A GOAL-STRIVING MODEL FOR CONSUMERS' DELIBERATE COUNTERFEIT-CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOR

by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS – Continued

TABLE OF CONTENTS – Continued

TABLE OF CONTENTS – Continued

TABLE OF CONTENTS – Continued

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

ABSTRACT

Counterfeit consumption is becoming widespread, developing into a problem of international significance. In an attempt to develop a refined understanding of the motivations and decision-making processes of consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior, this empirical study not only integrates the theory of planned behavior and insights from self-regulatory theories, but also extends these theories by re-conceptualizing the relationships among key constructs with the inclusion of action desire. This research also introduces and integrates a new construct, namely consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection (PCD) by important others.

Using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods consisting of in-depth interviews and a self-administered paper questionnaire, this research empirically tested a proposed goal-striving model for deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior, using structural equations modeling. Results demonstrated PCD's existence and supported a refined goal-striving model, based upon which effective strategies to decrease consumer's counterfeit consumption are discussed.

Keywords: Counterfeit, theory of planned behavior, goal-directed behavior, action desire, counterfeit detection

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background and Introduction to the Problem

Counterfeiting is growing quickly, becoming a large business, and developing into a problem of international significance. Historically confined to inauthentic currency and negotiable instruments, counterfeiting has currently infiltrated all forms of industry, including the consumer goods and service industries (Field 2000). The global market for counterfeited brands is expected to exceed $600 billion annually, which accounts for about 7% of world trade (World Customs Organization 2004). Counterfeiting will become the “21st century’s crime”, asserted James Moody, former chief of the FBI’s AntiCounterfeiting Coalition (International AntiCounterfeiting Coalition 2008).

There are several reasons for the increase in counterfeiting over the past several years (e.g., London 2003). They include an increase in world trade and newly emerging markets; easier access to sophisticated technology (e.g., advances in software applications, networking, and digital formats for compression) that makes counterfeiting easier; and a considerable increase in products and goods deemed worthy of counterfeiting, such as pharmaceuticals (Alcock, Chen, Ch'ng, and Hodson 2003; Nunes, Hsee, and Weber 2004).

The ever-increasing occurrence of counterfeiting threatens economic systems. One might argue of course that counterfeiting economically helps some companies, such as those producing counterfeits and those selling them. However, due to an anticipated overall negative effect (e.g., decreased tax base, fewer “call backs” of hazardous items), most countries prosecute those individuals and companies that trade in counterfeits (Eisend and Schuchert-Güler 2006). Each year counterfeiting is also responsible for the estimated loss of about 300,000 jobs in Europe (Eisend and Schuchert-Güler 2006) and 750,000 jobs in the United States (The U.S. Chamber of Commerce 2006). Therefore, companies, governments, and enforcement agencies unsurprisingly devote extraordinary resources to deal with this global “crime” (International AntiCounterfeiting Coalition 2008).

The rising phenomenon of counterfeiting has also generated a significant body of scholarly discussion and research from both the supply and demand sides. Research on the supply side so far has often emphasized the introduction of new regulations concerning trade law and trademark protection (e.g., Bamossy and Scammon 1985; Bush, Bloch, and Dawson 1989; Carty 1994; Olsen and Granzin 1992). Research relating to the demand side of counterfeiting focuses on consumer behavior and attitudes in the presence of counterfeits (for details, see review papers by Eisend and Schuchert-Güler 2006; and Staake, Thiesse, and Fleisch 2009).

Counterfeiting in general appears as either deceptive or non-deceptive (Staake and Fleish 2009). Deceptive counterfeiting refers to purchases in which consumers are not aware that an item is counterfeit but believe it is genuine; non-deceptive counterfeiting refers to purchases in which consumers are aware that they are buying counterfeit items. Non-deceptive counterfeiting in this research includes deliberately consuming counterfeits as well as misleading others into thinking that purchased counterfeits are genuine brands. Some consumers— especially those who are very knowledgeable about counterfeited brands— deliberately purchase counterfeits, because they believe that others around them are unlikely to discern their counterfeit purchases. Non-deceptive counterfeit consumers also include those who prefer to keep the use of counterfeits covert from important others, such as employers, branded-product companies, and conservative friends; however, they may not mind if strangers or like-minded friends know a purchase is counterfeit. Other non-deceptive counterfeit consumers include those who consider themselves "smart shoppers" for not paying the high price of genuine luxury brands, as well as those who buy counterfeits as a way to express resistance to giant corporations or genuine brands that they believe take in "unreasonable profits."

The proposed research focuses on the non-deceptive form of counterfeiting. This research orientation is important in light of the global anti-counterfeiting fiasco; more and more consumers are knowingly and overtly purchasing counterfeits, especially in the luxury goods sectors (Nia and Zaichkowsky 2000). An earlier field study for example, found that over one-third of the respondents knowingly considered buying the counterfeit version rather than the genuine designer shirt or a non-logo shirt version (Bloch, Bush, and Campbell 1993). Wee, Tan, and Cheok (1995) argue that to eradicate counterfeiting—ideally to a high degree, but unlikely entirely—consumers first need to be discouraged from buying and using branded-goods. To achieve that end, a better understanding of the motivations and decision-making processes of consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior is warranted.

Research Objectives and Contributions

This research develops a refined theoretical model (see Figure 1.1) of the motivations and decision-making processes of consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior by incorporating the perspective of self-regulatory behaviors. It integrates the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1991) (see Figure 1.2) and the model of effortful decision making and enactment (Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basuroy 2003). More importantly, it extends these theories by identifying and demonstrating a new construct: consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection (PCD) by important others, which this study indicates critical within the deliberate counterfeit-consumption context. It also deepens the theories by re-conceptualizing the relationships of the key constructs in these theories with action desire as well as this research's newly introduced construct of PCD. In addition to its theoretical contributions, this research provides empirical implications (see Chapter 5 for details) that can aid in decreasing consumer's counterfeit consumption.

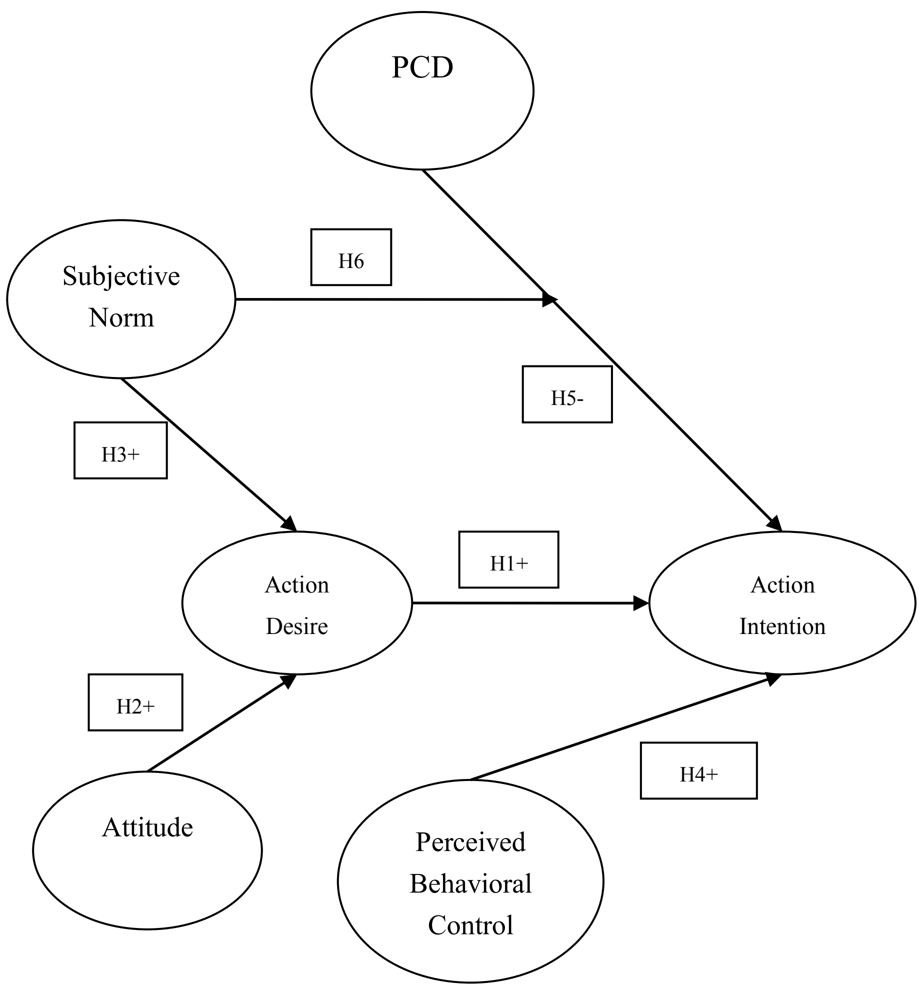

Figure 1.1 A Goal-Striving Model for Consumers' Deliberate Counterfeit-Consumption Behavior

PCD = Consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection by important others

