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Consumer Behavior and Counterfeit Luxury Brands: An Evolutionary
Psychology Approach

by

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Acknowledgements

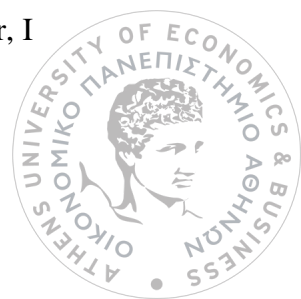
In conducting this thesis, I would like to extend my gratitude to the people that helped me throughout the process of this doctorate. More specifically, this process would not have been completed without the continuous support of my supervisor, advisory committee, parents, friends and my husband. So this page is dedicated to them.

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Abstract

The rise of counterfeit luxury goods is an issue of great economic and social significance and has attracted considerable interest from researchers, practitioners and public policy makers. The purpose of this thesis is to explain consumer preferences for fake luxury items and how other people view consumers of counterfeit luxury products from an evolutionary perspective.

Drawing on evolutionary psychology, the first experiment demonstrates that eliciting motives to compete for status with same-sex rivals leads consumers to knowingly choose counterfeit luxury items instead of equally price, low-status brands. The findings of our first study suggest that counterfeit luxury products might act as deceptive signals of status and represent an adaptive communication strategy aimed at obtaining high status among same sex human hierarchies.

Furthermore, the second experiment shows that there is no difference in perception of status between consumers who own a counterfeit luxury brand and those that own a low-status brand. We also find that people have a stronger motivation to affiliate with consumers who own a low-status brand and that men's choice of counterfeit luxury brands negatively influence their desirability as romantic partners.

The findings of our third experiment suggest that the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands serve a different function among men and women in a mating context. In particular, counterfeit luxury products might act for male consumers as deceptive signals of underlying mate value aimed at displaying wealth to potential romantic partners. In contrast, women's flaunting of counterfeit luxury possessions functions as a signaling system directed to female rivals and signals their ability to compete with them.



To the best of our knowledge, this is the first empirical study that deals with the consumption of fake luxury items as a common deceptive strategy within an evolutionary framework.



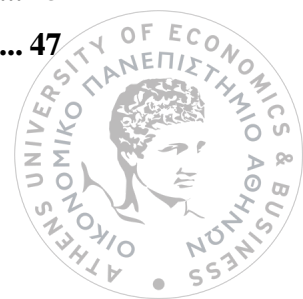
“Some counterfeits reproduce so very well the truth that it would be a flaw of judgment not to be deceived by them.”

-Francois de La Rochefoucauld, writer-

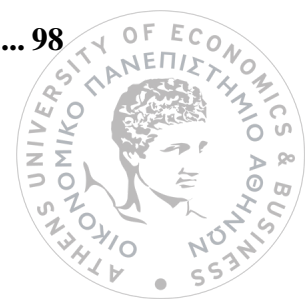


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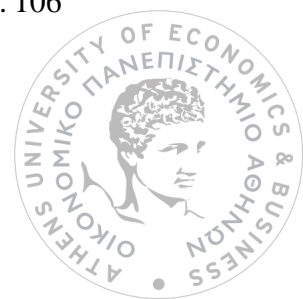


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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Table 1: Chapter 1 Outline

Statement of the Problem	Chapter 1 Introduction Topic of the Research –Statement of the Research Problem – Overview of the Methodology - Overview of the Chapters
Literature Review	Chapter 2 Literature Part 1 (parent field of research) Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands – Evolutionary Psychology
	Chapter 3 Literature Part 2 (immediate fields of research) Conspicuous Consumption - Evolutionary Psychology as a framework to study consumption of Counterfeit luxury brands
Research Hypotheses	Chapter 4 Research Hypotheses Study 1: Hypotheses 1,2,3,4 – Study 2: Hypotheses 5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12– Study 3: Hypotheses 13,14,15,16
Empirical Studies	Chapter 5 Methodology and Analysis of Results Study 1 – Study 2 – Study 3
General Discussion	Chapter 6 General Discussion Discussion of the Hypotheses – Conclusions from the Studies
Contributions	Chapter 7 Contributions of the Thesis Theoretical and Managerial Contributions of the Thesis – Limitations – Recommendations for Future Research



1. Introduction

1.1. Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of the thesis. Its role is to introduce the research background and the research problem of the thesis, and to provide an outline of how the thesis is organized. It begins by presenting the topic of the research followed by the research problem addressed in this thesis. Finally, the chapter ends with an overview of the methodology including the empirical studies to be undertaken.

1.2. Topic of the Research and the Research Problem

Counterfeits are products that bear a trademark that is indistinguishable from or identical to a trademark registered to another company and infringes on the rights of the holder of the trademark (Chaudhry & Walsh, 1996). Counterfeit luxury products are very easily accessible, and with a number of forms of deception. For all kinds of luxury products – jewellery, watches, handbags, paintings etc – there is an endless battle between the real and the fake.

It is a fact that some luxury counterfeit products reproduce so very well the truth that even the brand owners are not able to distinguish them from genuine products.

Counterfeiting of luxury branded products is a major global problem that appears to be increasing rapidly. According to the International Anti-Counterfeiting Coalition (2014), the projected value of global trade in counterfeiting in 2015 would be \$1.77 trillion while the projected value of trade in counterfeit and pirated goods could reach \$1.90 - \$2.81



Trillion by 2022 (BASCAP, 2016). Moreover, the projected net job losses in 2022 are between 4.2 to 5.4 million. In fact, counterfeiting has catastrophic effects on both consumers and manufacturers but also on the society. More specifically, counterfeit products can put the health and safety of consumers at risk, support child labor, organized crime and hurt legitimate manufacturers. However, most of the times consumers are aware of the detrimental effects of counterfeiting but they still intentionally purchase counterfeit luxury products.

Why do some consumers prefer to buy counterfeit luxury brands to low-status brands? Considerable research has examined why consumers buy counterfeit luxury products, finding that such products can serve important social goals (Wilcox et al., 2009) and offer the prestige of original branded products without paying for it (Cordell et al., 1996; Grossman & Shapiro, 1988). Furthermore, certain product attributes such as price could be the most important factor driving intention to purchase counterfeit brands (Albers-Miller, 1999; Bloch et al., 1993; Dodge et al., 1996; Harvey & Walls 2003; Prendergast et al., 2002). Other factors such as counterfeit purchase experience (Bian & Moutinho, 2011a; Kim & Karpova, 2010; Stöttinger & Penz, 2015), personality and value consciousness (Furnham & Valgeirsson, 2007; Kim & Karpova, 2010; Phau & Teah, 2009), perceived social power (Bian, Haque, & Smith, 2015), product appearance (Kim & Karpova, 2010), product involvement (Bian & Moutinho, 2009) materialist values (Chuchinprakarn, 2003; Furnham & Valgeirsson, 2007) and many others are very important antecedents that drive consumption of counterfeit luxury brands.

There is a reason to believe that the consumption of counterfeit luxury products has evolutionary roots (Saad, 2011; Miller, 2009) but there is no empirical evidence linking



the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands to evolutionary motives. Evolutionary psychology has been shown to provide a valid and convincing framework when studying consumer behavior (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013; Saad, 2013) and suggests that human preferences for luxury items relate to costly signalling, in that ownership of luxury brands signals desirable traits to others (Griskevicius et al., 2007; Miller, 2009; Nelissen & Meijers, 2011; Saad, 2007, 2011; Saad & Vongas, 2009; Sundie et al., 2011). According to costly signalling theory, signals communicate underlying characteristics of an organism that are not easily perceivable and are linked to fitness-relevant qualities. A number of studies examining conspicuous consumption have found that men seek luxury products that often serve as a “sexual signalling system” to attract romantic partners (Griskevicius et al., 2007; Sundie et al., 2011) or serve a function in male-male competition (Hennighausen et al., 2016). On the other hand, women flaunt luxury possessions to signal other women that their romantic partner is especially devoted to them (Wang and Griskevicius, 2014) or deter female rivals in an intrasexual competition context (Hudders et al., 2014). Yet, it remains unclear which evolutionary motives trigger men’s and women’s consumption of counterfeit luxury brands. Through this thesis, we investigate the idea that consumption of counterfeit luxury brands is linked to evolutionary motives and to the best of our knowledge, this is the first empirical study that deals with the consumption of fake luxury items as a common deceptive strategy within an evolutionary framework. Drawing on deceptive signalling and the theory of sexual selection (Darwin, 1871), the current thesis investigates the precise nature of this system by examining both the display and the perception sides of the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands. Through this thesis, we examine the impact of different



evolutionary motives on the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands. More specifically, the aims of this thesis are the following:

- a. To empirically investigate whether eliciting motives to compete for status with same-sex rivals leads consumers to knowingly purchase counterfeit luxury brands instead of equally price, low-status brands.
- b. To demonstrate empirically that activating mating motives (intrasexual vs. intersexual) influences men's and women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low status brands.
- c. To empirically examine how other people view consumers of counterfeit luxury products, regarding perception of status, motivation to affiliate, and desirability as a romantic partner.

Taken together, this research makes a contribution by identifying novel functions of the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands. Our findings demonstrated that activating motivational states related to competition for status elicited increased willingness to consume counterfeit luxury products instead of low status products. This thesis, also, indicates that consumption of counterfeit luxury brands functions as part of the mating signalling system since there is apparently an empirical link between mate attraction motives and men's consumption of counterfeit luxury brands, showing that men might use fake luxury products to deceptively display their wealth to potential romantic partners. Moreover, women's flaunting of counterfeit luxury brands might act as a signalling system to female rivals by sending important information to other women. Another important contribution of this thesis is how these signallers who display counterfeit luxury brands are perceived by observers in an evolutionary context.



All three aims address important gaps in the evolutionary psychology and consumer behaviour literature and will provide many useful theoretical and managerial implications.

1.3. Overview of the Methodology

This research involves the development of three experiments. We consider this methodology the most appropriate, as this is a causal research and it provides us with a high level of control. Typically, experiments are constructed to be able to explain causation and are very commonly used in sciences such as sociology and psychology. Experimental methodology is the best method of research that can test hypotheses concerning cause and effect relationships. More specifically, most of the external influences are controlled and we can produce more accurate and consistent results. In all three experiments, we use the methodology followed by several prominent researchers (Durante, Griskevicius, Hill, Perilloux, & Li, 2010; Griskevicius, Tybur, & Van den Bergh, 2010; Griskevicius, Tybur, Gangestad, Perea, Shapiro, & Kenrick, 2009; Griskevicius, Tybur, Sundie, Cialdini, Miller, & Kenrick, 2007; Hill & Durante, 2011; Sundie, Kenrick, Griskevicius, Tybur, Vohs, & Beal, 2011). Target products for the experiments cover a variety of product categories from tablet cases, face towels, handbags, shoes and wallets.

1.4. Summary of the Results

Three experimental studies have been designed to address the research problem which investigates the evolutionary motives that influence the consumption of counterfeit



luxury brands as well as the complementary perception (interpretation) side. A summary of the three studies are described below.

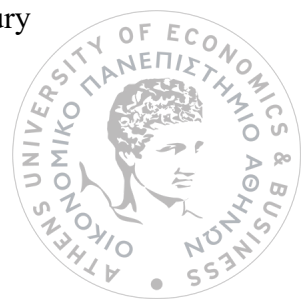
Study 1

The first study showed that a motive to compete for status with same sex rivals led consumers to increase their intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over equally priced, identical low-status brands that lack any status signalling value. Moreover, status competition motives increase purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands specifically when consumption is public. When consumption is private, however, status competition motives do not produce the same outcome.

Study 2

The second study showed that individuals who own an original luxury brand are perceived as having higher status and wealth relative to both individuals who own a counterfeit luxury brand and a low-status brand. However, there is no difference in perception of wealth and status between individuals who own a counterfeit luxury brand and a low-status brand. Additionally, individuals who own a counterfeit luxury wallet are perceived as having higher intention to mislead regarding status relative to both an original luxury wallet and a low-status wallet, confirming that counterfeit luxury brands are perceived as a deceptive status signal tactic.

Moreover, participants reported a stronger motivation to affiliate with individuals who own a low-status brand and equally motivated to affiliate with participants who own a counterfeit luxury brand or an original luxury brand. Results of the mediational analysis reveal that perceived narcissism mediates the relationship between product type and affiliation motivation. Our findings also suggest that men's choice of counterfeit luxury



brands may actually negatively influence their desirability as a romantic partner (short-term or long-term) as women express greater upset than men about being deceived about a partner's status and economic resources.

Study 3

The third study showed that women, when primed with attractive rivals, had significantly higher intention to purchase a counterfeit luxury brand than a low status brand whereas men had no difference in choices between counterfeit luxury brands and low status brands. These results suggest that women use consumption of counterfeit luxury brands as a tactic to increase their ability to compete with rivals. Moreover, findings of study 3 revealed that male consumption of a counterfeit luxury product is not driven by a same-sex competition motive in a mating context. We, also, demonstrated that men reported greater intention to purchase a counterfeit luxury brand over a low status brand after exposure to attractive opposite-sex targets than when not exposed to these primes. Specifically, the induction of mating goals led men to increase their spending on conspicuous counterfeit shoes that might act as a deceptive signal in order to display their wealth to potential mates. On the other hand, women exposed to attractive opposite-sex others did not increase their intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low status brands suggesting that counterfeit luxury products are ineffective as sexual signals directed at men.

1.5. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter intended to provide an overview of the thesis. It began with an introduction of the topic followed by the statement of the research problem confirming why this



research is important. An overview of the methodology as well as the three experimental studies was provided. The next section presents the outline of the remaining six chapters of the thesis.

1.6. Outline of the Thesis

The thesis will be organized into seven chapters that include the introduction, literature review, methodology and analysis of data, and conclusions and implications.

The chapters are organized as following:

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

CHAPTER 2: Literature Review Part 1 (parent field of research)

The literature review is divided into two separate but related sections: the first section is a review of the parent field of research of the thesis (Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands and Evolutionary Psychology); and the second section reviews two immediate fields (Conspicuous Consumption and Evolutionary Psychology as a framework to study consumption of Counterfeit luxury brands).

CHAPTER 3: Literature Review Part 2 (immediate fields of research)

Chapter 3 is the second part of the literature review which introduces some immediate fields of research of the thesis. Two related fields are discussed in this part: Conspicuous Consumption and Evolutionary Psychology as a framework to study consumption of Counterfeit luxury brands.

CHAPTER 4: Research Hypotheses

The thesis involves three experimental studies which test sixteen hypotheses. The first study examines how activating a motive to compete for status with same sex rivals



influences consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands versus low status brands when consumption is public versus private. The second study focuses on the complementary perception side (i.e. interpretation) of the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands. The third study examines how activating mating motives influences men's and women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low status brands.

CHAPTER 5: Methodology and Analysis of Results

Chapter 5 concerns the methodology and presentation of the results for the three experimental studies.

CHAPTER 6: General Discussion

Chapter 6 discusses the results of the three studies and demonstrates how the findings augment existing knowledge in the areas of research under study. The discussions in this chapter will provide a basis for presenting the contributions of the thesis in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 7: Contributions of the Thesis

This is the final chapter and discusses the theoretical and managerial contributions of the thesis.

It ends with the limitations of the studies and the recommendations for future research.



CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW PART 1

Table 2: Chapter 2 Outline

Statement of the Problem	Chapter 1 Introduction Topic of the Research –Statement of the Research Problem – Overview of the Methodology - Overview of the Chapters
Literature Review	Chapter 2 Literature Part 1 (parent field of research) Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands – Evolutionary Psychology
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General Discussion	Chapter 6 General Discussion Discussion of the Hypotheses – Conclusions from the Studies
Contributions	Chapter 7 Contributions of the Thesis Theoretical and Managerial Contributions of the Thesis – Limitations – Recommendations for Future Research



2. Literature Review Part 1

2.1. Introduction

The consumption of counterfeit luxury brands is a very important field in marketing since it has been expanding at an alarming rate (Penz and Stottinger, 2005). Much academic research has been done on the supply side and more recently a large number of publications focused on the demand side and examine the antecedents of counterfeit purchasing. Since this thesis investigates the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands from an evolutionary perspective, this chapter is mainly concerned with the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands and its determinants, and how evolutionary psychology can influence consumer research. The immediate fields of the thesis, Conspicuous Consumption and Evolutionary Psychology as a framework to study consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands, are reviewed in the next Chapter.

The structure of this chapter is organized as a review of the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands and Evolutionary Psychology. It begins with an introduction and definition of counterfeits, the economic impact of counterfeiting, the history and effects of counterfeiting and most importantly motivations for counterfeit consumption. An overview of evolutionary psychology and the most important fundamental motives that influence modern behavior and consumer behavior in particular, are also examined.



2.2. Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands

2.2.1. Introduction to Counterfeiting

Counterfeit goods are illegal, low-priced, and often lower-quality replicas of products that typically possess high brand value (Lai & Zaichkowsky, 1999). These products, which obviously infringe trademarks, are sold at a fraction of the price of the authentic designer version (e.g., a Louis Vuitton purse for \$1,000 vs. a counterfeit for \$115). According to the International AntiCounterfeiting Coalition (2014), the projected value of global trade in counterfeit goods in 2015 is estimated to exceed \$1.77 trillion with roughly 4% of this total reserved for luxury items. The anticounterfeiting forces seem to be fighting a losing battle, particularly in luxury goods markets, in which consumers often knowingly purchase counterfeits (Nia & Zaichkowsky, 2000).

Counterfeiters are driven by huge profits and mark-ups that are seemingly better than drug trafficking (Blakeney, 2009). The counterfeiting industry has grown significantly as a result of globalization and consumers' needs and wants such that counterfeited commodities are transported around the world. Within the EU approximately 20 per cent of the sales of shoes and clothing are counterfeit (Blakeney, 2009).

2.2.2. Definition of Counterfeits

Counterfeits have a great number of synonyms including “replicas”, “fakes”, “imitations”, “knock-offs”, “me-too”, “copycat”, “palmed-off”, “pirated” and “look-alike” products (Kaikati & LaGarce, 1980). Other synonyms consist of “copy” and “overrun”; although these terms fluctuate slightly in meaning (Wilke & Zaichkowsky



1999). Many different studies through the years have investigated the definitions of a counterfeit product. Some researchers view counterfeits as theft intending to deceive the consumer (Green & Smith, 2002), which is an illegal practice. Furthermore, other researchers suggest that counterfeits are much more complex in nature. Phau et al. (2001) highlight five major kinds of counterfeits which are presented in Table 1 and clearly demonstrate that some of the definitions of counterfeit highlight different insights into the same terminology. In addition, some articles have implemented different terms to refer to the same practice, for example Gentry et al. (2001), Ang et al. (2001), Kapferer (1995a), and Foxman et al. (1990). According to Cordell et al. (1996), counterfeits are reproductions of a trademarked brand which are closely similar or identical to genuine brands. This refers to packaging, labelling and trademarks, to intentionally pass off as the original product (Kay, 1990; Ang et al., 2001; Chow, 2000). Lai and Zaichkowsky (1999) suggested that counterfeiting and piracy are almost the same thing since they are both the reproduction of identical copies of authentic products. These two terms have been used interchangeably (Wee et al., 1995; Kwong et al., 2003). Nevertheless, piracy infringes copyrights and patents (Chaudhry & Walsh, 1996) and is mainly associated with software and fixed medium content such as film and music recordings (Chow, 2000; Cheung & Prendergast, 2006; Bhal & Leekha, 2008; Wan et al., 2009). On the other hand, imitations are mostly indirect copies (Bamossey & Scammon, 1985), such as imitation smartphones (Liao & Hsieh, 2013). Imitation is often subtle and imitators remake an overall similarity, even if the packaging fluctuates between the well-known brand and the imitator's own-label product (Kapferer, 1995). From a legal point of view, both counterfeiting and piracy is illegal while imitation does not necessarily break the law unless it confuses consumers



(Bamossy & Scammon, 1985). Furthermore, counterfeiting is dissimilar to other forms of intellectual property infringements like grey market goods (Phau & Teah, 2009). De Matos et al. (2007) have used scales that measured grey market products for counterfeits, which is unquestionably diverse to characteristics and definition. Grey market products are overruns from outsourced manufacturers that are distributed through unauthorized channels (Huang et al., 2004; Gentry et al. 2006), whereas counterfeiting involves an illegally produced copy of the original article.

Table 3: Definition of Counterfeits

Terminology	Definition
Deceptive Counterfeiting	<p>This includes the manufacturing of duplicates that are identically packaged, have identical labels and trademarks.</p> <p>They are copied in an attempt to appear like the genuine products. Consumers are deceived and naively accept a counterfeited commodity (Grossman & Shapiro, 1988; Kay, 1990; Cordell et al., 1996; Ang et al., 2001).</p>
Piracy/Non deceptive Counterfeiting	<p>This is when the product does not defraud the consumer. The consumer is fully conscious that the product being purchased is not the genuine article, as a result the consumer is also a collaborator in counterfeiting (Grossman & Shapiro, 1988; Bloch et al., 1993; McDonald & Roberts, 1994; Cordell et al., 1996; Chow, 2000).</p>



Imitations also known as copycats	Goods are comparable in material, shape, color, and name and resemble the genuine article (Wilke & Zaichkowsky, 1999). Brand imitation is intended to “look like” and make consumers think of the genuine brand, a counterfeit product is intended to “be like” the original (d’Astous & Gargouri, 2001; Bamossy & Scammon, 1985).
Grey Market	This portrays the unlawful sale of clothing production overruns by legally contracted manufacturers (McDonald & Roberts, 1994; De Matos et al., 2007). This issue relates to the supply side rather than consumer interest.
Custom - made Copies	Are imitations of trademark designs of branded products made by genuine craftsmen. The only missing thing is a brand name or emblem of the original (Phau et al., 2001).

Consistent with Chaudhry and Walsh (1996), this thesis defines counterfeits as products that bear a trademark that is indistinguishable from or identical to a trademark registered to another company and infringes on the rights of the holder of the trademark. This definition proves to be coherent and is widely adopted by researchers and practitioners in previous investigations (e. g. Bamossy & Scammon, 1985; Grossman & Shapiro, 1988a; Kapferer, 1995; Chaudhry & Walsh, 1996; Bian & Veloutsou, 2006; Bian & Moutinho, 2009, 2011a).



There can be no doubt that consumers are not always aware that they are buying a fake product. Grossman and Shapiro's (1988) categorization of counterfeiting is broadly accepted among academics, and offers a clear distinction between deceptive and non-deceptive counterfeiting.

Deceptive counterfeiting occurs when consumers assume that they are purchasing a genuine branded product, which then turns out to be counterfeit. Thus, they are unaware and this form of counterfeiting applies often to low involvement goods and mostly in categories such as automotive parts, consumer electronics, and pharmaceuticals. Green and Smith (2002) recognized four characteristics of deceptive counterfeits: (1) Consumers are ignorant that they are purchasing counterfeit products; (2) Counterfeits exhibit potential health and safety risks; (3) Governments suffer quantifiable losses from counterfeit operations; (4) Genuine branded companies are subjected to a loss of sales and/or brand equity.

Non-deceptive counterfeiting occurs when consumers recognize that the branded product is not authentic. Thus, consumer knowingly purchase counterfeits and are made aware of this by specific information cues, such as quality, purchase location, price or materials used to make the products. In luxury brand markets however most consumers know what they are buying and are able to distinguish counterfeits from genuine brands on the basis of price, distribution channels, and the inferior quality of the product itself (Nia & Zaichkowsky, 2000; Wilcox et al., 2009). Moreover, Bian (2006) suggested that there is also blur counterfeiting where consumers consider purchases and they are not sure whether the products are genuine, counterfeit, genuine but from a parallel import arrangement, genuine but on sale, or even stolen merchandise.



This thesis focuses on non-deceptive counterfeit luxury brands and the term counterfeit luxury brands that will be used throughout this research agrees with the definition of non-deceptive counterfeiting.

2.2.3. The Economic Impact of Counterfeiting

Counterfeiting is a federal crime that involves the manufacture and distribution of illegal, lower-quality, cheap imitation goods which seem identical to the original products.

Counterfeiting is a significant global problem that has been spreading at a faster pace than ever before (Wilcox et al., 2009). The International Anti Counterfeiting Coalition (2014) assessed that the projected value of global trade in counterfeit goods in 2015 is estimated to exceed \$1.77 trillion, with roughly 4% of this total reserved for luxury items.

Especially in the luxury market, brands lose almost \$12 billion a year due to counterfeiting (International Chamber of Commerce, 2004). Moreover, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and European Union Intellectual Property Office (EUIPO) estimated that trade in counterfeit and pirated products in 2013 accounted for as much as 2.5% of the value of international trade, or \$461 Billion.

BASCAP Report (2016) estimated that the total value of pirated and counterfeit goods in 2013 was \$923 Billion – 1.13 Trillion while the projected value of trade in counterfeit and pirated goods could reach \$1.90 - \$2.81 Trillion by 2022. Moreover, the same study revealed that the estimated net job losses in 2013 were between 2 and 2.6 million, whereas the projected net job losses in 2022 are between 4.2 to 5.4 million.



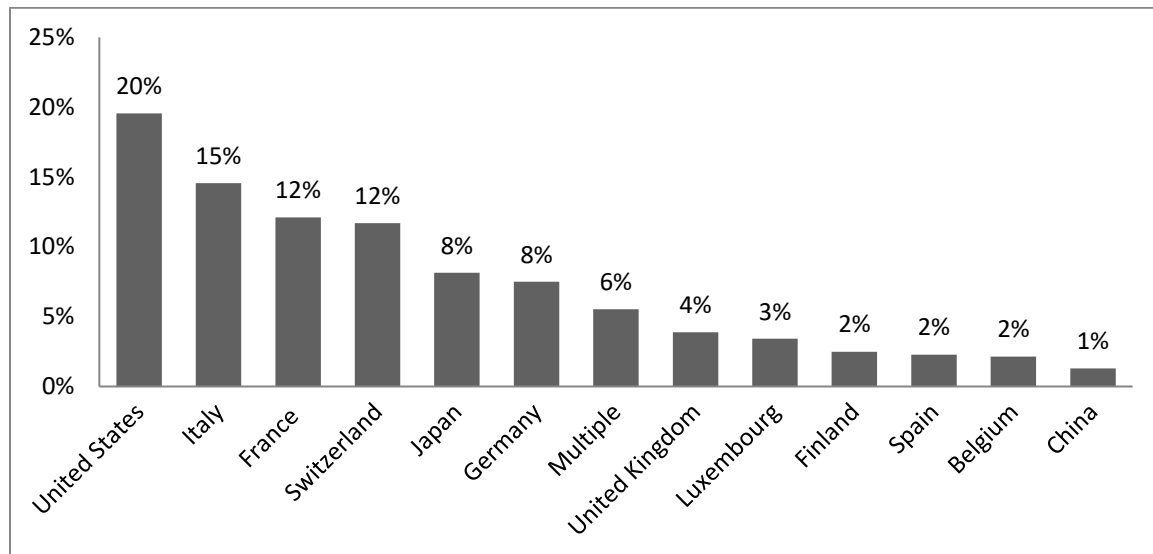
Especially in Europe, the trade in counterfeit goods has grown steadily as a result of the internationalization of the economy, sophistication of technology, and the development of communication infrastructures (Commission of the European Communities, 1998).

