork. It comprised a sampled of 52 respondents, and the statistical programme SmartPLS was used to estimate the CA, CR, and AVE of the instrument. The results of the pilot study can be found in Appendix *2*. The results of the pilot study confirmed reliable CA values for all the variables ranging between 0.781 and 0.939, as recommended by Chin (2010). Upon examination of the CR, values ranged between 0.851 and 0.950, therefore meeting the required threshold of 0.70 (Chin, 2010). Lastly, to determine the validity of the measurement instrument, the AVE of the constructs was measured. The AVE should adhere to a minimum threshold of 0.50 to be regarded as reliable (Hair et al., 2012). The results indicated that values ranged between 0.598 and 0.860, and are therefore regarded as acceptable for the purpose of the pilot study. As a result, according to the required values of the CA, CR, and AVE, the pilot study showed that the reliability and validity of the measurement instruments was sufficient. The pilot study thereby confirmed the quality of the measurement instruments used, and data collection could proceed to secure 500 respondents for the main study.

6.3 Demographic and descriptive statistics

This section focuses on the descriptive statistics of the respondents, which includes a demographic profile of the respondent sample, an overview of their actual purchase behaviour regarding global fashion brands (i.e. how often they purchase global fashion-branded items), the main reasons to consider buying global fashion-branded items, the main reasons not to consider buying global fashion-branded items, and finally the descriptive statistics of the measurement items.

6.3.1 Demographic profile respondents

This section serves to map the respondents' demographic characteristics.

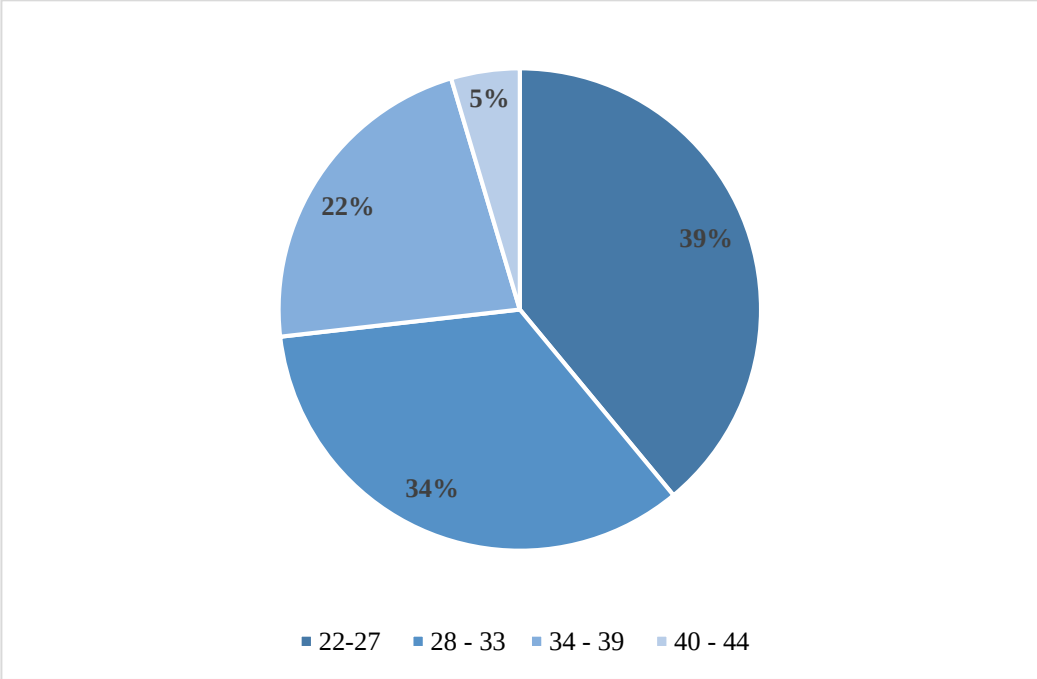
6.3.1.1 Race and gender

This study aimed to identify the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class women in South Africa. In light of this aim, the respondents were pre-selected according the characteristics described above. This means that the n500 sample consists solely of black females, and therefore race and gender are consistent across the sample.

6.3.1.2 Age

Figure 6.1 below provides an overview of the respondents' age characteristics. As the graph shows, 39% of the respondents were aged between 22-27, 34% were aged between 28-33, 22% were aged between 34-39, and 5% of the respondents were aged between 40-44 years old.

Figure 6.1: Respondents' ages

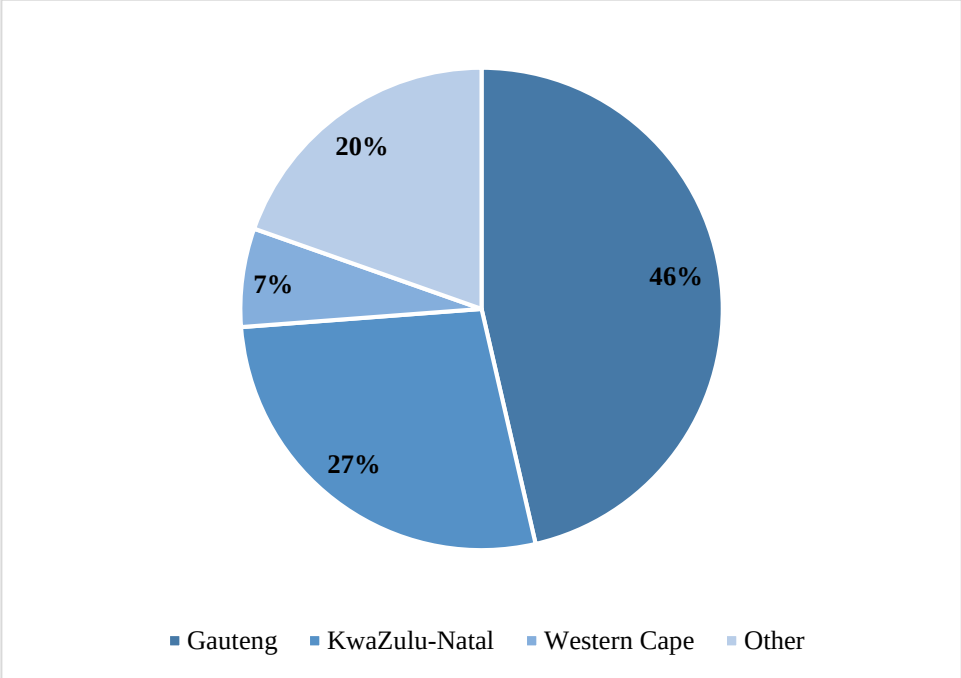


Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

6.3.1.3 Province

Figure 6.2 below shows the region (province) of the respondents.

Figure 6.2: Respondents' region of residence



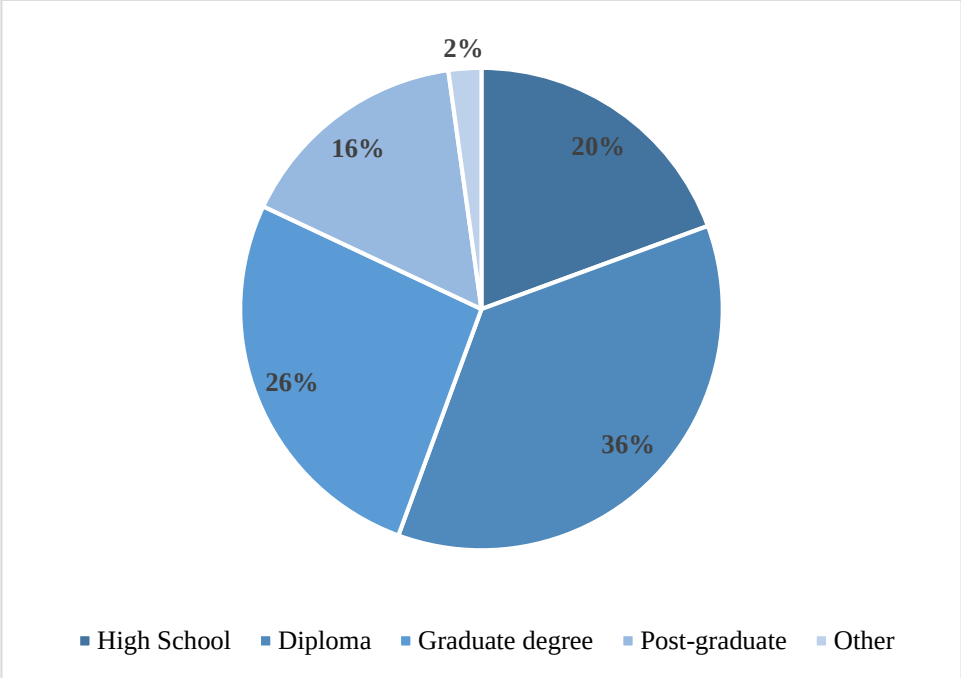
Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

As Figure 6.2 above displays, the majority of the respondents live in Gauteng province (46%), followed by KwaZulu-Natal (27%), the Western Cape (7%), and other (20%).

6.3.1.4 Education

Figure 6.3 below provides an overview of the educational characteristics of the sample. As the graph below illustrates, 20% of the respondents have a high school degree, 36% of the respondents have a diploma, and 26% of the respondents have a graduate degree. Sixteen percent of the sample have a post-graduate degree (Honours degree, Masters degree, or a Doctorate), and 2% of the respondents' education level is unknown.

Figure 6.3: Respondents' education level



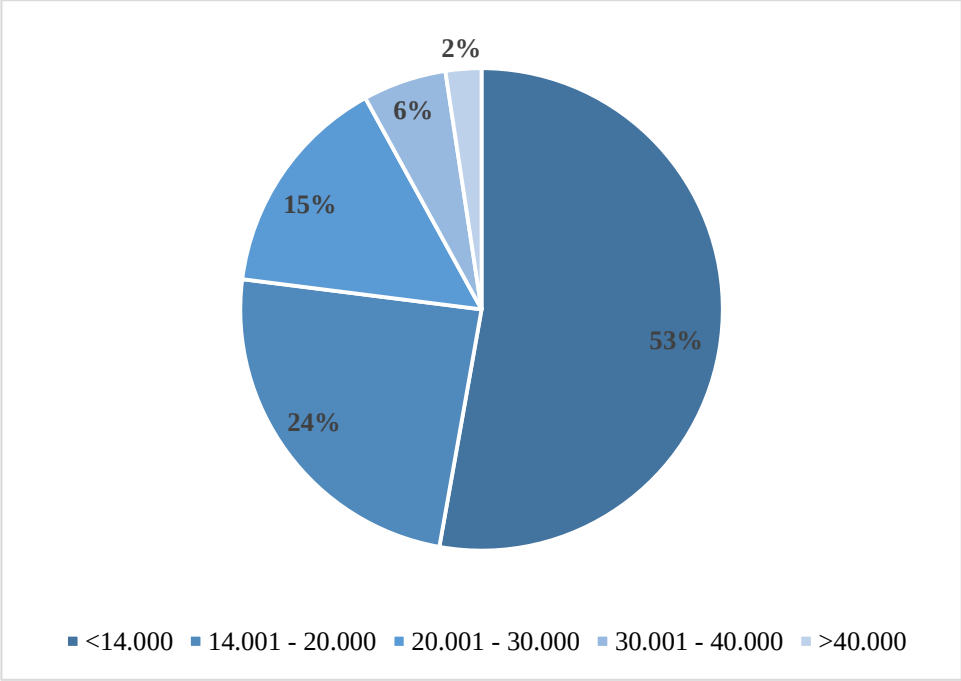
Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

None of the sampled respondents received some schooling or solely primary schooling, which means that all of them have at least a high school degree. The majority (62%) have a diploma or graduate degree, and it was established that 78% have received higher education, which is one of the characteristics of being middle-class.

6.3.1.5 Income

Firstly, it should be taken into account that income is defined as household income or personal income. This study did not use the household income as a measure, but instead used average personal monthly income. Personal monthly income fits this study better; household income can be high because it may take into account a working husband with a successful job for example, but personal income suits the purpose of the study better because the study aims to target middle-class (working class) women. The personal monthly income is expressed in South African Rand (ZAR), and concerns income before deductions.

Figure 6.4: Respondents' monthly income (ZAR)



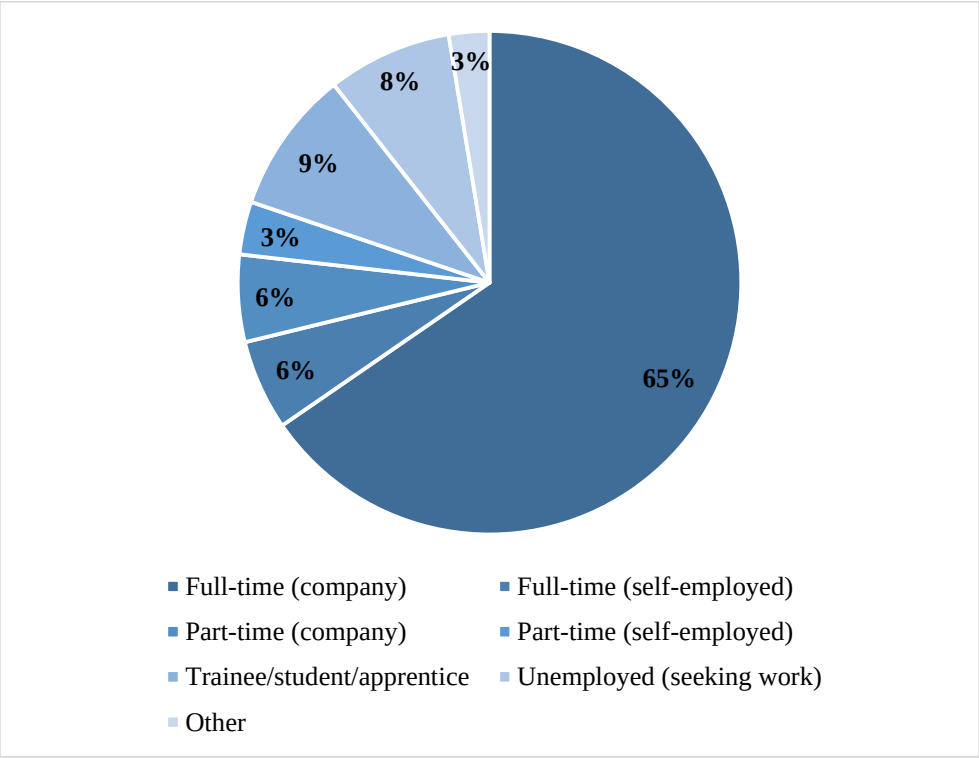
Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

As Figure 6.4 indicates, the majority of the respondents (53%) earns less than R14,000 per month, 24% earns between R14,001-20,000 a month, 15% earns between R20,001-30,000, 6% earns between R30,001-40,000, and only 2% earns above R40,000 on average a month. Despite the majority of relatively low personal incomes per month, all respondents fall within LSM 7 to 10, which implies they are all middle and upper middle-class citizens. Additionally, the total household income might be significantly higher than the personal income.

6.3.1.6 Occupation

This section elaborates on the respondents' occupations. The occupations were divided into seven categories, namely working full-time (for a company), working full-time (self-employed), working part-time (for a company), working part-time (self-employed), being a student, trainee, or apprentice, being unemployed (seeking work), and other.

Figure 6.5: Respondents' occupation



Source: Compiled by researcher (2016

As Figure 6.5 shows, 65% of the respondents have full-time employment and work for companies. The majority of the respondents are thus employed by an organisation. Six percent of respondents work full-time for themselves (self-employed). Part-time occupations for a company or self-employed individuals comprise 6% and 3% respectively, which implies that the majority of the respondents work full-time, since this percentage makes up 71% of the sampled women. Nine percent are either students, trainees, or apprentices, and 8% are unemployed.

6.3.1.7 Demographic summary table

Table 6.1 provides a summary overview of the characteristics of the respondents.

Table 6.1: Respondents' characteristics, summarised

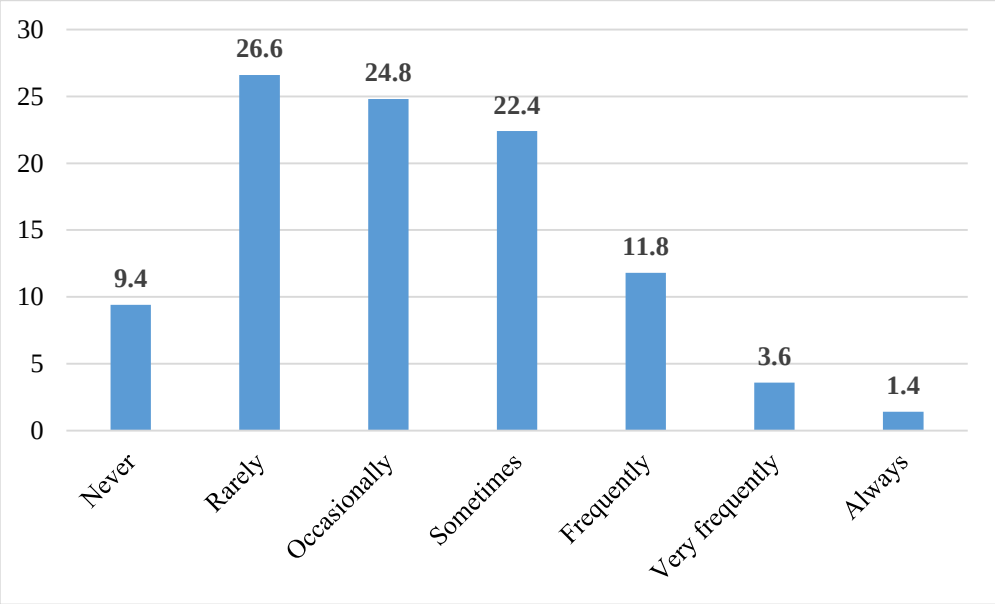
Age	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
22-27	195	39
28-33	171	34,2
34-39	111	22,2
40-44	23	4,6
Education	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
High school	97	19,4
Diploma	181	36,2
Graduate degree	132	26,4
Post-graduate	79	15,8
Other	11	2,2
Income (ZAR)	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
<14,000	264	52,8
14,001 – 20,000	121	24,2
20,001 – 30,000	75	15
30,001 – 40,000	28	5,6
>40,000	12	2,4
Occupation	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Full-time (company)	327	65,4
Full-time (self-employed)	29	5,8
Part-time (company)	28	5,6
Part-time (self-employed)	17	3,4
Student/trainee/apprentice	46	9,2
Unemployed (seeking work)	40	8
Other	13	2,6
Province	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Gauteng	232	46,4
Kwazulu-Natal	137	27,4
Western Cape	33	6,6
Other	98	19,6

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

6.3.2 Purchase behaviour towards global fashion-branded clothing

This section elaborates on the actual purchase behaviour towards global fashion-branded clothing. In other words, how often do consumers buy items from global fashion brands? The categories varied from never, rarely (10% of the time), occasionally (30% of the time), sometimes (50% of the time), frequently (70% of the time), and very frequently (90% of the time) to always. Figure 6.6 presents the results.

Figure 6.6: Actual purchase behaviour global fashion-branded clothing



Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

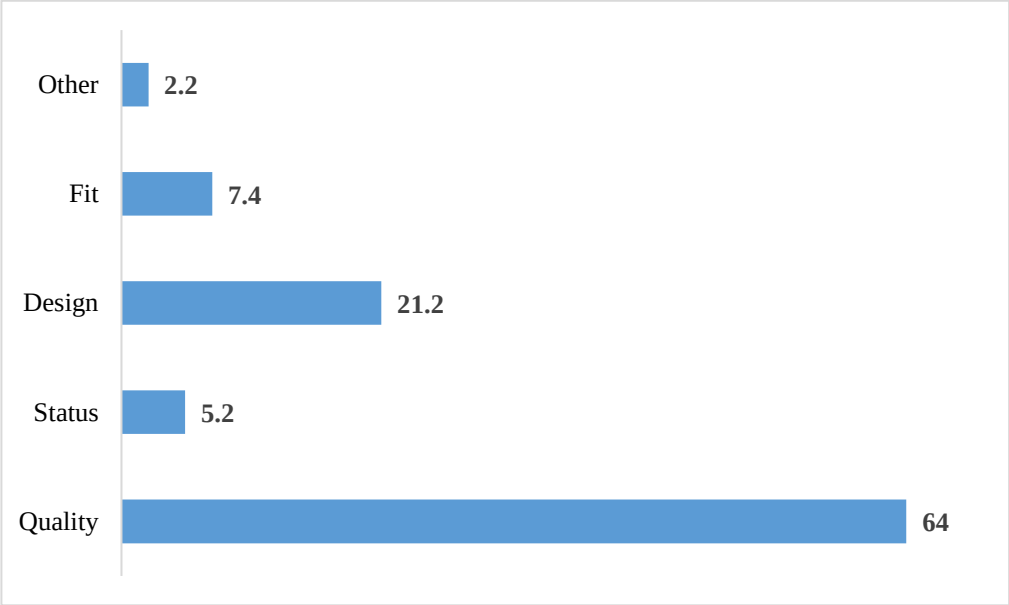
As Figure 6.6 illustrates, 26% of the respondents rarely buy clothing from global fashion brands, 24% buy it occasionally, and 22% sometimes buy clothing from global fashion brands. Eleven percent frequently buys clothing from global fashion brands, 9% never buys clothing from global fashion brands, and only 3% and 1% of the respondents buy it very frequently or always. This shows that the majority (51%) varies between rarely and sometimes. In other words, 51% buy clothing from global fashion brands between 10% and 30% of the time, which means that there might be room for improvement and this finding underlines the relevance of this study for global fashion brands.