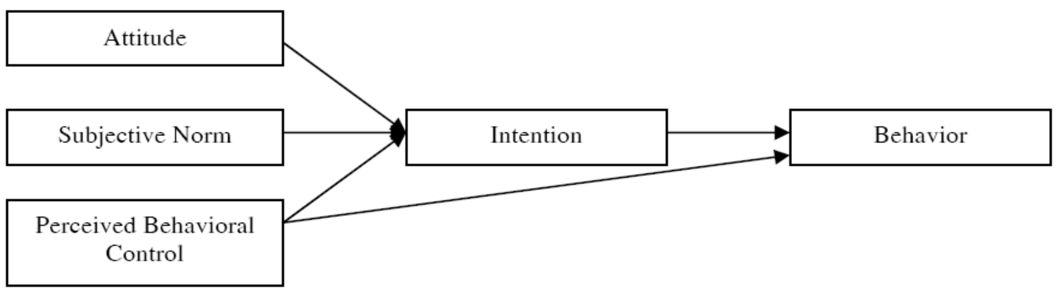

Figure 1.2 Theory of Planned Behavior

Organization of the Dissertation

The remainder of the dissertation is organized as follows. Chapter 2 begins by discussing what is counterfeiting and also what is not a counterfeit, followed by a literature review of the demand side of counterfeiting and a discussion of several critical gaps in the current knowledge. The remainder of chapter 2 proposes the theoretical framework of deliberate counterfeit-consumption and pertinent hypotheses. Chapter 3 describes the methodology of this research, followed by the data analysis results in Chapter 4. Chapter 5, the last chapter, discusses the theoretical and managerial implications of the research findings, and provides suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

This chapter seeks to develop a refined theoretical understanding of the motivations and decision-making processes that can better explain consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior. It discusses what is counterfeiting and what is not a counterfeit, followed by a literature review of past research concerning deliberate counterfeit consumption as well as a discussion of critical gaps in the current knowledge. From a self-regulatory behavior perspective, this chapter proposes a goal-striving model that delineates the underlying mechanism of deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior. The model re-conceptualizes the relationships of the key constructs specified in the theory of planned behavior (i.e., attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and intention) along with action desire to deliberately purchase counterfeits, and the proposed new construct of consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection (PCD) by important others.

What is Counterfeiting?

While the Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2010) defines counterfeit as "made in imitation of something else with intent to deceive," researchers have used definitions of counterfeiting holding different emphases and assumptions. Kay (1990) defines counterfeiting as the "production of copies which are identically packaged, including trademarks and labeling copies so as to seem to a consumer the genuine article" (p. 55-56). Although Bloch, Bush, and Campbell (1993, p. 27) define counterfeiting in the more common manner ("copying of trademarked or copyrighted goods"), they nonetheless clearly state that a counterfeit is an unauthorized copy. Cordell, Wongtada, and Kieschnick (1996) narrow the definition of counterfeit products to only those "whose special characteristics are protected as intellectual property rights" (e.g., trademarks, patents, and copyrights: see p. 41). Both the definitions of counterfeiting by Bloch, Bush, and Campbell (1993) and by Cordell, Wongtada and Kieschnick (1996) appear to suggest that in order for the definition "counterfeit" to apply, the original goods must be under the protection of intellectual property rights (e.g., trademarks, patents, and copyrights). While this assertion is correct in most situations, it is not necessarily always the case. Counterfeited goods may not be under protection, because the makers did not apply for protection, or the protection application is still in the approval process. Whatever the reason for their intent to relax the assumption of intellectual property rights, Eisend and Schuchert-Güler (2006) refer to counterfeiting as taking an original product with brand value and copying its characteristics in another product, "which is indistinguishable from the original, and is sold at a lower price as if it were the original" (p.1). Price differences alone, however, may not alert a consumer to the identification of a counterfeited brand; a consumer can often distinguish a counterfeit from a genuine brand based upon distribution channels, inferior quality, or lack of an official receipt and warranty. In fact, in order for a counterfeit to be recognized as a counterfeit, it need not be sold at a lower price than the original; the incentive for counterfeiting is increased if the counterfeit can be so skillfully made and marketed as to command prices close to the original.

The different definitions of counterfeiting characterized in the above analysis suggest a need to unify the definition of counterfeiting. In order to provide a comprehensive, parsimonious definition to guide this research, as well as for future research on counterfeiting, the researcher defines the term counterfeiting as follows:

Counterfeiting is any unauthorized manufacturing of a genuine product that (1) typically possesses high brand name values on the market; (2) falsely uses the genuine product's brand name; and also (3) copies packaging, trademarks, labeling, or any combination of the three to make it appear genuine to consumers.

According to the researcher's definition of counterfeiting, the "correct" or "more precise" term should be counterfeited *brands* when referring to the counterfeit counterparts of genuine articles, like Gucci, Rolex, and Louis Vuitton. The reason for this definition is that counterfeit producers focus on copying the characteristics (e.g., logo, trademark, and design) of a name brand, and not on making an absolutely faithful reproduction of a genuine article; without a genuine brand and the characteristics that a genuine brand ensures, there would be no counterfeit (Bloch, Bush, and Campbell 1993; Cordell, Wongtada, and Kieschnick 1996). Therefore, even though the literature seems to use the terms "counterfeits, counterfeit goods, counterfeit products, counterfeit brands, and counterfeited brands" interchangeably, the view that counterfeiting involves copying the genuine brand is the most appropriate for this line of research.

What is not a Counterfeit?

The term counterfeit differs from several similar terms such as pirated, imitated, and gray market good. It is therefore necessary to explain these terms' similarities and differences, for they often confuse consumers—and even researchers.

Differing from counterfeited brands, pirated goods refer to "unauthorized duplication of original commercial products" (United States Code1982, p129); in counterfeiting, the original products' packaging, labeling, or both, are forged as well (United States Code

1982). A buyer may be alerted that an item for sale may be pirated by the fact that it is not in any factory wrapping. A counterfeit, on the other hand, duplicates the original factory wrapping with markings forged from the original product. Piracy, according to this definition, is probably the more common of the two (piracy versus counterfeiting) supported by the fact that most pirated products are in a digital form, such as computer software, music, and movies, and are familiar to most people.

Piracy can be of two types: copying of products on a large scale for resale, and copying products for personal use (Nunes et al. 2004). The former is addressed by the legal system through laws, enforcement, penalties, or international agreements for prosecution (Nunes et al. 2004). However, when considering copying for personal use, legal means are not as effective. Copying for personal use, the activity identified by Lai and Zaichkowsy (1999) as piracy, is considered common (Cromwell, Olson, and Avary 1993). A study has shown that consumers' perceptions of a product's cost structure (i.e., variable cost and fixed cost) can explain why normally law-abiding consumers are more likely to steal intellectual property products (e.g., software) than more tangible, material products (e.g., jewelry) (Nunes et al. 2004). The casual copying of computer programs, games, music, and movies has become so common that the industry lobby introduced into Congress the No Electronic Theft Act (17 U.S.C. § 101), which was signed into law by President Clinton in 1997. This law prohibits such pirating activity and can sentence people at the felony level, even when no profit is gained by the individuals.

In contrast to counterfeiting, the making of imitations is authorized—even though one may claim that imitations are the more obtuse infringements than counterfeits (Zaichkowsky and Garkey 1995). An imitation, often inspired by an original, is the legal production of a look-a-like product (Lai and Zaichkowsky 1999). Take Bossini as an example. A legally recognized worldwide garment manufacturer headquartered in Hong Kong, China, Bossini makes clothing similar in style and type to the Benetton brand (Lai and Zaichkowsky 1999).

Note that an imitation is colloquially called a knock-off. Knock-offs, including store brand goods, can be easily recognized as such by consumers, for they are more candid about their similarities to and differences from the originals with regard to characteristics such as quality and product source. In contrast, counterfeited brands—by definition—are offered as the genuine brands (Grossman and Shapiro 1988), though they are often inferior to their genuine models.

A problem facing investigators and prosecutors is the increasing quality of counterfeited brands (Wilcox, Kim, and Sen 2008). In the case of many luxury brands, this increasing improvement of the counterfeited brands has resulted in a change from a strict dichotomy between genuine and counterfeited brands to more of a continuum

(Global Business Leaders' Alliance Against Counterfeiting 2005). The outsourcing of the manufacturing of products has facilitated both the frequency of counterfeiting, and the noted rise in quality of such goods (Wilcox, Kim, and Sen 2008). The addition of a "ghost shift" to a factory schedule can be devoted to the production of counterfeits, using the same design specifications and even molds and other equipment used by the authorized products, even though raw materials may be inferior (Parloff 2006; Phillips 2005).

Another term, often difficult to distinguish from counterfeit, is that of the gray market good. Lai and Zaichkowsky (1999) define gray market goods as manufacturers' overruns associated with production by outsourced manufacturers. The definition of a gray market good is frequently determined by the geographic area in which it is sold, even though it is produced legally by a manufacturer. Software products that are supported by their makers, or products that carry warranties, are generally designated for sale in certain geographical markets. Selling in violation of the defined marketing area will result in a perfectly legitimate product being defined as a gray market product (Bamossy and Scammon 1985).