European companies have lost between €400 and €800 million within the Union and up to €200 million outside the EU (Commission of the European Communities, 1998).

Santos and Ribeiro (2006) stated that Germany has the largest amount of counterfeit products in Europe with 16,220 cases followed by the United Kingdom (7,490 cases) and France (7,237 cases). According to Kay (1990) the UK is one of the major receivers of counterfeited products in the world. An analysis conducted by OECD (2017) revealed that imports of counterfeited goods to the UK accounted for as much as GBP 9.3 billion in 2013. Furthermore, as seen in Figure 2, most fake goods originate in middle income or emerging countries where China, Hong Kong and India are the main sources of counterfeit imports. Electronic and electrical equipment, clothing and footwear were the most frequent counterfeit products followed by toys, games and leather goods. Moreover, the top countries whose companies had their intellectual property rights infringed in the 2011-13 seizures were the United States, whose brands or patents were affected by 20% of the knock-offs, then Italy with 15%, and France and Switzerland with 12% each. Japan and Germany stood at 8% each followed by the UK and Luxembourg. The following figures summarize important findings of this study regarding the trade of counterfeits

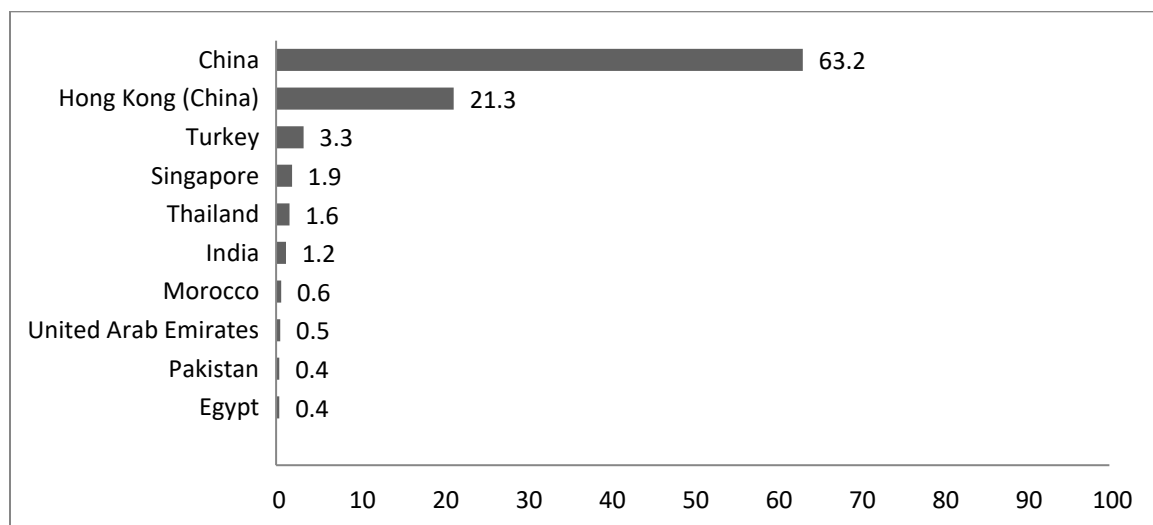


Figure 1: Top countries whose IP rights are infringed (In % of seizures' values 2013)



(Trade in Counterfeit and Pirated Goods: Mapping the Economic Impact-OECD, 2016)

Figure 2: Top provenance economies of fakes, as % of total seizures (2013)



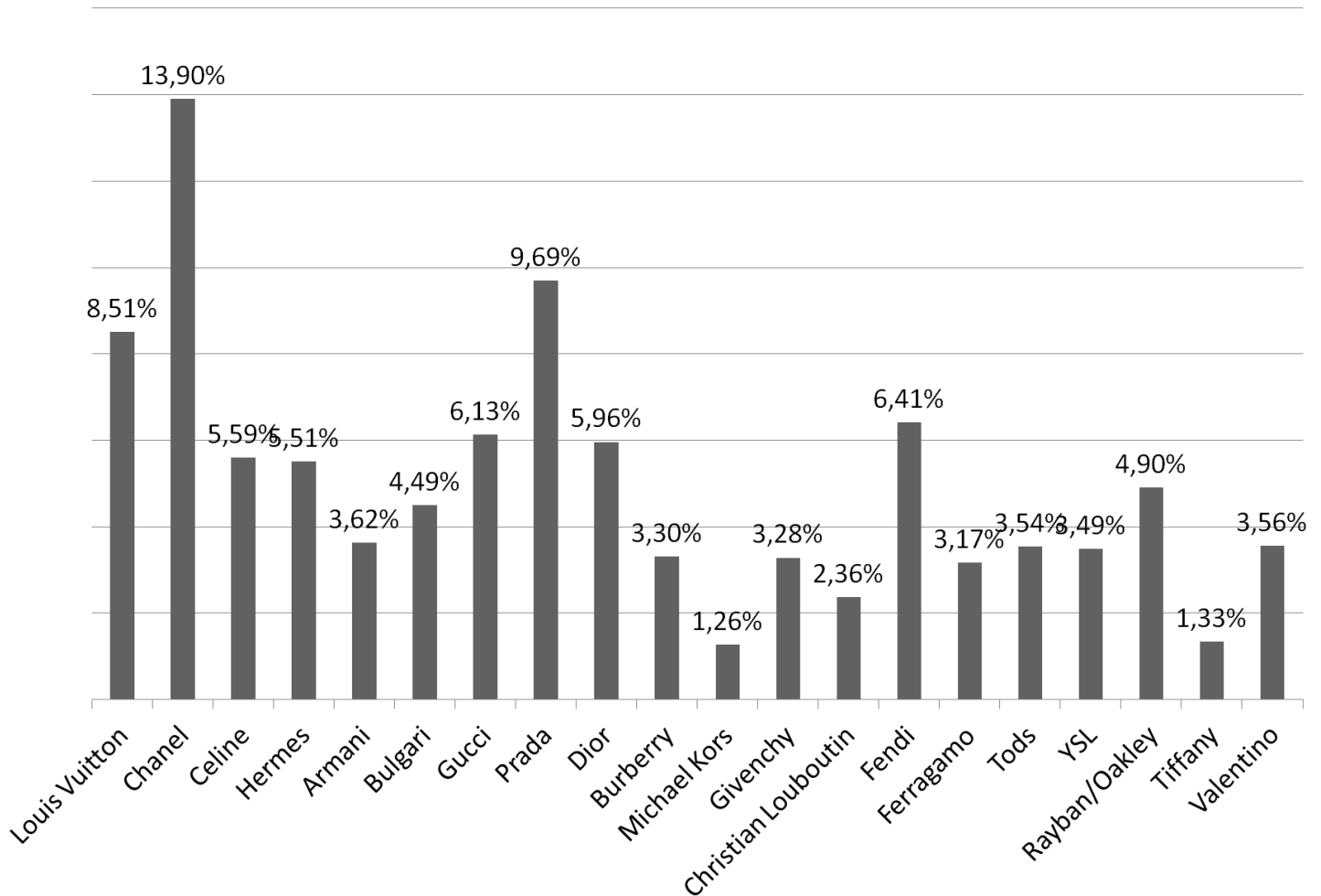
(Trade in Counterfeit and Pirated Goods: Mapping the Economic Impact-OECD, 2016)

2.2.4. Counterfeiting in the Luxury market

A research conducted by Ledbury (2007) revealed that the majority of consumers purchase counterfeit luxury products knowingly; while almost 31% of consumers have been deceived into purchasing counterfeits that they assumed were genuine at the point of sale (Ledbury, 2007). Most of them tend to purchase counterfeit products from market stalls, although 29% of consumers purchase from internet auction sites like eBay. Specifically, 55% of them bought counterfeit clothes, 32% bought shoes, 24% bought leather goods, 20% bought jewellery, and 26% purchased watches. The major counterfeited luxury brands in 2006 were: Louis Vuitton, Gucci, Burberry, Tiffany, Prada, Hermes, Chanel, Dior, Yves Saint Laurent and Cartier (Ledbury, 2007). A new research from Stroppa (2016, p.32) regarding social media and counterfeit luxury brands identified 20,892 fake Instagram accounts selling luxury counterfeit goods, which were collectively responsible for 14.5 million posts. As detailed in the following Figure 3, the top targeted luxury brands are Chanel, Prada, Louis Vuitton and Fendi.



Figure 3: % of Most Counterfeited Luxury Brands 2016



(Stroppa, 2016)

However, most of the luxury brands are not giving up and fight against counterfeiting with anti-counterfeiting measures such as holograms, tags and packaging quirks. For instance, Salvatore Ferragamo inserts radio-frequency identification tags in the left sole of each pair of shoes as does Moncler in all of its products. Other brands such as Hermes use mouline linen thread coated in beeswax for all the stitching on its handbags whereas

Chanel places hologram stickers with unique serial numbers in the lining of its handbags (Pithers, 2017).

Counterfeiting of luxury brands has been expanding steadily in the past few years and has reached alarming levels regardless of any efforts made from individual organizations and law enforcement agencies (Trinh & Phau, 2012). Counterfeiting is one of the most significant issues for the luxury industry and produces harmful consequences on consumers, legitimate manufacturers and the humanity as a whole.

2.2.5. Effects of Counterfeiting

Counterfeiting is a criminal activity and has detrimental effects on consumers, manufacturers of the legitimate products, brand owners and the society. Although there is a few number of studies that support the idea that counterfeits could benefit the original brands (e.g. Bekir, El Harbi, & Grolleau, 2013; Romani, Gistri, & Pace, 2012), most of the studies regarding counterfeiting suggest that it has very harmful social, economic and security effects. More specifically, according to the International AntiCounterfeiting Coalition (IACC) counterfeit goods are usually made of cheap and dangerous components that put the health and safety of consumers at risk. Counterfeiting is an illegal activity while counterfeiters do not pay taxes, do not pay their employees fair wages and often use child labor. Moreover, the U.S. Chamber of Commerce (2006) argues that counterfeiting is responsible for the loss of thousands of jobs per year (Wilcox et al., 2009). Counterfeiting has also been linked to the funding of organized crime, drug trafficking, weapons, human trafficking and even terrorist activity (Thomas, 2007). Furthermore, different studies reveal that counterfeiting influences consumers' trust in



legitimate products; damages brand equity and brand's reputation (Bian et al., 2016; Bian & Moutinho, 2011a; Commuri, 2009). Legitimate manufactures face severe losses of revenue and devote significant resources to research and development of new products and built reputation. Although consumers are aware of all these effects, they often knowingly purchase counterfeits especially in the luxury market (Nia & Zaichkowsky, 2000). This kind of consumption is often regarded as consumer misbehavior and unethical consumption (Bian et al., 2016; Penz & Stottinger, 2005).

2.2.6. History of Counterfeiting

Counterfeiting is not a new business phenomenon and has been affecting trade for at least 2,000 years. Most probably the earliest and most widespread form of counterfeiting is that of currency. Pliny was the elder described counterfeit coin as popular collector's item for Romans (Barry, 2007). The counterfeiting of coinage was part of the normal exchanges involving smuggling, minting privileges, alchemy, and foreign trade in Genoa in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. This research focuses on non-deceptive counterfeiting which is widespread in luxury designer brand markets (Nia & Zaichkowsky, 2000). The counterfeiting of luxury products itself dates as far back as 27 BC, when a wine merchant in Gaul counterfeited trademarks on wine amphorae, selling inexpensive local wine as expensive Roman wine (Phillips, 2005). Furthermore, one of the first recorded items being counterfeited were paintings which faced the problem of being commonly counterfeited in the late Ming Dynasty (1368-1644) in China; only one in ten of the paintings were thought to be genuine (Clunas, 1991). By the thirteenth



century, counterfeiting had become so frequent that the copying of valuable trademarks was made a criminal offense punishable by torture and death in some European countries (Higgins & Rubin, 1986).

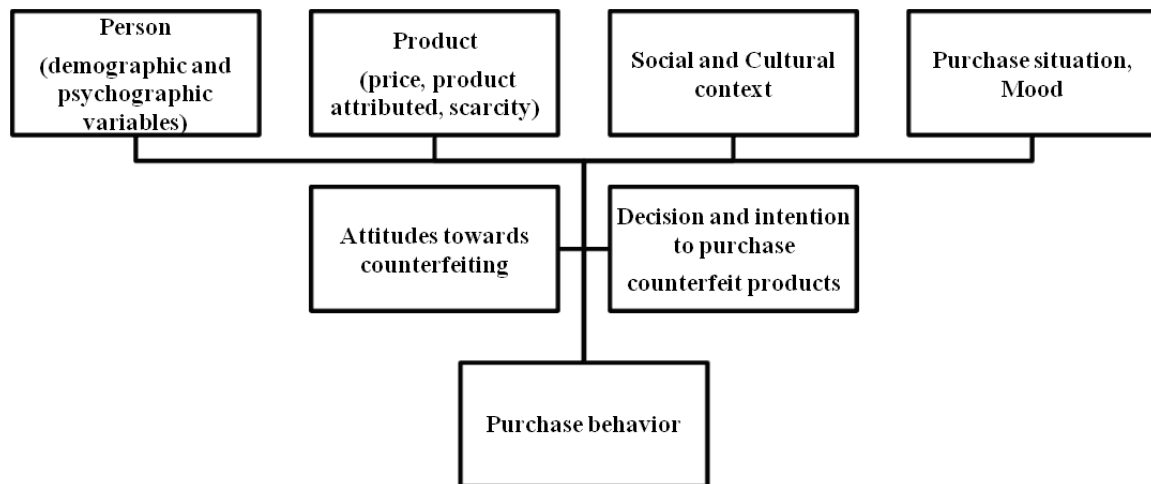
2.2.7. Motivations for Counterfeit Consumption

Research has explored a large variety of determinants of the demand and supply side of counterfeits. The market for counterfeits can be attributed to consumer demand (Bian & Veloutsou, 2007; Nia & Zaichkowsky, 2000, Wee, Ta, & Cheok, 1995); thus, an extended number of researches have investigated why consumers knowingly purchase counterfeit brands. Given that the market for counterfeit luxury brands relies on consumers' aspiration for authentic luxury brands (Hoe, Hogg, & Hart, 2003; Penz & Stottinger, 2005), insights into why consumers purchase luxury brands are particularly related to comprehending the motives underlying counterfeit brand purchases. Previous studies suggest that men and women consume counterfeit luxury brands in the service of important social goals (Wilcox et al., 2009; Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967). Prior research has linked the decision to knowingly purchase counterfeit products to a number of factors, which can be classified into four broader categories (Eisendand & Schuchert-Guler, 2006) as seen in Figure 4. The first category includes demographic and psychographic variables, as well as attitudes toward counterfeiting (Bloch, Bush, & Campbell, 1993; Penz & Stottinger, 2005; Gentry, Putrevu & Shultz, 2006). The second category focuses on aspects of the product, such as price, uniqueness, and availability. The third and fourth categories refer to the social and cultural context where the



counterfeit purchase decision is made, ranging from cultural norms (Lai & Zaichkowsky, 1999) to the shopping environment (Leisen & Nill, 2001).

Figure 4: Summarizing the main Factors of the Volitional Purchase of Counterfeit Products.



(Eisendand & Schuchert-Guler, 2006)

Demographic and Psychographic variables

Many researchers have tried to profile consumers that purchase counterfeit luxury brands. More specifically, there is no consistency among researchers regarding the demographic characteristics of the consumers of counterfeit products. Bloch et al. (1993) reported that demographic variables do not influence the purchase of counterfeits and that age and

household income are not useful criteria for differentiating between purchasers of counterfeits and purchasers of genuine branded clothing. Phau et al. (2001) advocated that low spenders on counterfeit branded clothing were young, with blue-collar jobs, low monthly wages, lower education level, and had no children; while high spenders on counterfeit branded clothing were aged between 25-34 with white-collar jobs, higher education levels, higher wages, and had children. Similar results proposed by Prendergast, Cheun, and Phau (2002) where consumers in the 25-34 age group had higher intention to purchase pirated VCDs than those in the 19-24 age group. Tom et al. (1998) suggested that counterfeit-prone consumers were younger and earned less than consumers of authentic products in every phase of purchase behavior (pre-purchase, purchase, and post-purchase). Moreover, Swee et al. (2001) found that lower-income groups have more favorable attitudes toward pirated CDs while Sims et al. (1996) claimed that there is a significant relationship between household income and software piracy. Additionally, Wee et al. (1995) suggested that even though household income and educational level affected consumer purchase intentions, age did not appear to affect consumers' intentions of purchasing counterfeits.

Product Attributes

Many different studies claim that price could be the most important factor driving intention to purchase counterfeit brands (Albers-Miller, 1999; Bloch et al., 1993; Dodge et al., 1996; Harvey & Walls 2003; Prendergast et al., 2002). Gentry et al. (2006) supports this finding by showing that there is a positive relationship between low prices of counterfeits and the decisions to purchase them. Staake and Fleisch (2008) also



reported that the major motive for the purchase of non-deceptive counterfeit products was their low price. As expected, consumers' intention to purchase a counterfeit brand is inversely related to the price of the genuine brand (Albers-Miller, 1999). Bryce and Rutter (2005) stated that 60% of the respondents admitted that quality of the product was also a very important motivation for the purchase intention of counterfeit fashion goods.

Socio-Cultural context and Purchase Situation

The academic branding literature suggests that consumers often buy branded products – especially in the luxury market – for two main reasons: (a) the physical product attributes and (b) the brand image linked to the product. More specifically, they signal information regarding their self-image and enhance their self-concept (e.g. Dornoff & Tatham, 1972; Onkvist & Shaw, 1987). However, the counterfeit luxury brands might not fully resemble the original brands as far as physical attributes is concerned but the image of the original brands is preserved (Penz & Stottinger, 2005). Thus, purchasers of counterfeit products are getting the prestige of original branded products without paying for it (Cordell et al., 1996; Grossman & Shapiro, 1988). Wilcox et al. (2009) claimed that consumers' desire for counterfeit luxury brands relies on social motivations (i.e., to express themselves and/or fit in) underlying their preferences for luxury brands. In particular, they reported that consumers have higher intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands when their attitudes towards luxury brands serve a social-adjustive rather than a value-expressive function. The study of Leisen and Nill (2001) advocated that consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit brands is higher when they react more favourably to the shopping environment.



Moreover, Chaudry and Zimmerman (2009) proposed that consumers' complicity to buy counterfeit products is a function of both intrinsic (demographics, attitudes, cultural values and ethical perspective) and extrinsic (social marketing communications, shopping experience, and product attributes) determinants. Cordell, Wongtada, and Dieschnick (1996) investigated the motives associated with purchasing two types of counterfeits: functional and prestige. They found that functional counterfeits are those that are purchased for their utility (i.e., electronics, software, etc.) while prestige counterfeits are those purchased for their ability to confer status (i.e., clothing, accessories, etc.). Bloch et al. (1993) asked consumers to choose between three cotton shirts: a designer label shirt priced at \$45, a counterfeit version of the shirt for \$18, and a shirt without a label for \$18. Although all three shirts were identical, individuals who chose the counterfeit shirt rated it highest on being a good value and equal to the designer label, and higher than the shirt without a label, in terms of prestige. In addition, participants who chose the counterfeit shirt over the designer label rated themselves as being less successful, less confident and of lower status than those who chose both the designer and the no-label shirts. A more recent study showed that wearing counterfeit products makes individuals feel less authentic and increases their likelihood of both behaving dishonestly and judging others as unethical (Gino, Norton, & Ariely, 2010).

A number of recent papers also examined the antecedents of purchasing counterfeit products and discovered some new important factors such as counterfeit purchase experience (Bian & Moutinho, 2011a; Kim & Karpova, 2010; Stöttinger & Penz, 2015), personality and value consciousness (Furnham & Valgeirsson, 2007; Kim & Karpova,



2010; Phau & Teah, 2009), perceived social power (Bian, Haque, & Smith, 2015), beliefs about counterfeit purchases (Furnham & Valgeirsson, 2007), perceived risk (Bian & Moutinho, 2009; Tang et al., 2014), self-image enhancement and psychological motivations such as “thrill of the hunt” and being part of “a secret society” (Bian, Wang, Smith, & Yannopoulou, 2016), product appearance (Kim & Karpova, 2010), product involvement (Bian & Moutinho, 2009), product utility (Poddar, Foreman, Banerjee, & Ellen, 2012; Tang et al., 2014), product conspicuousness (Bian et al., 2015), brand personality (Bian & Moutinho, 2009), perceived company citizenship (Poddar et al., 2012), social influence (Phau & Teah, 2009; Tang et al., 2014), adventure-seeking (Pérez et al., 2007), materialist values (Chuchinprakarn, 2003; Furnham & Valgeirsson, 2007), and moral intentions (Tan, 2002). All these factors are well-matched with the four broader categories suggested by Eisend and Schuchert-Guler (2006).

2.3. Evolutionary Psychology and Consumer Behavior

2.3.1. Evolutionary Psychology

Evolutionary psychology is a theoretical approach in the social and natural sciences that examines psychological structure from a modern evolutionary perspective. Evolutionary theory views the development of biological and social systems as occurring through a process of variation, selection and retention and through a slow process of small incremental improvements, rather than through a priori design (Dennett, 1995). Evolutionary psychology is an approach that views human nature as the product of a



universal set of evolved psychological adaptations to recurring problems in the ancestral environment.

It is a synthesis of modern psychology and evolutionary biology. It is a emerging discipline that treats the human mind as an adaptive toolbox comprised of psychological mechanisms that were shaped by environmental pressures during the Pleistocene era, a period that began roughly 2 million years ago with the emergence of *Homo habilis*, and culminated with the advent of agriculture nearly 10.000 years ago (Cosmides & Tooby, 1987; Miller, 2000; Pinker, 2002; Ridley, 1993). Two assumptions of evolutionary psychology are a) that the human mind is modular, consisting of numerous psychological mechanisms and b) that these mechanisms are adaptations. An adaptation is any feature of an organism that has been important to increasing inclusive fitness, that is, the propagation of genes into future generations, either directly by mating or indirectly by helping kin survive and reproduce (Williams, 1966, 1996).

An evolutionary approach dates back to Darwin's theory of natural selection. *Natural selection* is the process by which biologically influenced characteristics become either more or less common in a population depending on how those characteristics affect an individual's reproductive fitness — the passing of genes on to future generations.

Moreover, species that reproduce sexually transmit to their offspring characteristics possessing survival benefits. Since those who are endowed with these critical characteristics survive while those who are deficient in them perish, there is an increase in the frequency of “favourable genes” within a population. Natural selection consequently preserves particular characteristics because they have fitness benefits.



Natural selection produces characteristics that collapse in one of the following categories (Durante & Griskevicius, 2016):

- *Adaptations*: characteristics that reliably solved adaptive problems better than competing alternatives during evolutionary history (example: fear of poisonous snakes).
- *By-products*: artifacts without adaptive value that persist because they are inherently coupled with adaptations (example: fear of harmless snakes).
- *Noise*: variations in a given characteristic that are due to random environmental events or genetic mutations (example: most rare types of fears, such as fear of flowers).

The theory of natural selection relies on evolutionary theory but also includes many other different theories such as the theory of reciprocal altruism, parental investment theory, kin selection and others. All these theories produce several specific hypotheses about causal processes of behaviour at a psychological level.

2.3.2. Proximate Vs Ultimate Explanations

From an evolutionary perspective, any kind of behavior has both proximate and ultimate causes. For instance, a person can be consciously motivated to buy a luxury Porsche because the power, speed and acceleration make him happy (proximate reasons), while at the same time be non-consciously motivated to buy that car because it can signal status, increase his desirability as romantic partner and consequently enhance his reproductive fitness (ultimate reasons). In general, proximate causes address how something operates

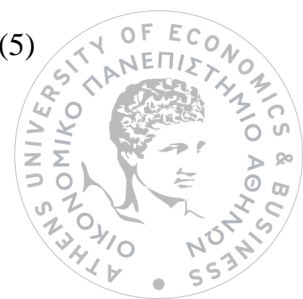


(causation) and explore its ontogenetic trajectory (development), while ultimate causes date back to Darwinian principles and shape the evolution of a trait, including its phylogenetic history (evolution) and its adaptive utility (function) (Saad, 2017). More specifically, proximate causes are related to up-close and immediately present influences and express what people is currently feeling or thinking. Proximate reasons are very important in a marketing context, although they are more superficial and not able to uncover deeper reasons for preferences. On the other hand, ultimate explanations do not focus on the relatively immediate triggers of behaviour, but on its evolutionary function. For that reason, they can provide deeper understanding of the reasons for preferences and behaviours. For example, the proximate reason for buying a delicious cake could be hungriness for a cake, while the ultimate reason is the craving for sugary and fatty foods that helped solve the evolutionary challenge of survival.

Most consumer researchers adopt the proximate motives approach for behaviour (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013) and focus on what makes a consumer feel good. But the evolutionary approach suggests that there is a deeper explanation embedded in the adaptive function of behaviour. There is a huge interest in examining evolutionary motives of behaviour since there are numerous proximate motives but only a small number of ultimate evolutionary functions that behaviour might serve.

2.3.3. The Fundamental Motives Approach

There are a number of distinct evolutionary challenges that our ancestors had to solve. These fundamental ancestral challenges involved (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013): (1) evading physical harm, (2) avoiding disease, (3) making friends, (4) attaining status, (5)



acquiring a mate, (6) keeping a mate and (7) caring for family. Each fundamental motive, presented in Figure 5, can be activated or primed by external or internal cues indicating threats or opportunities related to a specific evolutionary challenge. For instance, a mate acquisition motive can be triggered by interacting with a desirable potential mate, or being exposed to sexy images of the opposite sex or read a romantic story. A fundamental motive can also be activated by internal cues such as hormonal influences. More specifically, women's mate acquisition motives can be triggered during the ovulatory phase of the monthly menstrual cycle (Gangestad & Thornhill, 2008). During peak fertility, women dress in a sexier way (Durante, Li, & Haselton, 2008), buy more attractive clothes and product accessories (Durante, Griskevicius, Hill, Perilloux, & Li, 2011; Saad & Stenstrom, 2012), and earn more tips from male customers (Miller, Tybur, & Jordan, 2007).