6.3.3 Reasons to buy global fashion-branded clothing

There are several reasons for consumers to consider buying clothing from global fashion brands. This study aimed to capture those reasons, the reasons for not considering buying

clothing from global fashion brands, and to identify possibilities for improvement of global as well as local fashion brands. From the 500 respondents, quality was found to be the most important reason for buying global fashion brands, as Figure 6.7 below shows.

Figure 6.7: Main reasons to consider buying global fashion-branded clothing



Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

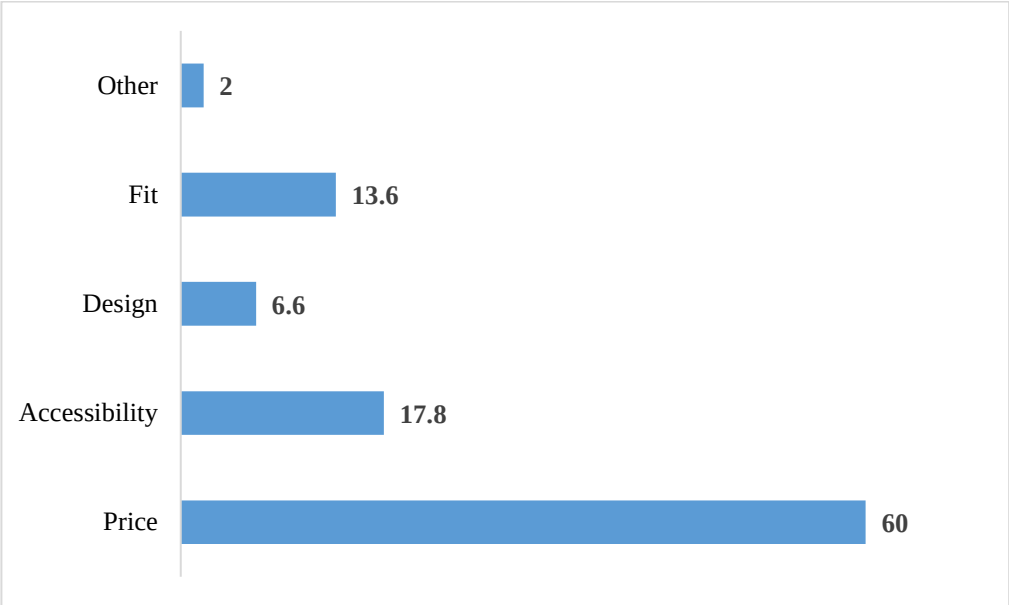
As evident in Figure 6.7, the majority (64%) of the respondents cited quality as their main reason to buy global fashion-branded clothing, followed by the design of global fashion-branded clothing (21%). The figure also shows that, contrary to previous studies that highlighted that consumers in emerging markets buy global fashion-branded clothing for status purposes (Euromonitor, 2015; Jani & Mzalendo, 2015; Bevan-Dye, 2012), this is not the case among the black middle-class females in South Africa. A possible explanation is that unlike most studies, this study did not focus on luxury brands, but instead on 'fast fashion' and mid-market apparel brands such as H&M, Zara, and Forever New. Among the 2% of the respondents that mentioned 'other', the majority indicate that they only buy global fashion-branded clothing when it is on sale, because otherwise it is too expensive.

6.3.4 Reasons to not buy global fashion-branded clothing

In line with the reasons to consider buying global fashion-branded clothing, the reasons not to consider buying global fashion-branded clothing are also relatively uniform. For 60% of the

respondents (i.e. 300 out of 500), price is the main reason not to consider buying clothing from global fashion brands. The results are displayed in Figure 6.8.

Figure 6.8: Main reasons not to consider buying global fashion-branded clothing



Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Figure 6.8 highlights the importance of incorporating price into the conceptual research model. The other reasons for not considering clothing from global fashion brands are their accessibility (17%) and fit (13%). Design is accountable for 6%, and 2% of the respondents have other reasons for not considering global fashion brands.

6.3.5 Descriptive statistics measurement items

This section serves to display the descriptive statistics of the measurement items for each construct. The tables list the name of the construct, its items, and for each item its mean value, standard deviation (Std. Dev.), the five-point Likert-scale items (‘strongly disagree’-‘strongly agree’), including their frequency and percentage, and finally the total number of respondents and total percentage. First, the measurement items of ethnocentrism (ET) are illustrated, followed by the price perception (P), brand knowledge (BK) and its components brand awareness (BA) and brand image (BI), self-image (SI), fashion involvement (FI), brand love (BL), attitude (AT), perceived quality (PQ), and finally purchase intention (PI).

6.3.5.1 Ethnocentrism

Table 6.2: Descriptive statistics ethnocentrism

Construct	Item	Mean Value	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	Total
ET	ET1	2.278	1.021	122 24.4%	193 38.6%	121 24.2%	52 10.4%	12 2.4%	500 100%
	ET2	2.782	1.132	74 14.8%	130 26%	161 32.2%	101 20.2%	34 6.8%	500 100%
	ET3	2.676	1.155	80 16%	162 32.4%	136 27.2%	84 16.8%	38 7.6%	500 100%
	ET4	2.286	1.019	117 23.4%	195 39%	135 27%	34 6.8%	19 3.8%	500 100%

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Table 6.2 provides an overview of the ethnocentrism construct and its measurement items. Ethnocentrism was measured using four items. The majority of the respondents disagree (38%), strongly disagree (24%), or neither agree nor disagree (24%) to the statement that purchasing foreign-made products is un-South African (ET1). The majority of the respondents neither agree nor disagree (32%) or disagree (26%) to the statement that South Africans should not buy foreign products because this hurts South African business and causes unemployment (ET2). However, 20% of the respondents indicate to agree to that statement. On the statement that a real South African should always buy South African made products (ET3), 39% of the respondents disagree, and 27% neither agree nor disagree. Finally, respectively 39% and 23% of the respondents indicate to disagree or strongly disagree to the statement that it is not right to purchase foreign made products (ET4).

6.3.5.2 Price perception

Table 6.3: Descriptive statistics price

Construct	Item	Mean Value	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	Total
P	P1	2.618	1.061	71 14.2%	178 35.6%	144 28.8%	85 17%	22 4.4%	500 100%
	P2	2.608	1.039	77	156	172	76	19	500

				15.4%	31.2%	34.4%	15.2%	3.8%	100%
	P3	1.938	0.949	184	206	81	15	14	500
				36.8%	41.2%	16.2%	3%	2.8%	100%
	P4	2.298	1.097	128	190	112	45	25	500
				25.6%	38%	22.4%	9%	5%	100%

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Table 6.3 illustrates that the price perception construct also comprised four measurement items. The majority of the respondents indicate to disagree (36%) or neither agree nor disagree (29%) to the statement that global fashion brands are reasonably priced (P1). To the affordability of global fashion brands (P2), 34% of the respondents neither agree nor disagree, and 31% disagree. The results of the statements that global fashion brands are expensive (P3) and inexpensive (P4) are somewhat contrary. For the first, the majority of the respondents (78%) disagree that global fashion brands are expensive, while for the latter, the majority of the respondents (63%) indicate to disagree to the statement that global fashion brands are inexpensive. However, according to the findings above, it is evident that global fashion brands are perceived as expensive among the respondents of this study.

6.3.5.3 Brand knowledge

Table 6.4: Descriptive statistics brand knowledge

Construct	Item	Mean Value	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BK	BA1	3.796	0.973	16	34	100	236	114	500
				3.2%	6.8%	20%	47.2%	22.8%	100%
	BA2	3.866	0.964	12	40	78	243	127	500
				2.4%	8%	15.6%	48.6%	25.4%	100%
	BA3	3.720	0.973	15	42	110	234	99	500
				3%	8.4%	22%	46.8%	19.8%	100%
	BA4	3.710	0.981	15	45	109	232	99	500
				3%	9%	21.8%	46.4%	19.8%	100%
	BI1	3.800	0.910	12	29	108	249	102	500
				2.4%	5.8%	21.6%	49.8%	20.4%	100%
	BI2	3.974	0.869	11	16	81	259	133	500

				2.2%	3.2%	16.2%	51.8%	26.6%	100%
	BI3	3.722	0.967	13	41	121	222	103	500
				2.6%	8.2%	24.2%	44.4%	20.6%	100%
	BI4	3.946	0.863	9	19	89	256	127	500
				1.8%	3.8%	17.8%	51.2%	25.4%	100%

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Table 6.4 shows the measurement items of brand knowledge, consisting of four items for brand awareness and four items for brand image. Regarding brand awareness, the majority of the respondents (70%) indicate to agree or strongly agree to the statement that they recognise global fashion brands among other brands (BA1). Almost 75% of the respondents know what global fashion brands look like (BA2). Sixty-seven percent of the respondents indicate that some characteristics of global fashion brands come to their mind quickly (BA3). The majority of the respondents (66%) indicate that they have overall no difficulty in imagining global fashion brands in their mind (BA4). Regarding brand image, the majority of the respondents (respectively 71% and 78%) agree or strongly agree to the statements that global brands are favourable (BI1), and are attractive (BI2). Whether global fashion brands are valuable (BI3) had 65% of the respondents to agree or strongly agree. The majority of the respondents (77%) think that global fashion brands have a good reputation (BI4). Overall it can be concluded that regarding brand awareness and brand image global fashion brands perform well.

6.3.5.4 Self-image

Table 6.5: Descriptive statistics self-image

Construct	Item	Mean Value	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	Total
SI	SI1	2.920	1.105	53	128	164	116	39	500
				10.6%	25.6%	32.8%	23.2%	7.8%	100%
	SI2	3.226	1.047	28	96	161	165	50	500
				5.6%	19.2%	32.2%	33%	10%	100%
	SI3	2.674	1.132	72	173	140	76	39	500
				14.4%	34.6%	28%	15.2%	7.8%	100%

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Table 6.5 shows the results on the self-image construct. Thirty-three percent of the respondents indicate that they neither agree nor disagree to the statement that wearing global fashion brands is consistent with how they see themselves (SI1), 26% indicate to disagree, and 23% indicate to agree. Thirty-three percent of the respondents agrees to the statement that people similar to them wear global fashion brands (SI2), and 32% neither agree nor disagree to that. Finally, 35% of the respondents indicate to disagree to the statement that wearing global fashion brands reflects who they are, and 25% indicate to neither agree nor disagree.

6.3.5.5 Fashion involvement

Table 6.6: Descriptive statistics fashion involvement

Construct	Item	Mean Value	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	Total
FI	FI1	3.736	1.018	14 2.8%	46 9.2%	120 24%	198 39.6%	122 24.4%	500 100%
	FI2	3.396	1.134	29 5.8%	86 17.2%	131 26.2%	166 33.2%	88 17.6%	500 100%
	FI3	3.398	1.015	78 15.6%	162 32.4%	141 28.2%	119 23.8%	0 0%	500 100%

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Table 6.6 presents the findings on the fashion involvement construct and its measurement items. The majority of the respondents (respectively 74% and 51%) indicate that they have a strong interest in fashion clothing (FI1), and that fashion clothing is very important for them (FI2). The third item of fashion involvement states that fashion clothing does not matter (FI3). Forty-eight percent of the respondents disagree or strongly disagree to that statement, and 28% neither agree nor disagree.

6.3.5.6 Brand love

Table 6.7: Descriptive statistics brand love

Construct	Item	Mean Value	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	Total
BL	BL1	3.766	0.881	4 0.8%	34 6.8%	140 28%	219 43.8%	103 20.6%	500 100%
	BL2	3.906	0.855	5	21	115	234	125	500

				1%	4.2%	23%	46.8%	25%	100%
	BL3	3.978	0.823	6	13	100	248	133	500
				1.2%	2.6%	20%	49.6%	26.6%	100%
	BL4	4.024	0.800	7	7	91	257	138	500
				1.4%	1.4%	18.2%	51.4%	27.6%	100%
	BL5	3.974	0.809	6	12	98	257	127	500
				1.2%	2.4%	19.6%	51.4%	25.4%	100%
	BL6	3.898	0.818	6	14	117	251	112	500
				1.2%	2.8%	23.4%	50.2%	22.4%	100%

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Brand love is measured with six items, as shown in Table 6.7. The majority of the respondents (64%) indicate that they are very attached to their favourite local fashion brand(s) (BL1), while 28% neither agree nor disagree to this statement. The majority of the respondents (respectively 72%, 76%, 79%, 77%, and 73%) agree and strongly agree to the statements that they are passionate about their favourite local fashion brand(s) (BL2), that their favourite local fashion brand(s) make them happy (BL3), are wonderful brands (BL4), are totally awesome (BL5), and are a pure delight (BL6). According to the findings, it is evident that local brands are loved among emerging black middle-class females in South Africa.

6.3.5.7 Attitude

Table 6.8: Descriptive statistics attitude

Construct	Item	Mean Value	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	Total
AT	AT1	3.796	0.777	7	16	124	281	72	500
				1.4%	3.2%	24.8%	56.2%	14.4%	100%
	AT2	3.846	0.800	8	18	102	287	85	500
				1.6%	3.6%	20.4%	57.4%	17%	100%
	AT3	3.762	0.802	8	18	132	269	73	500
				1.6%	3.6%	26.4%	53.8%	14.6%	100%
	AT4	3.782	0.807	6	25	118	274	77	500
				1.2%	5%	23.6%	54.8%	15.4%	100%

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Table 6.8 provides an overview on the measurement items of attitude. The majority of the respondents (respectively 71%, 74%, 68%, and 70%) have a good opinion about global brands (AT1), likes global fashion brands (AT2), has a positive opinion about global fashion brands (AT3), and indicate that global fashion brands appeal to them (AT4). It can be concluded that overall, black middle-class females in South Africa have a positive attitude towards global fashion brands.

6.3.5.8 Perceived quality

Table 6.9: Descriptive statistics perceived quality

Construct	Item	Mean Value	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	Total
PQ	PQ1	3.832	0.861	6 1.2%	32 6.4%	102 20.4%	260 52%	100 20%	500 100%
	PQ2	3.772	0.816	7 1.4%	22 4.4%	128 25.6%	264 52.8%	79 15.8%	500 100%
	PQ3	3.742	0.830	9 1.8%	19 3.8%	142 28.4%	252 50.4%	78 15.6%	500 100%
	PQ4	3.780	0.882	10 2%	24 4.8%	129 25.8%	240 48%	97 19.4%	500 100%
	PQ5	3.310	1.047	27 5.4%	79 15.8%	166 33.2%	168 33.6%	60 12%	500 100%
	PQ6	3.868	0.817	7 1.4%	17 3.4%	111 22.2%	265 53%	100 20%	500 100%
	PQ7	3.400	1.034	65 13%	192 38.4%	141 28.2%	82 16.4%	20 4%	500 100%

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Table 6.9 provides an overview of the items used to measure perceived quality. The majority of the respondents (respectively 72%, 68%, 66%, 67%, 73%) indicate that global fashion branded clothing items are well made (PQ1), have reliable clothing (PQ2), are durable (PQ3), are of high quality (PQ4), and are of very good quality (PQ6). Thirty-three percent of the respondents indicate that global fashion brands are a superior product (PQ5), and 33% of the respondents neither agree nor disagree to that superiority. Finally, the last item stated that global fashion branded clothing items are not at all reliable (PQ7), and 38% of the respondents

disagree to that statement and 28% neither agree nor disagree. It seems evident that the perceived quality of global fashion branded items is high.

6.3.5.9 Purchase intention

Table 6.10: Descriptive statistics purchase intention

Construct	Item	Mean Value	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	Total
PI	PI1	3.582	0.980	13 2.6%	59 11.8%	133 26.6%	214 42.8%	81 16.2%	500 100%
	PI2	3.642	0.907	10 2%	37 7.4%	156 31.2%	216 43.2%	81 16.2%	500 100%
	PI3	3.844	0.837	8 1.6%	28 5.6%	88 17.6%	286 57.2%	90 18%	500 100%
	PI4	3.662	0.926	10 2%	55 11%	102 20.4%	260 52%	73 14.6%	500 100%
	PI5	3.848	0.875	12 2.4%	20 4%	103 20.6%	262 52.4%	103 20.6%	500 100%
	PI6	3.146	0.997	20 4%	115 23%	179 35.8%	144 28.8%	42 8.4%	500 100%

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

The final construct is purchase intention, consisting of six measurement items, as Table 6.10 shows. The majority of the respondents (respectively 59%, 59%, 75%, 66%, and 73%) indicate that there is the probability that they would consider buying global fashion-branded products is high (PI1), that they would purchase global fashion-branded items next time (PI2), that they would consider buying global fashion-branded items (PI3), that there is a strong likelihood that they will buy global fashion-branded items (PI4), and that they will buy a global fashion-branded item in the near future (PI5). Regarding the last item, 35% of the respondents neither agree nor disagree to the statement that whenever they need to buy clothing items, it is very likely that they will buy a global fashion brand (PI6). 28% of the respondents agree to that statement, and 23% disagree. Making the last measurement item of purchase intention stand out compared to the other measurement items.

6.4 Quality of the research model

To determine the quality of the research model, several measures are available. As discussed in the previous chapter, s structural equation model with latent variables consists of a measurement model (i.e. outer model) and structural model (i.e. inner model). This section firstly elaborates on the measurement model and assesses its quality, and then the structural model and its path coefficients, R^2 and Q^2.

6.4.1 Measurement model

In this section, the variables of the conceptual research model (i.e. ethnocentrism (ET), price perception (P), brand knowledge (BK), consisting of brand awareness (BA) and brand image (BI), self-image (SI), fashion involvement (FI), brand love (BL), attitude (AT), perceived quality (PQ), and purchase intention (PI)) are discussed, based on their quality, their reliability, and validity. Firstly, the outer loadings of the indicators are assessed. Indicators should have an outer loading of at least 0.70 according to Henseler et al. (2009), which not all outer loadings meet. But indicators below 0.70 do not necessarily need to be removed, only when they increase the quality of the construct. This study has chosen to not delete the indicators with a value below 0.70, but rather to delete indicators below 0.40. Appendix 3 provides all indicators, including the ones that were removed due to their lack of quality. In Appendix 3, the indicators with an outer loading of 0.40 or below are made bold, and those indicators are eliminated. The weak indicators are P3 (the third item of the price construct) and PQ7 (the seventh item of the perceived quality construct). Because it is advised to be careful with removing indicators in PLS models (Henseler et al., 2009), the indicators that are only slightly below the threshold of 0.70 remain. Table 6.11 provides the final data set.