Table 2.1 summarizes the similarities and differences between counterfeit, pirated, imitated, and gray market goods.

Table 2.1 *Similarities and Differences Between Counterfeit and Similar Terms*

Product Category	**Definition**	**Authorized to Manufacture Product**	**Authorized to Distribute Product**	**Authorized to Sell Product**	**Examples of Original Brand Names**
Counterfeits	Unauthorized manufacturing; falsely used genuine brand names; “copy cat” packaging, trademarks, and labeling	No	No	No	Gucci and Louis Vuitton products
Pirated goods	Unauthorized duplication; often use genuine brand names; do not copy packaging, trademarks, and labeling	No	No	No	Software, music, and movies
Imitations or “knock-off” products	Legal production of a look-a-like product	Yes	Yes	Yes	Bossini (imitating Benetton brand)
Gray market goods	Extra copies produced by outsourced manufacturers	Yes	No	No	Disneyland products sold in unauthorized geographic areas as in China

Past Research Concerning Deliberate Counterfeit Consumption

Past research pertaining to deliberate counterfeit consumption has primarily focused on identifying factors that influence consumers’ consideration of purchasing and using counterfeits (e.g., Tom et al. 1998; Wee, Tan, and Cheok 1995). Researchers Eisend and

Schuchert-Güler (2006) classify these factors into four categories: the person, the product, the broader cultural context, and the situation. The person, the first category, consists of demographic and psychographic variables including willingness to take risks, according to Eisend and Schuchert-Güler (2006). Studies have shown, for example, that purchases of counterfeited brands occur more often among individuals of the lower social strata, who may not be able to afford or otherwise purchase the genuine brands (Bloch, Bush, and Campbell 1993; Tom et al. 1998). Research has also shown that consumers perceive greater financial, and time risks when purchasing counterfeit products (Bamossy and Scammon 1985). Chakraborty, Allred, and Bristol (1996) additionally report that consumers might perceive other more psychologically or socially based risks in buying counterfeited brands.

The product, the second category, comprises price, product attributes, and scarcity. In general, the more expensive the genuine brand is in relation to the counterfeit, the greater the likelihood the counterfeit will be selected (Albers-Miller 1999). Regarding product attributes, Tom et al. (1998) find that counterfeited brands with a greater symbolic component and a lesser functional component, are selected more frequently than counterfeited brands with a greater functional component and a lesser symbolic component. Moreover, both the scarcity and the oversupply of genuine brands can affect consumers' decisions about counterfeiting counterparts. Studies have shown that some clothing brands, such as Calvin Klein underwear or Lacoste shirts, are considerably less popular than they were originally, after the brands became more common, coupled with the fact that counterfeit versions of these products appeared on the market, further diluting their brands' exclusivity among consumers (Eisend and Schuchert-Güler 2006).

The broader cultural context and the purchase situation—the third and fourth categories— respectively refer to the social and cultural context, as well as the situational context in which the counterfeit purchase decision is made. The effect of the cultural context can be discerned by comparing the frequency of purchasing and using counterfeits across countries and regions. Researchers have found that this behavior is more common in Asian countries such as China than in North American ones such as the United States (Wilcox, Kim, and Sen 2008).

The fourth category, the situational context, involves an external purchase situation such as the shopping environment, as well as the internal state of the purchaser including his or her mood. Albers-Miller (1999) finds that the buying situation (e.g., when others around are buying illicit goods, a consumer is most willing to buy), along with product type and price, is a significant predictor of respondents' willingness to buy illicit goods.

Critical Gaps in the Current Knowledge

Although there has been some progress made in understanding consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior, several critical gaps remain. First, research endeavors have been exploratory in nature with only a few exceptions (for details, see review papers by Eisend and Schuchert-Güler 2006; and Staake, Thiesse, and Fleisch 2009). As a result, most findings are descriptive and fragmented, providing limited insights into the motivational processes of deliberate counterfeit consumption.

Second, studies using theoretical frameworks—such as the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior —fall short of an integrated, uniform framework that clarifies the motivational processes of goal-directed, self-regulatory behavior, such as deliberate counterfeit consumption. The majority of studies have neglected the motivational processes governing decisions and stimulating action (e.g., Penz and Stöttinger 2005; Penz, Schlegelmilch, and Stöttinger 2009). Knowledge of consumers' motivational processes, however, is crucial for understanding their intention-behavior relationship—for goal-directed, self-regulatory behavior in particular—because the intention-behavior relationship is "conditioned on decision making regarding the means needed to achieve a goal" (Bagozzi 1992, p. 200). Field's (2000) dissertation, using the means-end chain approach, does consider a consumer's motivation, but it cannot sufficiently explain when consumers would actually purchase counterfeited brands or not. Applying the means-end chain approach in empirical studies is particularly difficult (for details, see Bagozzi and Dabholkar 2000). The studies to date also lack integration because they have mostly addressed only the attitude-intention link of the three key links in attitude theories (attitude-intention, subjective norm-intention, or intention-behavior) (e.g., Yoo and Lee 2009; Wilcox, Kim, and Sen 2008). For instance, drawing on the functional theories of attitudes (Katz 1960; Shavitt 1989), Wilcox et al. (2008) have shown that consumers' desire for counterfeit luxury brands strongly relates to their social motivations. However, Wilcox et al. (2008) have only addressed the attitude-intention relationship. To date, a lack of theoretical uniformity in a number of studies results in what appears to be an ad hoc or "unlimited" addition of many variables to explain consumer behavior, sometimes referred to as the "other variables" approach (Bagozzi 1992 p.1). This makes standardization or generalization of results difficult (Bagozzi 1992). For example, using the theory of planned behavior as the guiding theory, Penz and Stöttinger (2005) also included nine "other variables" in their study such as defending counterfeiters, smart shoppers, embarrassment potential, self-identity, fashion involvement, ethical predisposition, and price consciousness to explain key drivers of the demand for counterfeits.

Finally, to the researcher's knowledge, none of these studies have clearly treated consumers' deliberate purchase and use of counterfeits as a goal-directed behavior. Consumers' deliberate counterfeit consumption, however, is a voluntary, self-regulatory behavior driven by certain desires and motives.

In goal-directed behaviors, self-regulation plays a vital role. Often used interchangeably with self-control and defined as “any efforts by the human self to alter any of its own inner states or responses” (Vohs and Baumeister 2004, p3) self-regulation can be viewed as a deliberate response to the question, “How shall I act?” (Bagozzi 2010). Whether a person actually purchases a counterfeit item or not, is ultimately influenced by many factors, including how he or she acts. Goal realization usually requires overcoming obstacles and resisting temptations that may stand in the way of attaining a goal (Bagozzi 2010). These obstacles often include individual abilities and limitations, unconscious habits, and possibly a significant time-lag between reaching the decision and an opportunity to enact it (Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basuroy 2003). A consumer might have a high level of desire to purchase a counterfeit product determined by factors such as favorable attitude, but might also have a low level of intention due to subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, or any combination of these factors. The act of overcoming obstacles, resisting temptations, and planning the means to attain goals involves self-regulation (Bagozzi 2010).

In short, to a large extent, past studies on consumers’ deliberate purchase and use of counterfeits are descriptive and lack a theoretical framework embedded in the study design. For the very few studies that have used theoretical approaches, they offer limited managerial implications since the guiding theories are insufficient in the context of deliberate counterfeit consumption. The proposed framework in this research considers self-regulation input and conceives consumers' deliberate consumption behavior of counterfeits as a process and one constituted by goal striving. It provides a relatively comprehensive and integrated explanation for such consumption behavior, rather than other theoretical approaches such as attitude theory (e.g., the theory of planned behavior).

Theoretical Background

Attitude theories in the published literature, such as the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior, are often used to predict consumer behaviors. One critical gap in the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior models, however, occurs in the link between an individual's reactions to using information and the individual's intention. Among the many reasons for acting that a decision maker might consider in forming an intention to act, the theory of reasoned action specifies two constructs (i.e., attitudes and subjective norms), and the theory of planned behavior specifies three (i.e., attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control). One broad issue deserving scrutiny, nevertheless, relates to the absence of convincing motivations for acting on putative reasons (Bagozzi 1992; 2007). A person might recognize and form favorable attitudes toward such contrasting behaviors as using counterfeits to something as acceptable as visiting one's family. These attitudes might theoretically lead to action, but the individual may have no desire to act—and may even decide not to act—despite these reasons. This means that attitudes do not necessarily constitute motives to act, for a given decision maker or situation. A second broad issue pertains to the mechanisms by which different reasons for acting and not acting are reconciled and transformed into a decision or an intention to act (such as the mechanism of action desire (discussed later in this paper).