Activating a particular fundamental motivational system produces a particular set of consequences for attention, memory, cognition, and preferences (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013). Apart from preferences, they can also alter decision making processes. A very important implication is that the same person might make different and sometimes inconsistent choices depending on which fundamental motive is currently active. For example, activating a self-protection motive makes people to want to conform and follow the masses while activating a mate acquisition motive makes people to want to stand out from the crowd.

The most important *fundamental motives* are:



1. Self-protection

A self-protection motive can be triggered by cues of physical danger, such as angry expressions, snakes and spiders, scary movies or news reports, strange men, or just being in the dark (Ackerman et al., 2006; Becker, Kenrick, Neuberg, Blackwell, & Smith, 2007; Ohman & Mineka, 2001; Schaller, Park, & Mueller, 2003). People have the tendency to attune information that they are in danger and become cautious and paranoid. Moreover, people look for safety and make safer choices since they take fewer risks (Lerner & Keltner, 2001) and they are more loss averse (Li et al., 2012). A self protection motive leads people to group with others that have similar tastes and choices (Griskevicius, Goldstein, et al., 2009; Kugihara, 2005; VanVugt, De Cremer, & Janssen, 2007) and also look for brands that are more safe and trustworthy. For example, a self protection motive might lead consumers to choose a Volvo (brand associated with safety) instead of a Toyota, even though Toyota is superior on most dimensions (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013). Activation of a self-protection motive is also connected to the compromise effect (Simonson, 1989), leading consumers to choose less extreme options, less novelty and variety.

2. Disease Avoidance

A disease avoidance motive can be activated by cues related to pathogens like coughing and sneezing (Ackerman et al., 2009; Miller & Maner, 2011) or just being under the intention that someone near us might be sick can affect our immune system and increase inflammation (Schaller, Miller, Gervais, Yager, & Chen, 2010). A disease avoidance motive can lead people use more face masks and wash their hands (Fleischman et al.,



2011), become more introverted and avoid foreign people (Mortensen et al., 2010; Schaller & Park, 2011).

From a consumer behavior perspective, activating this system make consumers look for foods that are more familiar and made domestically (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013) and avoid foreign foods unless they have airtight packaging (Li, White, Ackerman, Neuberg, & Kenrick, under review). This particular tendency is very intense for pregnant women especially through the first trimester where they become very xenophobic (Navarrete, Fessler, & Eng, 2007). When consumers are primed with a disease avoidance motive, there is an increased need for products such as tissues, sanitary wipes, soaps, sprays etc. Furthermore, a disease avoidance motive makes people choose domestic vacations and decreases air travel (Hamamura & Park, 2010).

3. Affiliation

An affiliation motive can be activated by cues related to interaction with old and new friends, group membership or when someone is socially rejected (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013). Through an affiliation motive, people can strengthen an existing relationship with a friend or just try to make new friendships (Maner, Nathan DeWall, Baumeister, & Schaller, 2007). Another important behavioral tendency is that people become more social, outgoing and spend more money on products that can be enjoyed together with other people (Mead, Baumeister, Stillman, Rawn, & Vohs, 2011). Moreover, an affiliation motive could increase gift-giving (Ward & Broniarczyk, 2011) and also the consumption of products and services such as Facebook and unlimited minutes for talking and texting through a smartphone. Consumers primed with an



affiliation motive pay more attention to word of mouth and tend to purchase products and brands that help them become members of a certain group.

4. Status

Status motivation can be triggered by competition, success, prestigious people or products and through the interaction with rivals. Moreover, Rucker and Galinsky (2009) suggested that the loss of status or power can also trigger status motivation. When primed with status motives, people tend to associate more with high status others and less with lower status people, become more aggressive (Griskevicius et al., 2009), and look for products that are larger and more impressive (DuBois, Rucker, & Galinsky, 2012). In addition, a status motive leads consumers to buy (Ivanic, Overbeck, & Nunes, 2011; Rucker & Galinsky, 2008) and display luxury products (Berger & Ward, 2010; Han, Nunes, & Drèze, 2010) and also spend more money on other people (Rucker, DuBois, & Galinsky, 2011). Finally, competitive altruism and prosocial behavior can be achieved through status motivation since consumers tend to buy more environmental green products in order to attain respect, prestige and reputation (Griskevicius, Tybur, & Van den Bergh, 2010).

5. Mate Acquisition

A mate acquisition motive can be activated by sexy or romantic images and stories as well as by the interaction with potential mates (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013). A mate acquisition motive makes people to want to stand out and enhance their desirability as romantic partners. More specifically, the induction of mating goals lead men to



conspicuously consume (Griskevicius et al., 2007), spend more money on conspicuous luxury products (Sundie et al., 2011) and pay more attention to luxury goods (Janssens et al., 2011). Moreover, men with a mating mindset become less loss averse (Li et al., 2012) and more risk-takers (Baker & Maner, 2008; Knutson, Wimmer, Kuhn, & Winkielman, 2008), helpful and heroic (Griskevicius et al., 2007), creative (Griskevicius et al., 2006) and manipulative (Ackerman, Griskevicius, & Li, 2001). On the other hand, women primed with a mate acquisition motive tend to promote their attractiveness and beauty (Kenrick & Keefe, 1992; Wiederman, 1993) and exhibit increased willingness to take risks to enhance attractiveness (Hill & Durante, 2011). Findings of this study showed that mating goals play a role in dangerous behaviors such as the consumption of diet pills and tanning. Additionally, mate acquisition motives make women become more benevolent (Griskevicius et al., 2007) but only in public situations.

6. Mate Retention

A mate retention motive can be triggered by a relationship threat or celebration. An upcoming anniversary or a potential rival eyeing your romantic partner are cues that activate the mating retention system. Men and women want to maintain and preserve their current relationship by showing more love and care for their romantic partner (Buss & Shackelford, 1997; Saad & Gill, 2003) and also tend to diminish other potential rivals (Lydon, Fitzsimons, & Naidoo, 2003). Additionally, a mate retention motive leads people to show more attention to attractive same-sex others that might pose a threat to their current relationship (Maner, Miller, Rouby, & Gailliot, 2009) and generally to guard their existing relationship from potential rivals (Maner, Gailliot, Rouby, & Miller, 2007).



Wang and Griskevicius (2014) proposed that activating a guarding motive leads women to conspicuously consume to deter female rivals and signal that their romantic partner is especially devoted to them.

7. *Kin care*

A kin care motive can be activated by the interaction with family members, vulnerable children (Glocker et al., 2009; Sprengelmeyer et al., 2009) and suffering family members. Moreover, the living together and the terminology such as “brotherhood” or “sisterhood” are also cues that trigger that particular motive (Lieberman et al., 2007; Park, Schaller, & Van Vugt, 2008). A kin care motive increases nurturing behavior (Glocker et al., 2009; Sherman, Haidt, & Coan, 2009) and make people more helpful to those in need. Furthermore, a kin care motive leads people to do sacrifices especially for relatives (Burnstein, Crandall, & Kitayama, 1994), provide others with social support (Kivett, 1985), physical protection (Daly & Wilson, 1988), and financial support (Smith, Kish, & Crawford, 1987). Finally, activating a kin care motive increases the consumption of specific products such as diapers, baby bottles, clothes, toys, babysitters, college tuition wedding gifts etc (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013).



Figure 5: Evolutionary Motives

Self-protection	•Evade physical danger to remain safe
Disease avoidance	•Avoid infections to stay healthy
Affiliation	•Form and maintain cooperative alliances
Status	•Gain and maintain respect and prestige
Mate acquisition	•Acquire a desirable romantic partner
Mate retention	•Foster long-term mating bond
Kin care	•Invest in and care for family and kin

(Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013)

2.3.4. *Intersexual Courtship Vs Intrasexual Competition*

Biologists identify two distinct pathways of sexual selection that can augment an individual's reproductive success: intersexual courtship and intrasexual competition (Andersson, 1994). *Intersexual courtship* involves members of one sex participating in behaviors that directly attract members of the opposite sex. For example, when given a mating-relevant motivation (e.g., the presence of attractive women), men are driven to conspicuously consume luxury goods and services in order to display their ability to acquire resources that are highly desired by women (Griskevicius et al., 2007). This process leads to the evolution of traits such as the peacock's tail, which has specifically evolved to be displayed to peahens in courtship (Petrie, Halliday, & Sanders, 1991).

Intrasexual competition, on the other hand, involves members of the same sex competing amongst each other to become the most desired by the opposite sex. For example, men are motivated to engage in face-to-face confrontations with other men in order to boost their relative status or reputation which, in turn, often leads to greater access to highly desired women (Griskevicius et al., 2009). A recent study revealed that men might use conspicuous luxury cars in male-male competition, because they think they would feel like having a higher social status (Hennighausen, Hudders, Lange, & Fink, 2016). This is in line with the function of conspicuous displays in the animal kingdom (Berglund, Bisazza, & Pilastro, 1996). For instance, the elaborateness of peacock's tails is correlated with the number of competitive male-male interactions (Loyau, Saint Jalme, & Sorci, 2005). That is, peacocks use their plumages not only in intersexual but also in intrasexual competition in order to intimidate their rivals. In addition, such same-sex competition has been linked to the evolution of traits such as the giant antlers of red deer, which are used primarily to compete with same-sex individuals in establishing a status hierarchy.

Intrasexual selection has also been linked to the murderous violence that male chimpanzees exhibit toward males in neighboring troops (Wrangham & Peterson, 1996); by killing their same-sex rivals, chimpanzees effectively remove rivals from the mating pool and enhance their own odds of reproducing. Although, male intrasexual competition has received more attention from evolutionary psychologists (e.g., Geary, 1998), both sexes engage in such behaviour. More specifically, women use conspicuous luxury products to deter female rivals and signal that their romantic partner is especially devoted to them (Wang & Griskevicius, 2014). In general, men compete with each other to obtain



young and fertile female partners, and women compete with each other to obtain high status male partners (Buss, 1989).

At first glance, intersexual courtship and intrasexual competition seem quite similar in that both motives are clearly linked to reproductive success (i.e., attracting high quality mates). Thus, activating a courtship or competition motive might produce very similar behavioral displays. However, because competition and courtship may involve distinct strategies, each motive might trigger different behavioral tendencies.

2.3.5. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter was the first part of the literature review and has examined the concepts involved in the parent field of the thesis (counterfeiting and evolutionary psychology). It began with an introduction to the concept of counterfeiting and provided an overview of this phenomenon as well as the major motivations for consuming counterfeit luxury brands at non-deceptive context. This chapter also provided an overview of evolutionary psychology and the most important fundamental motives that influence modern behavior and consumer behavior in particular.

The study of counterfeits from the consumers' perspective is crucial and more focus on the demand side in order to gain a better understanding of what drives consumers to voluntarily buy counterfeit luxury products is needed.

The next chapter, the second part of the literature review, examines the immediate field of the thesis: how evolutionary psychology and particularly the activation of fundamental motives drive conspicuous consumption and counterfeit luxury consumption in particular.



More specifically, we introduce the framework of evolutionary psychology to investigate the fundamental motives underlying counterfeit luxury brand consumption.



CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW PART 2

Table 4: Chapter 3 Outline

Statement of the Problem	Chapter 1 Introduction Topic of the Research –Statement of the Research Problem – Overview of the Methodology - Overview of the Chapters
	Chapter 2 Literature Part 1 (parent field of research) Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands – Evolutionary Psychology
Literature Review	Chapter 3 Literature Part 2 (immediate fields of research) Conspicuous Consumption - Evolutionary Psychology as a framework to study consumption of Counterfeit luxury brands
Research Hypotheses	Chapter 4 Research Hypotheses Study 1: Hypotheses 1,2,3,4 – Study 2: Hypotheses 5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12– Study 3: Hypotheses 13,14,15,16
Empirical Studies	Chapter 5 Methodology and Analysis of Results Study 1 – Study 2 – Study 3
General Discussion	Chapter 6 General Discussion Discussion of the Hypotheses – Conclusions from the Studies
Contributions	Chapter 7 Contributions of the Thesis Theoretical and Managerial Contributions of the Thesis – Limitations – Recommendations for Future Research



3. Literature Review Part 2

3.1. Introduction

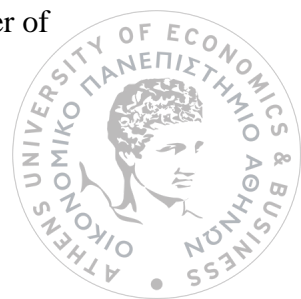
The previous chapter reviewed the concepts of Counterfeiting and Evolutionary Psychology. This chapter, the second part of the literature review, reviews the immediate fields of research. It examines conspicuous consumption and the evolutionary approach as a framework to study consumption of counterfeit luxury brands.

The first section reviews conspicuous consumption, its external and internal motivators, costly signalling theory as a framework to study conspicuous consumption and the consequences of conspicuous consumption. In the second section, the evolutionary approach as a framework to study consumption of counterfeit luxury brands is examined, and more specifically the evolutionary roots of preferences for counterfeit luxury products.

This chapter constitutes the basis for the hypotheses. These hypotheses are presented in the next Chapter.

3.2. Conspicuous Consumption

People across cultures and eras seek luxury possessions in order to signal information to others (Belk, Bahn, & Mayer, 1982). The tendency to purchase and exhibit expensive goods is known as *conspicuous consumption* (Veblen, 1899) and defined as attaining and exhibiting costly items to impress upon others that one possesses wealth or status. After Veblen's publication of *The Theory of the Leisure Class* in 1899, an extensive number of



studies have focused on conspicuous consumption and some new terms have been introduced by different researchers. More specifically, terms such as brand prominence and loud (Han et al., 2010), ostentatious display (Mason, 1891), explicit signal (Berger & Ward, 2010), costly signal (Zahavi & Zahavi, 1997) and visible (Berger & Ward, 2010; Lee & Shrum, 2012; Rucker & Galinsky, 2009) have been used interchangeably with the term conspicuous. Moreover, a new body of research has used two different terms to express the opposite of conspicuous consumption: inconspicuous consumption (Berger & Ward, 2010; Wilson, Eckhardt, & Belk, 2013) and non-conspicuous consumption (Wang & Griskevicius, 2014; Winkelmann, 2012). Berger and Ward (2010) defined inconspicuous consumption as “consumption of subtle signals that provide differentiation from the mainstream and facilitate communication with others in the know”. Non-conspicuous consumption is the term that is mostly used among researchers and refers to individuals who don’t spend money on public wealth display purchases and prefer less conspicuous products (Gao, Wheeler, & Shiv, 2009; Griskevicius et al., 2007; Hennighausen, Hudders, Lange, & Fink, 2016; Lee & Shrum, 2012; McFerran, Acquino, & Tracy, 2014; Rucker & Galinsky, 2008,2009; Sundie et al., 2011).

A great deal of research has demonstrated that luxury products and conspicuous consumption in general symbolize different things according to the situation. For example, consumers when experiencing low power desire to acquire conspicuous products that signal status to others (Rucker & Galinsky, 2008). From an evolutionary perspective, when primed with mating cues, men tend to conspicuously consume to attract potential mates and show-off their high quality genes (Griskevicius et al., 2007). According to a large number of studies in marketing, consumer psychology, evolutionary



psychology and economics, the major external and internal motivators of conspicuous consumption are the following.

3.2.1. External motivators

Power

Power is the capacity to control resources and outcomes, both one's own and that of others (Hunt & Nevin, 1974; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003). It is a psychological state and varies within the same individual depending on the situation (Rucker & Galinsky, 2008). For instance, bosses have power over employees but they might also feel powerless when an employee leaves for a better job. Low power is an aversive state and people often want to reduce feelings of powerlessness. Individuals in a state of low power tend to compensate for and eliminate feeling of powerlessness and acquire conspicuous products as a mean to restore their sense of power (Rucker & Galinsky, 2008). In contrast, individuals who are powerful feel more confident about themselves and they less likely experience the need to display their power externally (Rucker et al., 2014). To conclude, individuals who feel powerless tend to conspicuously consume more than powerful individuals (Rucker & Galinsky, 2008; 2009).

Social Class

Consumers engage in conspicuous consumption in order to “keep up with the Joneses” (Christen & Morgan, 2005; Drèze & Nunes, 2009; Frank, 1985a). The least well-off consumers spend more on conspicuous products to reduce the dissatisfaction they feel with their current level of possessions due to the gap between what they have and what



others have (Ordabayeva & Chandon, 2011). Ordabayeva and Chandon (2011) reveal that increasing equality reduces inconspicuous and conspicuous consumption among consumers at the bottom of the distribution who do not care about status while increases conspicuous consumption among consumers at the bottom of the distribution who care about their social standing.

Another study by Han et al. (2010) reveals how consumers of different social groups show preference for conspicuous or inconspicuous luxury products with their desire to associate or dissociate with members of the same or other social group. Upper class consumers with low need for status want to associate with people from the same social group and prefer inconspicuous products that only they can recognize whereas upper class consumers with high need for status prefer products with large and conspicuous logos in order to signal to the lower class that they are not one of them. Lower class consumers with high need for status want to associate with upper-class consumers and prefer to buy counterfeits because they can't afford to buy authentic luxury brands.

Age

Most studies on conspicuous consumption suggest that younger individuals fuel conspicuous consumption rather than older individuals. Piacentini and Mailer (2004) demonstrate that adolescents (12 – 17 years old) want to wear conspicuously branded clothes while because they want to protect their self-identity through impression management. O'Cass and Frost (2002) suggest that younger consumers are more prone to buy status brands at the process of gaining status and social prestige. In the same way, Wooten (2006) reveal that younger individuals (18 - 23 years old) tend to conspicuously



consume more than older individuals in order to protect their self-identity and reduce feelings of uncertainty and insecurity. Sherman, Schiffman & Anil (2001) show empirical evidence that adults are more self-confident and consequently less inclined to signal status by consumption.

Economic Recession

During a recession consumers have smaller budget to spend on luxuries and therefore prefer to consume on more essential product categories (Kamakura & Du, 2012). More specifically, consumers during a recession spend more on less visible essential goods (e.g., food at home; housing; prescription drugs; water, sewage, and trash; health insurance) than more visible non essential goods (e.g., food away from home, apparel, apparel services, jewelry and watches, personal care, home furnishings and appliances, recreation, and airfare) that could signal status.

However, an interesting study by Nunes et al. (2011) suggest that conspicuous consumption endures during a recession and consumers still buy luxury brands with conspicuous logos. The results of this study indicate that during the recession of 2008, Louis Vuitton and Gucci displayed more prominent logos to the new products than the older ones and manufacturers in general did not tone things down.

Social Exclusion

All individuals have a fundamental need to belong and a desire to form and maintain positive interpersonal relationships (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). When individuals are socially excluded four fundamental needs are under threat; belongingness, control, self-



esteem and meaningful existence (Williams, 2001). More specifically, when individuals are being ignored, efficacy needs of power, control and meaningful existence are threatened while when individuals are being rejected relational needs of belongingness and self-esteem are threatened (Lee & Shrum, 2012). Lee and Shrum (2012) demonstrated that when individuals are socially excluded in the form of being ignored tend to conspicuously consume in order to regain their power and gain attention and be noticed by others. On the other hand, when individuals are socially excluded in the form of being rejected, they seek to reconnect with society and increase their prosocial behaviour.

3.2.2. *Internal Motivators*

Materialism

In recent consumer research materialism is conceptualized as a set of values and beliefs held by consumers who consider the accumulation of wealth as a primary source of happiness and view it as a signal of one's success in life (Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; Richins & Dawson, 1992). These values and beliefs in turn influence individuals' (choice) behavior in diverse contexts (Richins & Dawson, 1992), often in a negative way. For instance, materialism has been related to a short-sighted consumption pattern, including overspending and debt (Richins, 2011; Watson, 2003), compulsive buying behavior (Dittmar, 2005) and conspicuous consumption behavior (Richins, 1994a; Wong, 1997). Different studies have connected materialism with insecurity and consequently individuals may seek material possessions to regain their sense of security (Chang & Arkin, 2002). Compared to low materialistic individuals, high materialistic individuals



tend to purchase conspicuous products to receive admiration and envy from others (Richins, 1994a; Wong, 1997).

Spiritual Belief

Religion has been a very important social force and has often been opposed to the desire of possessing and displaying wealth (Stillman et al., 2012). In Eastern and Western religions, the pursuit of spirituality is regarded as conflicting with the acquisition of material possessions (Landis, 1957). Moreover, the most well known spiritual leaders such as Jesus, Buddha, Thoreau, and Gandhi have been against conspicuous consumerism (McKibben, 1998). Researchers argue that intrinsically religious people are less likely to view money as a means of attaining power and prestige (Watson et al., 2004). Similarly, Stillman et al. (2012) found that higher levels of spirituality lead to a decreased desire to conspicuously consume material goods.

Pride

According to Tracy and Robins (2007) there are two facets of pride: authentic pride and hubristic pride. Authentic pride is linked to the prosocial, achievement-oriented facet of the emotion while hubristic pride is related to the more anti-social, aggressive and narcissistic facet of pride. A recent study in consumer psychology proposes that authentic pride (but not hubristic pride) leads to an increased desire for conspicuous luxury products (McFerran, Aquino, & Tracy, 2014). However, once individuals acquire the conspicuous products they no longer experience authentic pride but hubristic pride that is associated with arrogance and snobbishness. This interesting effect is reflected only to people who are low in narcissism.



3.2.3. *Evolutionary Psychology: Costly Signalling Theory*

Conspicuous consumption has received particular empirical attention within the framework of costly signalling theory (Zahavi, 1975). Within this framework, luxury goods serve as “honest” signals of an individual’s social and economic status. Costly signalling theory is related to wasteful displays in both animals and humans that could work as reliable signals of desirable qualities (Zahavi & Zahavi, 1997). These signals reveal information about underlying qualities of the signaling individuals. This is also known as the *handicap principle*. The most common example of a costly signal is the peacock’s tail that functions as a signal of mate value (Miller, 2009) and attracts the most peahens. Accordingly, luxury and conspicuous products act as signals of wealth and status and produce several benefits (Nelissen & Meijers, 2011). In order for conspicuous consumption to qualify as a costly signal there is four criteria that have to be met (Nelissen & Meijers, 2011): the signal has to be easily observable, hard to fake, must be related to a desirable quality and produce a fitness benefit.

According to an emerging body of research, conspicuous consumption serves as a mating signal (Miller, 2009; Saad, 2007; Roney, 2003; Griskevicius et al., 2007, Sundie et al., 2010) because it enhances men’s attractiveness to the opposite sex (Andersson, 1994; Darwin, 1871; Thornhill & Gangestad, 2008). That is because women desire more economic strength when selecting a potential mate while men emphasize more on physical attractiveness when selecting a woman as a potential mate (Li et al., 2002).

Another stream of research has shown that intrasexual competition increases conspicuous consumption (Wang & Griskevicius, 2014; Hudders et al., 2014; Hennighausen et al., 2016). More specifically, women seek luxury products during same-sex competition as



conspicuous products improve their advantages over same-sex rivals for mates (Hudders et al., 2014). Additionally, Wang and Griskevicius (2014) reveal that women engage in conspicuous consumption in order to deter female rivals and show that their partner is devoted to them. Another recent study suggests that women near ovulation seek positional goods to improve their social standing compared with other women but not men (Durante, Griskevicius, Cantu, & Simpson, 2014). Lens, Driesmans, Pandelaere, and Janssens (2012) show that fertile women conspicuously consume due to increased competition for mates. Similarly, men have higher intention to purchase conspicuous products in order to increase social status especially in an intrasexual competition context (Hennighausen et al., 2016).

3.2.4. Consequences of Conspicuous Consumption

Nelissen and Meijers (2011) prove that there are beneficial consequences of conspicuous consumption and that consumers of luxury products have favourable treatment in their social interactions. In particular, individuals wearing brand label clothes were perceived as having more wealth and status, others showed more compliance compared to individuals wearing no-label clothes and earned more money for charity donations. Another study revealed that people had submissive behaviour when confronted a person who displayed a luxury item (Fennis, 2008). In addition, Ferrano, Kirmani, and Matherly (2013) argued that individuals have more negative attitudes towards a person who conspicuously consume to impress others than towards a person who uses luxury brands for dispositional reasons.



In a mating context, women perceive men who conspicuously consume as being interested in short-term mating (Sundie et al., 2010) whereas in an intrasexual competition context, male participants rated a man who display a conspicuous car more as a rival and mate poacher, less friendly and superior on several mate value characteristics such as attractiveness, intelligence etc. (Hennighausen et al., 2016). Finally, women who consume luxury products are perceived as more attractive, flirty, young, ambitious, sexy, less loyal, mature and smart by other women (Hudders et al., 2014).

3.3. The Evolutionary Approach as a framework to study consumption of Counterfeit luxury brands

The purpose of this thesis is to explain consumer preferences for fake luxury items drawing on evolutionary psychology. Evolutionary psychology has been shown to provide a valid and convincing framework when studying consumer behavior in general (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013; Saad, 2013) and consumer preferences in particular (Saad, 2007; Meert, Pandelaere, & Patrick, 2014; Janssens et al., 2011). We propose that consumption of counterfeit luxury brands is linked to status seeking and mate acquisition motives and serves as a deceptive status signal in an intrasexual and/or an intersexual context. It is demonstrated that eliciting motives to compete for status with same sex rivals leads consumers to knowingly choose counterfeit luxury items instead of equally price, low-status brands. Interestingly, consumers have higher intention to purchase counterfeit luxury items that use less explicit brand identification. Moreover, it is shown



that there is an empirical link between mating motives and the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands that differs in a sex-specific manner.

Drawing on deceptive signalling and the theory of sexual selection (Darwin, 1871), the current thesis investigates the precise nature of this system by examining both the display and the perception sides of the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first empirical study that deals with the consumption of fake luxury items as a common deceptive strategy within an evolutionary framework.

3.3.1. Evolutionary Roots of Preferences for Counterfeit Luxury Items

Evolutionary psychology suggests that human preferences for luxury items relate to costly signalling, in that ownership of luxury brands signals desirable traits to others (Griskevicius et al., 2007; Miller, 2009; Nelissen & Meijers, 2011; Saad, 2007, 2011; Saad & Vongas, 2009; Sundie et al., 2011). According to costly signalling theory, signals communicate underlying characteristics of an organism that are not easily perceivable and are linked to fitness-relevant qualities. The consumption of luxury brands may function as a costly signal of an individual's fitness value. It is a signal that reveals quality by wasting resources (Miller, 1999). Individuals may use luxury brands to flaunt or emphasize their physical attractiveness, intelligence, aggressiveness, social status, and other capacities to gather resources, thereby enhancing their reproductive success (Miller, 2000; Sundie et al., 2011).