Table 6.11: Overall statistics results

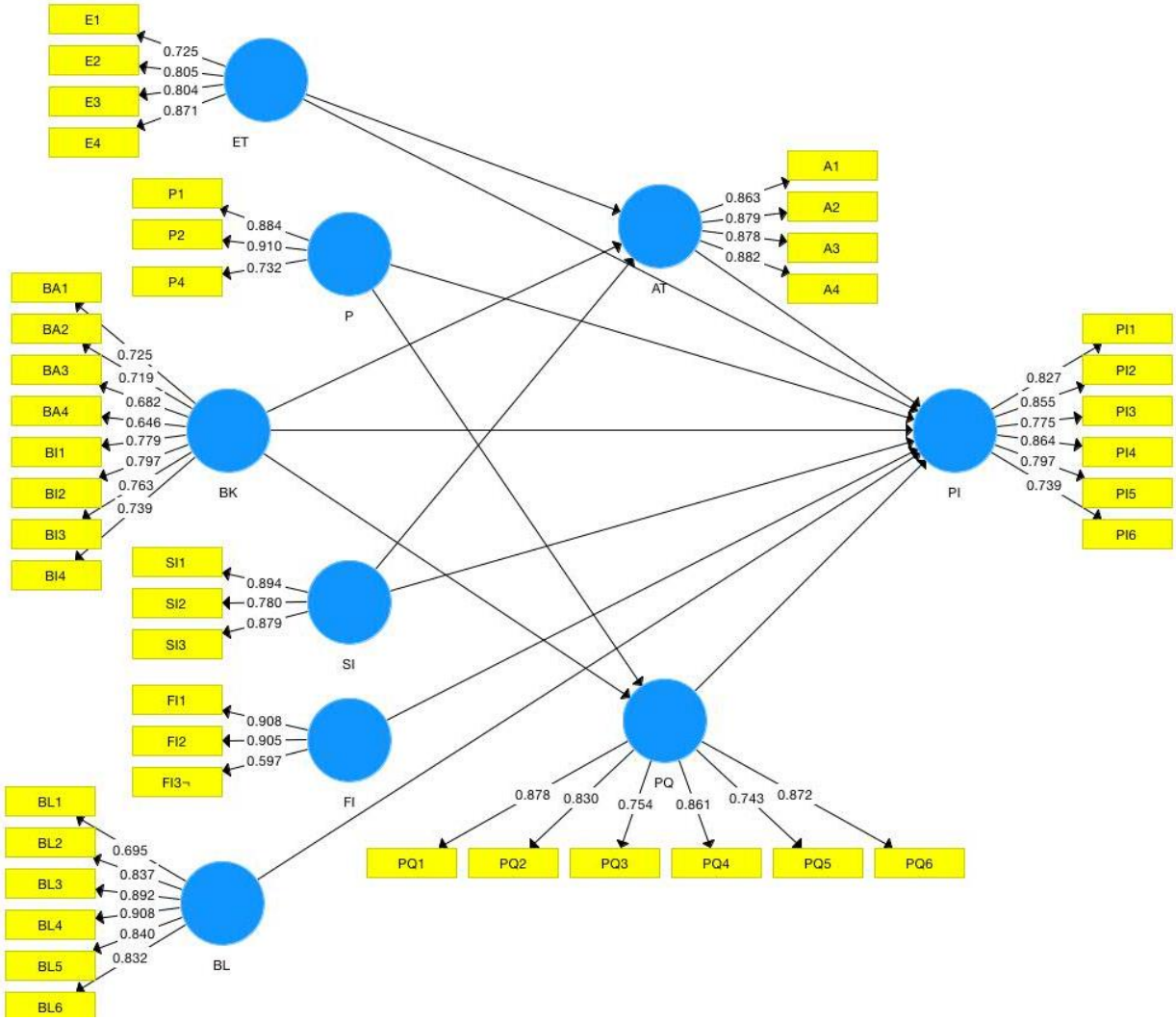
Research construct	Item	Mean Value		Std. Dev.		CA	CR	AVE	Outer loading
ET	ET1	2.28	2.508	1.02	1.080	0.818	0.878	0.644	0.725
	ET2	2.78		1.13					0.805
	ET3	2.68		1.15					0.804
	ET4	2.29		1.02					0.871
P	P1	2.62	2.368	1.06	1.038	0.807	0.882	0.715	0.884
	P2	2.61		1.04					0.910
	P4	2.30		1.10					0.732
BK	BA1	3.80	3.818	0.97	0.936	0.877	0.902	0.537	0.725
	BA2	3.87		0.96					0.719
	BA3	3.72		0.97					0.682
	BA4	3.71		0.98					0.646
	BI1	3.80		0.91					0.779
	BI2	3.97		0.87					0.797
	BI3	3.72		0.97					0.763
	BI4	3.95		0.86					0.739
SI	SI1	2.92	2.940	1.10	1.093	0.811	0.888	0.727	0.894
	SI2	3.23		1.05					0.780
	SI3	2.67		1.13					0.879
FI	FI1	3.74	3.513	1.02	1.053	0.757	0.853	0.666	0.908
	FI1	3.40		1.13					0.905
	FI3	3.40		1.01					0.597*
BL	BL1	3.77	3.925	0.88	0.830	0.921	0.933	0.700	0.695
	BL2	3.91		0.85					0.837
	BL3	3.98		0.82					0.892
	BL4	4.02		0.80					0.908
	BL5	3.97		0.81					0.840
	BL6	3.90		0.82					0.832
AT	AT1	3.79		0.78					0.863
	AT2	3.85		0.80					0.879

	AT3	3.76	3.795	0.80	0.798	0.899	0.929	0.767	0.878
	AT4	3.78		0.81					0.882
PQ	PQ1	3.83		0.86					0.878
	PQ2	3.77		0.81					0.830
	PQ3	3.74		0.83					0.754
	PQ4	3.78	3.671	0.88	0.897	0.905	0.927	0.680	0.861
	PQ5	3.31		1.05					0.743
	PQ6	3.87		0.82					0.872
PI	PI1	3.58		0.98					0.827
	PI2	3.64		0.91					0.855
	PI3	3.84		0.84					0.775
	PI4	3.66	3.617	0.93	0.922	0.895	0.920	0.657	0.864
	PI5	3.85		0.87					0.797
	PI6	3.15		1.00					0.739

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

As illustrated in Table 6.11, the updated table with the remaining indicators is used for data analysis and to assess the quality of the constructs. The following SmartPLS output in Figure 6.9 presents a graphical representation of the conceptual model and its outer loadings as a result of the removal of the weak indicators. The outer loadings of the SmartPLS output correspond with the outer loadings in the overall final analysis statistics in Figure 6.9, after the weak outer loadings with a value below 0.40 were removed.

Figure 6.9: Conceptual model and its outer loadings



Source: SmartPLS output (2016)

The next step is to assess the quality of the measurement model. To determine the quality of the measurement model, its reliability and validity are assessed, which is common for reflective measurement models (Hair et al., 2011). To determine the reliability, CA and CR are used, and to assess the validity, the AVE and HTMT are appropriate assessment tools.

6.4.1.1 Reliability

To test the reliability, CA and CR were used. Hair et al. (2012; 2011) state that the CA and CR should have a value of at least 0.70, and lack of reliability is achieved when the CR is below 0.60 (Hair et al., 2011). For research that uses PLS path modeling, CR is more suitable (Hair et al., 2011), but this study evaluates both. Based on the SmartPLS output, all variables have sufficient CA and CR (i.e. >0.70), as shown in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12: Construct reliability

Construct	*Cronbach's Alpha*	*CR*
Ethnocentrism	0.818	0.878
Price perception	0.807	0.882
Brand knowledge	0.877	0.902
Self-image	0.811	0.888
Fashion involvement	0.757	0.853
Brand love	0.921	0.933
Attitude	0.899	0.929
Perceived quality	0.905	0.899
Purchase intentions	0.895	0.920

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

The highest CA is for brand love (0.921), followed by perceived quality (0.905). The remaining variables have CAs between 0.807 (price) and 0.899, and the lowest CA is for fashion involvement, with a CA of 0.757. The highest CR is also for brand love (0.933), followed by attitude (0.929). The remaining constructs all have CRs between 0.878 and 0.920. The lowest CR is also for the fashion involvement measure, with a value of 0.853. The removal of the weak indicators of price and perceived quality resulted in an increase in both CA and CR for both constructs. Price increased from 0.762 to 0.807 in its CA, and from 0.829 to 0.882 in CR, and perceived quality increased from 0.859 to 0.905 in its CA and 0.899 to 0.927 regarding CR.

6.4.1.2 Validity

To test the validity (convergent and discriminant), the AVE and HTMT ratio are used.

6.4.1.2.1 Convergent validity

As noted, to have sufficient convergent validity, the AVE should have a value of at least 0.50 (Hair et al., 2012). Table 6.13 provides the AVE for all constructs.

Table 6.13: Convergent validity (AVE)

Construct	*AVE*
Ethnocentrism	0.644
Price perception	0.715
Brand knowledge	0.537
Self-image	0.727
Fashion involvement	0.666
Brand love	0.700
Attitude	0.767
Perceived quality	0.680
Purchase intention	0.657

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Based on the SmartPLS output, all variables met the validity criteria of an AVE of >0.50. As a result of the removal of the weakest indicators, the AVE of price increased from 0.569 to 0.715, and the AVE of perceived quality increased from 0.586 to 0.680. Brand knowledge had the lowest AVE with a value of 0.537, and attitude had the highest AVE with 0.767. All other variables were in between those values.

6.4.1.2.2 Discriminant validity

To assess the discriminant validity, if a latent construct shares more variance with its own indicators than with the other indicators in the model (Hair et al., 2011), the HTMT ratio is utilised, in which the standard is set at $HTMT_{.85}$. Table 6.14 presents the discriminant validity.

Table 6.14: Discriminant validity (HTMT)

Construct	*AT*	*BK*	*BL*	*ET*	*FI*	*PI*	*PQ*	*P*	*SI*
AT									
BK	0.680								
BL	0.100	0.158							
ET	0.323	0.122	0.134						
FI	0.322	0.412	0.199	0.159					
PI	0.675	0.642	0.107	0.185	0.445				
PQ	0.590	0.631	0.227	0.088	0.399	0.672			

P	0.301	0.326	0.044	0.148	0.251	0.372	0.231	
SI	0.630	0.496	0.053	0.079	0.401	0.605	0.518	0.586

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

Based on the SmartPLS output as shown in Table 6.14, all variables met the criteria of having a HTMT value of below 0.85, which meant that the discriminant validity was sufficient.

6.4.2 Structural model

R^2 explains the amount of variance that is explained by the independent variables (Hsu, 2008), and a satisfactory R^2 value depends on the context of the study. In general, a rule of thumb is that values of 0.75, 0.50 and 0.25 are considered as strong, moderate, and weak (Hair et al., 2011). But with regard to consumer behaviour, 0.20 is already considered to be high (Hair et al., 2011). Table 6.15 provides the R^2 values of the dependent variables attitude, purchase intention, and perceived quality.

Table 6.15: R^2 values

Construct	R^2
Attitude	0.532
Purchase intention	0.545
Perceived quality	0.332

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

In general, the R^2 of attitude and purchase intention would be considered as moderate (with a value around 0.50), and the R^2 of perceived quality as between weak and moderate (with a value between 0.20-0.50). But since in consumer behaviour an R^2 of 0.20 is already considered high (Hair et al., 2011), the R^2 values of this study are satisfactory. Figure 6.15 shows that while attitude and purchase intention are above the 0.50 values, perceived quality has a relatively low R^2 of only 0.332. Another tool to assess the predictive relevance of the independent variables over the dependent, outcome variables is Q^2 (Hair et al., 2011). By using the bootstrapping tool within PLS, a value greater than zero implies that the independent variables have the ability to predict over the outcome variable (Hair et al., 2011). Table 6.16 presents the Q^2 values of the outcome variables attitude, purchase intention and perceived quality.

Table 6.16: Q^2 values

Construct	Q^2
Attitude	0.403
Purchase intention	0.354
Perceived quality	0.221

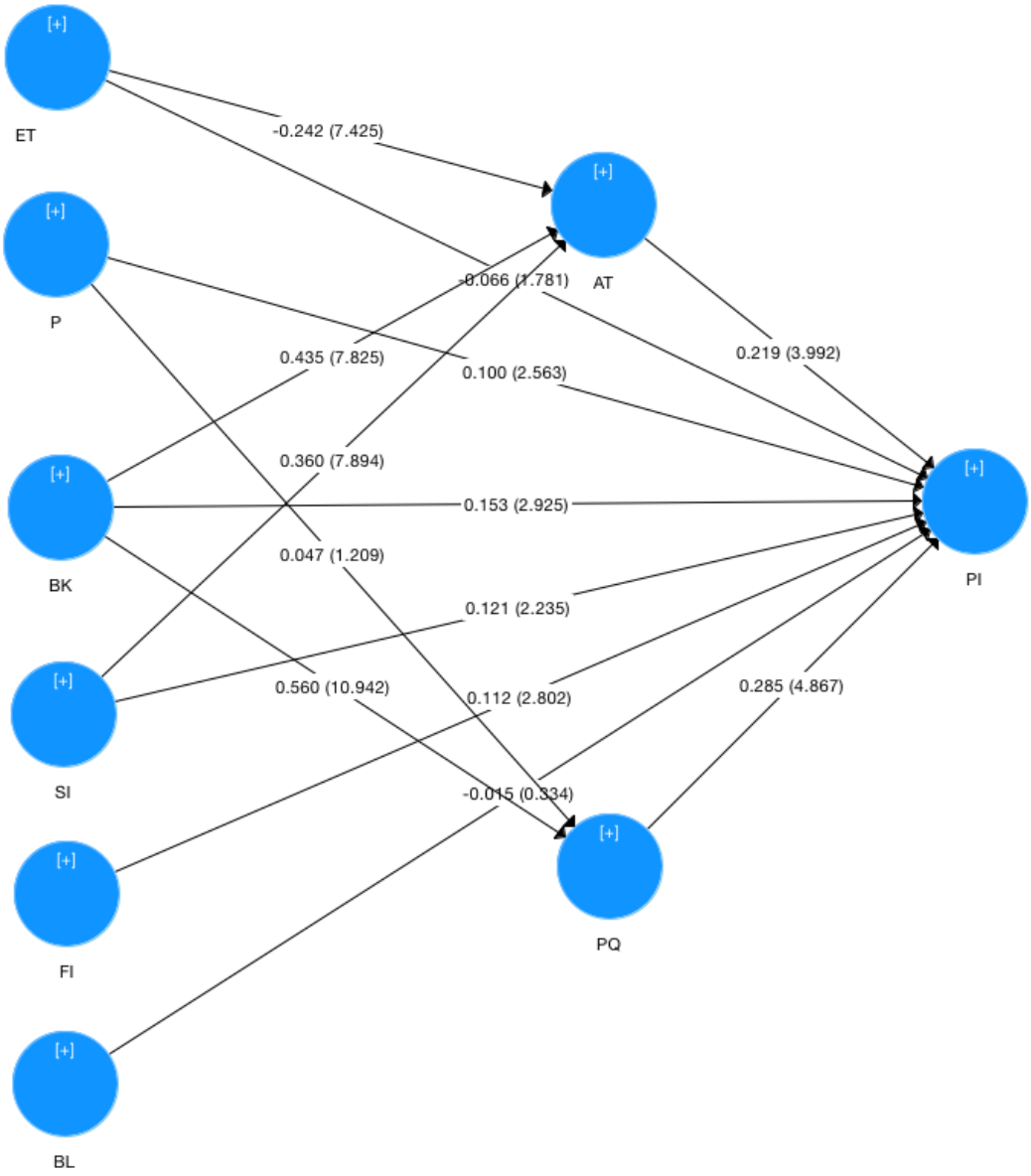
Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

A value greater than zero implies predictive power (Hair et al., 2011), and all Q^2 values are well above the threshold of zero, supporting the predictive power of the constructs. However, it is again evident that the perceived quality construct performs lesser than attitude and purchase intention.

6.4.3 Path modeling and hypothesis testing

This section provides an overview of the results of the hypotheses, whether they are supported or not. The path coefficients indicate the strength of the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables (Hsu, 2008). This section starts with a graphical representation of the path coefficients and t-values of the conceptual model, followed by a table that provides the hypotheses, their t-values, and whether or not they are supported, and finally presents a graphical representation of the strengths of the paths. The threshold this study uses for a two-tailed test with a significance of 5% (0.05) is a t-value of 1.96 (Hair et al., 2011). Other t-values are 1.65 for a significance level of 10%, and 2.58 for a significance level of 1% (Hair et al., 2011). Hypotheses are supported when they meet the threshold t-value of 1.96, which indicates the 5% level of significance. Figure 6.10 shows the path coefficients and the t-values that accompany them.

Figure 6.10: Path coefficients conceptual research model



Source: SmartPLS output (2016)

Table 6.17 summarises the relationships, hypotheses, path coefficients, t-values, and the overall results of each hypothesised relationship in the conceptual research model.

Table 6.17: Path modeling and hypothesis testing

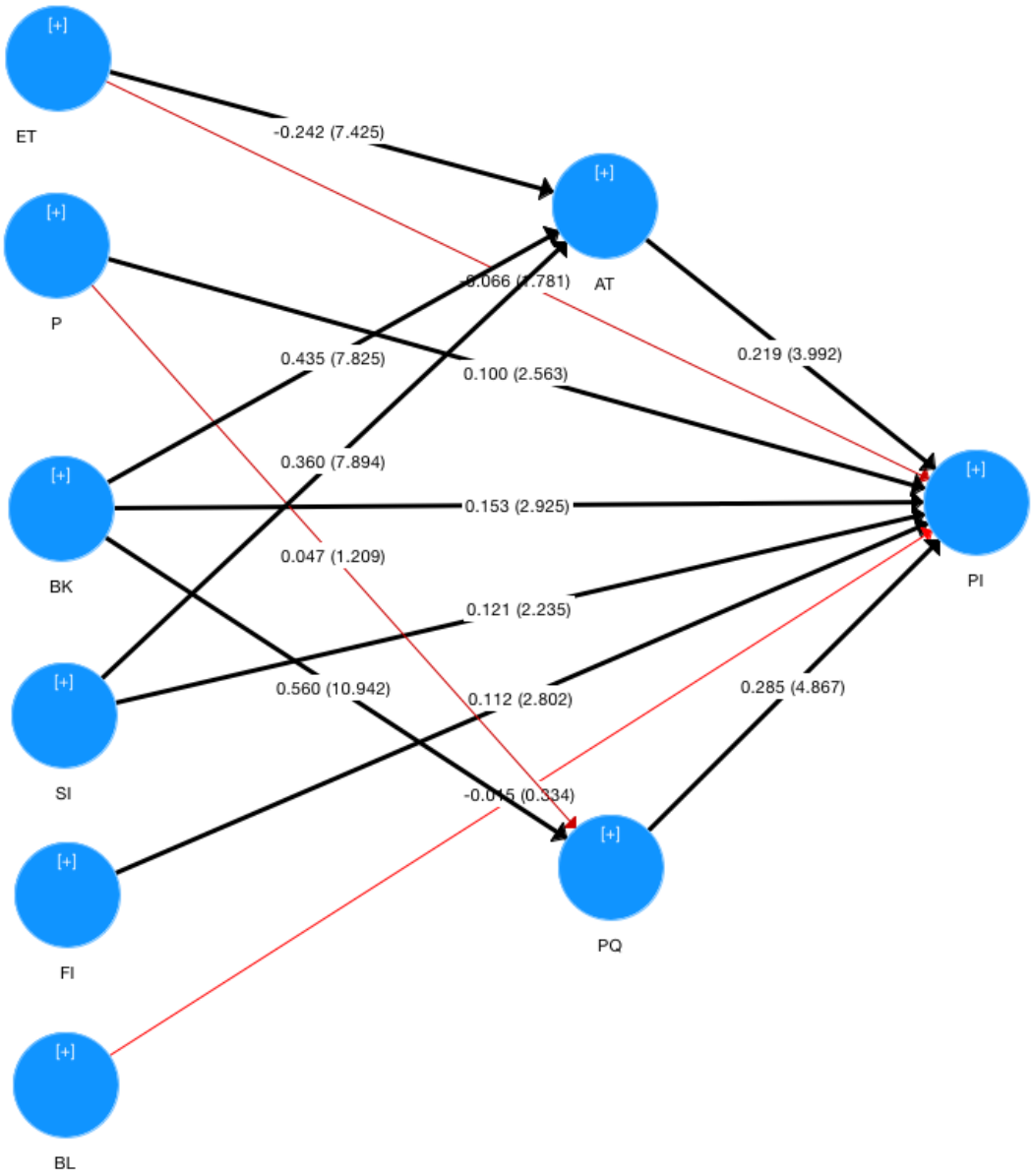
Relationship	***Hypothesis***	***Path coefficient***	***T-value***	***Result***
Ethnocentrism → attitude	H1	-0.242	7.425	Supported and Significant.
Ethnocentrism → purchase intention	H2	-0.066	1.781	Supported but not Significant.
Price perception → purchase intention	H3	0.100	2.563	Significant and Supported.
Price perception → perceived quality	H4	0.047	1.209	Supported but not Significant.
Brand knowledge → attitude	H5	0.435	7.825	Supported and Significant.
Brand knowledge → purchase intention	H6	0.153	2.925	Supported and Significant.
Brand knowledge → perceived quality	H7	0.560	10.942	Supported and Significant.
Self-image → attitude	H8	0.360	7.894	Supported and Significant.
Self-image → purchase intention	H9	0.121	2.235	Supported and Significant.
Fashion involvement → purchase intention	H10	0.112	2.802	Supported and Significant.
Brand love → purchase intention	H11	-0.015	0.334	Supported but not significant.
Attitude → purchase intention	H12	0.219	3.992	Supported and Significant.
Perceived quality → purchase Intention	H13	0.285	4.867	Supported and Significant.

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

As Table 6.17 indicates, it can be concluded that all hypotheses are confirmed, but not all hypotheses meet the threshold regarding significance. Although supported, three hypotheses

were not found significant, these were hypotheses 1, 4, and 11. Thus, the relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention is supported, but not on the threshold t-value, and the same applies to the relationship between price and perceived quality. A negligible relationship between brand love and purchase intention was observed. Figure 6.11 illustrates the strength of each relationship.

Figure 6.11: Hypotheses and strength of the relationships



Source: SmartPLS output (2016)

Figure 6.11 aims to make the results of the hypotheses testing more visual. The red hypotheses are supported but not significant, and the thick black lines represent the hypotheses that are confirmed at the threshold of a 5% level of significance.