Moreover, three major issues exist in these attitude theories from the perspective of goal-directed behaviors (Bagozzi 2007). First, these theories only consider behavior as a terminal goal. In many situations, actions are taken not so much as ends in themselves but rather as the means to more essential ends or goals. Second, these theories often fail to consider the significant time lag between reaching the decision and an opportunity to enact it (Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basuroy 2003). Third, following the decision to take action, decision makers often recognize that temptations and obstacles may arise. Therefore, their situation may be filled with uncertainty and require effort put forth in a dynamic manner. Consequently, they often emphasize *trying* to adopt an action that may result in a change in orientation, which fundamentally differs from an emphasis only on behavior per se (Bagozzi 1992).

From the perspective of goal-directed behavior, conceiving a behavior as a process and one constituted by goal striving is essential (Bagozzi and Dholakia 1999). In goal striving, intention formation is succeeded by planning, overcoming temptations and impediments, keeping track of the process to goal attainment, maintaining willpower and effort, and re-evaluating—even modifying—means and goals (Bagozzi 2007). These goal-striving processes are crucial for realization of goals in goal-directed behavior.

In general, even though the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior are remarkable models and have greatly influenced empirical research for a significant period of time, there are two critical gaps in their framework (i.e., first, the link between an individual's reactions to using information and the individual's intention; and second, the relationship between intention and behavior). By addressing these gaps and other issues (e.g., over-reliance on a purely deterministic framework without considering the self-regulation process) associated with the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior models, Bagozzi and his colleagues have developed and updated new models that directly target purposive behavior; for example, the model of effortful decision making and enactment (Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basuroy 2003) that is applied and extended in this study through an innovative counterfeit-consumption context and the role of the proposed construct, consumer’s perceived counterfeit detection by important others.

In this research the researcher first asserts that consumers’ deliberate counterfeit consumption is a goal-directed behavior. The researcher then proposes a goal-striving model delineating the underlying dynamics that drive this behavior.

Deliberate Counterfeit Consumption as a Goal-Directed Behavior

Much consumer behavior is goal-directed, and as such, consumers set goals and behave in ways that help them meet their goals (Bagozzi and Dholakia 1999). Dieting is a good example of this behavior: people make goal-directed choices about caloric intake and act on them (Bagozzi and Edwards 2000).

Goal-directed behavior can be thought of as beginning with goal setting (Bagozzi and Dholakia 1999). Bagozzi and Edwards (2000) define goal setting as “the deliberative processes one goes through in weighing reasons for acting, which culminates in a goal intention” (p. 255).The goal intention does not specify or refer to the particular actions needed for goal achievement (Bagozzi and Dholakia 1999). To achieve his or her goal, a consumer needs to transform a goal intention into action and action into goal realization, meaning that additional information processing and decision making are needed (Bagozzi and Dholakia 1999). A goal intention provides the bridge between goal setting and goal striving with the latter defined as “the implementation and self-regulation of one’s end-state intentions and instrumental acts linked to goal attainment” (Bagozzi and Edwards 2000, p. 255). In this research, factors playing an important role in the goal-striving phase include desire and intent to buy counterfeits, attitudes toward using counterfeits, perceived ease of finding a place to buy a counterfeited brand, and concerns about important others’ reactions, all of which are instrumental for goal realization.

Previous studies, however, do not appear to have clearly treated consumers’ deliberate purchase and use of counterfeits as goal-directed behaviors. To meet different goals driven by certain desires and motives, today’s market place offers consumers many choices; they can choose among counterfeited luxury brands, genuine luxury brands as well as knock-off products. Therefore, if consumers choose to knowingly buy and use counterfeits—even though sometimes counterfeits are more expensive than the knock-off products—they are engaged in a voluntary and self-regulatory behavior. After all, buying counterfeits is illegal in most jurisdictions; buyers can have their purchased items confiscated and may even be arrested. This makes deliberately purchasing and using counterfeited brands risky behavior. One can estimate the severity of the problem by calculating the number of seizures of counterfeits at border-crossings. Guiterez et al.

(2006) shows that seizures of counterfeit goods at U.S. border-crossings rose by more than 100 percent between 2001 and 2006 (Guiterez et al. 2006). The seizures at E.U. border-crossings rose by 1,000 percent between 1998 and 2004, from 10 million items in 1998 to 103 million items in 2004 (Eisend and Schuchert-Güler 2006).

A Goal-Striving Model for Deliberate Counterfeit-Consumption Behavior

As discussed earlier, there is a lack of an overarching, systematic theoretical framework that can better explain consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior. Based on the discussion of critical gaps, the researcher argues that a framework, conceiving deliberate counterfeit consumption as a process and one constituted by goal striving (with self-regulation input), is more appropriate and will provide a comprehensive and integrated explanation for deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior.

In this research the researcher proposes a goal-striving model for consumers' deliberate counterfeit -consumption behavior to address the limitations identified in the literature. By not only applying, but also extending both the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1991) and the model of effortful decision making and enactment (Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basuroy 2003), the proposed model aims to provide an integrated explanation of deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior. It emphasizes the psychological mechanisms by which the decision-making process influences this deliberate consumption behavior during the goal-striving stage.

In the remaining sections of this chapter, the researcher introduces the proposed model in detail and the hypotheses derived from this model that may better explain consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior.

Action Desire and Action Intention

From the perspective of effortful and goal-directed behavior, an important notion is the distinction between desire and intention. Although often used in a narrow and biological sense, desire is seen more broadly in the scholarly tradition (Bagozzi 2010). Consistent with contemporary philosophers (e.g., Schroeder 2004), developmental psychologists (e.g., Astington 1996) and neuroscientists (e.g., Baron-Cohen et al. 2000), this tradition defines desire as a particular set of feelings that have motivational force and exist in appetitive and volitive forms (Bagozzi 2006a, b). Desires, by transforming various reasons for acting into the actual motivation to act, sum up a decision maker's generally felt urge to attain a goal or to act (e.g., Bagozzi 2010). An emerging body of work, for example, suggests that desire is an essential antecedent to intentions in effortful, goal-directed behavior (Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy 2003).

Once a consumer commits to attaining a goal, the desire for a specific means to attain the goal, such as action desire, often follows either automatically or via the operation of action-focused mental events. Action desire can follow automatically for several reasons. These may be due to habit, only one means available, or the means shaped by social pressures particular to the individual (Bagozzi 2010). If a goal commitment is tentative, however, the initiation of action desire may arise through the operation of action-focused mental events (Bagozzi 2010), such as factors identified in the theory of planned behavior examined in this research (see Figure 1.2).

In short, action desires for selected ends energize action intentions to perform instrumental acts (e.g., buy counterfeits) or goal-directed behavior(s) (e.g., Mele 1995). Based on the above arguments, the researcher hypothesizes that:

H1: The stronger the consumer's action desire to deliberately purchase counterfeits, the stronger the consumer's action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits.

Action Desire, Attitude, Subjective Norm, and Perceived Behavioral Control

In the context of deliberate counterfeit consumption, the researcher submits that the initiation of action desires primarily follows action-related mental events, rather than following automatically. First, reasons for action desire to follow automatically, rarely apply in this context. Among the many means—such as genuine luxury brands and knock-offs—that can also fulfill consumers' goals, counterfeits are not the only or necessarily dominating means. As an unethical behavior, deliberate counterfeit consumption can rarely serve as the only—or dominating—means that has been preselected by social pressure or a governing authority. Even though as time passes by, deliberate counterfeit consumption may become learned behavior for some consumers, such consumers can rarely consume counterfeits habitually due to concerns about laws and regulations, as well as the unstable nature of counterfeited brand choices and shopping locations. Moreover, often a consumer's goal commitment by means of deliberate counterfeit consumption is tentative due to other alternatives like genuine luxury brands and knock-off products. Uncertainty regarding whether counterfeits can help achieve a consumer's goal also often clouds the consumer's judgments. Based on the above arguments, in this research the researcher identifies and examines the theory of planned behavior as a candidate theory that meets the criteria of initiating action desires via the operation of action-focused mental events.

A great body of research based on the theory of planned behavior suggests that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control can influence decision making (Ajzen 1991). The theory of planned behavior proposes that actions are a *direct* function of behavioral intention (i.e., action intention from the perspective of goal-directed behavior) and perceived behavioral control; and *indirect* functions (through behavioral intention) of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control.

Differing from the theory of planned behavior, however, both attitudes and subjective norms in this paper are also proposed to positively determine action desire (i.e., H2 and H3), in addition to action intention, as proposed in the theory of planned behavior. In other words, the effects of attitude and subjective norms on action intention are reduced when the mediating role of action desire is included in the model. Although attitudes and subjective norms comprise reasons for acting, both typically lack motivational import in and of themselves; they may not always lead to an urge to act, for a given consumer or situation. To influence decisions, reasons for acting need to increase to a level of emotive significance (Bagozzi 1992). Emotive significance occurs through the "integrative, embodied appraisal, and transformative properties of action desires" (Bagozzi 2010, p326). Recent studies have supported the central role of action desire on action intention (e.g., Bagozzi and Dholakia 2006a; Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy 2003; Perugini and Bagozzi 2001). However, the newer model of effortful decision making and enactment in general and the construct of action desire in particular have been subject to limited empirical testing, especially in the counterfeit-consumption context. In addition, measurement errors may prevent from identifying the true “full” or “partial” mediation in Baron and Kenny’s terms (1986). Therefore, in this study the researcher did not specify whether action desire will fully or partially mediate the effects of attitude and subjective norm on action intention, respectively (i.e., H2 and H3).