Many consumers however cannot afford or are not willing to pay for authentic status-conferring goods. Some of them use fake luxury brands as a substitute for the real thing.

If this strategy remains undetected by observers, fake products allow their owner to free



ride on the status benefits tied to authentic items without incurring the whole cost (Grossman & Shapiro, 1988; Van Kempen, 2003). The process of sending false status signals is called *deceptive status signalling*.

Deceit occurs when the signaller's fitness increases at the cost of the receiver's fitness (McFarland, 2006). Deceptive signalling can emerge when it is less costly to send a deceptive signal than a truthful signal (Grafen, 1990). The signaller is able to select what information is transmitted, and so the signaller will elect only to emit signals that will induce a desirable behaviour from the receiver (Wiley, 1983). According to a recent study (Lu & Chang, 2014), low-status individuals are more motivated to deceive, whereas high-status individuals are more motivated to detect deception because high-status individuals have more means to acquire resources less accessible to low-status individuals.

Several species engage in various forms of deceptive signalling (Saad, 2011). In some instances, the deceptive signal has evolved for the purposes of survival and in other instances for the purposes of gaining an advantage in the mating game. For example, consumers may purchase sham luxury items (e.g., counterfeit Rolex watches) to fake social status, income and occupational achievements (Saad, 2011). Fake luxury items are often purchased for public consumption in situations with clear evolutionary-significant themes, such as impressing a member of the opposite sex or a potential client, or shadowing the consumption behaviours of members of aspirational groups. It has been suggested that deceptive status signalling is what causes some people to fill their grocery carts with extremely expensive items and then abandon the cart quietly (Van Kempen, 2003). It has been shown that a market segment in developing countries may use



deceptive status signalling strategies to keep up with the Joneses of developed countries (Bekir, El Harbi, & Grolleau, 2011).

It is conceivable that authentic luxury products are not necessarily proof of status and wealth. It could be argued that deceptive status signalling may also involve consumption of original luxury items by individuals who lack the implied wealth and economic resources. These individuals may use credit or make enormous sacrifices to buy luxury items. Unfortunately, this may also apply to impoverished people who cannot afford expensive brands (Frank, 1985a; Van Kempen, 2004; Christen & Morgan, 2005; Drèze & Nunes, 2009).

3.4. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter was the second part of the literature review and examined the immediate field of the thesis. It began by presenting conspicuous consumption and its internal and external motivators. Then, it reviewed costly signalling theory as a perspective to study conspicuous consumption and the consequences of conspicuous consumption. The chapter ended with the evolutionary approach as a framework to study consumption of counterfeit luxury brands and the evolutionary roots of preferences for counterfeit luxury items.

The hypotheses of the thesis have been derived from this chapter and are introduced on the next chapter 4. Chapter 4 presents the three experimental studies of the thesis and contains details about each study's hypotheses.



CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Table 5: Chapter 4 Outline

Statement of the Problem	<p align="center">Chapter 1 Introduction</p> <p>Topic of the Research –Statement of the Research Problem – Overview of the Methodology - Overview of the Chapters</p>
Literature Review	<p align="center">Chapter 2 Literature Part 1 (parent field of research)</p> <p>Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands – Evolutionary Psychology</p>
	<p align="center">Chapter 3 Literature Part 2 (immediate fields of research)</p> <p>Conspicuous Consumption - Evolutionary Psychology as a framework to study consumption of Counterfeit luxury brands</p>
Research Hypotheses	<p align="center">Chapter 4 Research Hypotheses</p> <p>Study 1: Hypotheses 1,2,3,4 – Study 2: Hypotheses 5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12– Study 3: Hypotheses 13,14,15,16</p>
Empirical Studies	<p align="center">Chapter 5 Methodology and Analysis of Results</p> <p>Study 1 – Study 2 – Study 3</p>
General Discussion	<p align="center">Chapter 6 General Discussion</p> <p>Discussion of the Hypotheses – Conclusions from the Studies</p>
Contributions	<p align="center">Chapter 7 Contributions of the Thesis</p> <p>Theoretical and Managerial Contributions of the Thesis – Limitations – Recommendations for Future Research</p>



4. Research Hypotheses

4.1. Introduction

Chapter 4 presents the three experimental studies of the thesis. This chapter describes the conceptual framework which was directly drawn from the literature review chapters and lead to the formation of the hypotheses. The sixteen hypotheses across the three experimental studies are also presented in this chapter.

4.2. Study 1: Counterfeit luxury brands and Competition for Status

4.2.1. Sexual Selection and Resource Display

Whereas natural selection favours traits that enhance the ability to survive, accrue resources, or care for offspring, sexual selection favours the traits that enhance an individual's ability to attract mates. Biologists distinguish between two sexual selection processes: intersexual selection and intrasexual selection (Andersson, 1994). Intersexual selection occurs when individuals of one sex prefer to mate with opposite-sex individuals who possess specific traits while intrasexual selection occurs when members of one sex compete among themselves to attain relative status. While different traits evolve because they ultimately serve to enhance reproduction, each one has evolved for a different function and via different selection pressures (see Alcock, 2005; Griskevicius, Tybur, et al., 2009; Durante, Griskevicius, Hill, Perilloux, & Li, 2011).



As a group-living species, humans seek to gain status in their groups. High status individuals are viewed as more competent (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009) and have greater influence over group decision making (Berger, Cohen, & Zelditch, 1972) than others; and elicit greater conformity (Larsen, Triplett, Brant, & Langenberg, 1979), compliance (Faley & Tedeschi, 1971; Nelissen & Meijers, 2011), and honesty (Bickman, 1971) from others. A number of researchers have examined how intersexual choice (e.g., courtship) is linked to conspicuous consumption (Griskevicius et al., 2007; Sundie et al., 2011; Janssens et al., 2011; Miller, 2009). They suggest that displays of wealth represent an adaptive communication strategy aimed at obtaining reproductive rewards. In addition, the flaunting of status-linked products appears to have the desired effect especially on females since men who purchase luxury goods are perceived as more attractive, specifically as short-term partners. Griskevicius et al. (2012) explored men's resource display as a function of population sex ratio, showing that men living in male-biased U.S. cities carry a greater number of credit cards and more debt than men living in relatively sex-balanced or female-biased cities. Because status for men is linked to reproductive success, it can be costly for them *not* to engage in competitive behaviour (Daly & Wilson, 1988). Lycett and Dunbar (2000) demonstrated the role of conspicuous consumption in the intrasexual competition over females. In their study, males were more inclined to conspicuously display their mobile phones as the composition of their group became more male-biased.

Relatively little research has explored women's motives for conspicuous display of resources and possible effects of women's sexual strategies on their consumption choices. Unlike for men, whose luxury goods often serve as signals to potential mates, the



functions of conspicuous consumption differ in a sex-specific manner. Women may be more envious than men of the status of same sex rivals (Saad & Gill, 2005). A recent study revealed that women's flaunting of luxury products functions as a signalling system directed at same-sex rivals who pose a threat to a woman's relationship (Wang & Griskevicius, 2014). Findings showed that activating a guarding motive triggered women to seek and display lavish possessions. Hudders, De Backer, Fisher and Vyncke (2014) revealed that an intrasexual competition context increases women's preferences for attractiveness enhancing but not for non-attractiveness related luxuries such as a smartphone. This finding indicates that women may use luxury consumption as a self-promotion strategy during within-sex competitions, as these luxuries improve their advantages against same sex rivals for mates. Drawing on evolutionary psychology, another study showed that women near ovulation seek positional goods to improve their social standing compared with other women but not compared with men (Durante et al., 2014). Consequently, both intersexual and intrasexual competition motives are clearly linked to reproduction and activating either motive might trigger a similar response (e.g., higher intention to purchase luxury goods).

One can argue that when prestigious goods are unattainable a status competition motive could lead consumers to purchase counterfeit products. Emerging research in evolutionary psychology suggests that activating motivational states related to status (e.g., Griskevicius et al., 2009) can elicit a cascade of perceptions, cognitions, and behaviours consistent with solving adaptive problems in this domain. Motivational states related to status are triggered by cues of dominance, prestige, or competition, such as



accomplishments, rivalries, or highly regarded products or people (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013).

One particular strategy for intrasexual competition is to rule out competitors (Benenson, 2009). Both men and women derogate competitors and try to increase their reputation by promoting positive attributes relative to those of rivals (Buss, 1988; Schmitt, 2002).

Recent studies show that self-promotion strategies (indirect aggression strategy) are more often used than competitor derogation, especially by women (Fisher, Cox, & Gordon, 2009). Study 1 examines whether counterfeit luxury brands may be used by men and women to send deceptive signals of wealth and status to their same-sex rivals and increase perception of status. We may therefore propose the following hypothesis:

H1: Activating a motive to compete for status triggers consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.

4.2.2. Status Competition and Counterfeit Luxury Brands in Public Vs. Private

Consumption alone does not secure the desired recognition. In fact, consumption has to be visible to lead to the intended inferences. Similarly, people tend to communicate identity in publicly visible domains (Belk, 1988; Berger & Heath, 2007). According to costly signalling theory, one of the key factors in how status motives should influence purchasing decisions is the extent to which the purchase is public versus private (Griskevicius et al., 2007). Moreover, costly signalling theory predicts that status motives should lead people to be especially sensitive to what their behaviours might signal to others when such behaviour is observable (e.g., Goldberg, 1995; Harbaugh, 1998;



Kurzban et al., 2007). It has been suggested that a status motive leads people to pay more for luxurious and prestigious goods (Rucker & Galinsky, 2008), which are to be displayed to others (Berger & Ward, 2010; Han et al., 2010).

It appears, in the light of the preceding discussion, that the most effective deceptive status signals should be counterfeit luxury possessions that are both very good copies of expensive brands and publicly visible. For example, a fake copy of a luxurious bath towel or a fake copy of a luxurious home electronic device has limited signalling value when it is not visible to the targeted receiver.

It is conceivable that status competition motives may influence consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands (versus low status brands) that are generally used in public (versus private). Therefore in Study 1, it is hypothesized that:

H2: For publicly consumed products, status competition motives increase consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands whereas for privately consumed products, status competition motives do not produce the same outcome.

4.2.3. Status Competition, Counterfeit Luxury Brands and Brand signal explicitness

Products differ in the explicitness of their branding: some products scream the brand name or proclaim their makers through loud patterns, while others are more discreet. Manufacturers can produce a product with loud and conspicuous branding or tone it down to quiet and discreet branding to appeal to different types of consumers. Explicit



markers should be more effective signals to the general public since more obvious brand names and logos should be easier for the majority of observers to see and identify (Berger & Ward, 2010). For example, consumers may want others to know if they bought a Burberry shirt, but they might not want to broadcast it if they bought a cheaper item from ZARA.

A recent study reveals that the handbags counterfeiters choose to copy are the loud ones (i.e., their product line is driven by brand prominence) because they are what “poseurs” demand (Han et al., 2010). On the other hand, Chen et al. (2015) demonstrate that if consumers anticipate that they will regret purchasing a counterfeit product should other consumers discover the product is counterfeit, they will prefer to purchase a non-conspicuous counterfeit (one without a logo) over a conspicuous counterfeit (one with a logo).

Because of the status signalling value of counterfeit luxury brands, the counterfeit market should, in principle, consist primarily of the louder and lower-priced copies rather than the subtler and pricier copies. However, the demand of consumers for counterfeit luxury brands with less explicit branding has been increasing in recent years. This trend could be due to the fact that some of the world’s largest luxury brands such as Louis Vuitton and Gucci, have shifted their focus away from the very trademarks on which their success has been built. For example, Bottega Veneta’s explicit “no logo” strategy (bags have the brand badge on the inside) makes the purse unrecognizable to the casual observer while Hermes’ inconspicuous products have made the company the world’s most valuable luxury brand. Christian Louboutin makes some of the most covetable luxury designer shoes in the world. These pricey shoes start at around \$600 and their signature is their



trademarked red sole. Although they are not explicitly marked, they have been massively copied by many online and offline retailers.

But why should consumers choose counterfeit luxury brands that are presumably less effective signals?

Consumers who have access to prestigious subtle brands send a robust variety of cultural signals throughout the marketplace that turn them into models of aspiration.

Consequently, they become targets of “infocopying” (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001), whereby consumers of different status desire to copy their buying behaviour, even when they lack the requisite purchasing power. Consumers with more cultural capital (Berger & Ward, 2010) who possess significant wealth and pay a premium for inconspicuously branded products become targets of “infocopying” and consumers who lack the requisite purchase power try to imitate them via the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands with subtle branding. In line with the mechanism of social learning, “infocopiers” have evolved to do all sorts of things that their models of aspiration were already adapted to like. Thus we may state the following hypothesis:

H3: Purchase intention is greater for counterfeit luxury products with subtle branding than for the same counterfeit luxury products with explicit branding.

It is not expected that brand signal explicitness influences intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low status brands when status competition motives are salient. More specifically, explicit signals are very effective since more obvious brand names and logos are easier for the majority of observers to see and identify and subtle



signals are also very effective for those who desire to copy their models of aspiration (e.g., wealthy individuals or celebrities with more cultural capital who prefer “dog-whistle” fashion that only a selected group of people can understand) and distinguish themselves from the mainstream (Berger & Ward, 2010).

It has been suggested that the preference for larger sizes has roots in the status-signalling value of larger options (Dubois, Rucker, & Galinsky, 2012). This view is also consistent with the notion that larger sizes are equated with higher rank and dominance among primates (Rivers & Josephs, 2010).

Henrich and Gil-White (2001) proposed that there are two distinct paths to social rank attainment in human societies: Dominance and Prestige. Dominance refers to the induction of fear, through intimidation and coercion, to attain social rank whereas prestige refers to social rank that is granted to individuals who are recognized and respected for their skills, success, or knowledge. Research in social psychology shows that men desire power more than women and prefer to attain hierarchical superiority based on dominance, whereas women desire status more than men and prefer positions based on prestige (Hays, 2013). Since men prefer to attain hierarchical superiority based on dominance and dominance is related to larger sizes (Rivers & Josephs, 2010), we expect that men should have higher intention to purchase products with explicit branding and larger logo sizes to increase perception of dominance-based status. Thus, we may state the following hypothesis:

H4: Purchase intention for counterfeit luxury products with explicit branding is higher in men than in women.



4.3. Study 2: How do other people view consumers of counterfeit luxury products?

The primary purpose of Study 2 is to consider how consumers of fake luxury products are viewed by other people who know or can infer the truth about the product quality.

Consumers may purchase luxury brands to gain status in their groups. Status is strongly influenced by economic power and ownership of costly material possessions provides some evidence of the latter (Gilbert, 1998). Therefore, consumption of original luxury brands is expected to increase perceptions of status relative to both counterfeit luxury brands and low-status brands (Frank, 1999; Veblen, 1899). On the other hand, low-status brands cost about the same as fake luxury brands and we do not expect a difference in perceptions of status and wealth between these two brand type choices. Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses:

H5: An original luxury brand increases perception of status relative to both (a) a counterfeit luxury brand and (b) a low-status brand.

H6: There is no difference in perception of status between a counterfeit luxury brand and a low-status brand.

The consumption of counterfeit versions of prestigious brands is perhaps the most frequently used deceptive status signaling strategy (Van Kempen, 2003). This strategy is far less costly than status signaling involving authentic luxury items. It is reasonable to



postulate that consumers who own counterfeit luxury brands will be perceived as having higher intention to deceive about their status and economic resources. In addition, low-status brands not only are affordable but also lack any status signaling value compared to authentic luxury brands. As noted above, genuine luxury items are not necessarily proof of status and wealth (Frank, 1985a; Van Kempen, 2004; Christen & Morgan, 2005; Drèze & Nunes, 2009). . Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses:

H7: A counterfeit luxury brand increases perception of deceiving status relative to both (a) an original luxury brand and (b) a low-status brand.

H8: An original luxury brand increases perception of deceiving status relative to consumption of a low-status brand.

As a group-living species, humans invest heavily in building and maintaining relationships (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Forming and maintaining relationships have survival benefits through resource sharing and mutual protection (Buss, 1990). Affiliating with high status individuals avails oneself of the positive externalities (i.e., properties of one individual that are incidentally beneficial to another Tooby & Cosmides, 1996), which result from high-status individuals having greater control over their physical and social environments (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). Moreover, affiliating with high-status individuals provides opportunities to “infocopy” (Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). Infocopiers may unconsciously acquire mannerisms, consciously acquire verbal knowledge and arguments, and consciously or unconsciously imitate action patterns.



Nelissen and Meijers (2011) showed that people are more compliant and generous to people who display luxury and are even willing to pay a cost to affiliate with them. Thus, based on the notion that original luxury brands serve as costly signals of wealth and status (Nelissen & Meijers, 2011), we expect that participants will be more motivated to affiliate with consumers who own original luxury brands than fakes or low status brands due to positive externalities and opportunities to “infocopy” skillful and prestigious individuals. Therefore, we propose that:

H9: Participants will be more motivated to affiliate with consumers who own an original luxury brand than (a) a counterfeit luxury brand or (b) a low-status brand.

In general, deceptive behavior has negative consequences for friendships and relationships. Relationship satisfaction, trust and commitment can decrease with deception (Cole, 2001). Therefore, we expect that participants will be more motivated to affiliate with consumers who own low-status brands than counterfeit luxury brands since the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands is seen as a deceptive strategy. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H10: Participants will be more strongly motivated to affiliate with consumers who own a low-status brand than a counterfeit luxury brand.

We also address the question as to whether the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands influences the signaler’s desirability as a mate relative to both original luxury brands and



low status brands. It has been suggested that women across cultures place a high value on wealth and resources in a mate, particularly when evaluating a man as a long-term partner (Baumeister & Vohs, 2004; Li, Bailey, Kenrick, & Linsenmeier, 2002; Shackelford, Schmitt & Buss, 2005). Sundie et al. (2011) found that a physically attractive, successful man who chose to purchase a luxury product was more desirable to women as a short-term partner than the same man portrayed as instead having chosen to purchase a non-luxury product. Moreover, men may falsely present themselves as embodying the desires a woman holds, such as possessing resources or occupying a position of high status (see e.g., Tooke & Camire, 1991). According to Strategic Interference Theory, women express greater upset than men about being deceived about a partner's status and economic resources (Haselton, Buss, Oubaid & Angleitner, 2005). As counterfeit luxury brands appear to be used in mating mainly by men, we predict that the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands would decrease men's desirability as both short-term and long-term mates relative to both original luxury brands and low-status brands. We also predict that the consumption of authentic luxury brands would enhance men's desirability as short-term mates but not necessarily as long-term mates relative to low-status brands since conspicuous consumption is used as a signal mostly in short-term mating contexts (Sundie et al., 2011). It should be noted that health and fertility cues are more highly valued than status or resource cues by men in mate choice (Buss, 1989) and thus we do not expect conspicuous consumption to affect women's desirability as either a short-term or a long-term partner. Therefore, we propose that:



H11: Consumption of a counterfeit luxury brand will decrease men's desirability as both short-term and long-term mates relative to both (a) an original luxury brand and (b) a low-status brand.

H12: The consumption of an original luxury brand will enhance men's desirability as short-term mates but not necessarily as long-term mates relative to a low-status brand.

Furthermore, because conspicuous consumption is driven by men who are following a lower investment (vs. higher investment) mating strategy (Sundie et al., 2011; Griskevicius et al., 2007), we predict that women should perceive men who engage in consumption of original luxury brands or counterfeit luxury brands as more inclined to follow an unrestricted (short-term) mating strategy relative to low-status brands. On the other hand, we do not expect perceptions among men of a woman's sexual strategy to be influenced by whether the woman engages in the consumption of luxury brands – original or counterfeit – or low status brands since it has been found that women's conspicuous consumption does not function as mating signal directed at men (Sundie et al., 2011; Griskevicius et al., 2007).

4.4. Study 3: Counterfeit Luxury Brands and Mating Goals

The goal of Study 3 is to examine how the activation of mating motives influences men's and women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low status brands. Mating motives were elicited using an established priming methodology whereby people



shown targets that subliminally activate (a) intrasexual competition or (b) intersexual courtship goals.

Sexual selection (Darwin, 1871) creates adaptations that are the result of successful mating. Intrasexual selection refers to the competition between members of the same sex to gain access to members of the opposite sex. Men often succeed in intrasexual competition by showing off underlying mate qualities that are hard to fake (Zahavi, 1975) such as facial hair (Dixson & Brooks, 2013; Neave & Shields, 2008), voice pitch (Puts, Hodges, Cardenas, & Gaulin, 2007), body shape (Coy, Green, & Price, 2014), and specific consumption practices (Saad, 2007). A recent study revealed that men use conspicuous luxury products in male-male competition with the goal to impress and deter rivals (Hennighausen et al., 2016). Another research conducted by Lycett and Dunbar (2000) that observed men in bars suggested that these men were more likely to conspicuously display their mobile phones with an increasing male-to-female ratio. They interpreted the men's conspicuous display of their mobile phones as a signal of financial wealth and status which may be used to impress potential rivals and to distinguish from them. Similarly, another study indicated that men's testosterone levels rose when they were exposed to other men who flaunted luxury items (e.g., pen and watch) and when being in the presence of a female confederate (Saad & Vongas, 2009). These results propose that male luxury spending could have evolved in intrasexual mating competition processes.

On the other hand, women in an intrasexual competition context appear to have a higher preference for luxuries as compared to women in a non competitive context, but only when these luxuries can promote a woman's attractiveness (Hudders et al., 2014).



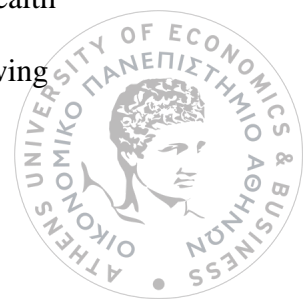
Moreover, Wang and Griskevicius (2014) showed that flaunting designer handbags and shoes was effective at deterring from poaching a relationship partner. Similar results were obtained in a study by Zhao, Jin, Xu, Zuo, & Cui (2017) who found that women believe conspicuous products can maximize their attractiveness and signal their partner's loyalty, thereby facilitating mate attraction or mate guarding, respectively. Consequently, female intrasexual competition in a mate attraction and mate guarding context triggers women spending on luxuries.

When luxury goods are unattainable, priming male and female consumers with mate competition cues would increase their intention to purchase counterfeit luxury products. We may therefore propose the following hypotheses:

H13: Activating mate competition motives triggers men's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.

H14: Activating mate competition motives triggers women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.

Intersexual selection concerns the actual mate choice and when humans are motivated to attract romantic partners, they engage in displays linked to intersexual selection. More specifically, several studies examining men's conspicuous consumption have found that men's displays of luxury goods serve as a "sexual signaling system" to attract romantic partners (Griskevicius et al., 2007; Sundie et al., 2011), especially for men with an unrestricted sociosexual orientation. Moreover, men primed with mating cues pay more attention to status goods (Janssens et al., 2011) and concentrate more on obtaining wealth after being physically near women (Roney, 2003). Research has also shown that viewing



attractive women causes men to become more economically impulsive (Wilson & Daly, 2004), as does simply touching a woman's brassiere (Van den Bergh et al., 2008). Consequently, luxury goods serve an important function in relationships for men by helping to attract romantic partners and enhance their reproductive fitness (Miller, 2009; Saad, 2007). In line with these findings, men who display conspicuous goods are perceived as more sexually attractive by women (Sundie et al., 2011).

On the other hand, researchers advocate that, given the relationship between resource display and mate attraction, men are more strongly motivated to conspicuously consume than women (Miller, 2009). According to the literature on sex difference in mate choice, women value wealth and status in a mate more than men do (Buss, 2003; Li et al., 2002). In the study of Griskevicius et al. (2007), inducing mating goals increased willingness to spend on conspicuous luxuries for men but not for women. Therefore, mating motivation did not lead women to conspicuously consume but to spend more on publicly helpful causes.

Consequently, when luxury and conspicuous goods are beyond their reach, priming male and female consumers with mate attraction cues would increase men's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury products but not women's. We may therefore propose the following hypotheses:

H15: Activating mate attraction motives triggers men's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.



H16: Activating mate attraction motives do not influence women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.

4.5. Summary of the Chapter

Chapter 4 motivated and stated our sixteen research hypotheses, which are subsequently tested in the three experimental studies. The following chapter considers the design, empirical analysis, results and implications of each experimental study.



CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Table 6: Chapter 5 Outline

Statement of the Problem	Chapter 1 Introduction Topic of the Research –Statement of the Research Problem – Overview of the Methodology - Overview of the Chapters
	Chapter 2 Literature Part 1 (parent field of research) Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands – Evolutionary Psychology
Literature Review	Chapter 3 Literature Part 2 (immediate fields of research) Conspicuous Consumption - Evolutionary Psychology as a framework to study consumption of Counterfeit luxury brands
	Chapter 4 Research Hypotheses Study 1: Hypotheses 1,2,3,4 – Study 2: Hypotheses 5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12– Study 3: Hypotheses 13,14,15,16
Research Hypotheses	
Empirical Studies	Chapter 5 Methodology and Analysis of Results Study 1 – Study 2 – Study 3
General Discussion	Chapter 6 General Discussion Discussion of the Hypotheses – Conclusions from the Studies
Contributions	Chapter 7 Contributions of the Thesis Theoretical and Managerial Contributions of the Thesis – Limitations – Recommendations for Future Research



5. Methodology and Analysis of Results

5.1. Introduction

In order to empirically test the sixteen hypotheses that were developed in the previous chapter, the present thesis uses three different laboratory experimental studies. Study 1 tests H1-H4. Study 2 addresses H5-H12. Study 3 tests H13-H16. The following sections present the design, the analysis, the results and the implications of each study separately.

5.2. Study 1: Counterfeit Luxury Brands and Competition for Status

The first study examined how activating a motive to compete for status with same sex rivals influences consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands versus low status brands. It also examined how status competition motives influenced consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands versus low status brands when consumption is public versus private. Finally, we examined consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands versus low status brands when the brand is explicitly versus subtly marked. More specifically, we tested the following hypotheses:

H1: Activating a motive to compete for status triggers consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.

H2: For publicly consumed products, status competition motives increase consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands whereas for privately consumed products, status competition motives do not produce the same outcome.