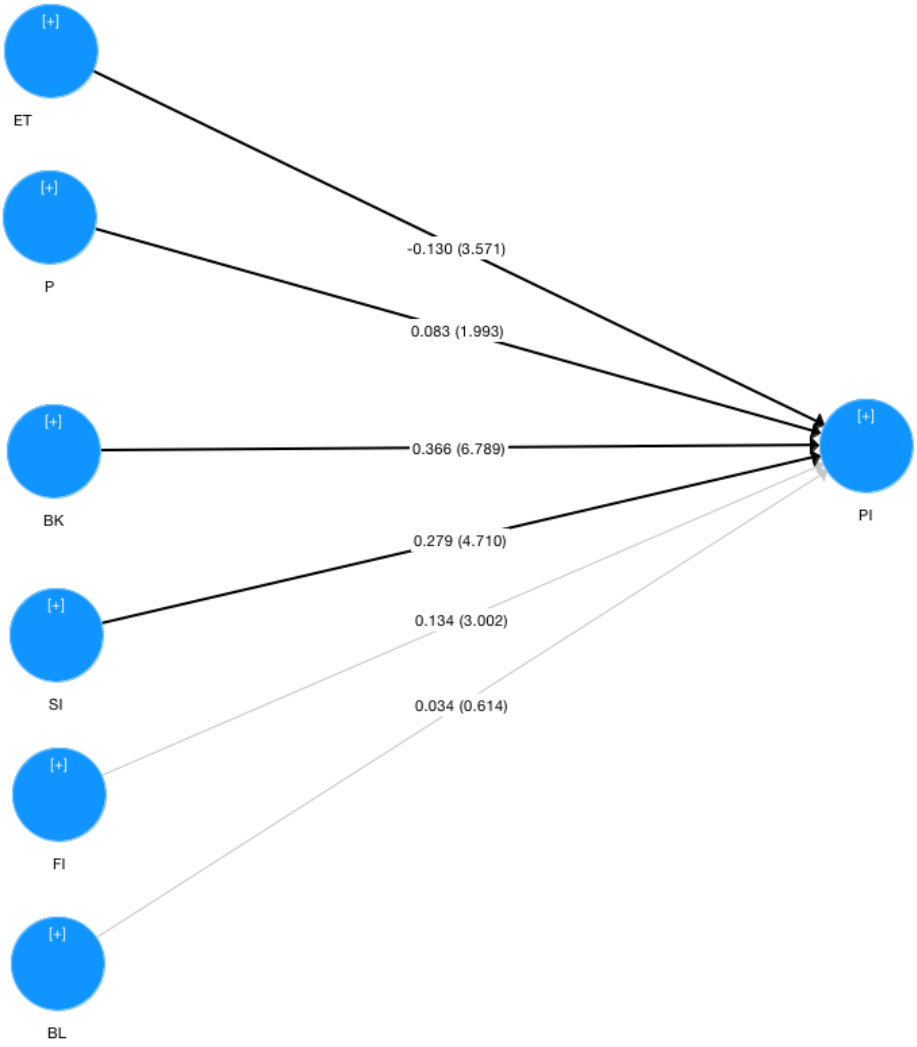
6.5 Mediator testing

As evident in the proposed conceptual research model, the model has two mediators, namely attitude and perceived quality. The method of testing the mediators is in line with Akram et al. (2011) and Bao et al.'s (2011) approaches, using Baron and Kenny's (1986) method. Briefly, the steps are as follows: the first step determines the relationship between the independent and dependent variables without the mediators; the second step determines the effect of the independent variables on the mediators; the third step assesses whether or not the mediator is significant on the dependent variable; and the final step deals with the full model, to ascertain whether or not the relationships between independent and dependent variables has changed after including the mediator.

6.5.1. Step one

The first step is to determine the relationships between the independent and dependent variables without incorporating the mediator variables. As the graph below shows, this resulted in a relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention with a path coefficient of -0.130 and a t-value of 3.571, which is significant. The relationship between price and purchase intention is also significant, with a path coefficient of 0.083 and a t-value of 1.993, just as the relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intention, resulting in a path coefficient of 0.366 and a t-value of 6.789. The final relationship is between self-image and purchase intention, which was found significant with a path coefficient of 0.279 and a t-value of 4.710. Fashion involvement and brand love will not be discussed, since they are not linked to the mediating variables. The results of this first step implies that the first requirement for a mediating effect is met by all four variables. Figure 6.12 presents the results of the first step in mediator testing.

Figure 6.12: Model without mediators



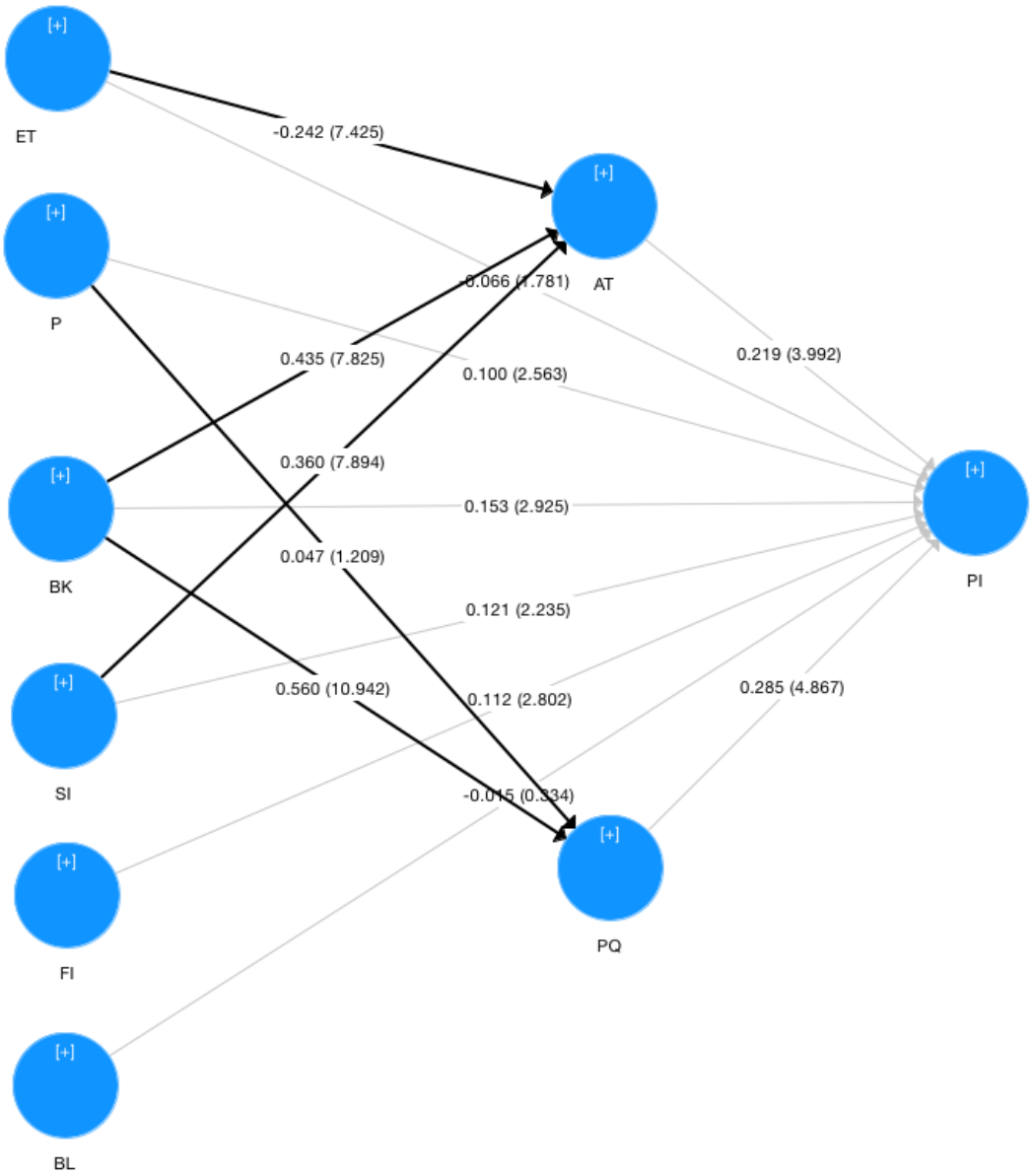
Source: SmartPLS output (2016)

6.5.2. Step two

The second step concerns the relationships between the independent variables and the mediators. As the graph shows, most relationships are significant, implying that most independent variables have a significant effect on the mediators. This applies for ethnocentrism and attitude with a path coefficient of -0.242 and a t-value of 7.425, brand knowledge and attitude with a path coefficient of 0.435 and a t-value of 7.825, brand knowledge and perceived quality with a path coefficient of 0.560 and a t-value of 10.942, and self-image and attitude with a path coefficient of 0.360 and a t-value of 7.894. The only relationship between independent variable and mediator found not to be significant was the relationship between price and

perceived quality with a path coefficient of 0.047 and a t-value of 1.209. This is presented in Figure 6.13.

Figure 6.13: Independent variables on mediators



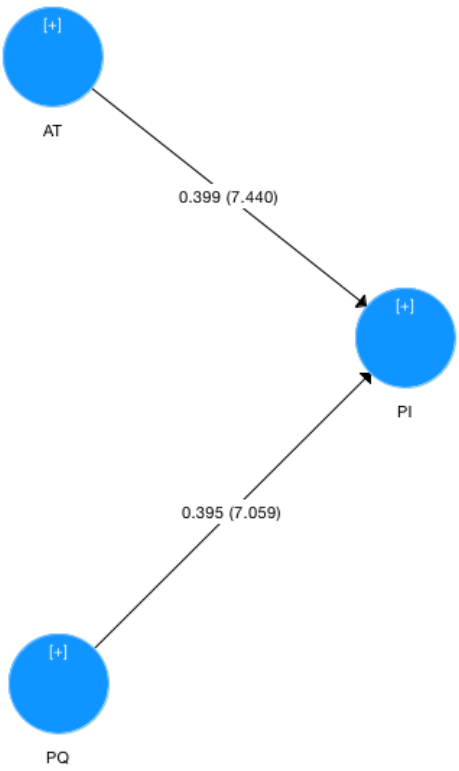
Source: SmartPLS output (2016)

6.5.3. Step three

The third step tests whether the relationships between the mediators and the dependent variables are significant. This step will thus test the relationship between attitude and purchase intention and the relationship between perceived quality and purchase intention. As the illustration below shows, the relationship between attitude and purchase intention is significant with a path coefficient of 0.399 and a t-value of 7.440. The relationship between perceived quality and

purchase intention is also significant with a path coefficient of0.395 and a t-value of 7.059. This is presented in Figure 6.14.

Figure 6.14: Mediators on dependent variable



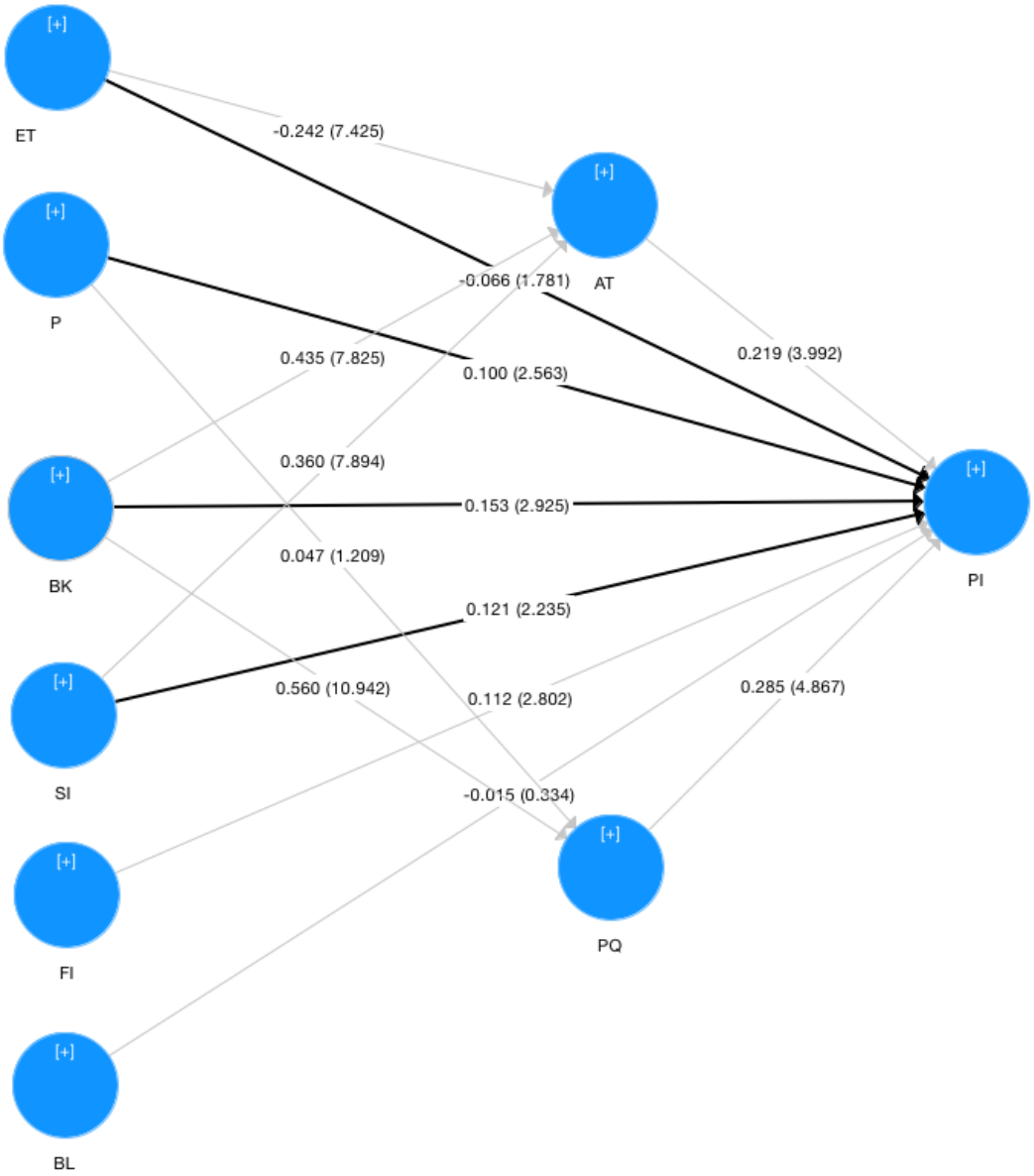
Source: SmartPLS output (2016)

6.5.4. Step four

The final step is to calculate the full model, and identify whether or not the mediators changed the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. If after incorporating the mediator the direct relationship between independent and dependent variables becomes zero, there is full mediation; if the relationship is reduced, there is partial mediation (Bao et al., 2011). As depicted figure 6.23, the relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention was significant before incorporating the mediator. After incorporating the mediator, the relationship has become non significant. Also the relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intention and self-image and purchase intention has showed a decline after incorporating the mediators. This means that perceived quality and attitude have a partial mediating effect. In contrast, the relationship between price and purchase intention has increased after incorporating

the mediator, which means that perceived quality has no mediating effect in the relationship with price towards purchase intention. Figure 6.15 presents these results.

Figure 6.15: Full model



Source: SmartPLS output (2016).

6.6 Summary of hypotheses results

This section provides an overview of the path modeling and hypotheses testing, by briefly summarising the result of each hypothesis.

6.5.1 Ethnocentrism and attitude (Hypothesis 1)

The relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude (H1) is found to be strong. With a path coefficient of -0.242 and a t-value of 7.425, the relationship is supported and found significant. Therefore, it is concluded that the higher the degree of ethnocentrism among black middle-class female consumers in emerging market South Africa, the less positive their attitude towards global fashion brands.

6.5.2 Ethnocentrism and purchase intention (Hypothesis 2)

Based on the analysis of the obtained data, it can be concluded that hypothesis two (H2) is supported but found to be non-significant. With a path coefficient of -0.066 and a t-value of 1.781, the relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention was found to be weak, and did not meet the threshold of a level of significance of 5%. This means that although there is, in line with the proposed hypothesis, a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention, this relationship is found to be non-significant. Therefore, there is not enough evidence to conclude that consumer ethnocentrism negatively influences the purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

6.5.3 Price perception and purchase intention (Hypothesis 3)

The third hypothesis (H3) is supported and found to be significant. The data indicated that there is a positive relationship between price and purchase intention. With a path coefficient of 0.100 and a t-value of 2.563, the relationship between price and purchase intention was not only supported, but also significant at the threshold value of 5% level of significance. This means that the more reasonable and affordable the price perception of global fashion brands, the higher the purchase intention of global fashion brands among black middle-class female consumers.

6.5.4 Price perception and perceived quality (Hypothesis 4)

Despite the price-quality heuristic stating otherwise, the study found support for the positive relationship between price and perceived quality. However, this relationship is relatively contrary towards previous assumptions; an affordable and reasonable price perception does not negatively influence the perceived quality of global fashion brands. With a path coefficient of 0.047 and a t-value of 1.209, this was one of the weakest relationships in the conceptual

research. Despite the fact that the relationship is supported and that a positive relationship exists between price and perceived quality in this context, the relationship is found to be non-significant. This implies that there is insufficient evidence to conclude that there is a positive relationship between the price and the perceived quality.

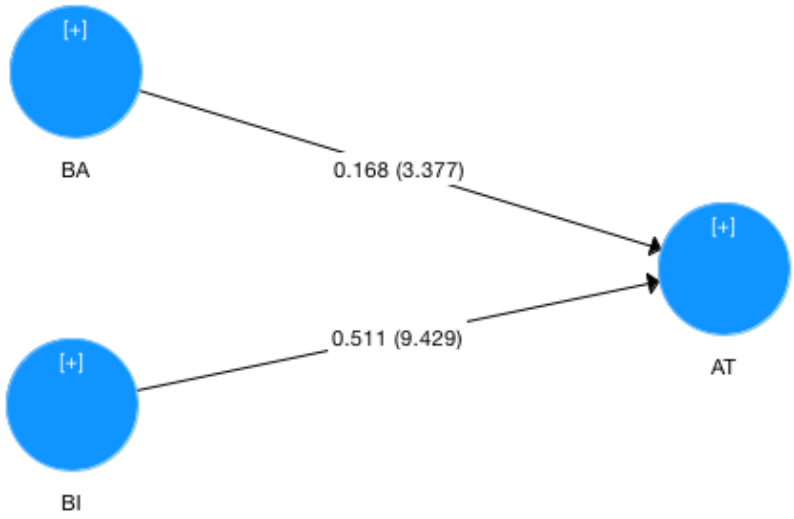
6.5.5 Brand knowledge and attitude (Hypothesis 5)

The relationship between brand knowledge and attitude (H5) was also supported. With a path coefficient of 0.435 and a t-value of 7.825, there was a significant positive relationship between brand knowledge and attitude. The relationship between brand knowledge and attitude was thus both supported and found to be significant. This implies that when brand knowledge increases (brand knowledge comprises of brand awareness and brand image), the more positive the attitude towards global fashion brands among black middle-class consumers in South Africa.

6.5.5.1 Brand awareness and brand image

Since brand knowledge is the function of brand awareness and brand image, and to identify which of the components was stronger in their influence on attitude, the individual influence of brand awareness and brand image was tested (as indicated in Figure 6.16).

Figure 6.16: Brand awareness and brand image on attitude



Source: SmartPLS output (2016)

As Figure 6.16 indicates, the influence of brand awareness on attitude had a path coefficient of 0.168 and a t-value of 3.377, this means brand awareness had a significant effect on attitude.

Brand image also had a significant positive effect on attitude, with a path coefficient of 0.511 and a t-value of 9.429. Thus, the effect of brand image on attitude was almost three times more influential than brand awareness. It can therefore be concluded that with regard to brand knowledge, the role of brand image was more essential in attitude formation than brand awareness.

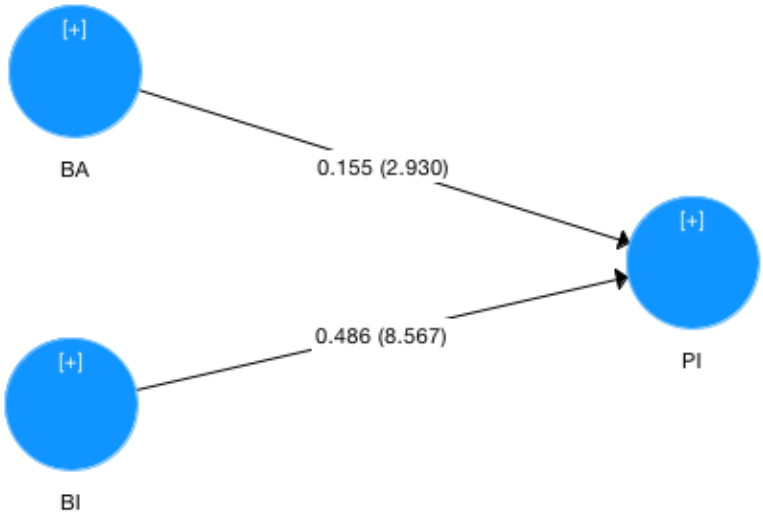
6.5.6 Brand knowledge and purchase intention (Hypothesis 6)

Likewise, hypothesis six (H6) is supported, which means that the proposed positive relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intention was significant. With a path coefficient of 0.153 and a t-value of 2.925, the threshold of 1.96 at a 5% level of significance was largely met. This relationship was less strong than the relationship between brand knowledge and brand attitude, but it can still be concluded that brand knowledge had a positive and significant effect on the purchase intention. In the context of this study, this implies that the greater the knowledge of global fashion brands, the greater the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. So when brand awareness and brand image increase, the purchase intention also increases.

6.5.6.1 Brand awareness and brand image

Similarly, to the relationship between brand knowledge and attitude, the relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intention is decomposed into the two individual components of brand knowledge. As Figure 6.17 below shows, the influence of brand image on purchase intention is superior to the influence of brand awareness on purchase intention.

Figure 6.17: Brand awareness and brand image on purchase intentions



Source: SmartPLS output (2016)

The relationship between brand awareness and purchase intention has a path coefficient of 0.155 and a t-value of 2.930, which is positive and significant. Similarly, brand image has a positive and significant effect on purchase intention, with a path coefficient of 0.486 and a t-value of 8.567. This underlines the conceptualisation of brand knowledge; both its components brand awareness and brand image are positive and significant on the intention to purchase. But again, the influence of brand image is trice compared to the influence of brand awareness on the purchase intention, which also makes brand image within this relationship the most influential variable.