In contrast, perceived behavioral control in the model is still proposed to directly and positively influence action intentions (i.e., H4). Perceived behavioral control reflects a decision maker’s sense of control over performing the selected actions in order to enact the decision, and therefore often governs action intentions (Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy 2003).

Based on the above arguments, the researcher hypothesizes that:

H2: Action desire will mediate the effect of attitude on action intention.

H3: Action desire will mediate the effect of subjective norm on action intention.

H4: The greater the consumer’s perceived behavioral control over the deliberate purchase of counterfeits, the stronger the consumer’s action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits.

Consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection

Aiming to develop a strong and parsimonious model, in the context of deliberate counterfeit consumption, the researcher submits that consumers' perceived counterfeit detection (PCD) by important others comes into play and should be considered as an important construct. PCD's integrative function derives from its primary antecedents, such as what occurs in the consumption situation of counterfeits (i.e., public versus private), a counterfeit item's product characteristics (i.e., functional versus symbolic), perceived product quality of counterfeits, and important others' ability to detect the counterfeits. Past studies have directly or indirectly identified some of these primary antecedents (for details, see review papers by Eisend and Schuchert-Güler 2006; and Staake, Thiesse, and Fleisch 2009). They are mostly exploratory in nature, however; more importantly, they have not focused on the relationships among these factors. Separately, these antecedents may be perceived and interpreted differently by different consumers. Together, through counterfeit-brand consumers' perceptions and what those perceptions mean to these consumers, these antecedents are reconciled and transformed into the proposed construct, to perform an integrative function, such as negatively influencing consumers' action intentions. The reason for specifying "important others" with regard to consumers' PCD is that consumers who deliberately purchase counterfeits may still prefer to keep their use of counterfeits hidden from important others (e.g., employers, family, and friends) whereas they may not mind if non-significant others know that their purchase is a counterfeit.

Wortzel (1987) suggests that all retail products can be classified along two dimensions: gross margin (low versus high) and merchandise type (functional versus symbolic). Functional goods are utilitarian and primarily satisfy consumers' physical needs or help them perform physical tasks. Symbolic goods, on the other hand, are those that consumers use to satisfy some "inner need" or to convey a message about themselves; messages such as affiliation, participation in activities, individuality, and affluence.

Similar to the notion of merchandise type (functional versus symbolic) suggested by Wortzel (1987), Greenberg, Sherman, and Schiman (1983) suggest that inherent in a wide array of consumer products is some component of fashion that may complement a product's functional elements. The influence this fashion element exerts on consumers depends on their individual fashion attitude. Greenberg, Sherman, and Schiman (1983) demonstrate that consumers pay attention more to the products' "reliability" and "durability" when deciding to buy products that are functional. On the other hand, for products possessing symbolic or fashion qualities, the characteristics of "visibility" as well as "appearance" are potentially more significant.

Ceteris paribus, in general the higher the anticipated product quality, the higher the demand for the product. When it comes to deliberate counterfeit consumption, however, the relationship between product quality and demand may not be as straightforward. For instance, Tom et al. (1998) find that counterfeit products with a greater functional component and a lesser fashion (i.e., symbolic) component are selected less frequently than products with a lesser functional component and a greater fashion component. Here the researcher explains in further detail why Tom et al. (1998) arrived at these findings. Deliberate purchase of a counterfeit at a considerable discount from the price of a genuine product, for instance, offers consumers different kinds of utilities, when compared to an article that is genuine (Grossman and Shapiro 1988). A counterfeit product often maintains the genuine counterpart's "prestige" by replicating an asset that is socially desirable (e.g., the status symbol, such as logo and trademark, remains visible), as long as the counterfeit is useable in social settings. However, consumers may nonetheless suspect a counterfeit's quality utility. The operative premise is that a counterfeit product usually will not outperform the quality of the genuine one, because the producer of counterfeits often remains unknown to consumers, is unwilling to disclose itself publicly, and therefore will not gain any benefit from any "goodwill" that consumers may attribute to a superior functioning product. As a result, when purchasing counterfeits, consumers tend to care more about the fashion or symbolic component than the functional one, whether or not the object is primarily intended to be used as a functional object as opposed to a fashionable one.

Moreover, when purchasing counterfeits, consumers might perceive other more psychological and/or social risks (Chakraborty, Allred, and Bristol 1996). Extending Chakraborty, Allred, and Bristol's (1996) findings, the researcher argues that these other risks may be partially derived from consumers' perception of important others' ability to detect the counterfeits, which are directly influenced by the consumers' perceived product quality of the counterfeit product.

In their daily lives, consumers are often inevitably surrounded and influenced by others, particularly those who are important to them. Therefore, consumers' perceived likelihood of counterfeit-detection by important others may also be influenced by the counterfeit-detectible level possessed by these important others in contact with counterfeit-brand consumers.

PCD, Action Intention, and Subjective Norm

PCD reflects a counterfeit-brand consumer's sense of control over performing the chosen actions. It also contains aspects of self-regulation, as this proposed construct deliberately addresses the question, “How shall I act?” in the context of counterfeit consumption. Furthermore, because consumers considering deliberately purchasing counterfeits consciously acknowledge important others’ ability to detect their counterfeits, the construct of PCD can serve as a motivator or inhibitor to act. Therefore, it can directly influence action intentions (H5), without action desire as a mediator. In addition, the researcher proposes that subjective norms moderate the relationship between PCD and action intentions. One may argue that if a purchaser’s environment, including its subjective norms, socially favors or supports counterfeit purchasing, then an individual’s PCD presumably may not have much of an effect on the intention to purchase counterfeits. To be more exact, the more favorable the subjective norms are, the weaker the relationship between PCD and action intentions; the less favorable the subjective norms are, the stronger the relationship between PCD and action intentions (H6).

H5: The higher the consumers’ perceived counterfeit-detection by important others, the lower the consumers’ action intentions toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits.

H6: Subjective norms will moderate the relationship between the consumers’ perceived counterfeit-detection by important others and their action intentions toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits. The more favorable the subjective norms are, the weaker the relation between PCD and action intentions; the less favorable the subjective norms are, the stronger the relation between PCD and action intentions.

Summary Hypotheses of the Current Research

H1: The stronger the consumer's action desire to deliberately purchase counterfeits, the stronger the consumer's action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits.

H2: Action desire will mediate the effect of attitude on action intention.

H3: Action desire will mediate the effect of subjective norm on action intention.

H4: The greater the consumer's perceived behavioral control over the deliberate purchase of counterfeits, the stronger the consumer's action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits.

H5: The higher the consumers' perceived counterfeit-detection by important others, the lower the consumers' action intentions toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits.

H6: Subjective norms will moderate the relationship between the consumers' perceived counterfeit-detection by important others and their action intentions toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits. The more favorable the subjective norms are, the weaker the relation between PCD and action intentions; the less favorable the subjective norms are, the stronger the relation between PCD and action intentions.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This research used a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods consisting of in-depth interviews and a self-administered paper survey to investigate the proposed goal-striving model and hypotheses for deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior. The purposes of the interviews were to develop items for measuring the newly proposed construct (i.e., consumers' perceived counterfeit detection by important others); to identify typical luxury brand categories from which participants have frequently and knowingly purchased counterfeit items; and to determine the purchasing seasons and cycles of the counterfeits. To collect data, a self-administered paper survey incorporating information from the in-depth interviews was given to and completed by college students attending universities in Beijing, China. The collected data were subjected to statistical analysis in the next chapter.

In-Depth Interviews

In a semi-structured manner, eight in-depth interviews were conducted among five Beijing college students and three U.S. consumer behavior researchers. All participants of the in-depth interviews were aged 18 years or older. The interviews, lasting approximately one hour, were respectively conducted by phone with the students and face-to-face with the three researchers. Based on information gathered from the in-depth interviews and the literature review of relevant studies, a list of items for measuring consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection (PCD) by important others, as well as information regarding typical counterfeited brand categories, were generated and then used to develop the self-administered paper questionnaire for the survey.

Sampling

Through a cross-sectional self-administered paper survey, this research collected data from students attending four universities in Beijing, the capital of China, for two main reasons. First, to satisfy the aim of this research, it is necessary to have access to a group of consumers who are likely to be familiar with deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior or who live in an environment where counterfeit consumption is common. Chinese consumers in general and college students in particular who reside in Beijing meet both criteria. They are familiar with counterfeit-brand consumption because purchasing and using counterfeits in China is common and well known (Wilcox, Kim, and Sen 2008).