H3: Purchase intention is greater for counterfeit luxury products with subtle branding than for the same counterfeit luxury products with explicit branding.

H4: Purchase intention for counterfeit luxury products with explicit branding is higher in men than in women.

5.2.1. Method

Participants and design

A total of 161 undergraduate students (66 men and 95 women) participated in the study for partial course credit. The experiment was computer-based and run in small group sessions (7 participants). A 2(motive: status competition vs. control) x 2(product type: counterfeit luxury vs. original low status) x 2(brand signal explicitness: explicit vs. subtle) x 2(consumption situation: public vs. private) mixed-factorial design was used with motivational state as a between-subjects factor and product type, brand signal explicitness and consumption situation as within-subjects factors.

Procedure

At the beginning of the procedure, participants read a scenario intended to activate either a status competition or neutral (i.e., control) motivational state. Participants then indicated their intention to purchase a series of products between more luxurious counterfeits versus low-status products. To minimize potential suspicions, a cover story was used. Participants were told that they were going to participate in several different studies and that the first study is about memory. Participants then read a short story and were told that they would be asked to recall information about the story later in the



session. However, because it was important to let some time pass before the memory-recall task (ostensibly, to allow for memory decay), participants would work on another study.

After the motive manipulation, participants were asked to rate two sets of products: one set that is mainly used for public consumption (tablet cases) and a second set that is mainly used for private consumption (face towels). The other key independent variable was brand signal explicitness. Participants were asked to imagine that they were in the market to acquire a new tablet case and a new face towel. Subsequently, they considered four cases/towels, which were similar in style and price but differed in level of signal explicitness and whether others would perceive the product as being high or low status. Two tablet cases were from a large, low-cost retailer's website (H&M); they were described as nearly identical in appearance to prestigious tablet cases of Louis Vuitton, but they had the low-status retailer's brand (H&M) on the front. The other two cases were available from an Internet retailer that specializes in designer replicas, or knockoffs. They were described as nearly identical in appearance to prestigious tablet cases of Louis Vuitton and as displaying the prestige brand name on the front. For the target product set, we manipulated brand identification across the four options. Two of them used an explicit logo (e.g. visible H&M, Louis Vuitton logo), while the other two used a more subtle logo. We controlled for as many other differences as possible. The products were from the same brands, made of the same material, and photographed from the same angle. The price for the four tablet cases/face towels was the same. In the current experiment, the product set for public consumption and the product set for private consumption, as well as the four products of each product set, were presented in random order.



Manipulations

To manipulate participants' motivational state, participants read a short story of about 700 words that has been used successfully to elicit status competition motives in previous studies (see Griskevicius et al., 2009; Griskevicius, Tybur, & Van den Bergh, 2010).

Participants had to follow the same instructions: "Please read carefully the following story. As you read, try to imagine yourself in the scenario and try to feel the emotions and feelings that the person is experiencing". In the status competition story, participants were asked to imagine that they were graduating from college, looking for a job, and deciding to go work for a large company because it offers the greatest chance of moving up. The story described the person's first day on the job, focusing on the high-status features of the workplace such as the upscale lobby and nice furniture. Participants learnt that they would have an opportunity to receive a desirable promotion. The story ended as the reader pondered moving up in status relative to his or her same-sex peers. In the control condition, participants read a story of similar length designed to elicit similar levels of affect as the status competition story. Specifically, participants read about losing a ticket to an upcoming concert and searching for the ticket throughout the house. Finding the ticket, they head off to the concert with a same-sex peer (see Griskevicius, Cialdini, & Kenrick, 2006; Griskevicius, Goldstein, Mortensen, Cialdini, & Kenrick, 2006). The control and status competition stories were carefully matched to include interactions with same-sex peers.

To examine whether the stories elicited the intended feelings and motives, we asked participants to indicate their feelings against five relevant dimensions (9-point scales,



anchored by not at all/very much): To what extent (1a) “do you feel competitive”, (1b) “are you motivated to compete”, (2a) “do you desire to have higher social status”, (2b) “are you motivated to have higher prestige”, (2c) “are you motivated to have higher dominance”, (3a) “do you feel enthusiastic”, (3b) “do you feel excited”, and (4a) “do you feel frustrated”, (4b) “do you feel angry.”

To ensure that results would not be driven by some particular aspect used in the experimental manipulation, a second control condition was included, in which participants did not read any story. Instead, participants in this condition simply indicated their intention to purchase the products. We predicted that the two control conditions would not differ from each other on any of the dependent measures. Consistent with this prediction, analyses revealed that the two control conditions did not differ from each other on any of the dependent measures (all $p > .114$). The data from two control conditions were thus collapsed for the subsequent analyses.

5.2.2. Pretest

We pretested several brands with a separate, similar sample of 23 participants and selected two brands strongly associated with high conspicuousness and status (LOUIS VUITTON, GUCCI) and two brands weakly associated with status (H&M, ZARA). For each of the four brands, participants indicated on a 1-9 scale (a) their perception of the brands' conspicuousness and status, (b) their attitudes towards the brand and (c) brand familiarity. As expected, compared to H&M and ZARA, Louis Vuitton and Gucci were perceived as more conspicuous and associated with higher status ($M_s = 3.06$ vs. 8.16 , $p < .001$; $M_s = 3.28$ vs. 7.80 , $p < .001$) respectively. Each of the two pair of brands were



equally liked ($M_{LV} = 3.60$ vs. $M_{HM} = 4.14$, $p = .189$; $M_{GC} = 3.60$ vs. $M_{ZR} = 4.20$, $p = .144$) and equally familiar ($M_{LV} = 6.96$ vs. $M_{HM} = 7.49$, $p = .129$; $M_{GC} = 7.09$ vs. $M_{ZR} = 7.59$, $p = .112$) for the participants. Moreover, the level of brand signal explicitness was pretested among the four brands. For each brand, two options were presented to the participants – one with an explicit logo and one with a subtle logo. Our notion of brand signal explicitness was intended to capture how the different options varied in the extent to which they displayed the brand logo. To this end, participants indicated on a 1-9 scale “how prominently does this product display its logo?”, “to what extent would this product be recognizable as a Gucci (LV) product?” Therefore, we combined the ratings into a composite measure of brand signal explicitness ranging from “explicit” (1) to “subtle” (9). The analysis showed that the explicit logos are significantly more prominent than the subtle logos ($M_{LV_exp} = 5.52$ vs. $M_{LV_sub} = 7.93$, $p = .000$; $M_{HM_exp} = 5.33$ vs. $M_{HM_sub} = 8.37$, $p = .000$; $M_{GC_exp} = 5.33$ vs. $M_{GC_sub} = 7.74$, $p = .000$; $M_{ZR_exp} = 5.35$ vs. $M_{ZR_sub} = 8.15$, $p = .000$).

Dependent measure

The dependent measure in the study was purchase intention. Participants rated how likely it was that they would purchase each tablet case/face towel option (1=*Not at all likely* to 9=*Very likely*).

5.2.3. Results

Manipulation check

As seen in Table 7, the two stories elicited the intended feelings and motives. In particular, compared with the control, the competition story elicited a higher desire to



compete ($p<.001$) and a higher desire for status, prestige and dominance ($p<.001$). Both the control and competition story elicited similar levels of positive and negative arousal.

Table 7: Feelings and Motives Elicited by each Motive-Induction Prime

	Motive Condition			
	Competition		Control	
	M	SD	M	SD
Elicited Feeling				
Desire to compete	7.10	1.4563	4.13	2.2363
Desire for status	6.78	1.764	4.70	2.268
Desire for prestige	6.81	1.773	4.82	2.138
Desire for dominance	6.82	1.715	4.93	2.286
Positive arousal	7.0	1.44	6.9	1.70
Negative arousal	3.0	1.856	2.7	1.567

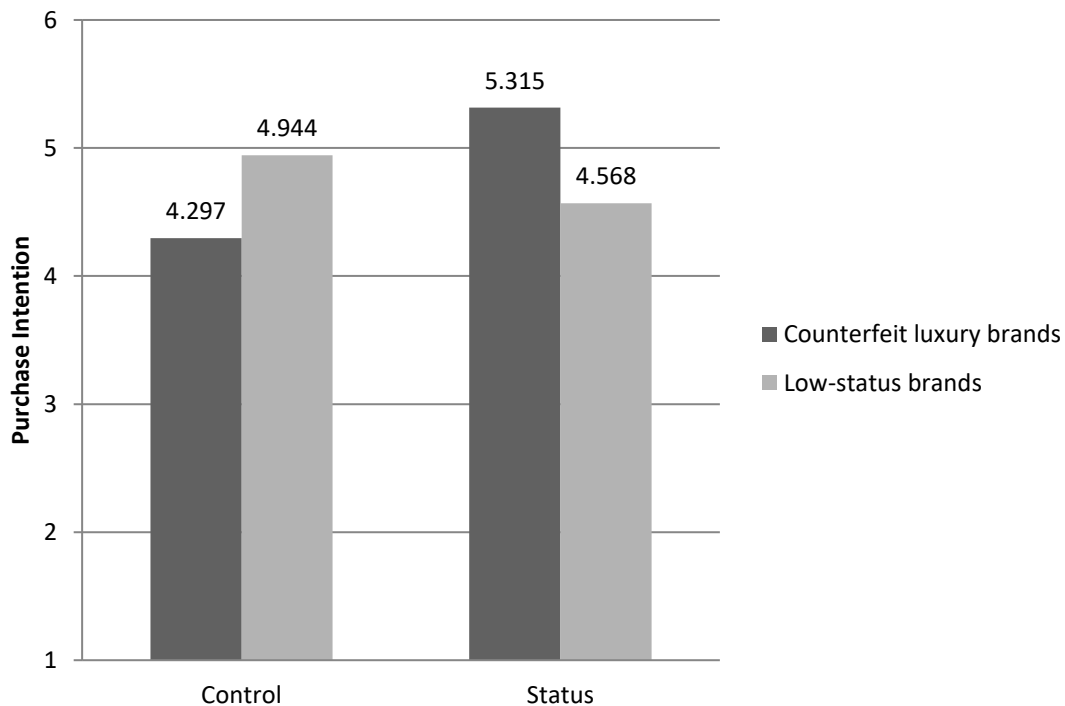
Note: Means are on a 1-9 scale, whereby higher numbers indicate a more intense state.



Intrasexual competition for status triggers intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands

A mixed factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) compared the effect of status competition manipulation (status competition vs. control) on purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands. The results showed a significant interaction between motive and product type ($F(1,159)=16.692, p<0.001, \eta^2=.095$). As depicted in Figure 6, the mean purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands and low-status brands differed significantly across the different motive conditions. Respondents in a competitive state had a significantly higher intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands ($M=5.32$) than respondents in the control ($M=4.3$) condition, in support of H1.

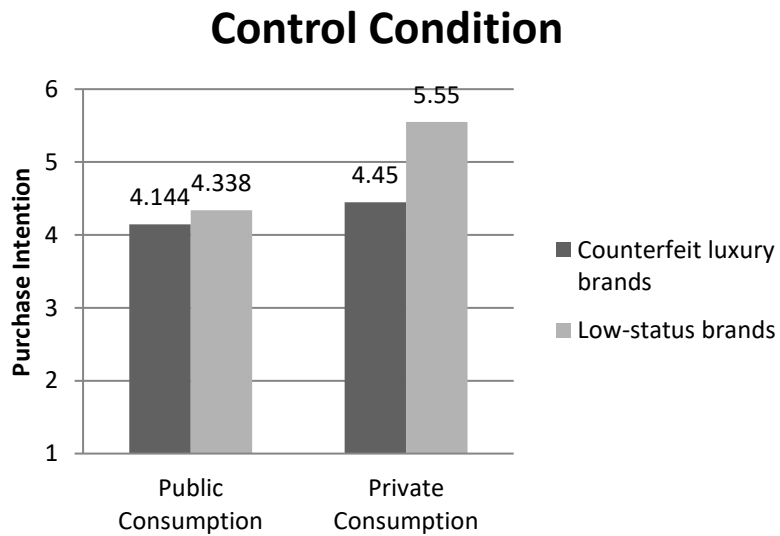
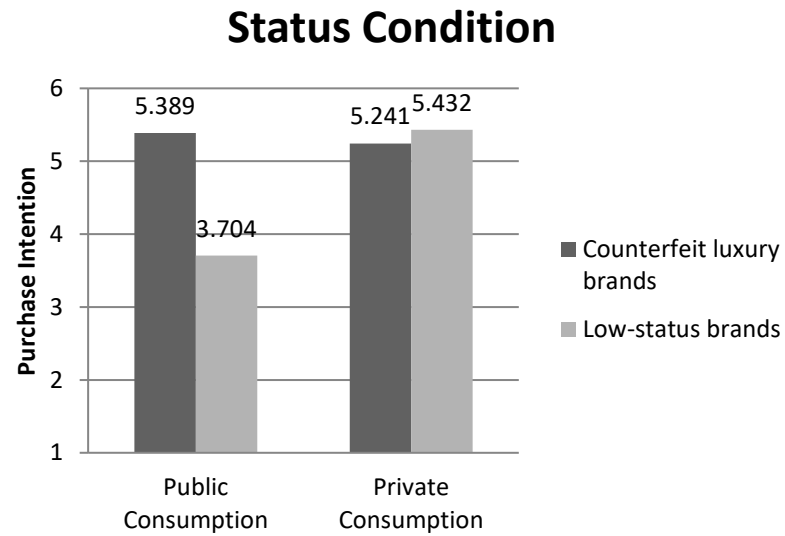
Figure 6: Purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands as a function of motive manipulation.



To examine if motives to compete for status had a different effect on purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands when participants were exposed to public or private consumption, a three-way mixed ANOVA with product type and consumption situation as within subjects factors was performed. This analysis revealed a significant three-way interaction ($F(1,159)=4.572, p<0.05, \eta^2=.028$). As predicted, for publicly consumed products, status competition motives increased purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands relative to the control condition, where purchase intention for low-status brands exceeded that of counterfeit luxury brands (see Figure 7), in support of H2. For privately consumed products, however, purchase intention for low-status brands vs. counterfeit luxury brands is higher regardless of motive manipulation. Thus, activating status competition with same sex rivals led participants to be more likely to purchase counterfeit luxury brands when consumption is public.



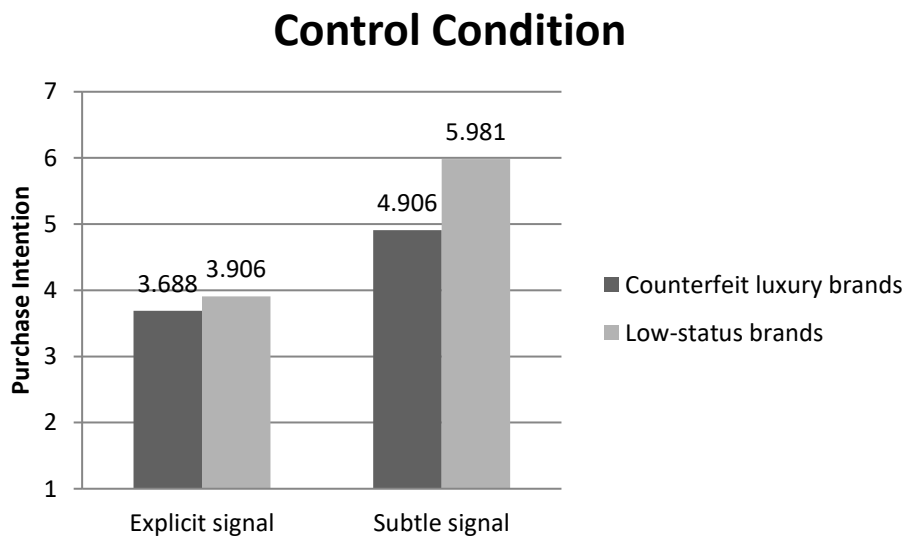
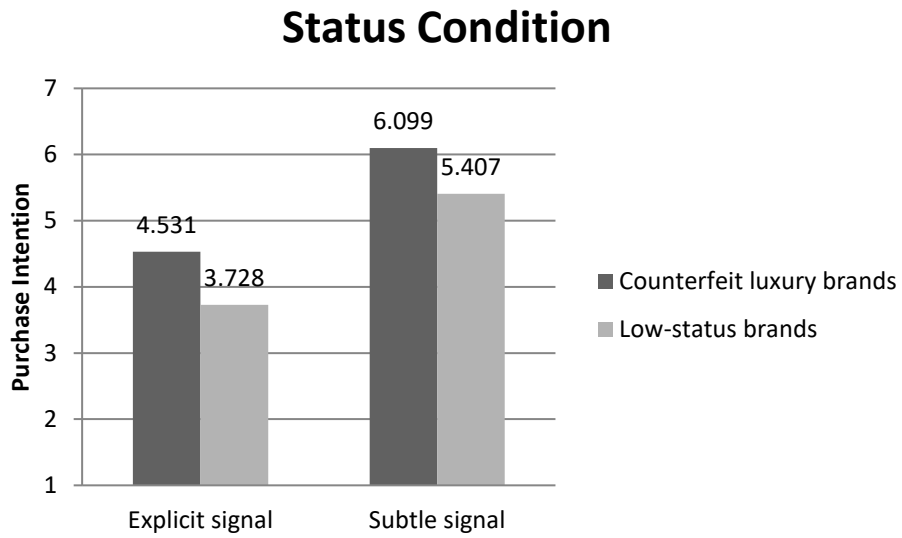
Figure 7: Purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands as a function of active motive and whether consumption is public vs. private.



Analyses revealed a significant three-way interaction with status competition motives, brand signal explicitness, and product type ($F(1,159)=6.21, p<0.05, \eta^2=.038$). More specifically, when participants were primed with status competition stimuli the purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands was higher regardless of brand signal explicitness level (see Figure 8). On the other hand, participants in the control condition had higher intention to purchase low-status brands than counterfeit luxury brands regardless of brand signal explicitness level.



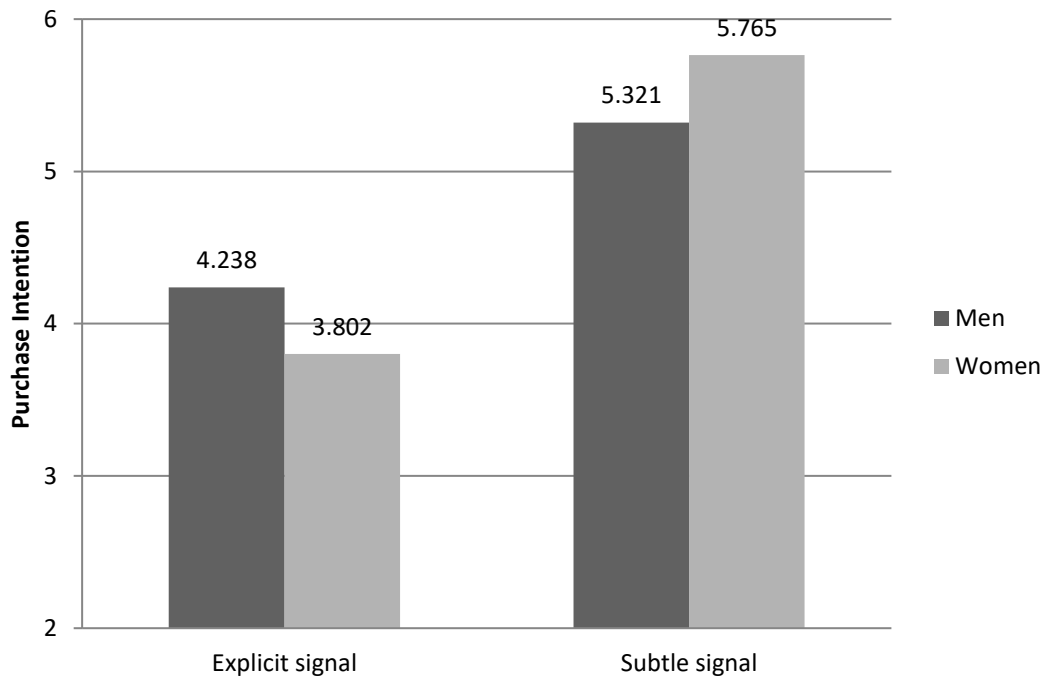
Figure 8: Purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands as a function of active motive and brand signal explicitness.



Moreover, the results showed a significant main effect of brand signal explicitness ($F(1,159)=138.35, p<0.001, \eta^2=.465$). Participants, irrespective of their motivational state, had stronger intention to purchase products with subtle ($M=5.6$) than with explicit signals ($M=3.96$), in support of H3.

Finally, as depicted in Figure 9, there was a significant interaction ($F(1,159)=9.94, p<0.01, \eta^2=.059$) between participants' sex and brand signal explicitness on purchase intention. This finding shows that male participants had higher intention to purchase explicit signals ($M=4.24$) than women did ($M=3.8$), confirming H4. Moreover, our analyses revealed that women ($M=5.77$), as opposed to men ($M=5.32$), had higher intention to purchase subtle signals.

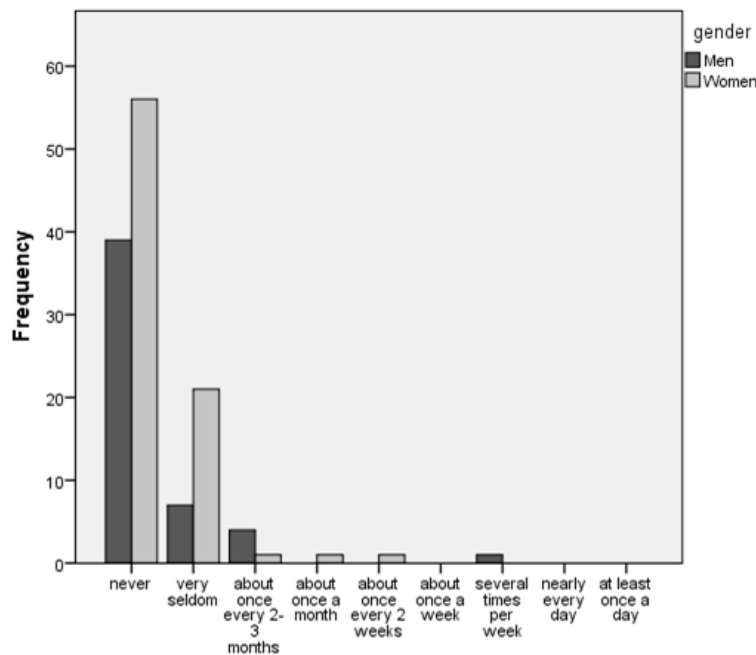
Figure 9: Purchase intention of explicit vs. subtle signals for men and women.



Counterfeit luxury brands consumption frequency

Figure 10 shows a breakdown of the frequency of the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands in men and women. A χ^2 cross-tabulation analysis of participant sex and consumption of counterfeit luxury brands frequency revealed that women reported consuming luxury counterfeits at a higher frequency than expected by chance, whereas men reported consuming luxury counterfeits at a lower frequency than expected by chance, $\chi^2(5)=8.856$, $N=161$, $p=.051$.

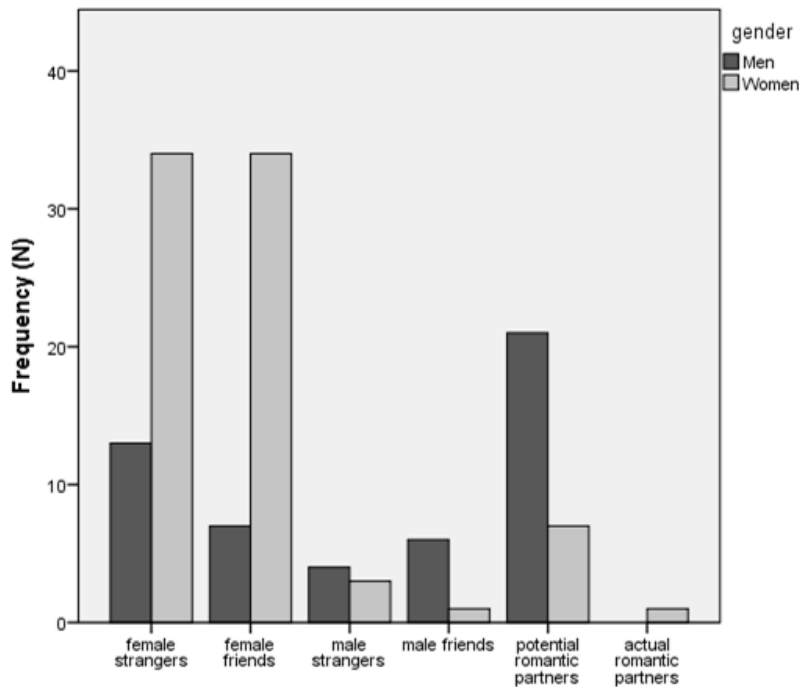
Figure 10: Counterfeit luxury brands consumption frequency.



Sex-specific targets of the Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands

A series of χ^2 cross-tabulation analyses was conducted to determine the types of people men and women most frequently target with their consumption of counterfeit luxury brands. As shown in Figure 11, targets of men's consumption differed significantly from targets of women's consumption, $\chi^2(5) = 34.131$, $N=161$, $p<0.001$.

Figure 11: Targets of Men and Women's consumption of Counterfeit luxury brands.



The same sequence of analyses was conducted to explore the sex men and women most frequently *notice* consuming counterfeit luxury brands. A χ^2 cross-tabulation analysis revealed that men and women differed with regard to whom they most frequently noticed consuming counterfeit luxury brands, $\chi^2(5) = 25.645$, $N=161$, $p<0.001$. Men noticed most frequently the opposite-sex whereas women noticed the same-sex most frequently.