6.5.7 Brand knowledge and perceived quality (Hypothesis 7)

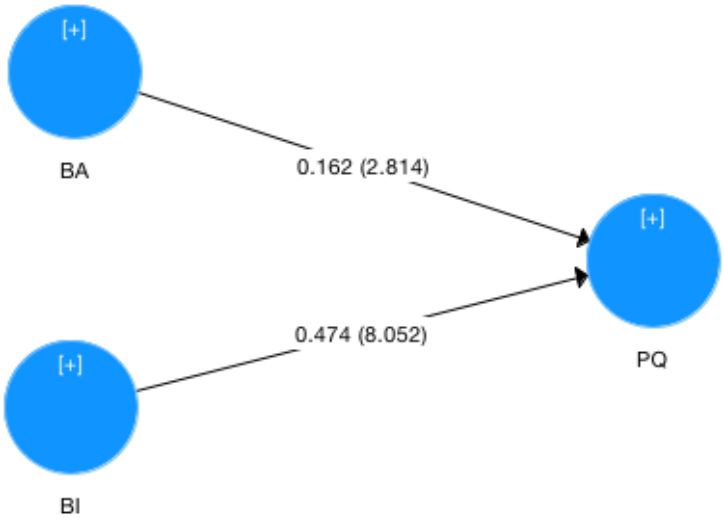
The final hypothesis (H7) on brand knowledge is also supported and significant, and this is the relationship between brand knowledge and perceived quality. With a path coefficient of 0.560 and a t-value of 10.942, this is the strongest relationship brand knowledge has in the conceptual research model. It can therefore be concluded that brand knowledge and perceived quality have a strong relationship, and the greater the knowledge (awareness and image) of global fashion brands, the higher the perceived quality of those brands.

6.5.7.1 Brand awareness and brand image

The final calculation on brand knowledge concerns the individual effects of brand awareness and brand image on perceived quality. In line with the previous calculations, brand awareness

and brand image are both significantly positive on perceived quality. Figure 6.18 presents the results of path modeling.

Figure 6.18: Brand awareness and brand image on perceived quality



Source: SmartPLS output (2016)

As evident in Figure 6.18, with a path coefficient of 0.162 and a t-value of 2.814, the influence of brand awareness on perceived quality is significant and positive, as is brand image, with a path coefficient of 0.474 and a t-value of 8.052. Even though both are significant, brand image is much more influential on perceived quality.

6.5.8 Self-image and attitude (Hypothesis 8)

The positive relationship between self-image and attitude is confirmed (H8). With a path coefficient of 0.360 and a t-value of 7.894, it can be concluded that the relationship between self-image and attitude is found significant at a level of significance of 5%. In conclusion, the congruity between the brand and the consumer influences their attitude towards global fashion brands. In this context this implies that the more congruity between the consumer's self-image and global fashion brands, the more positive the consumers' attitude towards global fashion brands.

6.5.9 Self-image and purchase intention (Hypothesis 9)

Similarly, results for hypothesis 9 (the relationship between self-image and purchase intention) show that there is a positive relationship between self-image and purchase intention. The

relationship was also found to be significant. With a path coefficient of 0.121, and a t-value of 2.235, the positive relationship between self-image and purchase intention is found significant at a 5% level of significance. The relationship between self-image and attitude is found to be stronger than the relationship between self-image and purchase intention. This means that self-image congruency has a greater effect on attitude towards global brands than directly on the purchase intention towards global brands. However, it can therefore be concluded that the Self-congruity Theory proves itself to work in this context, since the greater the congruity between the consumer's image and the image of the brand, the greater the purchase intention towards the brand.

6.5.10 Fashion involvement and purchase intention (Hypothesis 10)

Hypothesis 10 (H10) is confirmed to be supported and significant. The data analysis resulted in a positive and significant relationship between fashion involvement and purchase intention. This is evident with a path coefficient of 0.112 and a t-value of 2.802, at a 5% level of significance, and it can be concluded that there is a positive relationship between fashion involvement and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Product category involvement thus influences behavioural intentions towards this particular product. In the context of global fashion brands, it means that the more a consumer is involved in fashion, the more likely it is that this consumer will have an intention to purchase global fashion-branded items.

6.5.11 Brand love and purchase intention (Hypothesis 11)

The relationship between brand love and purchase intention was found to be the weakest relationship within the conceptual research model. There is indeed a negative relationship between brand love and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands (H11), but this relationship is not found significant. No matter what the threshold significance level (10%, 5% and 1%), at all levels the relationship is not significant. With a path coefficient of -0.015 and a t-value of 0.334, this relationship does not meet the threshold of 1.96, and therefore, this hypothesis is supported but is not found to be significant. In other words, there is insufficient evidence to conclude that brand love towards the local brands negatively influences the purchase intention towards global brands.

6.5.12 Attitude and purchase intention (Hypothesis 12)

Hypothesis 12 (H12) is supported, indicating a positive relationship between attitude and purchase intention. This is evident with a path coefficient of 0.219 and a t-value of 3.992, and the 5% level of significance threshold for significance is easily met. This indicates that the more positive the attitude towards global fashion brands, the more likely there will be a purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Consumers with a positive attitude towards global fashion brands are thus more likely to have a purchase intention for a global fashion-branded item.

6.5.13 Perceived quality and purchase intention (Hypothesis 13)

The final hypothesis (H13) of the conceptual research model is also confirmed to be supported and significant. This means that there is a significant positive relationship between perceived quality and the purchase intention. With a path coefficient of 0.285 and a t-value of 4.867, this relationship meets the threshold of a 5% level of significance. This means that the quality perception plays a significant role in the purchase intention towards global fashion brands, in line with the findings (figure 6.8) earlier, that showed that the major reason for the sampled consumers to consider purchasing a global fashion-branded item would be its quality.

6.7 Summary

This chapter analysed the data obtained from the survey. Firstly, it described the results of the pilot study, followed by a demographic profile of the respondents and their actual purchase behaviour, as well as motivations to consider or not to consider purchasing global fashion-branded clothing, and the descriptive statistics of the measurement items. After the descriptive statistics, the statistical analysis and results obtained from the survey on what factors influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class females in the emerging economy of South Africa were analysed. The quality of the research model (measurement and structural) was analysed and discussed, and the structural model tested the proposed hypotheses within the conceptual research model and the mediators. Chapter 6 ended with a summary of the hypotheses results. The following chapter draws conclusions based on

the analysis and a discussion of this chapter, and provides a discussion on and the limitations and directions for future research.

Chapter Seven (7). Conclusions and discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a critical discussion of the study's findings and further elaborates on the main results, and then it discusses the main findings in the light of previous literature. The contributions and implications are given, followed by recommendations. Finally, the chapter concludes with the limitations of the present study and directions for future research.

7.2 Main findings

This study aimed to explain the determinants of the purchase intention of black middle-class consumers (i.e. the emerging black middle-class) towards global fashion brands in emerging markets, applied in a South African context. This section elaborates on the study's main findings, and compares them to previous research. Table 7.1 provides a summary of the results, which is discussed in depth in the following section.

Table 7.1: Research summary

Relationship	***Hypothesis***	***Result***
Ethnocentrism → attitude	H1	Supported and Significant.
Ethnocentrism → purchase intention	H2	Supported but not Significant.
Price perception → purchase intention	H3	Significant and Supported.
Price perception → perceived quality	H4	Supported but not Significant.
Brand knowledge → attitude	H5	Supported and Significant.

Brand knowledge → purchase intention	H6	Supported and Significant.
Brand knowledge → perceived quality	H7	Supported and Significant.
Self-image → attitude	H8	Supported and Significant.
Self-image → purchase intention	H9	Supported and Significant.
Fashion involvement → purchase intention	H10	Supported and Significant.
Brand love → purchase intention	H11	Supported but not significant.
Attitude → purchase intention	H12	Supported and Significant.
Perceived quality → purchase Intention	H13	Supported and Significant.

Source: Compiled by researcher (2016)

7.2.1 Ethnocentrism and attitude

H1 proposed a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude, and contrary to the proposed relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention, the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude was found to be significant. Therefore, it can be concluded that among black middle-class females in South Africa, the higher the degree of ethnocentrism, the less positive their attitude towards global fashion brands.

This finding supports previous research, such Reardon et al. (2005), who stated that besides the influence on consumer behaviour (which was not supported in this study), ethnocentrism influences the attitude towards foreign products and brands. Further, the findings are consistent with previous literature, such as Carter and Maher (2015), Ramadania et al. (2015), and Kumar et al. (2013), who found evidence for the negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the attitude towards foreign products. The findings are also consistent with John & Brady's (2010; 2011) studies on this relationship in Mozambique, a country that imports products from South

Africa. The confirmation of this hypothesis emphasises that ethnocentrism is an important variable in studying consumer attitudes towards global brands. Despite the fact that ethnocentrism and purchase intention did not have a direct relationship, the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude is significant, and attitude is a strong determinant of purchase intentions. Therefore, ethnocentrism has an indirect effect on the purchase intention, via the mediator attitude. Thus, ethnocentrism is an important determinant in the attitude formation in a South African retail setting, especially for a high involvement product such as fashion, and ethnocentric beliefs prevent consumers from having a positive attitude towards global fashion brands.

In conclusion, according to the findings of this study and previous literature, the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude is evident. This means that among black middle-class females in South Africa, the higher the degree of ethnocentrism, the less positive the attitude towards global fashion brands. Due to the important role of attitude on purchase intentions, ethnocentrism has an indirect effect on the purchase intention of global fashion brands.

7.2.2 Ethnocentrism and purchase intention

H2 stated that there is a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention. The data analysis confirmed that there is a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention, but did not find proof for this relationship to be significant at a 5% level of significance. Therefore, there is not enough evidence to conclude that consumer ethnocentrism negatively influences the purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

This study's findings contradict previous research on the relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intentions. Highly ethnocentric consumers are less likely to purchase foreign products (Akram et al., 2011). Evidence for that statement is widely provided in that Carter and Maher (2015), Haque et al. (2015), and Topçu and Kaplan (2015) found support for the proposition that ethnocentrism negatively influences purchase intentions towards foreign goods. Other studies found evidence for the relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards domestic goods, such as Strizhakova and Coulter (2015), Vadhanavisala (2015), and Lew and Sulaiman (2014). Therefore, the results of this research study were somewhat surprising. Although most studies found evidence for a negative relationship

between ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards foreign products, or a positive relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards domestic products, some recent studies have failed to prove this relationship. Thus, previous studies on the relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intentions have resulted in mixed results. As Kipnis et al. (2012) state, studies that investigated the link between ethnocentrism and product preference yield inconsistent results. For example, Cheah et al. (2016), who investigated the relationship between ethnocentrism and the willingness of Chinese consumers to buy foreign (i.e. Japanese) products also failed to find evidence for the relationship. Ethnocentrism did not play a role in the purchase intention towards foreign products, and Cheah et al. (2016) questioned their findings. In a South African context, Haefner et al. (2016) also did not find support for the proposed relationship between ethnocentrism and the purchase intentions towards foreign goods in various categories (e.g. Zara, BMW, Chanel, and Levi's). This research's findings are consistent with the findings of the studies above, and there is no significant negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. With a mean value of 2.508, it seems that South African black middle-class females are moderately ethnocentric, but this is not proven to influence their purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

In conclusion, ethnocentric beliefs did not significantly negatively influence the purchase intention in the context of this study, in line with Haefner et al. (2016), who also studied this relationship among South African consumers. This shows that more ethnocentric beliefs among black middle-class consumers do not necessarily negatively influence their purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

7.2.3 Price perception and purchase intention

H3 was also supported and found significant, which means that there is a positive relationship between price perception and purchase intention. This means that the more positive the price perception of global fashion brands, the greater the purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

Previous research has indicated that price is a largely overlooked construct (Winit et al., 2014), despite its importance in emerging markets. The mass market in emerging economies is

extremely price-sensitive (Sarkar, 2014; McKinsey, 2012), and consumers face resource constraints (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006), which is one of the reasons that intentions and actions do not always correspond (Park et al., 2010). This price sensitivity became apparent in the descriptive statistics; the main reason for the sampled consumers to not consider buying global fashion brands is the price. Sixty percent of the respondents mentioned that price is the main reason for not considering global fashion-branded clothing, followed by accessibility (17%) and fit (13%). It seems that for global fashion brands to take advantage of these findings, they have to ensure that the price perception is positive.

That price is an important construct is in line with previous literature. For example, Winit et al. (2014) found that the prices of foreign brands influence the purchase intention towards local brands, and the vice versa. So when the prices of global brands increase, the demand for local brands will increase. This highlights that price is not only an 'absolute' construct, but also a 'relative' construct. Similarly, Jegethesan et al. (2012) similarly found price to be an important determinant for young Australian apparel consumers and their purchase behaviour. The influence of price on purchase intentions can be measured from two perspectives: the negative influence of a high price on purchase intentions; and the positive influence of a positive price perception on purchase intentions. Son's (2013) study focused on a high price perception, and found that a high price will negatively influence the purchase intention among Indian consumers towards a global apparel brand (Levi's), and Chiang and Jang (2007) took a different perspective, proposing a positive relationship between perceived price and purchase intention. The findings in this research study are in support of the assertion that a positive price perception positively influences the purchase intention.

In summary, price perception has a significant positive effect on the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. This came to the fore in the conceptual research model, but also in the descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics showed that price is the main reason not to consider buying global fashion brands, which emphasises its importance. In the context of this study, according to black middle-class females in South Africa, this means that the better the price perception, the more likely their purchase intention towards global fashion brands.

7.2.4 Price perception and perceived quality

Despite the price-quality heuristic stating otherwise, the present study found support for the positive relationship between price and perceived quality. However, this relationship is relatively contrary to previous assumptions, an affordable and reasonable price perception does not negatively influence the perceived quality of global fashion brands. Despite the fact that the relationship is supported and that a positive relationship exists between price and perceived quality in this context, the relationship is found to be non-significant, and the study failed to find evidence for the positive relationship between the price perception and the perceived quality in this context.

Although not significant, the positive relationship is contrary to the price-quality heuristic and many studies on this relationship. It is contrary to Sharma and Garg (2016) and Gneezy et al.'s (2010) studies that established that a higher price leads to an increase in perceived quality. Sharma and Garg (2016) also used price perception (varying from acceptable to unacceptable), and the less acceptable the price was, the higher the perceived quality. This makes Sharma and Garg's (2016) findings completely opposite to the findings of this study. A possible explanation lies in their sample (students) or product categories (mobile phones and athletic shoes). A possible explanation for the contrary results to many previous studies could be that affordable and reasonable pricing does not necessarily correspond with low pricing, and additionally, price as a rule of thumb for quality differs between product categories (Kirchler et al., 2010). The less expensive the product category, the weaker the price-quality heuristic (Kirchler et al., 2010), and fast fashion is, opposite to luxury fashion, relatively affordable, hinting at a value perspective. In developing the research framework for the present study, this study built its propositions on a wide range of studies. As a result, the findings of this study, i.e. the support of the hypothesis, although not significant, are in line with the studies of Beneke and Zimmerman (2015) and Beristain and Zorilla (2011). For private label brands in a South African context, the price perception also had a positive relationship with the quality perception, underlining that a reasonable price is not a cue for inferior quality. Although their initial proposal was different, Beristain and Zorilla (2011) had similar findings among Spanish consumers, namely that a positive price perception influenced perceived quality positively.

In summary, price is not found to be significant in the perceived quality of global fashion brands. But, a reasonable or affordable price does not negatively influence the perceived quality, which means that this reasonable or affordable price positively influences the purchase intention but does not have the drawback of negatively influencing perceived quality.

7.2.5 Brand knowledge and attitude

Hypotheses 5 represented the relationship between brand knowledge and attitude. This study found a positive and significant relationship between brand knowledge and attitude, and thus, consumers with more brand knowledge are more likely to have a positive attitude. Therefore, brand knowledge is a predictor of attitude formation. Brand knowledge was made up from brand awareness and brand image, and therefore, the greater the brand awareness and brand image, the more positive the attitude towards global fashion brands.

Previous studies on the relationship between brand knowledge and attitude, and the components brand awareness and brand image on attitude, have resulted in similar findings. For example, the study of Siu et al. (2016), who studied the influence of brand knowledge on attitude formation found that among Chinese consumers' brand knowledge positively influences the attitude construct. Regarding the individual components of brand knowledge, Frank and Watchravesringkan (2016) found evidence for the significant influence of brand image and brand awareness on the attitude towards a sportswear brand. Malony et al. (2014) found brand awareness to be an important antecedent of attitude towards organic apparel products, and Chung et al. (2009) found brand image to be an important predictor of the attitude towards an apparel product category. Thus, the findings of this study are in line with previous literature. Brand knowledge has a significant positive relationship with attitude, as well as its components brand awareness and brand attitude.

However, the influence of brand awareness and brand image did not turn out to be similar. The data revealed that despite the fact that both are significant in their influence on attitude, brand image is far more influential on attitude. The data showed that the means of brand awareness and brand image are respectively 3.775 and 3.860, which implies that in general, consumers are relatively aware of global fashion brands and have a relatively positive image of global fashion brands. Despite the awareness, this awareness was less relevant than brand image in attitude

formation. As mentioned by Alimen and Guldem Cerit (2010), brand knowledge is very important in reaching the preferred target market, and brand image is of particular importance for the differential effect of fashion brands when they internationalise (Jin & Cedrola, 2016). Due to the importance of brand image for fashion brands to differentiate, to reach the targeted consumer, and for attitude formation, the brand image is of great importance for global fashion brands.

In conclusion, brand knowledge is an important construct in attitude formation. In the context of this study, this means that the more awareness of global fashion brands and the greater the brand image of global fashion brands, the more likely the attitude towards global fashion brands will be positive. However, brand image turned out to be far more influential than brand awareness in attitude formation, which stresses the importance for global fashion brands to consistently build on their brand image.

7.2.6 Brand knowledge and purchase intention

Hypothesis 6 proposed a positive relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intention. This study found evidence for a significant positive relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intention, implying that the greater the knowledge of global fashion brands in terms of awareness and image, the more likely the purchase intention towards global fashion brands, and when awareness and brand image increase, the purchase likelihood will also increase.

The findings of this study are in line with previous findings; brand knowledge is important in consumer decision-making (Sasmita &Suki, 2015; Cazaku et al., 2014; Esch et al., 2006). The relationship between the components of brand knowledge on purchase intentions is also confirmed in this study, and brand awareness and brand image are found to have positive significant effects on the purchase intention. This is in line with previous studies, such as Esch et al. (2006), who found that brand knowledge directly influences the current purchase intention, as a function of brand awareness and brand image. The findings support Kakkos et al. (2015) and Radder and Huang's (2008) findings. Kakkos et al. (2015) found that brand awareness increases the consumers' purchase intention towards private label brands, and in a South African context, Radder and Huang (2008) found that for sportswear clothing and coffee,

brand awareness plays an important role in consumer decision-making. Regarding brand image, Islam et al. (2014) found brand image to be critical in female buying behaviour towards fashion apparel, and to build effective and meaningful campaigns. Similarly, Srivastava and Dey (2016) found that brand image significantly influences the purchase intention among young consumers, and Erdil (2015) also found evidence for this relationship in Turkey for apparel clothing. Haque et al. (2015) found that the purchase intention towards foreign goods is greatly influenced by brand image.

Again, the influence of brand image on purchase intention was far greater than the influence of brand awareness on purchase intention, although both are significant. Similarly, Srivastava and Dey (2016) found that the role of brand image on purchase intention is greater than the role of brand awareness; they found brand awareness to be insignificant on purchase intention, and brand image significant on the purchase intention. This study did find brand awareness to be significant, but it was a weaker predictor of the purchase intention than brand image. It cannot be denied that it seems that brand image influences attitudes and behavioural intentions way more than brand awareness does. The finding that brand image is more important for purchase intentions than brand awareness is in line with the findings of Esch et al. (2006), who found that brand image has a greater influence on future purchase intentions than brand awareness does.

In summary, the literature acknowledges that the relationship between brand knowledge and purchase intentions seems to hold in the specific context of this study. Brand knowledge has a positive significant effect on the purchase intention towards global fashion brands, and its components, brand awareness and brand image, individually influence the purchase intention. The role of brand image in this is greater than the role that brand awareness plays, which highlights the importance for global fashion brands to focus on their brand images. It can be concluded that for black middle-class females in South Africa, knowledge of global fashion brands enhances their purchase intention towards those brands, and this gives global fashion brands the duty to increase their brand knowledge.

7.2.7 Brand knowledge and perceived quality

The final hypothesis regarding brand knowledge concerns the relationship between brand knowledge and perceived quality. This relationship is supported and significant, and has proved to be the strongest relationship that brand knowledge has. The relationship between brand knowledge and perceived quality implies that the greater the knowledge of global fashion brands, the higher the perceived quality of global fashion brands.

The findings of the present study are in line with previous literature that also found support for the relationship between brand knowledge and the perceived quality, for example Abdolvand and Kia (2016), Jung et al. (2014), and Buil et al. (2013) all found support for a positive relationship between brand awareness and perceived quality, which puts this study's findings in line with previous literature. Previous literature stated that brand image plays an important role for consumers to predict the quality of a product (Chiang & Jang, 2007). Beneke et al. (2015) found evidence for this relationship in a South African context, which is in line with the results of this study. These research study's findings also support Wang (2015), Bao et al. (2011), and Beristain and Zorilla's (2011) findings, and the relationship between brand image and perceived quality is well established in literature. This study confirms that the relationship also exists in the context of the present study.