Second, college students are considered suitable for this research as they are believed to be heavy users of counterfeit products (Cordell, Wongtada, and Kieschnick 1996). While college students are more homogeneous than the general population, they should have reached the level of mental maturity required to determine both the ethical and the legal issues involved (Kohlberg 1976). More importantly, as this research focuses on testing important latent constructs such as action desire and PCD during consumers' decision-making processes—rather than factors such as individual differences and demographic characteristics—it is reasonable to use college students as a convenience sample. And it may actually be more appropriate to use college students from universities in one city due to their high level of homogeneity. Previous research on the demand-side of counterfeiting has widely used student samples; 16 out of 28 previous articles have used students as respondents, according to a counterfeiting review paper by Eisend and Schuchert-Güler (2006).

With regard to determining the minimum sample size needed to conduct this research, structural equation modeling (SEM) was used as the statistical method to test the proposed model using the data collected from the questionnaire.

Two methods can compute sample size in SEM: the first is as a function of the ratio of indicator variables to latent variables, while the second serves as a function of power, significance and minimum effect. Using the first approach and comparing it to past studies with a similar number of indicators and latent constructs, the researcher determined that the study needed approximately 200 useable samples, and therefore planned to distribute 1500 questionnaires among participants. The number 1500 was calculated to sufficiently meet the expected larger sample size usually needed for SEM analyses, and to account for the exclusion of those students who did not pass the questionnaires' screening questions, as well as the possibility of missing data.

Recruitment Methods and Survey Procedures

To recruit participants for this research, multiple strategies were employed. Being fluent in both English and Mandarin Chinese, the researcher contacted instructors and professors in Mandarin Chinese at the four selected universities in Beijing via e-mail and a phone call, inviting college students in the courses they are teaching to participate in this research, and also soliciting suggestions regarding the best time and buildings on campus to reach their students. The four selected universities—differing from each other in terms of location, overall ranking, and most popular majors—are Peking University, Beihang University, Beijing University of Technology, and Beijing Institute of Fashion Technology. The contact information for the instructors and professors was obtained through the university’s website and personal network.

Prior to formally pre-testing the questionnaire and collecting data, an application was submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of Arizona to evaluate this research. The IRB at the University of Arizona approved the use of human subjects on May 3rd, 2011 with the period of approval from May 3rd, 2011 to May 2nd, 2012.

After the IRB’s approval, college students used as a convenience sample were reached either while they were studying in a classroom or simply after a class. Because of privacy, ethical, and face-value concerns, students were assured that their participation in this study was voluntary, remained anonymous, and entailed no risk or cost except their time (approximately 10 to 15 minutes). Instructions with regard to completing the questionnaire were provided at the beginning of the questionnaire. When completing the questionnaire, participants either turned in the questionnaire directly to the researcher or left it on the side of their study desk to be picked up by the researcher approximately 20 minutes later.

Questionnaire Development and Pretest

Using scales modified from past studies (e.g., Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basurory 2003; Shaw et al. 2007) and the information obtained from the in-depth interviews, the researcher developed a self-administered prototype questionnaire in English and pretested it in Mandarin Chinese. The researcher first translated the prototype questionnaire in English into Mandarin for use among Beijing college students, revised the questionnaire based on the results of the pretest, and then translated the revised questionnaire into English in order to check for accuracy. These procedures were repeated three times, as the study conducted three pretests comprising a sample of 30 college students each time from three of the selected universities, in order to improve the questionnaire’s clarity, readability, and logical arrangement of the measurement items. The sample furthermore assessed the questionnaire’s formatting, length, and overall instructions. Based on the pretest results and participant comments, additional necessary changes were made, such as the instructions, wording, and the order of certain items.

Through previous studies, in-depth interviews, and pretests, the researcher identified and selected four typical luxury brand categories: apparel, handbags, shoes, and purses. Note that even though handbags and purses may be used interchangeably in American English, they belong to two different categories in Chinese. Compared with a purse, a handbag in Chinese is a larger accessory. Also, because the Chinese translations for handbags, purses, and wallets can refer to both men’s and women’s accessories, to keep the categories simple the researcher uses “apparel, handbags, shoes, and purses,” rather than “apparel, handbags, shoes, and purses/wallets,” throughout this dissertation when referring to the four typical luxury brand categories identified for this research. These brand categories were selected based on frequently purchased items from these categories by college students living in Beijing; respondents indicated use of the items as well as intent to re-purchase within the next twelve months subsequent to the study. The researcher also included an “Other product category” in case the four identified categories did not apply to a particular participant. Therefore, a total of 5 categories were used to in the questionnaire.

The written questionnaire contained measures for all the constructs in the proposed model. Since the purposes of this study did not focus on the effect of demographic variables regarding counterfeit-consumption behavior, only basic demographic data—such as age, gender, student status, and income—were included in the questionnaire in order to provide a general description of the sample.

Measures

The data were collected through a structured self-reported questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of several sections. One section captured demographic information, while other sections contained items to measure the constructs of this study. Measurements for each construct in the proposed model were adapted mainly from past literature (e.g., Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basurory 2003; Shaw et al. 2007). Most variables were measured on a 7-point scale (e.g., strongly disagree – strongly agree, definitely not true – definitely true). Appendixes A and B respectively shows all the finalized items used to measure each construct in English and Chinese. Measurements for each construct are discussed below.

Attitude

In assessing their attitudes toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits, respondents were asked to reply to the statement: "I believe that buying a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category is ______ (circle your answers below)." Seven semantic differential items, adapted from Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy (2003) and Ajzen (1991), were used to measure attitudes (i.e., bad–good, foolish–wise, harmful–beneficial, useless-useful, disadvantageous–advantageous, punishing-rewarding, and negative-positive).

Subjective Norm

In assessing their subjective norms toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits, subjects were asked to respond to five items. These items, adapted from Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy (2003) and Ajzen (1991) and rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), are “Most people who are important in my life would understand with my decision to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” “Most people who are important in my life would agree with my decision to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” “Most people who are important in my life would approve of me buying a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” “Most people who are important in my life would support me in buying a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” and “Most people who are important in my life would encourage me to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.”

Perceived Behavioral Control

Consumers’ perceived behavioral control toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits was measured using three items. These three items, rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) and adapted from Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy

(2003) and Ajzen (1991), asked: “If I wanted to, I could easily buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” “It would not be difficult for me to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” and “There are no barriers to prevent me from buying a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.”

Action Desire

To measure action desire, four items modified from the study by Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy (2003) and Shaw et al. (2007) were used. Rated on a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree), these items are: “I need to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” “I want to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” “I have a desire to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category, ”and “I feel an urge to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.”

Perceived Counterfeit Detection

Developed from the in-depth interviews, the scale for consumers’ perceived counterfeit detection (PCD) by important others consisted of three items, using the direct measure approach. These items were coded on a seven-point Likert scale anchored by the two end points, strongly agree and strongly disagree. These items are: “Important others around me will sense when I’m wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” “Important others around me will be able to recognize when I’m wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” and “Important others around me can detect when I’m wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.”

Using an indirect measure approach, three additional items were also used to measure PCD. The reason for using indirect measures is that these indirect items may substitute for the direct ones if some factor loadings of the direct items are not sufficient for further data analyses (Fisher 1993), which might happen for this research’s newly introduced construct of PCD. These three indirect items were also coded on a seven-point Likert scale anchored by the two end points, strongly agree and strongly disagree. These items are: “I myself will know it when important others around me are wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” “I myself can recognize when important others around me are wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category,” and “I myself can detect when important others around me are wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.”

Action Intention

Three items, adapted from Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy (2003) and Ajzen (1991) and rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree/highly unlikely/very weak, 7 = strongly agree/highly likely/very strong), were used to measure participants' action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits. The first asked, "I intend to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category during the next 1 year;" "It is likely that I will buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category during the next 1 year;" and "Within the next 1 year, the strength of my intention to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category can best be described as ______."

Demographic Variables

In the self-administered questionnaire, the study used a categorical format and the following definitions to measure basic demographic variables:

- Gender: Female, male (nominal data)
- Age: In years (ordinal data)

- Student status (nominal data)
- Employment status (nominal data)
- Annual gross household income (ordinal data)

Qualifying Question

For the research participants who might not be honest in answering their questionnaires, this study used a qualifying question (for "error control") at the end of the questionnaire, asking students to reply to the statement, "I honestly responded to the questions in this questionnaire." Hypothesis testing in this study was only conducted for the participants choosing a 5, 6 or 7 as their response on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, and 7 = strongly agree).

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS RESULTS

This chapter presents the statistical data analysis results. Following the typical suggested procedures by various scholars (e.g., Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basuroy 2003), the researcher conducted data analysis to test the proposed goal-striving model and the hypotheses, using the data collected from the questionnaires. Specifically, the researcher used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the adequacy of measurements and to verify the discriminant validity of the latent constructs in the structural model. To test the proposed model, its robustness and hypotheses, the researcher employed Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and the Amos version of the 19.0.0 program. To assess the goodness-of-fit of the overall models, the researcher used chi-square tests, the non-normed fit index (NNFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). To test the moderator effect of subjective norms on the relationship between consumers' perceived counterfeit detection (PCD) and action intention (i.e., H6), the researcher created an interaction term using the "orthogonalizing" method (i.e., residual centering) in SEM. After testing the mediating role of action desire, the researcher compared this study's proposed model with the theory of planned behavior in order to determine how much additional variance could be explained by the proposed model. This chapter concludes with a summary and discussion of the research findings.