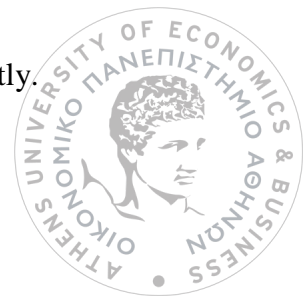
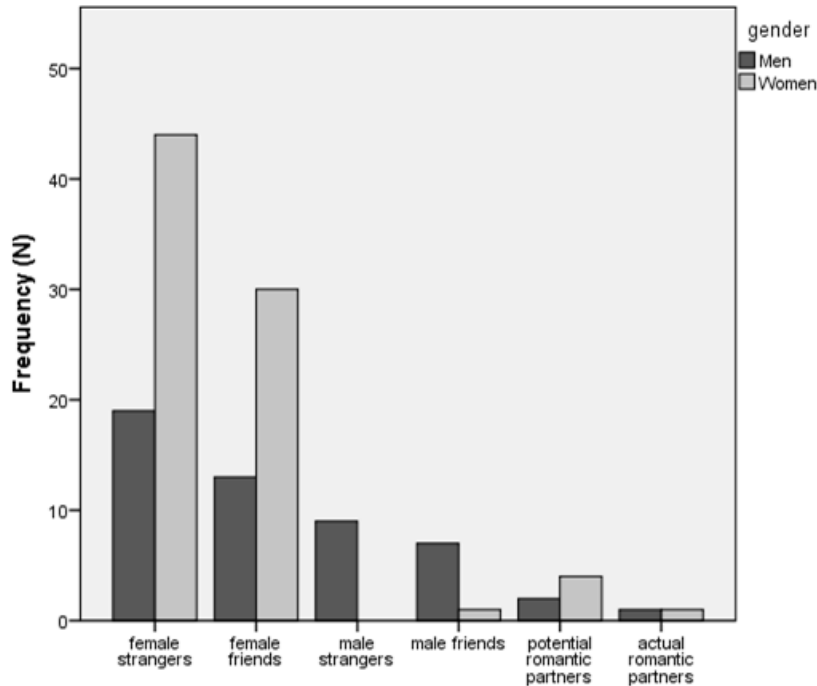
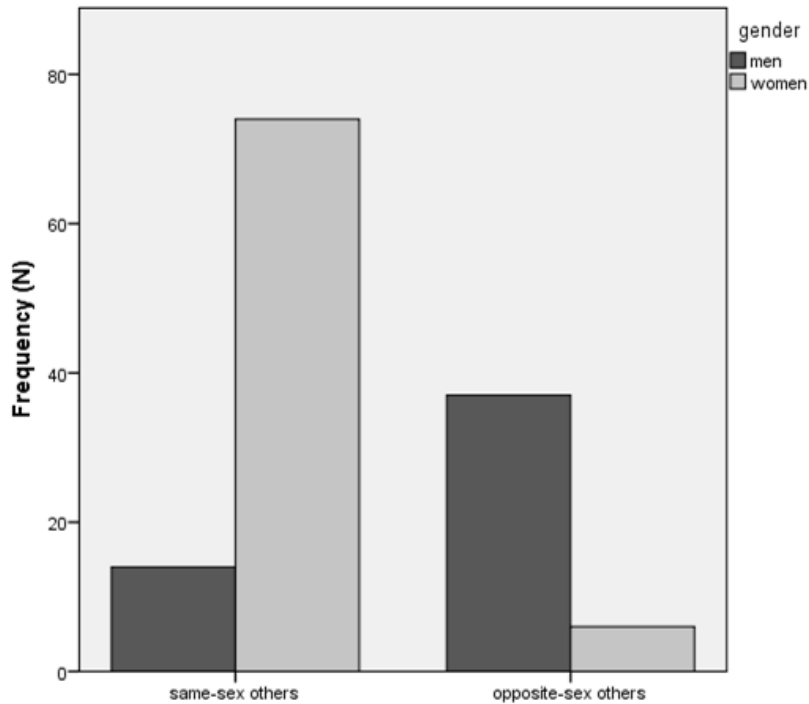


Figure 12: Who Men and Women most frequently notice consuming Counterfeit luxury brands.



To facilitate data interpretation, the six categories were then consolidated, distinguishing between same-sex others and opposite-sex others. Men most frequently noticed the opposite-sex whereas women noticed same-sex. Men and women differentially noticed same-sex and opposite-sex others consuming counterfeit luxury brands, $\chi^2(5) = 59.767$, $N=161$, $p<0.001$. Men noticed most frequently the opposite-sex whereas women noticed the same-sex most frequently.

Figure 13: Frequency of noticing Same-Sex vs. Opposite-Sex Others consuming Counterfeit luxury brands.



Finally, χ^2 cross-tabulation analyses were conducted within each sex to explore the moderating effect of participants' relationship status. Within both men, $\chi^2(1) = 0.167$, $p > 0.05$, and women, $\chi^2(1) = 3.143$, $p > 0.05$, single and mated participants did not differ in noticing same-sex and opposite-sex others consuming counterfeit luxury brands. As shown in Figure 14, single men noticed opposite-sex others consuming counterfeit luxury brands more frequently than same-sex others. Mated men, also, noticed opposite-sex others consuming more frequently than same-sex others. As shown in the Figure 15, single women noticed same-sex others consuming counterfeit luxury brands more frequently than opposite-sex others. Mated women, also, noticed same-sex others more frequently than opposite-sex others.

Figure 14: Frequency of noticing Same-Sex vs. Opposite-Sex Others consuming Counterfeit luxury brands in Single and Mated Men.

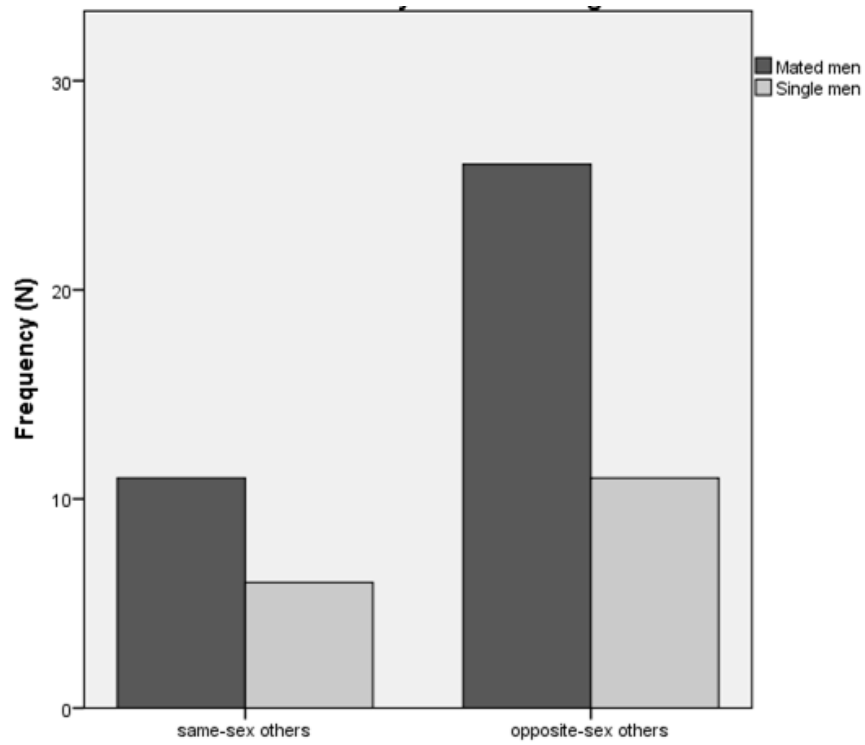
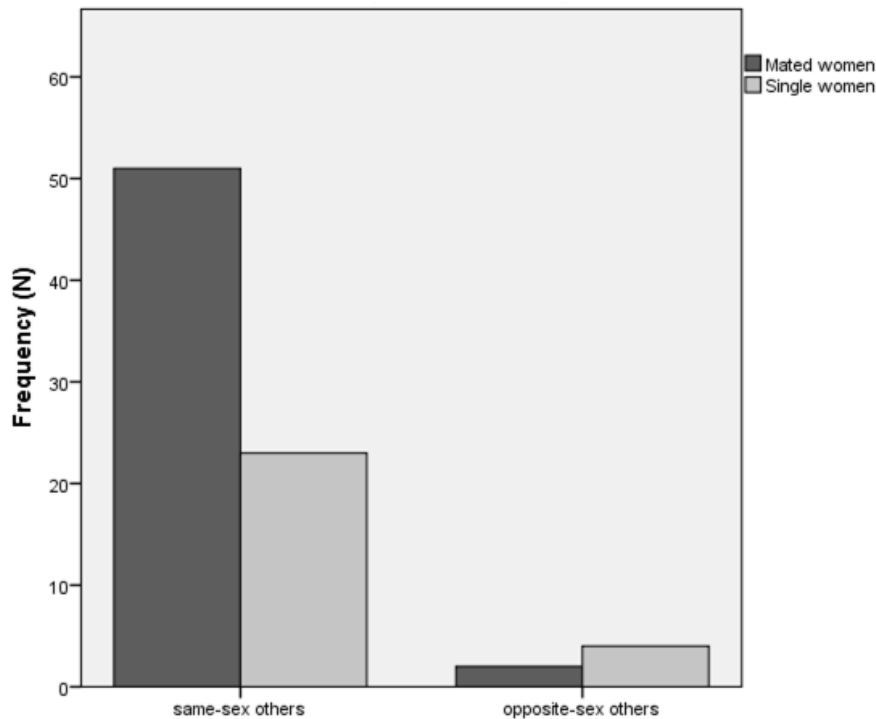


Figure 15: Frequency of noticing Same-Sex vs. Opposite-Sex Others consuming Counterfeit luxury brands in Single and Mated Women.



5.2.4. Discussion

The first experiment showed that a motive to compete for status with same sex rivals led consumers to increase their intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands. Consistent with our predictions, status competition motives increased consumer's tendencies to purchase a counterfeit luxury product when given the opportunity to purchase an equally priced, identical low-status product that lacks any status signalling value.

This study is the first to demonstrate that eliciting status competition motives with same sex rivals leads consumers to choose counterfeit luxury items instead of equally priced, original low-status brands. Moreover, status competition motives increase purchase

intention of counterfeit luxury brands specifically when consumption is public. When consumption is private, however, status competition motives do not produce the same outcome. Thus, in line, with costly signalling theory, it has been empirically demonstrated that status competition motives lead consumers to have higher intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands only when it is salient that their choices can be observed by others and influence their reputation. Additionally, the findings indicate that consumers prefer brands – counterfeit luxury or low status – that are subtly marked. This is consistent with the fact that most luxury and fashion brands are downsizing their logos. Subtle signals provide differentiation from the mainstream while explicit signals scream “look at me, I have money to spend” and could trigger an unconscious aversion. Finally, our results demonstrate that activating motives to compete for status with same sex rivals increase consumers’ attractiveness of counterfeit luxury brands over low status brands regardless of brand signal explicitness level (explicit vs. subtle). That is, merely, activating a desire for status can trigger the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands since they offer an important deceptive status-enhancing benefit.



5.3. Study 2: How do other people view consumers of counterfeit luxury products?

Study 1 indicated that the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands might have a signaling function for men and women relevant to status. Study 2 investigates observers' reactions to consumers who own luxury brands, original or counterfeit, or instead select low status brands that do not have a status-signaling value. Drawing on an evolutionary framework, it focuses on the complementary perception side (i.e. interpretation) of the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands.

Additionally, we consider two personality variables that play an essential role in influencing purchase intention of luxury brands but little is known about their role in consumption of counterfeit luxury brands, narcissism and materialism. In particular, it has been shown that narcissists are motivated to acquire luxurious brands that allow them to display their superiority and draw attention to themselves (Twenge & Campbell, 2009). Others have found that narcissists express their high self-regard through heightened materialism and an enhanced desire for expensive products (Kasser & Ryan, 1996; Rose, 2007). Moreover, materialistic consumers tend to consume more than other consumers, with a clear intention to consume products that generate social recognition or status for the owner (Mason, 2001). Therefore, an additional goal of this study is to examine how other people view consumers of counterfeit luxury brands in terms of materialism and narcissism. More specifically, Study 2 tested the following hypotheses:

H5: An original luxury brand increases perception of status relative to both (a) a counterfeit luxury brand and (b) a low-status brand.



H6: There is no difference in perception of status between a counterfeit luxury brand and a low-status brand.

H7: A counterfeit luxury brand increases perception of deceiving status relative to both (a) an original luxury brand and (b) a low-status brand.

H8: An original luxury brand increases perception of deceiving status relative to consumption of a low-status brand.

H9: Participants will be more motivated to affiliate with consumers who own an original luxury brand than (a) a counterfeit luxury brand or (b) a low-status brand.

H10: Participants will be more strongly motivated to affiliate with consumers who own a low-status brand than a counterfeit luxury brand.

H11: Consumption of a counterfeit luxury brand will decrease men's desirability as both short-term and long-term mates relative to both (a) an original luxury brand and (b) a low-status brand.

H12: The consumption of an original luxury brand will enhance men's desirability as short-term mates but not necessarily as long-term mates relative to a low-status brand.

5.3.1. Method

Participants and design

Participants were asked to evaluate a target individual who had recently purchased (a) a counterfeit luxury brand, or (b) an original luxury brand, or (c) a low-status brand. The study was fully cross-sexed such that male and female participants read the description of male and female target individuals. A total of 168 undergraduate students (60 men and



108 women) participated in the study for partial course credit. The experiment was computer-based and run in small group sessions (10 participants). The experiment used a 2(target sex: men/women) x 3(product type: original luxury brand vs. counterfeit luxury brand vs. low-status brand) between-subjects design. Participants evaluated target individuals' status, the extent to which the person wants to deceptively signal status, the target's desirability as a mate and the desire to affiliate with the target. Male and female participants evaluated male or female targets that had recently purchased either an original luxury brand or a counterfeit luxury brand or a low status brand.

Procedure

Participants were informed that they would be making evaluations of contemporary business people and then read a description of the same or opposite-sex person that has been successfully used in previous research (see Sundie et al., 2011). The description included information about the target's age (32), education (MBA), occupation (at the banking sector), hobbies (biking) and leisure activities (going to movies, listening to music).

Embedded within the person's description was the key manipulation. The description noted that the person had just purchased a new wallet. It was either an original luxury wallet (Louis Vuitton) or a counterfeit luxury wallet (Louis Vuitton) or a low-status wallet (ZARA). The two brands were pre-rated by a separate group of 23 participants. Louis Vuitton was perceived as more conspicuous and associated with higher status relative to ZARA ($M_s = 8.16$ vs. 3.28 , $p < .001$). Each of the two brands were equally liked



($M_{LV} = 3.6$ vs. $M_{ZR} = 4.20$, $p = .136$) and equally familiar ($M_{LV} = 6.96$ vs. $M_{ZR} = 7.59$, $p = .102$) to the participants.

Dependent measures

Participants rated on a scale (1=*not at all*, 9=*very much*) the target's status (items: "this person has high status", "this person is well respected") (Nelissen & Meijers, 2011) and the target's desire to deceive about his status (items: "this person wants to deceive about his status"). The target's desirability as a mate was assessed for opposite-sex individuals asking the extent to which "this person would be desirable for a short-term relationship (a date)" and "desirable for a long-term relationship (marriage)". Responses were provided on a 1-9 scale (1=*not at all desirable* to 9=*very desirable*). Motivation to affiliate was measured by (1) their desire to become friends with the target individual, (2) their admiration for the target individual, and (3) the degree to which participants perceive their own status and popularity increasing by becoming friends with the target individual. The 7-point scale was developed by Cloud (2012) and the four items were averaged to form a composite score ($\alpha = .79$), with higher values indicating higher motivation to affiliate.

Other measures

Participants were asked to respond to some additional items as they thought the target person would answer them. The target's mating strategy was assessed with the SOI items to assess receptivity to uncommitted sexual encounters. For instance, participants were asked to rate the extent to which they thought the target would agree or disagree with the statement "I can imagine myself being comfortable and enjoying casual sex with different



partners”. Response was on a 1 to 9 scale (1=*strongly disagree* to 9=*strongly agree*).

Participants, also, completed the Material Values Scale (Richins, 2004) and the

Narcissistic Personality Inventory scale (Emmons, 1984).

5.3.2. Results

We first considered perceptions of the target’s status, wealth and intention to deceive about his/her status. Inspection of Table 8 reveals that perceptions of status

($F(2,165)=10.032, p<0.001, \eta^2=.11$), wealth ($F(2,165)=13.231, p<0.001, \eta^2=.138$) and

intention to deceive ($F(2,165)=14.249, p<0.001, \eta^2=.147$) differed between conditions.

Post hoc analyses revealed that when displaying an authentic luxury wallet, the person received higher status ratings and was perceived as wealthier than when displaying a counterfeit luxury wallet or a low-status wallet. There were no significant differences in perceived status and wealth between the last two conditions, in support of H6.

Additionally, targets who owned a counterfeit luxury wallet ($M=5.33, SD=2.188$) were perceived as having higher intention to deceive about status relative to both an original luxury wallet ($M=4.24, SD=1.852$) and a low-status wallet ($M=3.36, SD=1.853$).

Interestingly, targets who owned an original luxury wallet were perceived as having higher intention to mislead regarding their status comparing to targets who owned a low-status wallet, thus confirming H8. Furthermore, targets who owned a luxury wallet – original ($M=3.50, SD=.465$) or counterfeit ($M=3.49, SD=.422$) – were perceived as highly materialistic ($F(2,165)=33.594, p=.000, \eta^2=.29$), relative to targets that owned a low-status wallet ($M=2.88, SD=.491$). The results also indicated that targets who owned a genuine luxury wallet ($M=.73, SD=.235$) were perceived as highly narcissistic



($F(2,165)=41.353, p=.000, \eta^2=.33$) compared to targets who owned a counterfeit luxury wallet ($M=.63, SD=.267$) and targets who owned a low-status wallet ($M=.32, SD=.237$).

Table 8: Average ratings of perceived status, wealth, narcissism, materialism, SOI, intention to deceive status and motivation to affiliate with the target person, when owing an original luxury wallet (LV), a counterfeit luxury wallet (LV) or a low status wallet (ZARA)

Perception	Original LV		Counterfeit LV		ZARA	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Status	6.96	0.961	6.05	1.303	6.20	1.143
Wealth	6.24	1.258	5.15	1.159	5.30	1.209
Status Deception	4.24	1.852	5.33	2.188	3.36	1.853
Affiliation	4.97	1.44	4.73	1.68	5.81	1.03
Narcissism	.73	.235	.63	.267	.32	.237
Materialism	3.50	.465	3.49	.422	2.88	.491
SOI	5.46	1.63	5.20	1.62	4.52	1.63

Moreover, our analysis revealed a significant effect of product type on affiliation motive ($F(2,165)=9.062, p<0.001, \eta^2=.098$). However, in contrast to Hypothesis H9, participants were not more strongly motivated to affiliate with consumers who own original luxury brands. Analysis of variance (Table 8) revealed that participants were more motivated to affiliate with consumers who own low-status brands ($M=5.81, SD=1.03$) than original luxury brands ($M=4.97, SD=1.44$) and counterfeit luxury brands ($M=4.73, SD=1.68$) in



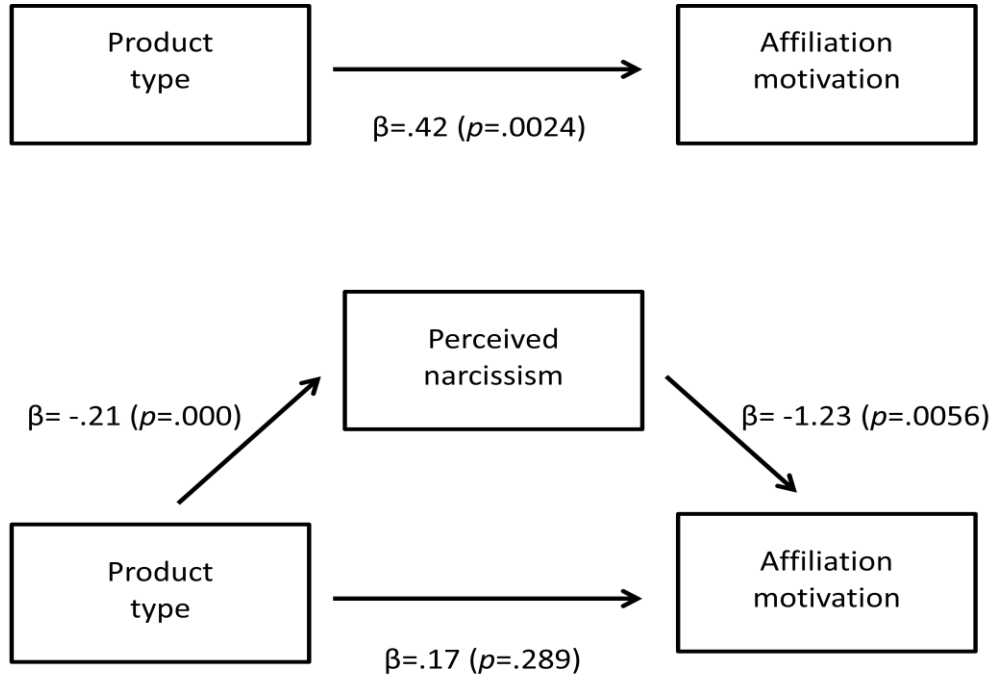
support of H10 but not H9. Affiliation motivation scores did not indicate any differences between counterfeit luxury brands and original luxury brands.

Mediational analysis

To test whether participants' increased motivation to affiliate with consumers that own low-status brands was mediated by the targets' perceived narcissism, we conducted a mediational analysis using Baron and Kenny's steps. In Step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of the product type on affiliation motivation, ignoring the mediator, was significant, $\beta=.42$, $t(166)=3.09$, $p=.0024$. Step 2 showed that the regression of the product type on the mediator, perception of narcissism, was also significant, $\beta=-.21$, $t(166)=-8.6$, $p=.000$. Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator, perception of narcissism, controlling for product type, was significant, $\beta=-1.23$, $t(165)=-2.81$, $p=.0056$. Step 4 of the analyses revealed that, controlling for the mediator (perception of narcissism), product type was not a significant predictor of affiliation motivation, $\beta=.17$, $t(165)=1.06$, $p=.289$ (see Figure 16). A Sobel test (Baron & Kenny, 1986) was conducted and found full mediation in the model ($z=2.65$, $p=.008$). These results indicate that targets' perceived narcissism fully mediated the relationship between product type and participants' affiliation motivation.



Figure 16: Mediation of the relationship between product type and affiliation motivation by perceived narcissism.



Furthermore, we examined the desirability of the target as a romantic partner based on whether he or she owned an original luxury wallet, a counterfeit luxury wallet or a low status wallet. As predicted ($F(2,52)=8.020, p=0.001, \eta^2=.24$), a counterfeit luxury wallet ($M=5.74, SD=2.31$) decreased a man's desirability to women for a potential short-term relationship compared to an original luxury wallet ($M=7.78, SD=.43$) but not compared to a low-status wallet ($M=5.89, SD=1.78$), in partial support of H11. However, information that a man owned an original luxury wallet ($M=6.94, SD=1.69$) did not enhance his desirability to women as a potential marriage partner ($F(2,52)=7.157, p=0.002, \eta^2=.22$), relative to a low-status wallet ($M=6.50, SD=1.69$) but only relative to a counterfeit luxury wallet ($M=5.05, SD=1.39$). These results confirm H12 and partially H11 (see Figure 17).

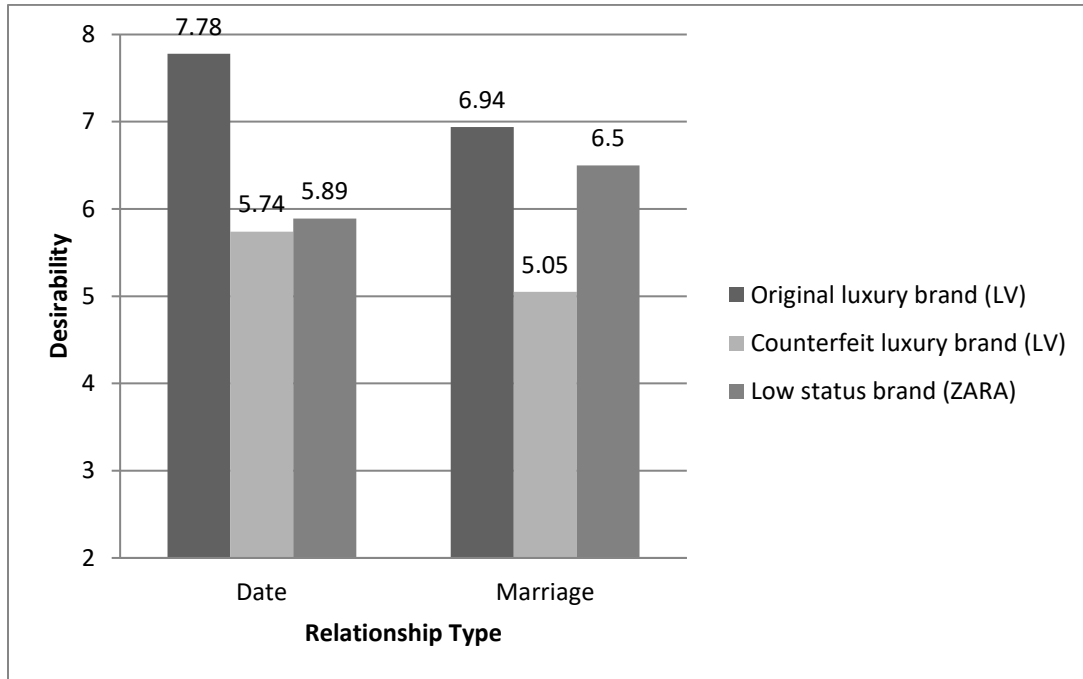
The female target's desirability to men did not differ across product types or relationship contexts, i.e., short-term partner ($F(2,27)=.468, p=.631, \eta^2=.034$); long-term partner ($F(2,27)=.556, p=.580, \eta^2=.04$).

In conclusion, a counterfeit luxury brand decreased the desirability of the male target as a short-term relationship partner relative to an original luxury brand but not relative to a low-status brand. A fake luxury brand decreased the desirability of the male target as a long-term relationship partner relative to both an authentic luxury brand and a low-status brand. These results also suggest that the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands was unrelated to the female's desirability for either relationship type.

Finally, our analysis indicated a significant effect ($F(2,165)=4.918, p=.008, \eta^2=.056$) such that targets who owned a luxury product – original ($M=5.46, SD=1.63$) or counterfeit ($M=5.20, SD=1.62$) – were perceived as having a less restricted approach to mating (attitudinal factors in the SOI) compared to those who own a low-status product ($M=4.52, SD=1.63$).



Figure 17: Women’s perception of a man’s desirability as a long-term versus short-term mating partner as a function of the man owning a luxury wallet – original or counterfeit – or a low status wallet.



5.3.3. Discussion

Study 2 demonstrates that individuals who own an original luxury brand are perceived as having higher status and wealth relative to both individuals who own a counterfeit luxury brand and a low-status brand. However, there is no difference in perception of wealth and status between individuals who own a counterfeit luxury brand and a low-status brand.