Similarly, the unequal effects of its components brand awareness and brand image characterise this relationship with brand knowledge. In line with the previous relationships, this relationship is characterised by the stronger influence of brand image. This means that, although brand awareness is important for the perceived quality, brand image is more important for black middle-class consumers in South Africa regarding the perceived quality of global fashion brands. From a practical perspective, this means that for global fashion brands the brand image is essential for perceived quality among this target market, and should therefore build strong brand images.

In conclusion, brand knowledge has a positive influence on perceived quality, and consumers with more knowledge of the brand in terms of brand awareness and brand image, are more likely to have a positive perceived quality. In the context of this research, this means that when black middle-class female consumers are aware of global fashion brands and have a positive

image of those brands, they are more likely to have a positive perceived quality of global fashion brands. This positive perceived quality largely depends on the brand image; despite the fact that brand awareness plays a significant role, the influence of brand image is greater on the perceived quality, which again stresses the importance of the image for global fashion brands.

7.2.8 Self-image and attitude

H8 proposed and found evidence for a positive relationship between self-image and attitude. This means that the more congruity between the consumer's self-image and global fashion brands, the more positive the attitude towards global fashion brands. The relationship between self-image and attitude is found to be stronger than the relationship between self-image and purchase intention, and self-image has thus indirectly also an effect on the purchase intention via attitude.

This study's findings support the findings of previous studies, such as Mobrezi and Khostinat (2016), who found that self-image affects attitude positively. Similarly, Das (2014) found that self-congruity of consumers plays an important role in attitude formation, and Kang et al. (2012) found evidence that self-image results in a more positive attitude, which results in a re-purchase intention. The results of the present study suggest that when the congruity between the self-image and the brand image or the typical user of the brand increases, the attitude towards the brand becomes more positive, which results in an increased purchase intention, re-purchase intention, or actual behaviour. For global fashion brands this means that they have to influence the consumers' self-image to be congruent with their image or the image of the average user of the brand. In line with Yazdanpanah and Forouzani (2015), who state that the relationship between identity and behaviour is increasingly seen as a valuable predictor in the TPB, the conceptual model of the present study results in similar findings. Sirgy's (1982) Self-congruity Theory turned out to be a valuable addition on the TPB's underpinned model, as also recognised by Shin et al. (2016). This study has found support for the influence of self-image on attitude and on the purchase intention towards global fashion brands, which proves the influence that self-image has on the consumers' mind-set and decision-making.

In conclusion, self-image has a positive effect on attitude formation. This relationship is found to be stronger than the direct relationship between self-image and purchase intention, while

proving the value of attitude as a mediating variable. For this study, this means that the greater the congruency between the consumer's self-image and global fashion brands, the more positive their attitude towards global fashion brands. Additionally, self-image is a valuable addition to TPB-based models, as shown by Shin et al. (2016), Yazdanpanah and Forouzani (2015), and the present study.

7.2.9 Self-image and purchase intention

As Hosany and Martin (2012) stated, consumers purchase those brands that have similar or complementary images to their self-image. This study found support for this statement, in that it supported the positive relationship between self-image and purchase intention. A significant positive relationship is present between self-image and purchase intention, and in the context of the current study this means that when the consumer's self-image is congruent with the brand image (i.e. global fashion brands), the more likely the consumer will be to purchase global fashion-branded items.

This relationship is widely established in literature, and found support in the studies of Matzler et al. (2016) and Mobrezi and Khoshtinat (2016). Although applied in different contexts to the present study, they all found evidence for a positive relationship between the self-image (actual self) and the purchase intention towards the respective brand or brand category. The relationship between self-image and purchase intentions has proven to be robust in different contexts. Previous literature tested this relationship in a fashion apparel context, such as Das (2015), who in the emerging economy of India found that self-congruity increases the purchase intention towards fashion clothing and accessories. Also Sarwary and Chaudhry (2015) found evidence for the relationship between the actual self-image and certain branded apparel. Strizhakova and Coulter (2015) have proven its robustness in a local and global context, by proving the relationship between a local identity and a purchase intention towards local brands. This study shows that this relationship holds outside the context of the westernised world, and within the context of emerging black middle-class female consumers in South Africa. Additionally, congruity between their self-image and the image of global fashion brands directly influences the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. This is in line with previous findings, and specifically supports Strizhakova and Coulter (2015), by showing that a

self-image that is congruent with global fashion brands results in a purchase intention towards those global fashion brands.

A new source of value for brands is the relation between the brand and the consumer's self-identity (Xie et al., 2015). Therefore, the influence of self-image on purchase intentions can be utilised by global fashion brands, since consumers use brands to create their social identity (Wolter et al., 2016), and brands play a role in shaping this identity (Huber et al., 2016). This is especially important for fashion brands, because fashion clothing is related to the consumer's self-image (Khare et al., 2011).

In summary, self-image has a positive on consumers' purchase intentions. In the context of this study, this means that when the self-image of black middle-class females in South Africa is congruent with the image of global fashion brands, then they are more likely to purchase global fashion-branded items.

7.2.10 Fashion involvement and purchase intention

Hypothesis 10 (H10) is supported and significant, therefore indicating that fashion involvement positively influences the purchase intention. In the context of this study this means that the higher the degree of fashion involvement, the more likely the consumer has a purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Thus, more fashion involved black middle-class females in South Africa have a greater purchase intention towards global fashion brands than black middle-class females who are less involved in fashion.

The support of this hypothesis is not surprising, and seems to be in line with previous literature. Previous literature strongly supports the positive relationship between (fashion) involvement and purchase intentions towards fashion products, and product involvement and purchase intentions towards this particular product or product category. Literature focusing on fashion such as Saran et al. (2016), Seo (2016), Khare (2014), and Sullivan and Heitmeyer's (2008) studies, found support for the proposed relationships between fashion or apparel involvement on decision-making. Saran et al. (2016) found that fashion involvement positively influences consumers' fashion-related purchase decisions, and Seo (2016) found evidence for the relationship between apparel product involvement and the intention to purchase apparel online.

In sum, the relationship between fashion involvement and the purchase intention towards fashion products is widely supported in literature.

However, the results of this research study are slightly different to previous studies. The relationship between fashion involvement and purchase intentions towards fashion brands is not surprising; in many ways consumer involvement explains many aspects of consumer behaviour regarding decision-making and consumption (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012). But the proposed relationship in this conceptual model went further, and aimed to measure the relationship between fashion involvement and the purchase intention towards specifically global fashion brands. This means that fashion involved consumers have a greater purchase intention towards not only fashion brands, but also specifically towards global fashion brands. This automatically provides an interesting direction for future research, i.e. does fashion involvement also positively influence the purchase intention towards local fashion brands? From a practical perspective, Bachleda et al. (2016) found that beside the direct relationship between involvement and purchase intention, image plays a mediating role. So, if firms (or brands) want to increase purchase intentions by means of involvement, the image of the firm (or brand) is highly important (Bachleda et al., 2016). This touches on the findings on brand knowledge, in all relationships of brand knowledge (i.e. towards attitude, purchase intention, and perceived quality), brand image was an essential part of brand knowledge, with a more influential effect on attitude, purchase intention and perceived quality, in comparison to brand awareness.

In conclusion, in line with the literature studied, there is a positive relationship between fashion involvement and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. In the context of this study, this means that the more involved in fashion black middle-class females in South Africa are, the greater their purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Fashion involvement is therefore a factor that benefits global fashion brands.

7.2.11 Brand love and purchase intention

H11 concerns the relationship between brand love and purchase intention. This was the weakest relationship in the conceptual model, although the proposed negative relationship between brand love and the purchase intention was supported, it did not meet the significance threshold.

Therefore, there is not enough evidence to conclude that local brand love has a negative effect on the purchase intention towards global brands among black middle-class females in South Africa.

From the beginning, the proposed hypothesis was uncertain due to the limited research on brand love. Firstly, brand love has not been studied widely, and secondly, the available studies on brand love mainly focused on its antecedents, and its consequences. However, the consequences of brand love are often related to relationship quality, with outcomes such as word-of-mouth, brand loyalty, and brand commitment (Drennan et al., 2015; Albert & Merunka, 2013; Unal & Aydin, 2013; Ismail & Spinelli, 2012; Berkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010). In other words, to date, studies on brand love have mainly focused on post-purchase behaviour. The outcome of this study is contrary to the findings of Ramadania et al. (2015). Ramadania et al.'s (2015) study indicated that love for local products increases the rejection of non-local products. This is not confirmed in the present study, and no evidence was found for the negative influence of local brand love on the purchase intention towards global brands. The outcome of this study is in line with Sarkar and Sreejesh (2014), who also failed to find support for the relationship between brand love and purchase intention. But results are not homogeneous; Fetscherin et al. (2014) investigated the relationship between brand love and purchase intentions, and found this relationship to be significant for specific product categories (i.e. shoes and mobile phones), and not significant for others (i.e. soft drinks and cars). Therefore, as a direction of future research, this study proposes that the relationships between local brand love and the purchase intention towards local brands, and global brand love and the purchase intention towards global brands be investigated.

What the non-significance of this relationship does imply, is that strong local brands do not necessarily negatively influence the opportunities for global brands, which is good news for global fashion brands. Venter (2015) found that among black middle-class females in Johannesburg, 44% indicated Woolworths to be their favourite clothing shop (compared to 4% for Zara). Additionally, local players dominate the South African clothing retail market (Euromonitor International, 2015), and for global fashion brands, the absent relationship between local brand love and a negative purchase intention towards global brands is good news.

In conclusion, the relationship between brand love and the purchase intention is not found to be significant. Thus, evidence to conclude that local brand love has a negative effect on the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class females in South Africa is absent.

7.2.12 Attitude and purchase intention

The twelfth hypothesis within the conceptual model proposed a positive relationship between attitude and purchase intention. This relationship is supported and significant, meaning that a more positive attitude results in an increasing purchase intention. In the context of this study, this means that a positive attitude towards global fashion brands increases the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class female consumers in South Africa.

This relationship is widely supported in literature, and the current findings are in line with several studies, for example those of Chiu and Leng (2016), Haefner et al. (2016), and Mobrezi and Khoshtinat (2016). More specifically, within a fashion context, the findings of the present study support Maloney et al. (2014), who rooted their model in the TPB and found a positive relationship between attitude towards organic apparel and the purchase intention towards organic apparel. Additionally, Islam et al. (2014) found attitude to be an important predictor of female buying behaviour towards fashion apparel. Regarding foreign products, Son et al. (2013) also found a strong relationship between the attitude towards foreign products and the purchase intention towards foreign products, supporting this research study's findings, where the attitude towards global fashion brands influences the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Attitude is often found to be a key variable, or the strongest predictor in conceptual research models (Haefner et al., 2016; Yazpandanah & Forouzani, 2015; Maloney et al., 2014). Thus, the influence of attitude on behavioural intentions can not be ignored, and a strong positive attitude is essential for consumers' decision-making. From a practical perspective, global fashion brands can utilise this finding and attempt to influence the consumers' attitude towards their brands. Additionally, marketers of global fashion brands could focus on creating favourable attributes that cause a favourable attitude.

In summary, attitude has a positive influence on purchase intention. In the context of this study, this means that black middle-class female consumers with a positive attitude towards global fashion brands are more likely to have the intention to purchase global fashion brands.

7.2.13 Perceived quality and purchase intention

The final hypothesis (H13) of the conceptual research concerns the relationship between perceived quality and purchase intention. This relationship is found to be supported and significant, concluding that the higher the perceived quality, the more likely the purchase intention. In the context of this study, this means that the more positive the perceived quality of black middle-class female consumers towards global fashion brands, the more likely they have the intention to purchase a global fashion-branded item.

The confirmation of this relationship is in line with many previous other studies that have confirmed the positive significant relationship between perceived quality and purchase intentions, such as Asshidin et al. (2016), who investigated the relationship between perceived quality on the purchase intention towards local and foreign (i.e. US) products. They found that perceived quality influences the purchase intention towards both local and foreign products (Asshidin et al., 2016). Yunus and Rashid (2016) also found perceived quality to be an important predictor of purchase intentions, as did Das (2015). In line with the context of this research study, Llonch and Erdogan (2015) found that the perceived quality of global brands positively influences the purchase intention towards global brands. But although this relationship is widely acknowledged in literature, some studies found contrary results, especially the study of Kumar et al. (2009) which draws attention due to its context; Kumar et al. (2009) did not find evidence for the relationship between perceived quality and the purchase intention towards local and American apparel brands. A possible explanation could be that Kumar et al. (2009) focused solely the Levi's brand in the emerging economy of India, where emotional value mainly drove purchase intentions towards local brands.

However, among black middle-class female consumers in the emerging economy of South Africa, the perceived quality of global fashion brands does influence their purchase intention towards global fashion brands. This is in line with the findings of the descriptive statistics; the sampled consumers indicated that the quality of global fashion brands is the main reason to

consider buying them; 64% of the respondents indicated quality to be the reason to consider global fashion-branded items. Thus, the findings of the conceptual model are in line with the findings of the descriptive statistics. For global fashion brands this implies that the quality of their products should be an important element in their marketing mix.

In summary, perceived quality has a positive significant influence on purchase intentions. In the context of this research study, this means that black middle-class female consumers in South Africa with a positive perceived quality towards global fashion brands are more likely to have a purchase intention towards those global fashion brands, in contrast to consumers who do not have a positive perceived quality of global fashion brands. These findings are in line with the descriptive statistics, where the respondents indicated that the quality of global fashion brands is the major reason to consider buying global fashion-branded items.

7.2.14 Summary of main findings

In conclusion, the findings provide support for all the hypotheses, but not all hypotheses were found to be significant. Supported and significant are H1, indicating a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the attitude towards global fashion brands. H3 is also supported and significant, which means that there is a positive relationship between the price perception and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Similarly, H5, H6, and H7 are supported and significant, from which it can be concluded that brand knowledge positively influences the attitude towards global fashion brands, the purchase intention towards global fashion brands, and finally the perceived quality of global fashion brands. In terms of brand knowledge, it must be noted that although its components–brand awareness and brand image–are both significant, brand image plays a significantly bigger role in the influence of attitude, purchase intention, and perceived quality. H8 and H9 are also supported, indicating a positive significant relationship between self-image and the attitude towards global fashion brands, as well as a positive significant relationship between self-image and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. H10 concerns the relationship between fashion involvement and purchase intention, and this relationship was also to be significant, and thus, fashion involvement positively influences the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. H12 represents the relationship between attitude and perceived quality, and this relationship was found significant, which is in line with previous research, implying that a positive attitude towards global fashion

brands increases the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Finally, H13, the relationship between perceived quality and purchase intention is supported, also in line with many previous studies. The more positive the perceived quality of global fashion brands, the more likely the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Supported but not found significant are H2, representing the relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase intention, H4, representing the relationship between price perception and perceived quality, and finally H11, representing the relationship between brand love and purchase intention.

7.3 Conclusion

The aim of the current research was twofold, firstly to investigate the key factors that influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class female consumers in the emerging economy of South Africa, and secondly to explore the mediating roles of attitude and perceived quality on purchase intention. Due to a rapid growing middle-class and a consequently large number of potential customers, emerging economies have attracted the attention of multinational enterprises. Sub-Saharan Africa is also subject to attention due to its emerging middle-class, among which South Africa is one of the major African economies. Post-Apartheid, the largest growing segment of middle-class consumers in South Africa is the emerging black middle-class (Mattes, 2015; Van der Berg, 2010; Southall, 2004), which has, despite its rapid growth, received little attention in research (Donaldson et al., 2013). Due to the attention of multinational enterprises in emerging markets, it is widely acknowledged that consumers in these markets increasingly have a choice between local and global products, and local and global brands during their shopping experience, which results in local and global products and brands competing in the marketplace (Bosbach et al, 2015; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015; Lew & Lulaiman, 2014; Tu et al., 2012). Therefore, confirmed by the acknowledge scarcity of research on the African continent (by for instance Venter et al., 2016; Cavusgil & Cavusgil, 2012; McKinsey, 2012; Whitelock & Fastoso, 2007), this study firstly aimed to identify which factors influence the purchase intention towards global fashion-branded items among the emerging black middle-class female consumer in South Africa.

In conclusion, the descriptive statistics showed that significant improvement can be made with regard to actual purchase behaviour towards global fashion brands. More than 36% of respondents indicated that they never or rarely buy global fashion-branded items, and 47% indicated that they occasionally or sometimes buy global fashion-branded items. Only 16% indicated that they buy global fashion-branded items frequently or always. The descriptive statistics similarly highlighted that quality is the main reason for the respondents to consider buying global fashion-branded items. Price was indicated as the main obstacle or reason not to consider buying global fashion brands. These findings are similar to the findings of Lee and Nguyen (2017), who found among Vietnamese consumers that quality (and brand image) are of significant importance for consumers' preference for American fashion brands compared to local fashion brands. Similarly, their results showed that the major advantage for local compared to global fashion brands was pricing.

The data analysis further revealed that the strongest antecedent of purchase intentions was perceived quality, followed by attitude. Emphasising that perceived quality, similar to the descriptive statistics, is among the variables within the conceptual model the most influential driver of purchase intentions. However, not all proposed hypotheses were found to be significant. Significant were hypotheses 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, and 13. Hypotheses 2, 4, and 11 were insignificant. Regarding the significant hypotheses, the strength of the hypotheses differs. The strongest relationships were between brand knowledge and perceived quality, brand knowledge and attitude, and self-image and attitude. The relationships between perceived quality and purchase intention, ethnocentrism and attitude, attitude and purchase intention, brand knowledge and purchase intention, self-image and purchase intention, fashion involvement and purchase intention and price and purchase intention follow. The weakest relationships were between ethnocentrism and purchase intention, price perception and perceived quality and finally brand love and purchase intention. For global fashion brands, the strength of these relationships imply that, in line with previous findings, the perceived quality is a key priority, as well as attitude, brand knowledge and to a lesser extent self-image, fashion involvement, and the price perception. Price is contrary to the previous findings, and the following can be concluded: although a high price is the main reason not to consider buying global fashion brands, a reasonable or affordable price is not necessarily an influential

determinant for black middle-class females in South Africa to consider buying global fashion brands.

7.4 Contributions

The contribution of this research is threefold, namely contextual, theoretical, and practical. The contextual contribution and the theoretical contributions are based on what the study adds to the existing body of knowledge, in line with the items that form the justification of the study, and the practical contribution, and managerial implications are based on the insights for global fashion brands and marketers.

7.4.1 Contextual contribution

The contextual contribution of this study is based on the conceptual model this study provided and on the context in which this conceptual model is tested. This study thereby adds to the body of knowledge regarding the Sub-Saharan Africa, the emerging (black) middle-class consumer, and specifically the South African, middle-class, female consumer. Post-apartheid, the black middle-class represents the fastest growing segment within the middle-class in South Africa, and the emerging black, middle-class (Sub-Saharan wide) consumer attracts the attention of retailers and global brands, all of who want to participate in this growth. Previous studies have focused mainly on Western countries, on emerging markets in Asia (India and China), and on luxury (fashion) brands. The (emerging black) middle-class segment is often neglected (Donaldson et al., 2013; Kravets & Sandikci, 2014; Cavusgil & Cavusgil, 2012), despite the fact that their attitudes and spending behaviours differ, in contrast to the rich in each country (De Mooij, 2013). Consumer behaviour studies in emerging markets are still scarce (Kipnis et al., 2012; Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006), and this research study provided a comprehensive framework to investigate the much-needed information on consumer behaviour among the emerging black middle-class, by identifying factors that influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among the emerging black middle-class female consumer in the emerging economy of South Africa. Additionally, previous research investigated the purchase intentions and preferences for particular (strong) brands such as Starbucks (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015), but this research study focused on a group of brands (i.e. global fashion brands),

instead of limiting itself to one out of a few particular brands. Previous findings in apparel studies focused on one 'big' brand, such as Levi's (Haefner et al., 2016; Son, 2013; Kumar et al., 2009), which makes this study possibly more generalisable within the given context. The following sections address the contextual contribution based on the gaps in current literature.

7.4.1.1 Africa as an understudied region

Research in Africa contributes to the existing body of knowledge (Whitelock & Fastoso, 2007), since previous studies mainly focused on the mature markets (Dalmoro et al., 2015; Baena, 2012; Steenkamp & Burgess, 2002) and developing Asian markets (Dalmoro et al., 2015). Africa requires more attention in research due to its increasing urbanisation and growing middle-class (Cavusgil & Cavusgil, 2012). In other words, consumer research in the African continent is scarce, as is knowledge regarding the African consumer (McKinsey, 2012), and South Africa has received little attention in research (Venter et al., 2016). This study contributed to the existing body of knowledge by focusing on the emerging economy of South Africa, one of the biggest economies in Sub-Saharan Africa.