Data Screening and Cleaning

Of the 1,195 questionnaires distributed to participants, 188 students elected to not participate, resulting in 1,007 questionnaires collected. After the raw data from the 1,007 questionnaires had been entered, routine data screening and cleaning procedures were conducted. Based on the visual inspection of the raw data, some questionnaires were excluded from further data analyses if any of the following five conditions applied.

1) If the chosen product did not belong to counterfeits defined in the study (e.g., books)
2) Questionnaires that students obviously filled out randomly (e.g., straight-lining and obvious illogical answers)
3) At least half of the questions were unanswered
4) The score for the general intention question (i.e., “During the next 1 year, I intend to buy a product from my chosen category”) was either missing or lower than 5
5) The score for the quantifying question (i.e., “I honestly responded to the questions in this questionnaire”) was missing or lower than 5 (1 = strongly disagree, and 7 = strongly agree).

After checking the answers for “Other product category (Please specify________),” the researcher found that 95% of the answers belonged to electronics. Therefore, for further data analyses electronics was included as the fifth product category, in addition to the four other categories (i.e., apparel, handbags, shoes, and purses).

The raw data were also checked for the range of variables and the restriction of range. No error was found when checking the range of variables, and the inter-quartile restriction of range was non-problematic, due to the nature of this study and participant background. For example, the restriction of range for action desire was between 1 and 3, which was expected among college students in China, who are busy with studies and do not have much extra money for spending. Meanwhile, the restriction of range toward the high end for perceived behavioral control and consumers’ perceived counterfeit detection (ranging between 4 and 6) was also expected, because both selling and buying counterfeit products are common in China (Wilcox, Kim, and Sen 2008).

Based on the results from the above data screening and cleaning procedures, 591 valid questionnaires were kept for future analyses.

Missing Data

Results from checking frequencies of missing variables among the 591 valid questionnaires shows that the data have reasonable missing values. Of 591 valid questionnaires, 18 contained missing values, while no missing data were found for categorical variables, such as gender and student status. For all other variables, the average number of missing data was less than 2 out of the 40 questions asked among the 591 questionnaires. Variables that had the greatest number of missing values out of the 591 questionnaires included attitude (foolish/wise:7), attitude (harmful/beneficial:11), attitude (bad/good:12), attitude (negative/positive:8), attitude (useless/useful:12), attitude (disadvantageous/advantageous:10), attitude (punishing/rewarding:12), and income (5).

The circumstance of there being more missing values associated with the attitude and income variables seems plausible for the following reasons. For the attitude measures, 7 sub-questions with seven pairs of adjectives (e.g., foolish/wise, bad/good) for measuring attitude, were simply listed below the instruction. As such, participants might have felt that the instructions for each sub-question was not clear, and that it was fine to address some of the sub-questions, or that these sub-questions were similar enough to each other so that they seemed redundant.

Because the income question is a personal and sensitive question, the researcher expected that this income variable would have some missing data. However, the fact that only 5 values for the income variable were missing, demonstrates the good design for this question, most likely due to the possible responses provided to participants, including “I do not know at all” or “I do not want to answer this question” when addressing this personal question.

Sample Characteristics

Table 4.1 presents frequency distributions of the valid sample ($N = 591$). The typical respondent in this sample was female (53.8%), age ranging from 21 - 23 (49.2%), sophomore (33.7%), not working (87.1%), and had an annual household income of Chinese yuan (CNY)10,000 (1,564 USD) to CNY $29,999 (4,695 USD) (15.7%) among those who reported their income.

Descriptive analysis on the chosen product category and Chi-square tests were also conducted to examine any demographic differences with regard to the five product categories chosen among participants. Of all participants, 57.2%, 5.1%, 20.8%, 3.4%, and 13.5% chose the category of apparel, handbags, shoes, purses, and electronics, respectively. Chi-square tests showed that differences were found for gender—but not for age, student status, employment status, or annual household gross income—on product category choice (female > male).

Table 4.1 *Descriptive Statistics of the Sample (N = 591)*

	Percent
Total sample	100%
Gender	
Male	46.2
Female	53.8
Age	
18 – 20	48.1
21 – 23	49.2
24 – 26	2.7
27 – 29	0
30 – 32	0
> 33	0
Student Status	
Freshman	28.1
Sophomore	33.7
Junior	29.9
Senior	8.3
Employment Status	
Not working	87.1
Less than 10 hours per week	8.3
11 – 20 hours per week	2.2
21 – 30 hours per week	1.2
31 more hours per week	1.2
Annual Household Gross Income	
Less than CNY10, 000	4.8
CNY10, 000-CNY29, 999	15.7
CNY30, 000-CNY59, 999	15.0
CNY60, 000-CNY79, 999	8.4
CNY80, 000-CNY99, 999	11.9
CNY100, 000-CNY149, 999	7.8
CNY150, 000-CNY199, 999	5.1
CNY200, 000-CNY299, 999	3.6
CNY 300,000-CNY 399,999	1.2
CNY 400,000-CNY 499,999	1.2
More than CNY500, 000	1.2
I do not know at all	9.0
I do not want to answer this question	15.0

Note: This study used a sample of 591 respondents. However, 1 respondent did not report information for employment status, and 5 respondents did not report information for annual household gross income. The above table was calculated based on those who provided complete demographic information. One U.S. dollar at the time of this survey was about 6.4 Chinese yuan (CNY).

Common Method Bias

Research using self-reported measures often carries the common method bias. To minimize the potential for common method bias in this study, several procedural steps were implemented in the questionnaire design, such as using different scale anchors (strongly disagree/strongly agree vs. highly unlikely/highly likely), different scale formats (Likert vs. semantic differential scales), and the qualifying question concerning subjects answering questions honestly . These procedural steps, however, may not be sufficient to completely overcome the common method bias. To check for such bias, the researcher has conducted two additional checks: a post hoc Harman's single factor test in PASW Statistics 18 (former SPSS) and a common latent factor analysis in the Amos version of the 19.0.0 program.

Harman's single factor test is a well known and widely used statistical technique to test for common method variance (CMV) (Podsakoff et al. 2003). To check if CMV is present, this test—using exploratory factor analysis—requires that all items first enter into the factor analysis with the unrotated factor solution selected in statistical software such as PASW. When a sole factor becomes apparent from the results of the factor analysis, or if the first factor accounts for the majority of the variance in the variables, then one can assume that a major amount of CMV exists. Results of this test (see Table 4.2) indicate that no significant problem exists in the data with regard to CMV, because multiple factors emerged and no single factor accounted for the majority of variance in items (i.e., less than 50%).

Table 4.2 *Harman's Single-Factor Test Results*

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			**Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings**		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.285	25.086	25.086	10.285	25.086	25.086
2	3.620	8.829	33.915	3.620	8.829	33.915
3	2.774	6.766	40.680	2.774	6.766	40.680
4	2.616	6.381	47.062	2.616	6.381	47.062
5	2.148	5.239	52.301	2.148	5.239	52.301
6	1.911	4.661	56.962	1.911	4.661	56.962
7	1.694	4.131	61.092	1.694	4.131	61.092
8	1.505	3.670	64.762	1.505	3.670	64.762
9	1.257	3.066	67.827	1.257	3.066	67.827
10	1.135	2.768	70.595	1.135	2.768	70.595
11	.972	2.371	72.966			
12	.888	2.165	75.131			
13	.819	1.998	77.129			
…	…	…	…			
40	.109	.267	99.744			
41	.105	.256	100.000			

Note: due to the length of the original table, only the relevant results are presented.

To double check the common method bias, the researcher also conducted a common latent factor analysis in the Amos version of the 19.0.0 program. The procedures are to 1) add a common latent variable in the measurement model of this study in Amos, 2) add a regression line from the common latent factor to every observed item in the model, 3) constrain all the regression lines to be equal, 4) constrain the variance of the common latent factor, and 5) run the model. A substantial amount of CMV is assumed to exist if the value of squared regression weight for the common latent factor is large. The squared regression weight from this test's results is .07, further confirming that CMV is not an issue in this study's data.

Measurement Model

Before analyzing the structural model, the researcher validated the measurement model by examining convergent and discriminate validity of the theoretical constructs using the Amos version of the 19.0.0 program. To assess convergent validity, the researcher employed factor loadings and construct reliability (Hair et al. 2006). To establish discriminant validity, the researcher used magnitude of correlations among the factors and average variance extracted (AVE) of each factor relative to correlation estimates.

To validate the measurement model, the researcher first imputed the missing data, assessed the normality, and checked the multivariate outliers, all using the Amos version of the 19.0.0 program. Using the Stochastic regression imputation approach, the researcher created a complete data set for further analyses, because a complete data set was required in the Amos version of the 19.0.0 program to assess normality, multivariate outliers, and model modification in specification when needed.