This finding suggests that consumers of counterfeit luxury brands are actually not acquiring the prestige and status they are seeking. Additionally, individuals who own a counterfeit luxury wallet are perceived as having higher intention to mislead regarding

status relative to both an original luxury wallet and a low-status wallet, confirming that counterfeit luxury brands are perceived as a deceptive status signal tactic. Moreover, our findings did not support the prediction that participants would be more motivated to affiliate with individuals who own an original luxury brand than a counterfeit luxury brand or a low status brand.

Our analysis produced an interesting, unexpected finding: participants reported a stronger motivation to affiliate with individuals who own a low-status brand and equally motivated to affiliate with participants who own a counterfeit luxury brand or an original luxury brand. Results of the mediational analysis reveal that perceived narcissism mediates the relationship between product type and affiliation motivation. In particular, individuals who own a luxury brand – original or counterfeit – are perceived as highly narcissistic in comparison to those who own a low-status brand and this result to stronger motivation of the participants to affiliate with owners of a low-status brand. Our findings also suggest that men's choice of counterfeit luxury brands may actually negatively influence their desirability as a romantic partner (short-term or long-term) as women express greater upset than men about being deceived about a partner's status and economic resources.



5.4. Study 3: Counterfeit Luxury Brands and Mating Goals

The third study examined how activating mating motives influences men's and women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low status brands. More specifically, we tested whether men or women consumers increased their intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands when primed with (a) intrasexual competition goals or (b) intersexual goals. Although both fields of motivation eventually function to enhance reproduction (Andersson, 1994; Darwin, 1871), testing separately these motivations offers a better understanding of the proximate-level cues that motivate consumer behaviour. More specifically, Study 3 tested the following hypotheses:

H13: Activating mate competition motives triggers men's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.

H14: Activating mate competition motives triggers women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.

H15: Activating mate attraction motives triggers men's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.

H16: Activating mate attraction motives do not influence women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.



5.4.1. Method

Participants and design

A total of 166 undergraduate students (66 men and 100 women) participated in the study for partial course credit. The experiment was computer-based and run in small group sessions (7 participants). A 2(participant sex: men/women) x 3(motive: intrasexual competition vs. intersexual courtship vs. control) x 2(product type: counterfeit luxury vs. original low status) mixed-factorial design was used with participant sex and motivational state as a between-subjects factor and product type as a within-subjects factor.

Procedure

At the beginning of the procedure, participants were exposed to one of the two mating primes: one designed to manipulate perceptions of the attractiveness of opposite-sex others (activating courtship motivations) or one designed to manipulate perceptions of the attractiveness of the same-sex peers they must compete against for mates (activating competition motivations) or control. As a cover story, participants were informed that we were interested in learning about several different things, including people's ability to judge attractiveness.

After the motive induction, participants were asked to rate one set of products: a pair of shoes for male participants and handbags for female participants. The two specific product categories were chosen after a pretest where several participants (male and female) reported "what's the material good that you most frequently notice on an opposite-sex and same-sex other?"

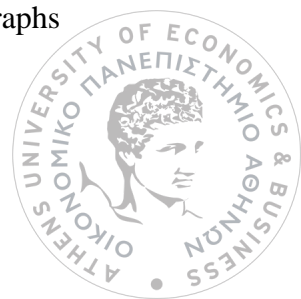


Participants were asked to imagine that they were in the market to acquire a new pair of shoes or a handbag. Subsequently, they considered two products they liked, which were similar in style and price but differed in whether others would perceive the product as being high or low status.

The first product was from a large, low-cost retailer's website (ZARA); it was described as nearly identical in appearance to a prestigious brand product (Louis Vuitton), but it had the low-status retailer's brand (ZARA) on the front. The second product was available from an Internet retailer that specializes in designer replicas, or knockoffs. It was described as nearly identical in appearance to prestigious brand product (Louis Vuitton) and as displaying the prestige brand name on the front. We controlled for as many other differences as possible. The products were from the same brands, made of the same material, and photographed from the same angle. The price for the two handbags and the two pair of shoes was the same.

Manipulations

Before the shopping task, participants viewed and rated a series of photographs using an established priming methodology whereby men and women shown targets that subliminally activate (a) intrasexual competition goals or (b) intersexual courtship or (c) control (see Hill & Durante, 2011; Durante et al., 2010; Griskevicius et al., 2007). More specifically, participants viewed 10 current students at the university (male or female depending on the condition) or 10 streets and rate each one on attractiveness. For example, the female participants viewed 10 photographs of attractive men or women or streets. All photographs were obtained from public online domains. The photographs



were selected from a larger set of photos that were pre-rated on physical attractiveness by a separate sample of 15 students who were blind to the purpose of this research.

Pretest

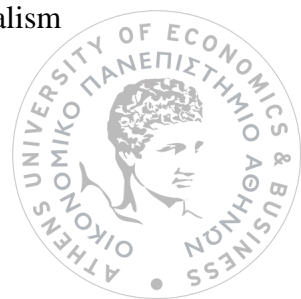
The induction of competition and courtship mindset has been shown to be more strongly activated when potential mates and local same-sex competitors are considered as highly attractive (Durante et al., 2011; Hill & Durante, 2011; Roney, 2003). Consequently, we used only photos of males and females that are highly attractive to prime these states. In order to make sure that all the photographs were above average in attractiveness, 15 undergraduate students (male and female) rated the attractiveness of each of the 20 photographs (10 of each sex) to be used in the study using a 9-point scale (1=*not at all attractive*, 9=*extremely attractive*). Both male and female targets were rated significantly above average: female photographs ($M=6.9$, $SD=.92$, $p=.003$), and male photographs ($M=6.53$, $SD=1.06$, $p<.001$).

Dependent measure

The dependent measure in the study was purchase intention. Men and women participants rated how likely it was that they would purchase each pair of shoes or handbags respectively (1=*Not at all likely* to 9=*Very likely*).

Other measures

In order to test the moderating effect of materialism, participants completed the Material Values Scale (Richins, 2004) and they responded to a total of fifteen 5-point materialism



items with endpoints *totally disagree* and *totally agree* (e.g., “I admire people who own expensive cars, homes, and clothes”, “I like a lot of luxury in my life”, “My life would be better if I owned certain things I don’t have”).

Participants, also, completed the Attitudes towards Counterfeiting Luxury Brands Scale (Wang, Zhang, Zang, & Ouyang, 2005; Phau & Teah, 2009) and they agreed or disagreed (on a 7-point scale) with statements such as “Counterfeits of luxury brands are as reliable as the original version”, “Buying counterfeits of luxury brands will hurt the luxury goods industry”, “Purchasing counterfeits of luxury brands is illegal”.

At the end of the study, participants completed three items from the Sociosexual Orientation Inventory Scale (SOI) (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991) to assess receptivity to uncommitted sexual encounters. Since we wanted to measure mating investment intentions we used only attitudinal items (items 5-7 from original scale). The respondents completed a 9-point scale with endpoints *totally disagree* and *totally agree* (e.g., “Sex without love is ok”, “I can imagine myself being comfortable and enjoying "casual" sex with different partners”, “I would have to be closely attached to someone (both emotionally and psychologically) before I could feel comfortable and fully enjoy having sex with him or her”).

5.4.2. Results

Intrasexual competition mating goals trigger men’s intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands

A mixed factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) compared the effect of intrasexual competition manipulation (intrasexual competition vs. control) on men’s purchase



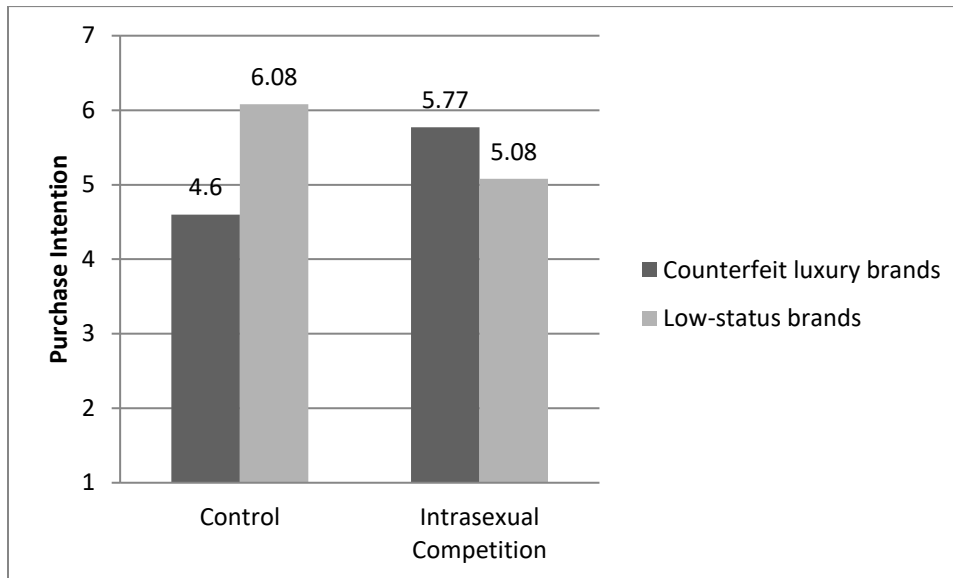
intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands. The results showed no significant interaction effect between intrasexual competition motive and product type for men ($F(1,31)=.918, p=.716$), rejecting H13. Although unexpected, this finding suggests that there is no influence of mate competition context on the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands for men.

Intrasexual competition mating goals trigger women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands

A mixed factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Materialism and Intrasexual competition motives as between subjects factors revealed a significant main effect of materialism ($F(1,48)=6.100, p=.017$), as well as a significant interaction effect between women's intrasexual competition motives and intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands ($F(1,48)=5.157, p=.028, \eta^2=.097$). More specifically, as depicted in Figure 18, the mean purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands and low-status brands differed significantly across conditions. Women with a competitive mating state had a significantly higher intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands ($M=5.77$) than women in the control ($M=4.60$) condition, in support of H14.

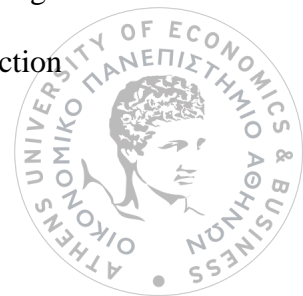


Figure 18: Women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands as a function of motive manipulation.



Moderation analysis

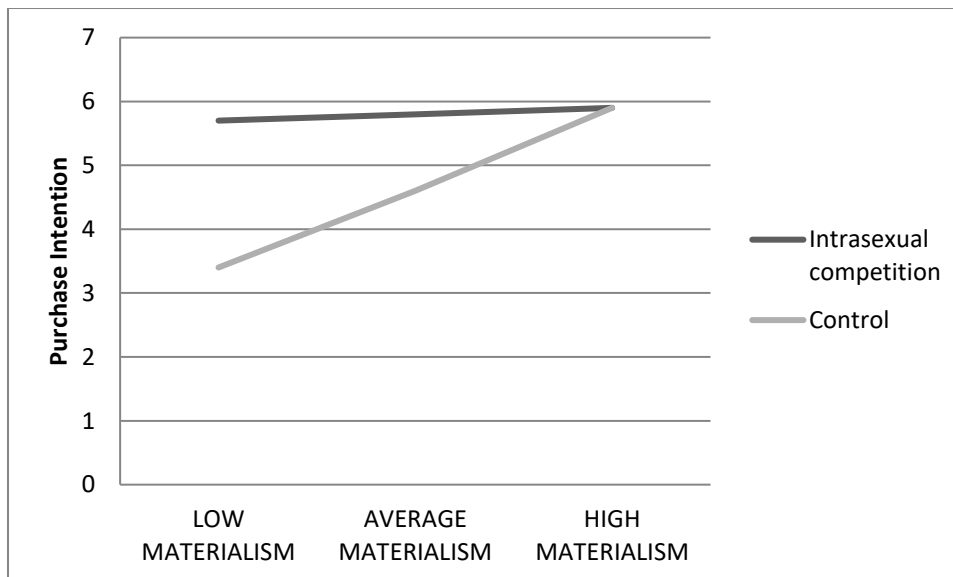
As we mentioned above, there is a significant main effect of materialism ($F(1,48)=6.100$, $p=.017$) on purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands such that purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands increased with increasing materialism. Moreover, in order to test whether materialism moderated the relationship between intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands and motive manipulation, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. In the first step, two variables were included: motive manipulation and materialism. These variables accounted for a significant account of variance in intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands, $R^2 = .178$, $F(2,48)=5.188$, $p=.009$. To avoid potentially problematic high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the variables were centered and an interaction



term between the motive manipulation and materialism was created (Aiken & West, 1991).

Next, the interaction term between motive manipulation and materialism was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands, $\Delta R^2=.070$, $\Delta F(1,47)= 4.36$, $p<.05$, $b= 1.16$, $t(47)= 1.89$, $p<.05$. Examination of the interaction plot showed that low materialistic women had higher intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands when primed with intrasexual competition motives, while high materialistic women had no difference in their intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands when primed with intrasexual competition motives or control.

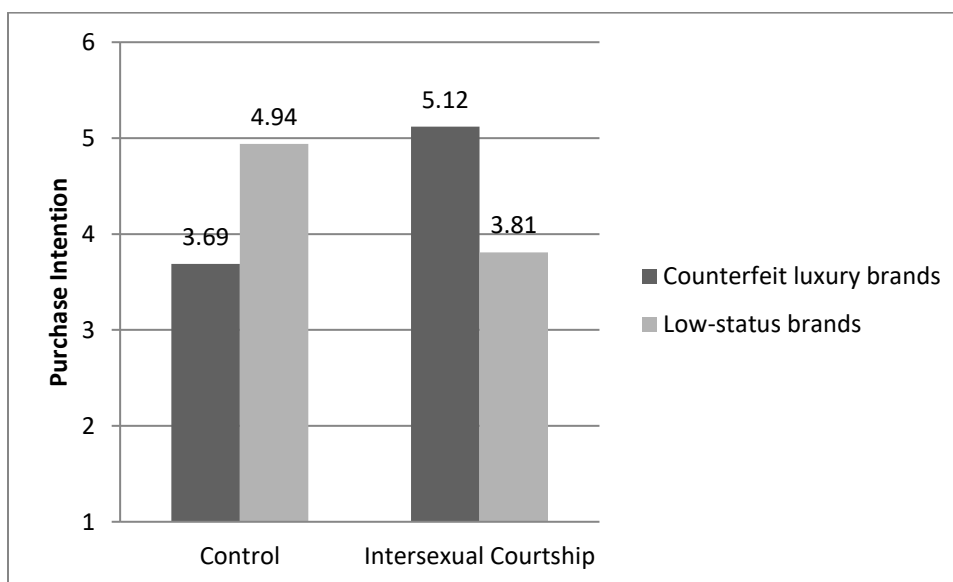
Figure 19: Moderation of the relationship between women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands and motive manipulation by materialism.



Mate attraction goals trigger men's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands

A mixed factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) compared the effect of mate attraction manipulation (intersexual courtship vs. control) on men's purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands. The results revealed that there is a significant interaction effect between mate attraction motive and product type ($F(1,29)=8.06, p=.008, \eta^2=.217$), in support of H15. More specifically, as depicted in Figure 20, the mean purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands and low-status brands differed significantly across conditions. Men with a mate attraction mindset had a significantly higher intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands ($M=5.12$) than men in the control ($M=3.69$) condition, in support of H15.

Figure 20: Men's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands as a function of motive manipulation.



Mate attraction goals do not trigger women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands

A mixed factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) compared the effect of mate attraction manipulation (intersexual courtship vs. control) on women's purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low-status brands. The results revealed that there is no significant interaction effect between motive and product type ($F(1,46)=.325$, $p=.572$, $\eta^2=.007$), in support of H16. Consequently, women's consumption of counterfeit luxury brands does not serve as a mating-relevant signal directed at opposite-sex others.

5.4.3. Discussion

The third experiment tested the prediction of whether making attractive same-sex rivals salient would increase men's and women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low status brands. When primed with attractive rivals, women had significantly higher intention to purchase a counterfeit luxury handbag than a low status handbag whereas men had no difference in choices between counterfeit luxury brands and low status brands. Consistent with our prediction, intrasexual competition motives increased women's tendencies to purchase a counterfeit luxury product when given the opportunity to purchase an equally priced, identical low-status product. These results suggest that women use consumption of counterfeit luxury brands as a tactic to increase their ability to compete with rivals. Given that conspicuous consumption of luxury brands can be regarded as a sexually selected mating strategy in humans (Sundie et al., 2011), it stood to reason that male consumption of counterfeit luxury brands would not only serve



a function in mate attraction but also in male-male competition with the goal to impress and deter rivals. However, findings of study 3 revealed that male consumption of a counterfeit luxury product is not driven by a same-sex mating competition motive.

Moreover, we demonstrated that men reported greater intention to purchase a counterfeit luxury brand over a low status brand after exposure to attractive opposite-sex targets than when not exposed to these primes. Specifically, the induction of mate attraction goals led men to increase their spending on conspicuous counterfeit shoes that might act as a deceptive signal in order to display their wealth to potential mates. As a result, displays of counterfeit luxury brands may function as deceptive signals of underlying mate value by increasing the attractiveness of the man who owns the goods. Thus, this is in line with findings that present conspicuous consumption in general as a communication strategy designed to gain reproductive rewards (Miller, 2009; Penn, 2003; Saad, 2007; Sundie et al., 2001). On the other hand, women exposed to attractive opposite-sex others did not increase their intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low status brands suggesting that counterfeit luxury products are ineffective as sexual signals directed at men. These results suggest that women's consumption of counterfeit luxury brands function as a signal directed specifically to other women and more specifically as a tactic to increase their ability to compete with rivals. This is the first empirical study to demonstrate that eliciting mating motives with same-sex or opposite-sex others influence men's and women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands instead of equally priced, identical low-status brands.



Table 9: Summary of Empirical Support for Study Hypotheses

Study 1

Hypothesis	Result
H1: Activating a motive to compete for status triggers consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.	Supported
H2: For publicly consumed products, status competition motives increase consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands whereas for privately consumed products, status competition motives do not produce the same outcome.	Supported
H3: Purchase intention is greater for counterfeit luxury products with subtle branding than for the same counterfeit luxury products with explicit branding.	Supported
H4: Purchase intention for counterfeit luxury products with explicit branding is higher in men than in women.	Supported



Study 2

Hypothesis	Result
H5: An original luxury brand increases perception of status relative to both (a) a counterfeit luxury brand and (b) a low-status brand.	Supported
H6: There is no difference in perception of status between a counterfeit luxury brand and a low-status brand.	Supported
H7: A counterfeit luxury brand increases perception of deceiving status relative to both (a) an original luxury brand and (b) a low-status brand.	Supported
H8: An original luxury brand increases perception of deceiving status relative to consumption of a low-status brand.	Supported
H9: Participants will be more motivated to affiliate with consumers who own an original luxury brand than (a) a counterfeit luxury brand or (b) a low-status brand.	Not Supported
H10: Participants will be more strongly motivated to affiliate with consumers who own a low-status brand than a counterfeit luxury brand.	Supported
H11: Consumption of a counterfeit luxury brand will decrease men's desirability as both short-term and long-term mates relative to both (a) an original luxury brand and (b) a low-status brand.	Partially Supported
H12: The consumption of an original luxury brand will enhance men's desirability as short-term mates but not necessarily as long-term mates relative to a low-status brand.	Supported



Study 3

Hypothesis	Result
H13: Activating mate competition motives triggers men's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.	Not Supported
H14: Activating mate competition motives triggers women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.	Supported
H15: Activating mate attraction motives triggers men's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.	Supported
H16: Activating mate attraction motives do not influence women's intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands over low-status brands.	Supported

5.4.4. *Summary of the Chapter*

The present chapter tested the hypotheses (H1-H16) derived from the literature review.

After the design, the analysis, the results and the implications of each study independently, results were evaluated to support or reject the hypotheses.

The next chapter (Chapter 6) discusses the hypotheses in the context of this thesis and previous research. Finally, building on the findings of this research, the last chapter (Chapter 7) will present the contributions of this thesis on theoretical and managerial grounds.



CHAPTER 6: GENERAL DISCUSSION

Table 10: Chapter 6 Outline

Statement of the Problem	Chapter 1 Introduction Topic of the Research –Statement of the Research Problem – Overview of the Methodology - Overview of the Chapters
	Chapter 2 Literature Part 1 (parent field of research) Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands – Evolutionary Psychology
Literature Review	Chapter 3 Literature Part 2 (immediate fields of research) Conspicuous Consumption - Evolutionary Psychology as a framework to study consumption of Counterfeit luxury brands
	Chapter 4 Research Hypotheses Study 1: Hypotheses 1,2,3,4 – Study 2: Hypotheses 5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12– Study 3: Hypotheses 13,14,15,16
Research Hypotheses	Chapter 5 Methodology and Analysis of Results Study 1 – Study 2 – Study 3
Empirical Studies	Chapter 6 General Discussion Discussion of the Hypotheses – Conclusions from the Studies
General Discussion	Chapter 7 Contributions of the Thesis Theoretical and Managerial Contributions of the Thesis – Limitations – Recommendations for Future Research
Contributions	



6. General Discussion

Why do some consumers prefer to buy counterfeit luxury brands to low-status brands? The present thesis, through three experimental studies rooted on evolutionary psychology, tried to examine whether the fundamental motives of status and mate acquisition increased the preference of men and women consumers for counterfeit luxury products. The findings of our first study suggest that counterfeit luxury products might act as deceptive signals of status and represent an adaptive communication strategy aimed at obtaining high status among same sex human hierarchies. The findings of our third study suggest that the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands serve a different function among men and women in a mating context. More specifically, counterfeit luxury products might act for male consumers as deceptive signals of underlying mate value aimed at displaying wealth to potential romantic partners. In contrast, consumption of counterfeit luxury brands for female consumers might act as a signal directed specifically to other women as a tactic to increase their ability to compete with rivals.

To investigate the motive behind the success of counterfeit luxury brands, we turned to deceptive status signalling, a term encompassing a wide variety of misleading strategies that in principle may be applied to signal status (Van Kempen, 2003).

Because luxury consumption is associated with an individual's status in a group, in Study 1 we predicted that motives linked to intrasexual competition for status would increase the purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands compared to low status brands that lack any status-signalling value. To our knowledge, this is the first



empirical study that demonstrates that counterfeit luxury brands may act as a deceptive status strategy in an intrasexual competition context.

In line with our theoretical framework, the results of the experiment showed that activating status competition motives increased purchase intention of counterfeit luxury brands over identical, equally priced low status brands. According to costly signalling theory, status motives led consumers to have higher intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands only when it was salient that their choices could be observed by others and influence their status. On the other hand, when consumption was private, motives to compete for status had a different effect. These findings suggest that while the two product choices are similar in style and price and made of the same material, counterfeit luxury products offer an important deceptive status-enhancement benefit. More specifically, counterfeit luxury brands enable consumers to appear as having greater status and wealth but only on the extent to which the eye of the relevant beholder is effectively deceived (Van kempen, 2003).

Our second study showed that individuals that own a counterfeit luxury brand are perceived as having equal status and wealth as the owners of a low-status brand. In the context of the foregoing it is clear that consumption of counterfeit luxury products may not be an effective deceptive signalling strategy, especially when observers are in a position to know or infer the truth about the product quality. Perhaps more importantly, we have found that individuals are more strongly motivated to affiliate with consumers who owned a low-status brand than those who owned an original or fake luxury brand. Moreover, in contrast to our predictions, individuals are equally motivated to affiliate with consumers who owned an original luxury brand and a



counterfeit luxury brand. These findings are not entirely consistent with the conjecture that greater benefits are realized by affiliating with high status individuals as they emit positive externalities (e.g., opportunities to infocopy).

The mediational analysis suggests that owners of original and counterfeit luxury brands are perceived as highly narcissistic in comparison to those who own a low-status brand and this perception results to stronger motivation to affiliate with owners of a low-status brand. Narcissism belongs to the Dark Triad personality traits (i.e., Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy) (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). These traits are often deemed undesirable because of antisocial life outcomes frequently associated with them (see Kowalski, 2001).

It is also useful to note that even though mating motives trigger conspicuous consumption among men, men's choice of counterfeit luxury brands negatively influence their desirability as a romantic partner, especially a long-term one. This is attributed to women expressing greater upset than men upon the discovery that they have been deceived about the potential partner's status and economic resources.

Consistent with the work of Sundie et al. (2011), the flaunting of original luxury brands appears to have the desired effect on female observers since men who own genuine luxury goods are perceived as more attractive short-term partners. Our results indicate that men who display counterfeit luxury brands to gain status and reproductive rewards can be more desirable short-term romantic partners only if their deceptive exploitation remains uncovered by women.

Finally, findings of Study 3 revealed that there is an empirical link between mating motives and the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands but differs in a sex-specific



manner. In more detail, we found that mate attraction motives triggered men's consumption of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands whereas mate attraction motives did not influence women's spending on counterfeit luxury items. This finding is in line with the fact that especially men tend to engage in costly signaling to attract sexual partners and often assumed to result from sex differences in parental investment which have led to differences in partner preferences (Bjorklund & Shackelford, 1999; Trivers, 1972). In comparison to men, women have a shorter reproductive lifespan and they typically devote more time and effort in raising their offspring (Bjorklund & Shackelford, 1999; Kenrick, Groth, Trost, & Sadalla, 1993). Consequently, women benefit most from being choosy in selecting their mating partners. Prior research has found that women are particularly likely to favor men with status and financial resources (Buss, 2004; Colarelli & Dettmann, 2003; Kenrick, Sadalla, Groth, & Trost, 1990; Li et al., 2002). Moreover, results of Study 3 indicated that women's flaunting of counterfeit luxury possessions functions as a signaling system directed to female rivals. From an evolutionary perspective, flaunting designer counterfeit handbags should help women deter rivals and signal their ability to compete with them. These results are consistent with past research revealing that conspicuous consumption and more specifically authentic luxury products function as a signaling system directed at other women who pose threat to their romantic relationships (Wang & Griskevicius, 2014) or act as a self-promotion strategy during within same-sex competitions since they help them gain an advantage against same-sex rivals for mates (Hudders et al., 2014). Findings of Study 3 make a



contribution by identifying a novel function of the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands as a deceptive signal in a mating context.

The current research also shed light on how brand signal explicitness affects consumers' intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands.