7.4.1.2 Limited research on the (black) middle-class

Alongside the limited consumer research in Africa, and especially South Africa, is the limited research on the emerging black middle-class. Relatively few studies have focused on consumer behaviour of middle-class consumers in emerging markets (Kravets & Sandikci, 2014). Additionally, despite its growth, the emerging black middle-class in South Africa has received little attention in research (Donaldson et al., 2013). And more research is needed, because there is limited knowledge on their behaviour regarding status products such as clothing brands (Cronje et al., 2016). Due to globalisation, the competition in emerging markets is on the rise, and it has become essential for global brands to understand the perceptions of local consumers (Wang & Yang, 2010). This study has provided insight in the local consumers' consumer behaviour, i.e. black middle-class females, a consumer force that is growing steadily in post-Apartheid South Africa. This study has found that their purchase intention towards global brands are determined by factors such as price, brand knowledge, self-image, fashion involvement, attitude and perceived quality. It has identified several antecedents of the purchase intention towards global fashion brands, which marketers and global brand managers can use to develop a marketing strategy to enter the South African market. Previous literature argued that consumers in emerging markets prefer global brands for status purposes, but this finding

was not supported in this research study, since only 5.2% of the respondents indicated considering purchasing global fashion brands for status purposes, and the majority consider global fashion brands for their quality. A possible explanation is that the majority of studies on this topic mainly focused on luxury fashion brands and apparel, where this study focused on mid-market apparel (such as fast fashion), hereby adding to the body of knowledge on attitudes and purchase intentions towards mid-market fashion brands among the emerging black middle class in South Africa. This provides direction to global brand managers and marketers on which factors to focus on when expanding into the domestically-dominated, South African retail market.

7.4.2 Theoretical contribution

The theoretical contribution is based on several aspects. First, although most relationships in the conceptual model are grounded in previous research, they have never before been tested together in an extended model. This study developed a new comprehensive model for the purchase intention towards global (fashion) brands, that incorporated both 'hard' constructs (price, quality), and 'soft' constructs (self-image, fashion involvement, brand love), and mediating variables brand quality and attitude to explain consumers' behavioural intentions towards these brands. The study had an opportunity to test the (often-established) relationships outside the context of developed markets and Asian emerging markets, and found that, similar to Western countries, the sampled consumers in South Africa do shop conscious and use rational decision-making factors such as quality and price. Furthermore, this study contributed to the existing body of knowledge by addressing knowledge gaps present in emerging markets regarding purchase intentions towards global brands. Current literature lacks consensus which factors drive purchase intentions outside the Western world and which factors influence purchase intentions towards global brands in emerging markets. This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge by identifying which factors drive purchase intentions towards global fashion brands among the emerging black middle-class in South Africa. Secondly, the theoretical contributions of the present study are addressed according to the following sub-sections: contributions regarding the conceptual model; and contributions on local and global brands.

7.4.2.1 Contributions regarding the conceptual model

This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge in the marketing field and (international) brand management in several ways. Firstly, although most relationships in the conceptual model are not very new, the application in the emerging economy of South Africa, and especially among the emerging black middle-class is relatively new, as is the application for global fashion brands in this context. Thus, this study adds to the marketing literature and brand management literature, by providing a theoretical framework that explains the relationships between the variables of the framework and the purchase intention. Secondly, the study adds to existing literature by providing evidence that price, brand knowledge, self-image, fashion involvement, attitude and perceived quality are predictors of the purchase intention in the present context, and that brand knowledge, and especially brand image, plays an essential role. Thirdly, due to the lack of research on purchase intentions towards global brands, especially among the emerging (black) middle-class in emerging markets–among which consumer behaviour studies are already scarce–this study offers a validated conceptual model that identifies the variables that influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands, in a context of a strong and leading domestic market. Due to the scarcity of consumer data in the African continent, limited consumer behaviour studies in emerging markets, and limited research on the black middle-class, and while this emerging black middle-class will account for much future growth in the African continent and attracts attention due to its growth and size, it is expected that similar topics will be explored more often in the near future. Therefore, this study can provide other researchers with an understanding of consumer behaviour among emerging black middle-class females in South Africa regarding fashion brands. Due to the knowledge gaps regarding the following variables within the conceptual model, this study aimed to address the consumers' mindset (attitudes and intentions), price, ethnocentrism, fashion involvement, and brand love. The following sections elaborate and discuss how the present study addressed these gaps.

7.4.2.1.1 Customer mindset: attitudes and intentions

As argued in previous literature, there is still much to discover about consumer behaviour in emerging markets (Kipnis et al., 2012; Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006), on consumer attitudes, behavioural intentions in emerging markets (Pauwels et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2009), on potential antecedents of favourable perceptions towards foreign brands (Kipnis et al., 2012),

and on purchase intentions towards global brands (Carter & Maher, 2015; Dalmoro et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2015). Branding studies that include attitudes and purchase intentions are also limited (Riefler, 2012). This study has contributed to the existing body of knowledge regarding these issues, by developing a framework with the purpose of identifying which factors influence the purchase intention among emerging black female middle-class consumers in the emerging economy of South Africa. This research study has found that the purchase intention of the sampled consumers is influenced by price perception, brand knowledge (and especially brand image), self-image, fashion involvement, attitude, and perceived quality. The attitude towards global fashion brands is found to be subject to the influence of ethnocentrism, brand knowledge (again by merely brand image), and self-image. Brand image in particular, is a factor that global fashion brands can improve in order to improve favourable perceptions towards global fashion brands, resulting in increased purchase intentions. Thus, this study has incorporated attitude and purchase intention in a brand management context, in a research environment that addresses scarcity in the current body of knowledge by focusing on the emerging economy of South Africa, and on the emerging black middle-class and their purchase intention and attitude towards global (fashion) brands.

7.4.2.1.2 Price

As Winit et al. (2014) argued, price is a largely overlooked construct, despite its assumed importance in emerging markets. The majority of consumers in emerging markets are extremely price-sensitive (Sarkar, 2014; McKinsey, 2012), possibly due to their resource constraints (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2010). This study incorporated price in its conceptual model and found that price is indicated among 60% of the respondents as the major reason not to consider buying global fashion-branded items. This assumes a strong relationship within the conceptual model, but the quantitative analysis showed otherwise. Although price is according to the respondents the main reason not to consider buying global fashion brands, the relationship between price perception and purchase intention is found to be significant but not extremely strong. Thus, this study has showed that affordable and reasonable pricing in emerging market South Africa influences the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among black middle-class females, and price can be the main obstacle for the black middle-class consumers to consider purchasing global fashion-branded items.

7.4.2.1.3 Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism was an important variable to incorporate in this study since consumers are increasingly faced with a choice between local and global products and brands. This also applies to the consumers in emerging markets–amongst which is South Africa–since multinational corporations increasingly turn towards these markets. There have been calls for future research on ethnocentrism in an African context (Haefner et al., 2016; John & Brady, 2011), the role of ethnocentrism in attitude formation among high involvement categories (Ramadania et al., 2015), the influence of ethnocentrism in local or global brand choices (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015), the influence of ethnocentrism on consumer perceptions towards foreign brands in emerging markets (Kipnis et al., 2012), and on the inconsistent results of ethnocentrism in a South African context (Haefner et al., 2016). This study has responded to these calls for future research, and has found interesting results. First of all, it responded to the call to study ethnocentrism in an African context, and found that, in line with Haefner et al. (2016), that there is lack of evidence that ethnocentrism negatively influences the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Haefner et al. (2016) called this insignificant relationship surprising, but this study confirms those findings. Therefore, it can also be concluded that–limited to the context of the present study–ethnocentrism did not influence behavioural intentions towards global brands. This study has also found evidence for the role of ethnocentrism in attitude formation for a high involvement product category, namely fashion, in the context of the present study.

7.4.2.1.4 Self-image

The time when consumers purchased products solely for utility purposes is long gone, and there is an increased importance regarding self-congruity between the consumer and the brand. This strongly applies to fashion clothing and apparel, due to their relationship with the consumers' identity (Rajagopal, 2011) and self-image (Khare et al., 2011). As Claiborne and Sirgy (2015) mentioned, self-congruence models of attitudes and behaviours are limitedly used, and the role of identity and self-image on behavioural intentions required further research (Xie et al., 2015). This study has aimed to respond to these gaps in current literature, and in the context of this study, has found that self-image had both a significant positive effect on the attitude towards global fashion brands, as well as on the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Thus, self-image influences consumer decision-making and their perceptions towards global fashion

brands. A self-image that is congruent with global fashion brands thus influences attitudes and behavioural intentions, which indicates that attitude and behavioural intention are consequences of self-image congruency. A question regarding the antecedents of this self-image congruency arises out of this finding, and this might be a valuable direction for further research. This study has proven the good fit of self-image with TPB-based models, in line with Shin et al. (2016) and Yazdanpanah and Forouzani's 2015) proposals, in a context of emerging markets among the emerging (black) middle-class and global fashion brands.

7.4.2.1.5 Fashion involvement

With regard to fashion involvement, previous studies indicated that future research could address the relationship between fashion involvement and consumer behaviour (Rajagopal, 2011), the degree of fashion involvement for specific consumer segments (Khare et al., 2012), and on the outcomes of fashion involvement and the measurement of fashion involvement using real brands (Hourigan & Bougoure, 2012). This study has responded to those gaps in current literature, and has proven a significant positive relationship between fashion involvement and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. By focusing on emerging black middle-class females in the emerging economy of South Africa, it can be concluded that among this specific consumer segment, their degree of fashion involvement positively influences their purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Additionally, this study utilised real brands, and did not limit itself to focusing on specific brand names, but rather on global fashion brands in general.

7.4.2.1.6 Brand love

To date, a lot remains to be discovered about brand love, which is a relatively new marketing variable. Multiple researchers acknowledge that there are still a lot of undiscovered aspects regarding brand love, and that this construct requires further research (Garg et al., 2016; Batra et al., 2012; Albert et al., 2008; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). This study has found that brand love for local brands does not necessarily mean that the purchase intention towards global brands is disadvantaged. This suggests that love for one, does not exclude an interest or purchase intention towards another; no evidence was found for this negative relationship proposed in the conceptual model. Bauer et al. (2009) called for more understanding of the brand love construct, and this study has discovered in this regard that brand love is thus not exclusive, and, contrary to Ramadania et al.'s (2015) study, love towards local brands does not result in the rejection of

global brands in the present context. The contribution to brand love literature of this study is limited to this single relationship that found no support, therefore, it is suggested that researchers study the relationship between local brand love and the purchase intention towards local brands, as well as global brand love and the purchase intention towards global brands. Only then, this relationship can be explored more deeply and towards specific intentions.

7.4.2.2 Local or global brands

The need expressed by various researchers was to identify the perceptions of consumers towards foreign brands (Carter & Maher, 2015), the preference for global brands (Dalmoro eta al., 2015; Xie et al., 2015), and the purchase intention towards global brands (Winit et al., 2014; Akram et al., 2011). Despite the fact that this study did not focus on local brands, it was found that brand love towards local brands was relatively strong. Brand love was the construct with the highest mean, indicating that the degree of brand love towards local brands was higher than the purchase intention towards global brands, attitude towards global brands, and other variables within the conceptual model. Regarding global brands, interesting findings were observed. This was due mainly to identifying which factors influence the purchase intention towards global brands (i.e. price, brand knowledge, self-image, fashion involvement, perceived quality and attitude), and which factors influence the main reason to consider buying global fashion brands (i.e. quality), and the perceptions in terms of attitude. The attitude towards global fashion brands is influenced by ethnocentrism, brand knowledge (mainly brand image) and self-image, which shape the attitude towards global brands in the context of this study.

7.4.3 Practical contribution and managerial implications

The previous section briefly mentioned the practical and managerial implications of this research study's findings, and this section elaborates on the practical side in more depth. In addition to its academic contributions, this study also offers several important practical contributions and managerial implications. Sub-Saharan Africa provides a challenge for global brands (McKinsey, 2012), and it is a setting where domestic players have an advantage (Sheth, 2011) over global players. Therefore, it is essential for global brands to capture the perceptions of the emerging middle-class consumer base in emerging economies, such as South Africa. From a practical perspective, it might be valuable for marketers, global fashion brands, and brand management practitioners to understand the importance of the constructs discussed in this model regarding the purchase intention.

This research study provides several managerial implications for global (fashion) brands, marketers, and global brand managers. As the descriptive statistics highlighted, there is still a lot for global fashion brands to win in the emerging economy of South Africa among black middle-class females, since many of the respondents indicated that they never to rarely buy global fashion-branded items, or occasionally to sometimes buy global fashion-branded items. The managerial implications aim to conclude on the findings from a practical perspective. Thus, the first managerial implication concerns quality; the perceived quality is essential. The data analysis emphasised that, within the conceptual model, perceived quality is the most important direct driver of purchase intentions. In line with the descriptive statistics and in the quantitative analysis it was evident that the perceived quality had the strongest relationship with the purchase intention. This finding emphasises that global fashion brands are perceived by the respondents as being high in quality, also in comparison to their local competitors. Perceived quality was followed by attitude, the second strongest antecedent of the purchase intention within the conceptual model. The second managerial implication therefore concerns the consumers' attitudes. Attitude is strongly influenced by brand knowledge (mainly by brand image), self-image, and ethnocentrism, emphasising the importance of considering brand knowledge (and thus mainly brand image), congruity with the self-image of the targeted consumer and ethnocentrism, and due to its influence on purchase intentions an important variable to consider. The third managerial implication concerns brand image. Brand image arose as the most influential component of brand knowledge on attitude, perceived quality, and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Brand image was indicated in all aspects to be more influential than brand awareness. The quantitative results highlighted the importance of brand image for global fashion brands among emerging black middle-class female consumers in South Africa, emphasising the importance of brand image for global (fashion) brands, marketers and global brand managers. Fourthly, the findings revealed that price was mentioned as the main reason not to consider buying global fashion brands, and the influence of the price perception on purchase intention is significant and positive. This can imply that a high price might be a reason to not even consider global fashion brands, and that a reasonable price for example enhances the purchase intention among the targeted market. Thus, it is confirmed that a positive price perception positively influences the purchase intention. But additionally, no evidence was found that a positive price perception negatively influences the perceived quality. This means that reasonable and affordable pricing, in the eye of the middle-

class consumer, seems not to be a cue for poor quality. Therefore, the fourth implication for marketing practitioners, global fashion brands, and global brand managers is that pricing is a critical component in the marketing strategy of global brands, and practitioners should consider pricing carefully, especially with regard to price-sensitivity of mass markets in emerging markets.

Furthermore, due to globalisation and increased competition in emerging markets and a strong domestic market, companies should capture the perceptions of the local consumers, and in the context of this research, emerging black middle-class females. They should be aware of the influence of ethnocentrism, brand knowledge (brand awareness and brand image), the self-image, fashion involvement, and attitude towards global brands among local consumers. This research found that ethnocentrism, brand knowledge and self-image have a significant effect on the attitude formation towards global fashion brands among emerging female black middle-class consumers in the emerging economy of South Africa. Additionally, the price perception, brand knowledge, self-image, fashion involvement, attitude and the perceived quality are important for consumer decision-making due to their influence on the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Marketers and global (fashion) brand managers can utilise this knowledge.

Finally, practical contributions and managerial implications can be sought for local brands. When research shows that for their local market, the purchase intention towards global brands is driven by factors such as perceived quality, attitude, and brand image–taking into consideration that the love for local brands is relatively strong–local brands can take advantage of these findings. Quality was followed by design since 21.2% of the sampled consumers mentioned design as the major reason for purchasing global fashion-branded items. South African brands already have the advantage of knowing the local consumer better due to their strong domestic market in South Africa, and they can strengthen their position even more by taking into consideration the factors that influence the purchase intention and a favourable attitude towards global fashion brands.

7.5 Recommendations

Based on the findings and managerial implications, this study offers several recommendations for global (fashion) brands, global (fashion) brand managers, marketers, and marketing practitioners. In the view of the findings, there are several courses of action in order to increase the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among the emerging black middle-class females in South Africa.

The first recommendation concerns the perceived quality of global fashion brands. The data analysis indicated that perceived quality is a key variable for the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among emerging middle-class females in South Africa. For fashion, quality serves as a tool to increase the brand equity, which results in greater competitive advantage through differentiation (Dopico & Porral, 2012). Thus, global (fashion) brands should emphasise the quality of their brands (Son, 2013), and consumers' quality perception of their brands (Steenkamp et al., 2003). Therefore, global brands and their managers and marketers have to ensure that quality-wise, their brands are excellent and do not disappoint. Similarly, they have to ensure the communication of the quality towards potential consumers, by solidly investing in quality perceptions (Öszomer, 2012b).

The second recommendation for global (fashion) brand managers and marketers is to focus on creating a favourable attitude among the targeted black middle-class females in South Africa towards global fashion brands. The empirical findings show that attitude influences the purchase intention towards global fashion brands, and global fashion brands should develop marketing strategies and campaigns to promote a favourable attitude among the targeted consumer segment (Zheng & Chi, 2015). Attitude is influenced by brand knowledge (especially by brand image), self-image and ethnocentrism. Son et al. (2013) state that a positive attitude towards foreign brands can be established through promotions on various media channels. Similarly, Jin and Kang (2011) state that because the relationship between attitude and purchase intention is strong for global apparel brands, marketers need to create a favourable attitude towards those global fashion brands, and have to do research into which factors mainly contribute to creating favourable attitudes. In addition, self-image congruency can be used in order to create a favourable attitude towards global fashion brands; for instance, by developing

marketing strategies that focus on matching the targeted consumer's self-image and the brand image (Lee & Lee, 2015). Jamal and Goode (2001) state that a brand can be more effectively positioned in the market when the brand image and the image of the target audience are measured, and are brought together by specific advertising messages. Therefore, it is recommended for global fashion brands to measure the brand image and the consumer of the target market, and to advertise in order to create self-image congruency, to consequently create a favourable attitude of the targeted consumers towards their brands.

According to the results of this research study, the perceived quality and attitude are influenced strongly by brand knowledge, and especially by brand image. Consistent with Frank and Watchravesringkan (2016), an increase in brand knowledge, in terms of brand awareness and brand image, influences the attitude towards global fashion brands. Therefore, the third recommendation for global brands is that they focus on brand image-building and on creating brand awareness. Brand image will be stronger if the brand is subject to a positive brand perception, when consumers are well aware of the brand, and have positive brand associations (Malik, Ghafoor, Iqbal, Ali, Hunbal, Noman & Ahmad, 2013). To achieve this, advertising can be a strong marketing tool (Malik et al., 2013). Before communicating the brand image to the targeted consumer, it is recommended that investigation is undertaken to determine what consumers perceive to be a desirable or ideal brand image (Islam & Rahman, 2016), because a desirable brand image is an essential ingredient to build the right marketing campaign for fashion apparel in the global competitive apparel market (Islam et al., 2014). As also acknowledged by Alimen and Guldem Cerit (2010), brand knowledge is very important for reaching the preferred target market, and brand image is of particular importance for the differential effect of fashion brands when they internationalise (Jin & Cedrola, 2016). Brand image has proven to be the most influential component for attitude formation, perceived quality, and finally the purchase intention of global fashion brands. Brand image greatly influences the purchase intention, but also the perceived quality and the attitude towards global fashion brands. Therefore, global fashion brands have to ensure that their brand image across borders is favourable. A favourable brand image can be created through good management of the brand associations by improving the functional, symbolic, and experiential benefits of the brand (Lien, Wen, Huang & Wu, 2015), for example, by means of advertisements (Malik et al., 2013).

Furthermore, the analysis indicated that price is the main reason not to consider buying global fashion brands among female black middle-class consumers in South Africa. Brands should be careful that their pricing does not exceed the price range of the targeted consumers, and that price is perceived as acceptable by them (Lien et al., 2015). Therefore, it is suggested that global (fashion) brands do not use a standardised marketing strategy, but adapt their pricing according to the country (i.e. developed versus developing), in order to successfully reach the middle-class consumer (if middle-class consumers are their target market), and enable this consumer to purchase their products. This is consistent with Son (2013), who found that for Indian consumers in the Indian price-sensitive market a competitive price strategy is important, and foreign companies should develop competitive pricing strategies. Additionally, it is suggested that brand managers and marketers should focus on the similarities and differences between markets (Pels & Sheth, 2017), and adapt the marketing mix according to those similarities and differences. Strong (global) brands enable organisations to bring their brands across borders and enjoy a positive quality perception, brand image and brand awareness. It is therefore recommended to only change those elements of the marketing mix that require adaption in order to reach the targeted consumer segment, without losing the benefits of being a global brand.

Finally, this study results in recommendations for local (fashion) brands, and their brand managers and marketers. The present study indicated that the purchase intention of global brands is driven by the perceived quality, attitude, and brand image, and attitude is driven by brand image and self-image congruency. Taking into consideration that the brand love for local brands is relatively strong, local brands can take advantage of these findings by improving the quality perception towards their products and additionally improving the brand image to such a level that will allow them to compete with global fashion brands. Possible tools to employ to improve the perceived quality of local brands are aggressive marketing strategies to change the quality perception, and actions to improve the brand image and reputation of the local brands to influence the quality perception (Kumar et al., 2009). These findings may help fashion-related brand managers, global brand managers, and marketing practitioners to develop effective marketing strategies, by considering the various factors that influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands among the emerging (black) middle-class in South Africa.

7.6 Limitations and directions for future research

This section elaborates on the limitations of the present study and provides directions for future research.