Most previous studies about counterfeit goods have focused solely on brand image or brand name. Our findings suggest that, although subtler signals are more likely to be misperceived, consumers have higher intention to purchase counterfeit luxury products that use less explicit brand identification. This could be driven by consumers' desire to “infocopy” (Henrich & Gil-White 2001) their models of aspiration, those with more cultural capital (Berger & Ward, 2010) who possess significant wealth, prefer “dog-whistle” fashion, and pay a premium for inconspicuously branded products. This is also consistent with the fact that in recent years most luxury and fashion brands have been downsizing their logos while luxury brands following a “no logo” strategy have been massively copied by many online and offline retailers. Finally, in line with evolutionary theory and Dominance-Prestige model, we found that men have higher intention to purchase explicit signals, while women have higher intention to purchase subtle signals.



CHAPTER 7: CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE THESIS

Table 11: Chapter 7 Outline

Statement of the Problem	Chapter 1 Introduction Topic of the Research –Statement of the Research Problem – Overview of the Methodology - Overview of the Chapters
	Chapter 2 Literature Part 1 (parent field of research) Consumption of Counterfeit Luxury Brands – Evolutionary Psychology
Literature Review	Chapter 3 Literature Part 2 (immediate fields of research) Conspicuous Consumption - Evolutionary Psychology as a framework to study consumption of Counterfeit luxury brands
	Chapter 4 Research Hypotheses Study 1: Hypotheses 1,2,3,4 – Study 2: Hypotheses 5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12– Study 3: Hypotheses 13,14,15,16
Research Hypotheses	Chapter 5 Methodology and Analysis of Results Study 1 – Study 2 – Study 3
Empirical Studies	Chapter 6 General Discussion Discussion of the Hypotheses – Conclusions from the Studies
General Discussion	Chapter 7 Contributions of the Thesis Theoretical and Managerial Contributions of the Thesis – Limitations – Recommendations for Future Research
Contributions	



7. Contributions of the Thesis

7.1. Introduction

This last chapter is concerned with the contributions of the thesis. In particular, the first section discusses the implications of the empirical findings in terms of theoretical and managerial contributions. The chapter then ends with limitations and suggestions for future research.

7.2. Theoretical Contributions

This thesis offers a significant number of theoretical contributions. First and most importantly, this research contributes to the literature of counterfeit luxury brands by identifying novel motivations that influence the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands. This makes an important contribution because, while past research has focused on several different factors that enhance this behaviour, this is the first research that provides evidence for the evolutionary roots of the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands.

Secondly, this thesis contributes to the literature of counterfeit luxury brands by shedding light on different antecedents that influence consumers to knowingly purchase counterfeit luxury brands. Prior research has linked the decision to knowingly purchase counterfeit products to a number of factors such as product characteristics, personality factors, social and cultural context and purchase situation (Eisendand & Schuchert-Guler, 2006). This thesis highlights that the fundamental motives of attaining status and acquiring a desirable romantic partner influence



consumption of counterfeit luxury brands by proving that many consumer choices fulfil evolutionary needs (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013).

Third, this thesis also contributes to the evolutionary psychology literature by providing empirical evidence that consumption of counterfeit luxury brands is evolutionary based. Based on evolutionary psychology and deceptive status signalling (Van Kempen, 2003), we demonstrate that counterfeit luxury brands can act as deceptive signals both in an intrasexual competition for status context (Study 1) and a mating context (Study 3).

Lastly, this thesis contributes on the perception side of the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands (Study 2) and specifically how perceivers interpret such deceptive signals of status.

7.3. Managerial Contributions

Apart from the important theoretical contributions of this research, the thesis has also interesting contributions for practitioners. These implications concern mainly people who are related to brand management or advertising. Our findings suggest that men engage in counterfeit luxury brands' consumption for status purposes or mate acquisition purposes. Marketing practitioners of luxury brands could benefit by incorporating in their marketing strategies and advertising messages related to status competition or/and impressing desirable romantic partners. On the other hand, women often engage in counterfeit luxury brands' consumption for status competition reasons as well as intrasexual competition reasons in a mating context. Therefore, marketing practitioners could use priming associated with competition for status or/and



intrasexual competition in their marketing strategies and advertisements to convince women spend more on luxury products. They could depict possible scenarios, based on an evolutionary perspective, in their advertising campaigns (e.g. two men competing for a high status job; a wealthy man near an attractive young woman; two women competing for a wealthy attractive man) to boost consumption of luxury brands.

Moreover, this research suggests that brand managers of luxury brands should launch product lines with more explicit branding and widely recognizable markers for men who are dominance - motivated. Advertising focusing on distinct motivations and behavioural patterns related to dominance account of hierarchy could enhance men's intention to purchase such explicit products.

In addition, our second study showed that consumers of counterfeit luxury brands are actually not acquiring the prestige and status they are seeking since our study suggests that individuals that own a counterfeit luxury brand are perceived as having equal status and wealth as the owners of a low status brand. Our findings recommend that marketers of low status brands should link more their products to status. More specifically, they could use celebrity endorsers that are perceived as having high status; they could do more prestigious events, promotional activities linking low status brands to aspirational lifestyles and status or even make alliances with high status brands. Obviously, low status brands should definitely benefit from cooperating with high status brands, as being associated with higher status brands might have positive spillover effects on consumer judgments (Ahluwalia, Unnava, & Burnkrant, 2001) and encourage consumption of low status products.



7.4. Limitations and Future Directions

In this thesis, three different experimental studies took place. The methodology followed in them had many common elements resulting in some limitations that can be said to apply to all of them. More specifically, this thesis' findings were based on laboratory experiments with undergraduate students. Despite the fact that this choice maximizes internal validity and secures the purity of the observed effects, it may affect the external validity and the generalizability of the results. Another key limitation of the current work is that our experiments did not involve actual behavioral measures. Instead, we focused on intention to purchase a particular product. However, it is noteworthy that behavioral intentions have a relatively strong relationship to actual behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Future research on status competition motives or mating motives and actual purchase behavior would be fruitful.

Furthermore, a limitation lies in Studies 1 & 3 where participants were only given photos of the products, but having them actually hold the products and view them from every angle would certainly provide more depth.

Moreover, the present studies (Study 1 & Study 3) elicited intrasexual competition and mate attraction motives via priming a short story or showing pictures (e.g. Griskevicius et al., 2007; Griskevicius et al., 2009). In future research it would be interesting to incorporate a laboratory setting with a confederate acting as a “real” rival. Past research has used a sexily dressed confederate as a mating prime (Janssens et al., 2011). Vaillancourt and Sharma (2011) found that women reacted in a more “bitchy” manner toward an attractive female confederate when she was dressed



provocatively than when she was dressed conservatively. Similarly, Saad and Vongas (2009) used a male confederate who displayed conspicuous products in order to test how conspicuous consumption affects men's testosterone levels. By applying this experimental setting, we could strengthen our priming method and enhance feelings of intrasexual competition or/and mate attraction.

Future research could identify the possible influence of women's fertility on intrasexual competition and consumption of counterfeit luxury brands. Ovulating women are motivated to gain status relative to other women, which affects not only their clothing choices but also their economic decisions more broadly (Durante et al., 2014). The ovulatory shift in competitive motivation leads women to outcompete other women for status and access to the best quality men (Durante & Griskevicius, 2016). Data related to fertility would be useful given that women pay more attention to luxury products in general around ovulation than in other phases of their menstrual cycle (Lens et al., 2011).

In addition, cues associated with different types of status activate distinct psychological circuits. One of the most commonly made status distinction is between dominance and prestige (Henrich & Gill-White, 2001). The former involves the use of force and aggression, whereas the latter involves the use of persuasion, social influence and respect. Future research should investigate the degree to which consumption of counterfeit luxury brands influences perceptions of dominance-based status and prestige-based status, bearing in mind that the effect may differ between men and women.



Another important question for future research is what individual differences influence the extent to which motives to compete for status increase intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands. For instance, the Dark Triad Personality traits and the Big Five universal personality dimensions could influence intention to purchase counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands.

An affiliation motive might lead people to seek brands and styles that help them fit in (Griskevicius & Kenrick, 2013). One can argue that consumption of luxury brands is rooted in the desire to signal group membership. Social exclusion in the form of being implicitly ignored increased conspicuous consumption, whereas being explicitly rejected increased helping and donation behavior (Lee & Shrum, 2012). Future research is needed to examine how social exclusion causes people to consume counterfeit luxury brands in the service of affiliation.

Finally, women who lack purchasing power may display counterfeit luxury brands to signal to potential romantic partners that they are selective and require high status men. More specifically, future research could explore whether women buy fake luxury items to signal the minimum level of resources they expect from a partner, thus rejecting low-status men (Buss, 2003).

7.5. Conclusion

The rise of counterfeit luxury products is an issue of massive economic and social significance and attracts considerable interest from researchers, practitioners and policy makers. The current research provides further evidence for the evolutionary roots of counterfeit luxury brands consumption and is the first to apply an



evolutionary informed perspective to the consumption of counterfeit luxury brands and its link with deceptive status signalling, intrasexual competition motives and mate attraction motives. As stated at the beginning of the thesis, “Some counterfeits reproduce so very well the truth that it would be a flaw of judgment not to be deceived by them.” This maxim argues that counterfeits are, sometimes, effective deceptive signals since their transmission is more advantageous (beneficial) than disadvantageous (costly) for the signaller. It has been demonstrated that eliciting intrasexual motives to compete for status with same sex rivals leads consumers to choose fake luxury items instead of equally priced, low-status brands. Moreover, mate attraction motives triggered men’s consumption of counterfeit luxury brands vs. low status brands whereas women’s flaunting of counterfeit luxury possessions functions as a signaling system directed to female rivals. We hope that this research will stimulate further work in this exciting area of consumer behaviour.

7.6. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter concluded the thesis with the theoretical and managerial contributions of this research, which built upon the discussion of the results in the previous chapters. The chapter ended with the limitations of the thesis and recommendations for future research.



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APPENDIX

Appendix 1: Sample Stimuli and Measurements of Experiment 1

Status Competition Manipulation

Status competition condition (In the female participants condition, we changed the same-sex competitors to girls and the rest was kept constant).

Instructions: Please carefully read the following scenario. As you're reading the scenario, try to put yourself in the shoes of the main character and experience the emotions that they are feeling.

Status competition scenario

Imagine you recently graduated from college. You were offered several jobs and decided to go work for a well-known and powerful company. Besides paying well, this job offers you the greatest chance of moving up—assuming you can prove that you have what it takes.

As you pull into the parking lot on your first day of work, you immediately notice that the lot is full of expensive new cars. Walking to your building, you eye these impressive vehicles and think about the kind of car you should get now that you've graduated, perhaps an upscale luxury sedan or a new sports car. You imagine yourself driving through town in a sparkling new car and you feel yourself becoming more motivated. Entering the lobby, you're impressed by how upscale everything looks—the antique



furniture, the artistic decorations, the designer clothing. You're thrilled to be working at such a prestigious company and you feel that this is exactly the kind of job you deserve.

As you wait, another person sits down next to you. A minute later a third person also takes a seat. The two are dressed in brand new business suits, and they're about the same age as you. Each one briefly looks at you, smiles slightly, and says hello. Both of them look a little nervous and you sense that these are probably your new colleagues. Looking at them out of the corner of your eye, you feel both excited and a little anxious. You imagine how much fun it would be to have colleagues with whom you can talk about the new job. But looking at their facial expressions and their body posture, you feel a sense of competition in the air. You realize this job isn't a game. You're not in school in anymore.

Your new boss finally comes out and greets everyone. As all three of you walk into the large corner office, everyone sits down. "You're all very fortunate to be here. The company hires only a few people out of thousands of applicants each year." Hearing that you beat out thousands of people to get here sends a rush of pride through your body.

"In the next few months, all three of you will both work both independently and work together. You're going to get to know each other pretty well." As the atmosphere seems to relax a little, you look around the room and everyone smiles.

But the boss continues: "Starting today each one of you will get a small cubicle. But we don't expect you to stay there. After 6 months, one of you will be fired." Hearing this news sends a shiver down your spine. You quickly scan the room. The other two people are trying to suppress any look of concern and show a confident side to the new boss.



You remind yourself that you were hired for a good reason and that you deserve a spot at the top. You sit up straighter and put on a confident expression.

“Although one of you will be fired,” the boss goes on, “the person who does the best will not only get a promotion, but they will get a large bonus and will be put on the fast track to the top.” Pointing to the grand window offices down the hall, the boss finishes: “I see a lot of potential in all of you, but only one of you will make it into one of those big offices. You have 6 months to show everyone what you’re made of.”

You know there will come a day in 6 months when your boss will again call all three of you into the office. Feeling your heart beating faster, you’re anxious and excited. As your boss finishes up the speech, you’re so eager to get started that you can’t even pay attention anymore. Finally, your boss stops and points at each of you in turn, “Go out there and show us what you’ve got!” Your eyes open wide and a rush of adrenaline pumps through your body. You feel like letting out a yell and running out the door to get started. Seeing your two colleagues in the background, you walk out of the office with a rush of anticipation in hopes of achieving something that few people ever have the chance to do...

Control Condition (In the female participants condition, we changed the friend to a girl and the rest was kept constant).

Instructions: Please carefully read the following scenario. As you’re reading the scenario, try to put yourself in the shoes of the main character and experience the emotions that they are feeling.



Tickets scenario

Imagine that it's Friday afternoon during the semester. You've been working hard all week and you've been looking forward to this weekend for quite a while. You and one of your friends have two tickets for a sold-out concert that's happening tonight. Both of you have been looking forward to this show for a long time. In fact, you had to bend over backwards to get the tickets. Your friend has been talking about the concert every day for weeks now, so you know she's excited. And although it's still several hours away, you can already feel your heart beating a little faster than normal.

As you're getting ready for the show at home, your friend calls to tell you that she's coming over in about an hour. Just so you don't forget later, you decide to get the tickets from your drawer. You open your top drawer where you remember leaving them, but they're not there. You search a little deeper in the drawer, but they're not there either.

You stop to take a breath and tell yourself to calm down. You know you put the tickets in a good place, but where? You start searching through your backpack. Books, folders, pens, but no tickets. You turn the bag upside down and shake it. Nothing but junk. Now you start getting worried. What if you lost the tickets? What's your friend going to think?

In a hurry, you look through the laundry. Maybe they're in a pocket somewhere? You find some pieces of paper, but no tickets. You go into your closet and start throwing things to the floor—no tickets. You're feeling upset at this point. Your hands start to shake a little. You think back to when you had the tickets and try to retrace your steps. You clearly remember putting them in your top drawer, so you search again. You inspect



everything, but there are no tickets in this drawer. You look through your whole room, but they're nowhere to be found.

You run to the kitchen and start looking on the counters. You open all the cupboards and drawers. You have no idea why the tickets would be there, but you need to look somewhere. In fifteen minutes, your kitchen looks like a disaster area. But still no tickets! You run out into the driveway. Maybe the tickets fell out somewhere? You look in the grass, the bushes, underneath cars. But even if they did fall out, they probably wouldn't even be there by now. As you walk back inside in complete frustration, you feel as though you're ready to pull your hair out. You lost the tickets. And you obviously can't go to the show without them.

Suddenly, you hear a knock on the door. Your friend is early, probably because she's eager to get going. You can hear her humming outside. What are you going to tell her? She'll be crushed. Is there anything you can do? Maybe you should lie? But that probably won't solve anything. As you walk toward the door, you get ready to fess up, take the blame, and hope that everything will be okay. You open the door, ready for the worst.

As you are about to start telling her what happened, she yells "Are you ready?" and pulls out the two tickets from her back pocket. Your eyes get wide. You grab the tickets from her hand and fall to your knees. Your friend has the tickets! She's had them the whole time. You think back and remember that she wanted to show the tickets to another person, so she took them the other week. You can't believe you forgot. You don't think you've ever felt so relieved in your life. You sit down, shake your head, and put your



hand on your chest. You begin to laugh, wiping the sweat from your forehead. You and your friend will get to go to the show after all. Things are going to be just fine.

As you try to forget what happened, you're actually even more thrilled about the concert than before. Your relief turns into elation. You want to shout to everyone just how great you feel. It's as though you just found the winning lottery ticket. You can appreciate going to the concert even more now, knowing that you were very close to not going at all. Your friend is dying to get to the show, and her euphoria is contagious. Both of you run out the door, turn up the stereo, and head off to the most thrilling show of your lives.

Purchase intention measures

Product set for public consumption

Imagine you are in the market for a new tablet case. You consider four cases you like, which are similar in style and price.

Two tablet cases are from a large, low-cost retailer's website (H&M); they are as nearly identical in appearance to prestigious tablet cases of Louis Vuitton, but they have the low-status retailer's brand (H&M) on the front. The other two cases are available from an Internet retailer that specializes in designer replicas, or knockoffs. They are as nearly identical in appearance to prestigious tablet cases of Louis Vuitton and as displaying the prestige brand name on the front. Because the tablet cases are not exact copies of the Louis Vuitton cases (although for the vast majority of people, they appear to be the Louis Vuitton cases), purchasing them is completely legal.



The price for the four tablet cases is the same.

PICTURES OF TABLET CASES

LV tablet case explicit logo



LV tablet case subtle logo



H&M tablet case explicit logo



H&M tablet case subtle logo



How likely is it to purchase each tablet case option?

Not at all likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very likely

Product set for private consumption

Imagine you are in the market for a face towel. You consider four towels you like, which are similar in style and price.

Two face towels are from a large, low-cost retailer's website (ZARA); they are as nearly identical in appearance to prestigious face towels of GUCCI, but they have the low-status retailer's brand (ZARA) on the front. The other two towels are available from an Internet retailer that specializes in designer replicas, or knockoffs. They are as nearly identical in appearance to prestigious face towels of GUCCI and as displaying the prestige brand name on the front. Because the face towels are not exact copies of the GUCCI towels (although for the vast majority of people, they appear to be the GUCCI towels), purchasing them is completely legal.

The price for the four face towels is the same.



PICTURES OF FACE TOWELS

Gucci towel explicit logo



Gucci towel subtle logo



Zara towel explicit logo



Zara towel subtle logo



How likely is it to purchase each face towel option?

Not at all likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very likely

Manipulation check

To what extent... Not at all 1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7.....8.....9 Very much

do you feel competitive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
are you motivated to compete	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
do you desire to have higher social status	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
are you motivated to have higher prestige	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
you motivated to have higher dominance	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
do you feel enthusiastic	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
do you feel excited	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
do you feel frustrated	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
do you feel angry	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9



Product Type Manipulation

Original Luxury Condition (The study was fully cross-sexed such that male and female participants read the description of male and female target individuals).

Instructions: You will be making evaluations of contemporary business people. Please read carefully the following description.

Description of the target individual

The target individual you are about to evaluate is a male 32 years old. He holds a Master in Business Administration (MBA) and he is employed as a senior analyst for a *Fortune 500* company. His favorite hobby is biking and when he has free time he enjoys going to the movies and listening to music.

The target individual has just purchased a new **Louis Vuitton (LV)** wallet.

Counterfeit Luxury Condition (In this participants condition, we changed the LV wallet to a counterfeit LV wallet, and the rest was kept constant).

Low Status Condition (In this participants condition, we changed the LV wallet to a ZARA wallet, and the rest was kept constant).



Dependent measures

Please, select the number that best fits your answer.

This person has high status.

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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This person is well respected.

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------

This person wants to deceive about his status.

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------

This person is rich.

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------

This person has a lot of money.

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------



This person is trustworthy.

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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This person is honest.

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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This person would be desirable for a short-term relationship (a date).

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very
desirable										desirable

This person would be desirable for a long-term relationship (marriage).

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very
desirable										desirable

I would like to be friends with the target individual.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly
Disagree								Agree



I admire the target individual.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly
Disagree								Agree

Being friends with the target individual would increase my social status.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly
Disagree								Agree

I can learn how to be more popular by spending time with the target individual.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly
Disagree								Agree

Please, answer the following items as you think the target person would answer them.

Please indicate the degree to which *you agree or disagree* with the following statements.

I admire people who own expensive homes, cars, and clothes.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree



Some of the most important achievements in life include acquiring material possessions.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

I don't place much emphasis on the amount of material objects people own as a sign of success.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

The things I own say a lot about how well I'm doing in life.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

I like to own things that impress people.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree



I try to keep my life simple, as far as possessions are concerned.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

The things I own aren't all that important to me.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

I like a lot of luxury in my life.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

I put less emphasis on material things than most people I know.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree



I have all the things I really need to enjoy life.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

My life wouldn't be better if I owned certain things I don't have.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

I wouldn't be any happier if I owned nicer things.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree

It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly
Disagree						Agree



Sex without love is OK.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Strongly
Disagree										Agree

I can imagine myself being comfortable and enjoying “casual” sex with different partners.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Strongly
Disagree										Agree

I would have to be closely attached to someone (both emotionally and psychologically) before I could feel comfortable and fully enjoy having sex with him or her.

Strongly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Strongly
Disagree										Agree



Please, indicate the sentence that best describes the target individual out of each pair.

☐ I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so

☐ When people compliment me I sometimes get embarrassed

☐ I like to be the center of attention

☐ I prefer to blend in with the crowd

☐ I think I am a special person

☐ I am no better or nor worse than most people

☐ I like having authority over people

☐ I don't mind following orders

☐ I find it easy to manipulate people

☐ I don't like it when I find myself manipulating people

- ☐ I insist upon getting the respect that is due me
- ☐ I usually get the respect that I deserve
- ☐ I am apt to show off if I get the chance
- ☐ I try not to be a show off
- ☐ I always know what I am doing
- ☐ Sometimes I am not sure of what I am doing
- ☐ Everybody likes to hear my stories
- ☐ Sometimes I tell good stories
- ☐ I expect a great deal from other people
- ☐ I like to do things for other people
- ☐ I really like to be the center of attention
- ☐ It makes me uncomfortable to be the center of attention



- ☐ People always seem to recognize my authority
- ☐ Being an authority doesn't mean that much to me
- ☐ I am going to be a great person
- ☐ I hope I am going to be successful
- ☐ I can make anybody believe anything I want them to
- ☐ People sometimes believe what I tell them
- ☐ I am more capable than other people
- ☐ There is a lot that I can learn from other people
- ☐ I am an extraordinary person
- ☐ I am much like everybody else



Appendix 3: Sample Stimuli and Measurements of Experiment 3

Intrasexual Competition Manipulation (Men)

Intrasexual competition condition (In the female participants condition, we changed the photos to attractive women and the rest was kept constant).

Instructions: The first task has to do with your ability to judge attractiveness. You will see 10 male photos – some of them are current students at your university – and you have to rate each one on attractiveness.

Intrasexual competition manipulation



How attractive is this man?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this man?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------



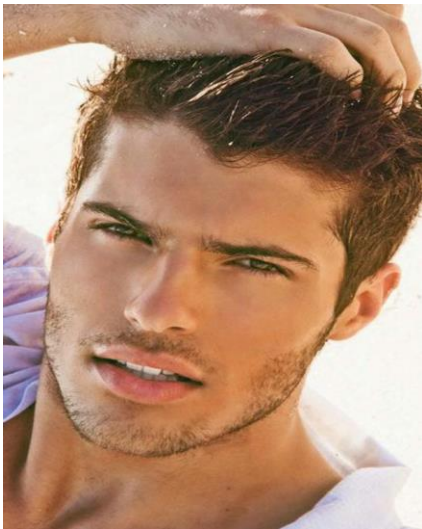
How attractive is this man?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------



How attractive is this man?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------



How attractive is this man?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------



How attractive is this man?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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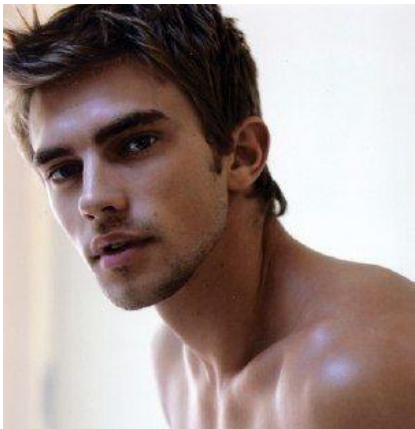
How attractive is this man?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this man?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this man?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this man?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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Intersexual Courtship Manipulation (Men)

Intersexual courtship condition (In the female participants condition, we changed the photos to attractive men and the rest was kept constant).

Instructions: The first task has to do with your ability to judge attractiveness. You will see 10 female photos – some of them are current students at your university – and you have to rate each one on attractiveness.

Intersexual courtship manipulation



How attractive is this woman?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this woman?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------



How attractive is this woman?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this woman?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this woman?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this woman?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this woman?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this woman?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this woman?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----------



How attractive is this woman?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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Control Manipulation

Control condition (Male and female participants viewed and rated the same photos).

Instructions: The first task has to do with your ability to judge attractiveness. You will see 10 different roads all around the world and you have to rate each one on attractiveness.

Control manipulation



How attractive is this road?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this road?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this road?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this road?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this road?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this road?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this road?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this road?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this road?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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How attractive is this road?

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Very much
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Purchase intention measures

Product set for Men

Imagine you are in the market for a new pair of shoes. You consider two pair of shoes you like, which are similar in style and price.

Two first pair of shoes is from a large, low-cost retailer's website (ZARA); it is as nearly identical in appearance to a prestigious pair of shoes of Louis Vuitton, but it has the low-status retailer's brand (ZARA) on the front. The other pair of shoes is available from an Internet retailer that specializes in designer replicas, or knockoffs. It is as nearly identical in appearance to a prestigious Louis Vuitton pair of shoes and as displaying the prestige brand name on the front. Because the shoes are not exact copies of the Louis Vuitton shoes (although for the vast majority of people, they appear to be the Louis Vuitton shoes), purchasing them is completely legal.

The price for the two pair of shoes is the same.



PICTURES OF SHOES

Ζευγάρι παπούτσια Α



Ζευγάρι παπούτσια Β



How likely is it to purchase pair of shoes?

Not at all likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very likely

Product set for Women

Imagine you are in the market for a new handbag. You consider two handbags you like, which are similar in style and price.

The first handbag is from a large, low-cost retailer's website (ZARA); it is as nearly identical in appearance to a prestigious handbag of Louis Vuitton, but it has the low-status retailer's brand (ZARA) on the front. The other handbag is available from an Internet retailer that specializes in designer replicas, or knockoffs. It is as nearly identical in appearance to a prestigious Louis Vuitton handbag and as displaying the prestige brand name on the front. Because the handbag is not exact copy of the Louis Vuitton handbag (although for the vast majority of people, it appears to be the Louis Vuitton handbag), purchasing it is completely legal.

The price for the two handbags is the same.



PICTURES OF HANDBAGS

ΤΣΑΝΤΑ Α



ΤΣΑΝΤΑ Β



How likely is it to purchase each handbag?

Not at all likely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Very likely