7.6.1 Limitations

This study is not free from limitations. First, the study is conducted among black middle-class females in South Africa. South Africa has a unique history and country characteristics, which might limit the generalisability of the findings across other emerging markets and even other Sub-Saharan countries. The findings might also be limited due to South Africa's very specific consumer classification system, the LSM measure (Haefner et al., 2016) that was used in this study to select the consumers. The LSM measure might use different selection criteria than one would usually use while selecting middle-class consumers. Secondly, the study used purchase intention as a cue for actual behaviour. Although models using behavioural intentions such as the TPB and the TRA have proven to be robust in different contexts, the actual behaviour and behavioural intentions do not always correspond (due to factors such as resource constraints), which leaves room to test the relationship between behavioural intentions and actual behaviour in the same context. Thirdly, for the measurement of the conceptual model, this study focused on global fashion brands in general, by acknowledging the global brands available in the market but without making a distinction between the different available global fashion brands such as Zara and Forever New. Therefore, the findings may not be generalisable over all global fashion brands (for example, the perceived quality of clothing items of Forever New might be high, but the perceived quality of Zara's clothing items might be the opposite). Fourthly, the study focused on a high involvement product category (fashion), and the results may be different for low involvement product categories or other product categories. The final limitation concerns the conceptual model's predictive power. Although argued that in consumer behaviour studies an R^2 value of 0.20 is already considered as high (Hair et al., 2011), this study sought a higher predictive power of the independent constructs over the dependent constructs. The R^2 values of respectively 0.532 (attitude) and 0.545 (purchase intention) are not weak, but the R^2 of 0.332 (perceived quality) is lower than the other dependent constructs. This might imply that this study is missing a variable that would have more influence on perceived quality than the constructs within the current conceptual model.

Despite the limitations of the present study, the study contributes towards a better understanding of the drivers of the purchase intention towards global fashion brands in emerging markets.

7.6.2 Directions for future research

The results of this study contribute to the literature on global brand management, international marketing, and consumer behaviour. Future research could build on the findings of the present study, and overcome the limitations of the present study. In line with the first limitation of the present study, the first possible direction for future research would be to test the conceptual model in other Sub-Saharan countries. The growth of the (black) middle-class is not solely a South African phenomenon, and other Sub-Saharan countries are experiencing an increasing middle-class. The (black) middle-class in other African countries is growing fast, and formal retail is on the rise in not only South Africa, but also in Nigeria, Kenya, Ghana, and other Sub-Saharan countries. Thus, the first suggested direction for future research would be to test the conceptual model among middle-class consumers in other Sub-Saharan countries. Additionally, the black middle-class is characterised in terms of their LSM, having tertiary education, and a white-collar job. However, in South Africa the real middle-class (i.e. the middle of society instead of the middle-class according to westernised standards) is still relatively poor, therefore, in future studies the concept of middle-class should be carefully considered.

In line with the second limitation of the present study, the second direction for future research concerns the possible discrepancy between intentions and actual behaviour. Sun et al. (2016) indicate that only few studies investigate the effect of the purchase intention towards foreign brands on the actual purchase, while the discrepancy between purchase intentions and actual purchases is critical for brand managers. In emerging markets with intensified competition, it is important for brands to identify to what extent consumers convert their intentions into actual behaviour (Sun et al., 2016). Therefore, the second direction for future research would be to identify to what extent consumers convert their purchase intention towards global fashion brands into an actual purchase of global fashion brands.

Furthermore, in terms of the third limitation of focusing on global fashion brands in general, future research could focus on the different brands separately or perhaps brand groups or classes. Additionally, in terms of future research the conceptual model should be tested for a

low involvement category (for instance, coffee, or fast food). The study focused on fashion, a high involvement product category, and future research could focus on a low involvement product category to compare findings. This study focused on fashion apparel, and future research could–besides other product categories–replicate the study in other fashion categories such as home furniture or cosmetics. Another direction for future research could be in fashion involvement specifically; this study focused on the relationship between fashion involvement and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. Other studies could possibly investigate the relationship between fashion involvement and the purchase intention towards local fashion brands, in order to compare the findings. Building on this, it is suggested that future studies test the conceptual model for local fashion brands and global fashion brands, in order to identify the differences in the antecedents of purchase intention towards local and global brands.

Due to limited research on price, this study suggests that the purchase intention towards global fashion brands should be studied by incorporating price into the conceptual model. This study incorporated price from a price perception point-of-view, and it is due to the market's price sensitivity and the fact that the majority of the respondents indicated price a reason to not consider buying global fashion brands, recommended that a similar conceptual model adopts and tests price from a more absolute measure, such as 'low-high'. Brand love also requires further studies. It is widely known that literature on brand love is limited, and the proposed hypothesis in this study failed to be confirmed. A possible direction for future research could be to test a positive relationship between local brand love and the purchase intention towards local brands (since local brand love was relatively high among the consumers), as well as a positive relationship between global brand love and the purchase intention towards global brands.

The final future research direction is related to ethnocentrism. Now that more is known about consumer ethnocentrism in an African middle-class context, and that ethnocentrism has been found to be moderate and not to influence the purchase intention in this research study, it is interesting to look beyond ethnocentrism for this particular social class. As stated by Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2016), a new construct is developed to the preference of global brands, as assumed by the authors. This construct is the opposite of ethnocentrism, and results in

favourable behaviour towards foreign brands and non-favourable behaviour towards domestic brands. This construct, called xenocentrism, explains the attraction of consumers towards foreign products (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016). Because literature on purchase intentions and preferences towards global brands is not inclusive, it is suggested that the purchase intention towards global (fashion) brands testing both ethnocentrism (as a possible negative predictor) and xenocentrism (as a possible positive predictor) as predictor variables be investigated.

7.7 Summary

The results of this study have allowed some insight into which factors influence the purchase intention among the emerging (black) middle-class, an area that has hitherto not received much attention in literature, especially not within an African context. The findings could help global fashion brand marketers and global brand managers to formulate strategies to increase the purchase intention in order to tap into the potential of the South African market. The findings contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the factors that influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands in emerging markets among the emerging black middle-class, which is subject to rapid growth Post-Apartheid and creates a powerful consumer class.

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Executive summary

Companies shifted their focus from developing new products towards developing or penetrating new markets, especially to the markets with the highest growth rate; emerging markets. Globalisation has resulted in consumers becoming increasingly faced with the choice between domestic and foreign products and brands, and therefore local and global brands compete in the marketplace. Therefore, it is important to gain understanding about those key factors that determine the choice for a local or a global brand or product, and for international marketers it is critical to understand which factors determine the purchase intention towards global brands. Despite the importance and relevance of this topic, research is still lacking a comprehensive model. Data on the African continent and its emerging middle-class is still scarce. This study responded mainly to the following gaps in research: gaps in current literature on purchase intentions and attitudes in emerging markets, as well as on price, ethnocentrism, self-image, fashion involvement, and brand love, in addition to the more contextual lack of research, such as the limited research on the African continent, the limited research on the emerging (black) middle-class, and gaps in research with regard to what factors determines the purchase intention towards global brands. This study added to the existing body of knowledge with regard to consumer behaviour in emerging markets, especially on the emerging (black) middle-class, and to the body of knowledge on the purchase intention for global brands in emerging markets.

Increasingly global fashion brands are turning to the African continent due to their growing middle-class. The growing middle-class in emerging markets provides a large (first-time) customer base for basically everything, and it is thus increasingly necessary to understand the factors that determine purchase intentions towards global brands. This also applies to South Africa, one of Africa's main economies. Post-apartheid, the black middle-class is on the rise, creating an emerging consumer base for consumer goods. But despite its growth and potential, the emerging black middle-class is understudied. In South Africa, global brands face a challenge, and local retailers (in industries such as fast-food and fashion) dominate the market. This study aimed to identify those factors that influence the purchase intention among emerging black middle-class females in South Africa towards global fashion brands.

Following a quantitative approach with a sample of 500 black middle-class female consumers in South Africa, the conceptual research model was tested. Ultimately, the study sought to identify which factors influence the purchase intention towards global fashion brands in the context of the study, using variables such as ethnocentrism, price, brand knowledge, self-image, fashion involvement, brand love, attitude and perceived quality. The data analysis, using PLS-SEM, confirmed the quality of the data, and additionally tested the hypotheses. All hypotheses were confirmed, but H1 (ethnocentrism and purchase intention), H4 (price and perceived quality) and H11 (brand love and purchase intention) were not found to be significant. Significant were the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude (H2), price and purchase intention (H3), brand knowledge and attitude, perceived quality and purchase intention (respectively H5, H6 and H7), self-image and attitude and purchase intention (H8 and H9), fashion involvement and purchase intention (H10), attitude and purchase intention (H11) and perceived quality and purchase intention (H11). Perceived quality turned out to be one of the most important variables within the conceptual model in terms of its influence on purchase intention, together with attitude. Brand knowledge was very important in the attitude formation (especially brand image), as well as on the perceived quality, together with self-image. Although the relationships in the conceptual model were merely grounded in previous research, they had never been tested together in a more extended model. Therefore, this research added to the body of knowledge regarding its variables, insights on consumer behaviour in emerging markets, consumer behaviour among black middle-class females, and consumer behaviour in an African context. Global brand managers, marketing practitioners, and fashion brand managers can use the knowledge obtained in this study to anticipate the identified antecedents of the purchase intention of global fashion brands. Additionally, local fashion brands can identify the most influential determinants of the purchase intention towards global fashion brands, and aim to compete with global fashion brands in these aspects. Future research could address testing the model in different contexts, namely different emerging markets or different product categories.

Appendices

1. Respondent information

1A. Participation letter

University of the Witwatersrand

School of Economics and Business Science

Date: 9th of May, 2016

Dear possible participant,

My name is Annekee van den Berg, and I am a PhD student in the Marketing Division at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. I am conducting research on the purchase intention of consumers for local versus global fashion brands. Due to the availability of an increasing amount of global fashion brands in the marketplace, consumers are more and more faced with the choice between local and a global products and brands.

As a middle-class female consumer, you are **invited** to take part of this survey. This survey aims to determine which factors play a key role, and which factors determine the preference and the purchase intention towards global fashion brands. The result of the study will be a PhD dissertation, and will become available online after completion of the research.

Your response is highly important for my study, and there are no right or wrong answers. This survey is confidential and anonymous, which are both guaranteed by no need to enter your name on the questionnaire. The participants' involvement is solely answering the questionnaire, and participation does not involve any risk or loss of benefits whether or not you participate, neither when ambiguity arises, nor does the research does not under any circumstance involve payment. In addition, your participation is completely voluntary, which implies that you are able withdraw from the study at any stage. The collected data will only be used for research purposes. Also, the research is completely anonymous and confidential, and the survey will not ask for your details in any way.

The first part of the survey comprises demographic data, at which you can tick the boxes that are applicable. The second part of the survey comprises 45 statements, at which you can indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement, by ticking in the appropriate box. Completing the survey will take a maximum of 20 minutes.

Thank you for considering participation. Should you have any questions, or should you wish to obtain a copy of the results of the survey, please contact me on (079)-1349435, or online via email at 1057117@students.wits.ac.za. My supervisor's names and contact details are: Professor Richard Chinomona – to reach at Richard.chinomona@wits.ac.za and Marike Venter – to reach via marike.venter@wits.ac.za

Kind regards,

Annekee van den Berg
PhD student Marketing
School of Economic and Business Sciences
University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

If you decide to participate in the survey (and click on below on "start"), you acknowledge the following:

- I agree to participate in this research project.
- I have read the participant information sheet.
- I agree to my responses being used for education and research on condition that my privacy is respected, subject to the following:
  - I understand that my personal details will not included in the research, so that I will not be personally identifiable.
  - I understand that I am under no obligation to take part in this project.
  - I understand I have the right to withdraw from this project at any stage.

If you decide to participate, you may now click "start" on the button below to start the questionnaire.

Kind regards,

Annekee van den Berg

1B. Demographics

Dear participant, thank you for participating in this survey. The survey will start with some demographic information, followed by a larger section with research-related questions. Please know that you are able to withdraw at any stage of the study.

Demographics.

This section will ask about your demographic information. Please indicate your answer by ticking the appropriate box.

Please indicate your age category.

- ○ <24
- ○ 24 – 29
- ○ 30 – 35

- ○ 36 – 40
- ○ 41 – 44
- ○ >44

Please select your current work status.

- ○ Working full-time (for a company)
- ○ Working full-time (self-employed)
- ○ Working part-time (for a company)
- ○ Working part-time (self-employed)
- ○ Trainee, Apprentice, Student
- ○ Unemployed – seeking work
- ○ Disabled/Unable to work
- ○ Retired, Pensioner
- ○ Homemaker
- ○ Other (e.g. civil, military service)

Please indicate your highest academic level.

- ○ Primary school
- ○ High school
- ○ Diploma
- ○ Degree
- ○ Post-graduate degree
- ○ No schooling
- ○ Other

Please select one of the options below to indicate your average personal monthly income.

- ○ Below R14 000

- ○ R14 001 – R20 000
- ○ R20 001 – R30 000
- ○ R30 001 – R40 000
- ○ Above R40 000

How often do you buy global fashion-branded clothing (for example, H&M, Zara, Forever New, Topshop, Mango, etc.)?

- ○ Never
- ○ Rarely (about 10% of the time)
- ○ Occasionally (about 30% of the time)
- ○ Sometimes (about 50% of the time)
- ○ Frequently (about 70% of the time)
- ○ Very frequently (about 90% of the time)
- ○ Always

What is the main reason you would consider buying global fashion-branded clothing items?

- ○ Quality
- ○ Status
- ○ Design
- ○ Fit
- ○ Other (please specify below)

What is the main reason you would **not** consider buying global fashion-branded clothing items?

- ○ Price
- ○ Accessibility
- ○ Design

○ Fit

○ Other (please specify below)

1C. Constructs

Due to globalisation, we as consumers are increasingly faced with a choice between local and global products. This applies for many product categories, from fastfood to fashion and clothing. As a result, major South African retailers such as Mr. Price, Woolworths, Truworths and Foschini face global competitors like H&M, Zara, Mango, Topshop, Forever New, and Cotton On.

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement on the scale below, where 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

Brand awareness. Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each statement regarding your brand awareness of global fashion brands.

1. I can recognise global fashion brands among other brands.

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

Strongly disagree *Disagree* *Neither agree nor disagree* *Agree* *Strongly agree*

2. I know what global fashion brands looks like.

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

Disagree *Neither* *Agree* *Strongly*

Strongly disagree *agree nor disagree* *agree*

3. Some characteristics of global fashion brands come to my mind quickly.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

4. Overall, I have no difficulty in imagining global fashion brands in my mind.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

Brand image. Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each statement regarding the image of global fashion brands.

5. Overall, I think global fashion brands are favourable.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

6. Overall, I think global fashion brands are attractive.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

7. Overall, I think global fashion brands are valuable.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

8. Overall, I think global fashion brands have a good reputation.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

Price. Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each statement regarding the price of global fashion brands.

9. Global fashion brands are reasonably priced.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

10. Global fashion brands are affordable.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

11. Global fashion brands are expensive.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

12. Global fashion brands are inexpensive.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

Ethnocentrism. Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each statement regarding ethnocentrism.

13. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-South African.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

14. South Africans should not buy foreign products because this hurts South African business and causes unemployment.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

15. A real South African should always buy South African made products.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

16. It is not right to purchase foreign products.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

agree nor disagree

Attitude. Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each statement regarding your attitude towards global fashion brands.

17. My opinion about global fashion brands is good.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

18. I like global fashion brands.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

19. My opinion about global fashion brands is positive.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

20. Global fashion brands appeal to me.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

Self-image. Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each statement regarding your self-image related to wearing global fashion brands.

21. Wearing global fashion brands is consistent with how I see myself.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

22. People similar to me wear global fashion brands.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

23. Wearing the global fashion brands reflects who I am.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

Fashion involvement. Please rate your fashion involvement from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

24. I have a strong interest in fashion clothing.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

25. Fashion clothing is very important to me.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

26. For me, fashion clothing does not matter.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

Perceived quality. Please indicate to what extent you agree to the following statements regarding your perception of the overall quality of global fashion brands.

27. Global fashion-branded clothing items are well made.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

28. Global fashion brands have reliable clothing.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

29. Global fashion-branded clothing items are durable.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

30. Global fashion-branded clothing items are of high quality.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

agree nor disagree

31. Global fashion-branded clothing is a superior product.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

32. Global fashion brands are of very good quality.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

33. Global fashion-branded clothing items are not at all reliable.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

Purchase intention. Please indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each statement regarding your intention or willingness to purchase items/clothing of a global fashion brand.

34. The probability that I would consider buying global fashion-branded products is high.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

35. I would purchase global fashion brand items next time.

○	○	○	○	○
	Disagree	*Neither*	*Agree*	*Strongly*

Strongly disagree *agree nor disagree* *agree*

36. I would consider buying global fashion-branded items.

Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

37. There is a strong likelihood that I will buy global fashion-branded items.

Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

38. I will buy a global fashion-branded item in the near future.

Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

39. Whenever I need to buy clothing items, it is very likely that I will buy a global fashion brand.

Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

Brand love.

If you think about your favourite **local** fashion brands (e.g. Woolworths, Foschini, or any other local fashion brand), please rate your love towards your favourite local fashion brand(s) from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

40. I am very attached to my favourite **local** fashion brand(s).

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

41. I am passionate about my favourite **local** fashion brand(s).

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

42. My favourite **local** fashion brand(s) make(s) me very happy.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

43. My favourite **local** fashion brand(s) is/are wonderful brands.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

44. My favourite **local** fashion brand(s) is/are totally awesome.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

45. My favourite **local** fashion brand(s) is/are a pure delight.

○	○	○	○	○
Strongly disagree	*Disagree*	*Neither agree nor disagree*	*Agree*	*Strongly agree*

Thank you.

2. Pilot study results

2A. Cronbach's Alpha

n=52

Brand knowledge.	Cronbach's Alpha		Ethnocentrism.	Cronbach's Alpha	
	0.820			0.892	
Price.	Cronbach's Alpha		Self-image.	Cronbach's Alpha	
	0.801			0.919	
Attitude.	Cronbach's Alpha		Brand love.	Cronbach's Alpha	
	0.863			0.939	
Fashion involvement.	Cronbach's Alpha		Perceived quality.	Cronbach's Alpha	
	0.788			0.881	
Purchase intention.	Cronbach's Alpha				
	0.893				

2B. Composite Reliability

	n=52		
Brand knowledge.	Composite Reliability	Ethnocentrism.	Composite Reliability
	0.881		0.925
Price.	Composite Reliability	Self-image.	Composite Reliability
	0.851		0.948
Attitude.	Composite Reliability	Brand love.	Composite Reliability
	0.906		0.950
Fashion involvement.	Composite Reliability	Perceived quality.	Composite Reliability
	0.874		0.917
Purchase intention.	CR		
	0.926		

2C. Average Variance Extracted

	n=52		
Brand knowledge.	AVE	Ethnocentrism.	AVE
	0.625		0.756
Price.	AVE	Self-image.	AVE
	0.598		0.860
Attitude.	AVE	Brand love.	AVE
	0.708		0.762
Fashion involvement.	AVE	Perceived quality.	AVE
	0.704		0.648
Purchase intention.	AVE		
	0.758		

3. Overall statistics

The table below provides the quality assessment of the obtained data, including the outer loadings of each variable. The indicators with a value below 0.40 are removed for data analysis and statistics.

Research construct	Item	Mean Value		Std. Dev.		C.A.	C.R.	AVE	Outer loading
BK	BA1	3.80		0.97					0.725
	BA2	3.87		0.96					0.719
	BA3	3.72		0.97					0.682*
	BA4	3.71		0.98					0.646*
	BI1	3.80	3.818	0.91	0.936	0.877	0.902	0.537	0.779
	BI2	3.97		0.87					0.797
	BI3	3.72		0.97					0.763
	BI4	3.95		0.86					0.739
ET	ET1	2.28		1.02					0.725
	ET2	2.78		1.13					0.805
	ET3	2.68	2.508	1.15	1.080	0.818	0.878	0.644	0.804
	ET4	2.29		1.02					0.871
P	P1	2.62		1.06					0.884
	P2	2.61		1.04					0.910
	P3	**1.94**	2.368	0.95	1.038	0.762	0.829	0.569	**0.363**
	P4	2.30		1.10					0.731
SI	SI1	2.92		1.10					0.894
	SI2	3.23	2.940	1.05	1.093	0.811	0.888	0.727	0.780
	SI3	2.67		1.13					0.879
FI	FI1	3.74		1.02					0.908
	FI1	3.40	3.513	1.13	1.053	0.757	0.853	0.666	0.905
	FI3	3.40		1.01					0.597*
BL	BL1	3.77		0.88					0.695*
	BL2	3.91		0.85			0.933	0.700	0.837

	BL3	3.98	3.925	0.82	0.830	0.921			0.892
	BL4	4.02		0.80					0.908
	BL5	3.97		0.81					0.840
	BL6	3.90		0.82					0.832
AT	AT1	3.79	3.795	0.78	0.798	0.899	0.929	0.767	0.863
	AT2	3.85		0.80					0.879
	AT3	3.76		0.80					0.878
	AT4	3.78		0.81					0.882
PQ	PQ1	3.83	3.671	0.86	0.897	0.859	0.899	0.586	0.878
	PQ2	3.77		0.81					0.832
	PQ3	3.74		0.83					0.752
	PQ4	3.78		0.88					0.861
	PQ5	3.31		1.05					0.741
	PQ6	3.87		0.82					0.872
	PQ7	**3.40**		**1.03**					**0.145**
PI	PI1	3.58	3.617	0.98	0.922	0.895	0.920	0.657	0.827
	PI2	3.62		0.91					0.855
	PI3	3.84		0.84					0.775
	PI4	3.66		0.93					0.864
	PI5	3.85		0.87					0.797
	PI6	3.15		1.00					0.739