Table 4.3 presents the normality assessment results. A review of the skew and kurtosis in Table 4.3 reveals that univariate normality of data is fine. However, regarding multivariate normality, normalized Mardia's estimate of 138.49 (i.e., the value of the multivariate in Table 4.3) is greater than 5, reflecting data departure from normality (Byrne 2010). In addition, the z-statistic of 45.82 highly suggests the non-normality in the sample. Therefore, in all further analyses the researcher employed the typically recommended maximum likelihood procedure using robust methods (Byrne 2010).

Table 4.3 *Assessment of Normality*

Variable	**min**	**max**	**skew**	**c.r.**	**kurtosis**	**c.r.**
PD3	1.000	7.000	-.421	-4.177	-.422	-2.094
PD2	1.000	7.000	-.444	-4.404	-.437	-2.170
PD1	1.000	7.000	-.419	-4.160	-.426	-2.112
F_I3	1.000	7.000	.867	8.601	.113	.560
F_I2	1.000	7.000	.548	5.442	-.612	-3.037
F_I1	.590	7.000	.768	7.622	.053	.264

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
P1	1.000	7.000	-.636	-6.316	-.672	-3.333
P2	1.000	7.000	-1.065	-10.570	.688	3.415
P3	1.000	7.000	-.651	-6.459	-.352	-1.745
A_RD	1.000	7.000	-.447	-4.432	.784	3.889
A_AG	-.856	7.000	.143	1.420	-.866	-4.295
A_UF	1.000	7.000	-.035	-.343	-.926	-4.595
SN5	1.000	7.000	.717	7.114	.190	.943
A_WS	-.741	7.000	.306	3.034	-.713	-3.540
A_BF	-.075	7.000	-.106	-1.050	-.441	-2.189
A_GD	.008	7.000	-.146	-1.450	-.524	-2.602
A_PT	1.000	7.000	.084	.831	-.537	-2.664
D1	1.000	7.000	1.173	11.640	.986	4.892
D2	1.000	7.000	.895	8.884	.170	.845
D3	1.000	7.000	1.663	16.507	3.081	15.289
D4	1.000	7.000	1.435	14.237	1.557	7.727
SN1	1.000	7.000	-.459	-4.554	-.576	-2.861
SN2	1.000	7.000	-.164	-1.632	-.786	-3.902
SN3	1.000	7.000	.191	1.899	-.540	-2.679
SN4	1.000	7.000	.428	4.246	-.333	-1.653
Multivariate					138.494	45.817

To detect multivariate outliers, one common approach is the computation of the squared Mahalanobis distance (D^2) for each case (Byrne 2010). An outlying case usually has a D^2 standing greatly apart from other D^2 values. Values in Table 4.4 demonstrate that evidence of severe multivariate outliers was minimal, except the one associated with observation number 496. Therefore, this case was identified as a multivariate outlier and was excluded from further analyses.

Table 4.4 *Observations Farthest from the Centroid (Mahalanobis Distance)*

Observation number	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
496	98.415	.000	.000
33	85.265	.000	.000
71	83.255	.000	.000
68	79.674	.000	.000
141	79.481	.000	.000
374	71.552	.000	.000
413	70.479	.000	.000
215	68.592	.000	.000
64	64.735	.000	.000
481	62.584	.000	.000
583	61.639	.000	.000
73	61.419	.000	.000
3	60.314	.000	.000
…	…	…	…
260	37.070	.057	.000
357	36.909	.059	.000
545	36.831	.060	.000
157	36.745	.061	.000
576	36.274	.068	.000
531	36.239	.068	.000
185	36.080	.070	.000

Note: due to the length of the original table, only the relevant results are presented.

The CFA results for the overall measurement model fit were $\chi 2$ (df = 260, n = 590) = 1226.60, p = 0.000; RMSEA = .08; NNFI = .90; CFI = .91. These indices were acceptable. All factor loading for constructs were significant, and most of them were high. However, several low-loading items were identified, such as the "punishing/rewarding" item for measuring attitude, .61; the "disadvantage/advantageous" item for measuring attitude, .67; the "useless/useful" item for measuring attitude, .68; the "understand with my decision to buy a counterfeit brand product" item for measuring subjective norm, .689; the "would easily buy a counterfeit brand product" for measuring perceived behavioral control, .695. After deleting these factor loadings with a value lower than .70, the modified model revealed great improvement of fit indices (all indices are in close fit range): $\chi 2$(df = 104, n = 590) = 217.69, *p* = 0.000; RMSEA = .04; NNFI = .98; CFI = .99. A review of the modification indices and standardized residual covariances revealed that no further model modification was needed.

Convergent validity of the constructs in the modified model was supported for two reasons. First, results of the modified model showed that all standardized regression paths were above .7 (range .72 – .96) and were significant at *p* = .001. Table 4.5 presents the standardized factor loadings, the R^2 values, t values and Cronbach's alpha reliabilities of the retained items. Second, construct reliability of each factor that was calculated and reported in Table 4.6 demonstrated additional measures of convergent validity. The results showed that the construct reliabilities (except for perceived behavioral control, which had a reliability of .67) went beyond the often used threshold of .7 (Hair et al. 2006), while the average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct was above the recommended level of .5 (Hair et al. 2006). Since the construct of perceived behavioral control had a reliability of .67, this would likely make it more difficult to find a significant relation with this variable (Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basuroy 2003).

Table 4.5 *Standardized Factor Loadings and Item Reliability (R^2)*

Construct	**Brief Item Description**	**Loadings**	**R^2**	**t-value**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
Attitude	Negative/Positive	.802	.643	-	.75
	Bad/Good	.959	.920	26.75	.87
	Harmful/Beneficial	.843	.711	23.66	.78
Subjective Norm	Support	.950	.903	-	.89
	Approve	.913	.833	36.63	.85
	Encourage	.803	.645	27.95	.77
Perceived Behavioral Control	No barriers	.892	.795	-	.75
	Not difficult	.837	.701	8.40	.75
Action Desire	Need to buy	.862	.742	-	.80
	Want to buy	.907	.822	29.10	.81
	Desire to buy	.784	.614	23.33	.75
PCD	Sense	.718	.516	-	.70
	Recognize	.946	.895	21.53	.84
	Detect	.912	.832	21.54	.83
Action Intention	Intend to buy	.915	.837	-	.86
	Likely to buy	.865	.749	31.41	.81
	Intention strength	.861	.742	30.44	.79

Note: PCD = consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection by important others.

Table 4.6. *Construct Reliability Scores, AVE, and Correlatons Among Constructs*

Construct	**Compositve reliability**	**Attitude**	**Subjective Norm**	**Perceived Behavioral Control**	**Action Desire**	**PCD**	**Action Intention**
Attitude	.75	**.76**					
Subjective Norm	.75	.40	**.79**				
Perceived Behavioral Control	.67	.19	.24	**.75**			
Action Desire	.75	.43	.48	.13	**.79**		
PCD	.75	-.12	-.13	.05	-.16	**.79**	
Action Intention	.80	.46	.51	.19	.92	-.20	**.79**

Note: PCD = consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection by important others. The numbers in bold that lie diagonally specify the square root of the variance extracted. Offline numbers are correlation estimates.

Discriminant validity was assessed in two ways. The first way is to determine the correlation values among the factors. The correlations among the factors of this study were substantially less than one, except the one between action desire and action intention. The second way compares the average variance extracted value of each of the constructs, with the squared correlation between each pair of constructs. Discriminant validity was also supported using the second way, because the average variance extracted value for each of the constructs was higher than the squared correlation between each pair of constructs (Fornell and Larcker 1981), except again, for the discriminant validity between action desire and action intention.

To further examine if action desire differs from action intention, the researcher used the nested models approach, a more stringent and more accepted approach alternative regarding the SEM-based model when applied to discriminant validity (e.g., Bagozzi et al. 1991). The model is run without any constraints (that is, to have correlation regarding two constructs to be free) and yet also setting 1.0 for the correlation between constructs. If the two models do not significantly differ with the chi-square difference test, one will not be able to conclude that the constructs differ (see Bagozzi et al. 1991). Since the results show that from the nested model approach that X^2 (df = 1) = 117.5, p = .001, the researcher concluded that action desire and action intention in this study are two different constructs.

In short, all of the above results provide evidence of acceptable measurement model fit, as well as discriminant and convergent validity regarding measures of all of the model's latent constructs, thus permitting confidence in moving on to the analysis of the

SEM.

SEM Analysis

The goodness-of-fit measures show that the data fit well with regard to the SEM model: X^2 (df = 106, n = 590) = 221.76; p = .000; RMSEA = .04; NNFI = .98; CFI = .99. Results demonstrated that all related hypotheses (H1-H5) were significant in the expected directions (e.g., H1-H3, $p < .001$; H4, $p < .05$; H5, $p < .01$), and that the variance in the action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits explained by the model was .86. Figure 4.1, reporting standardized regression weights, p-values, and R^2, pictorially represents these results.

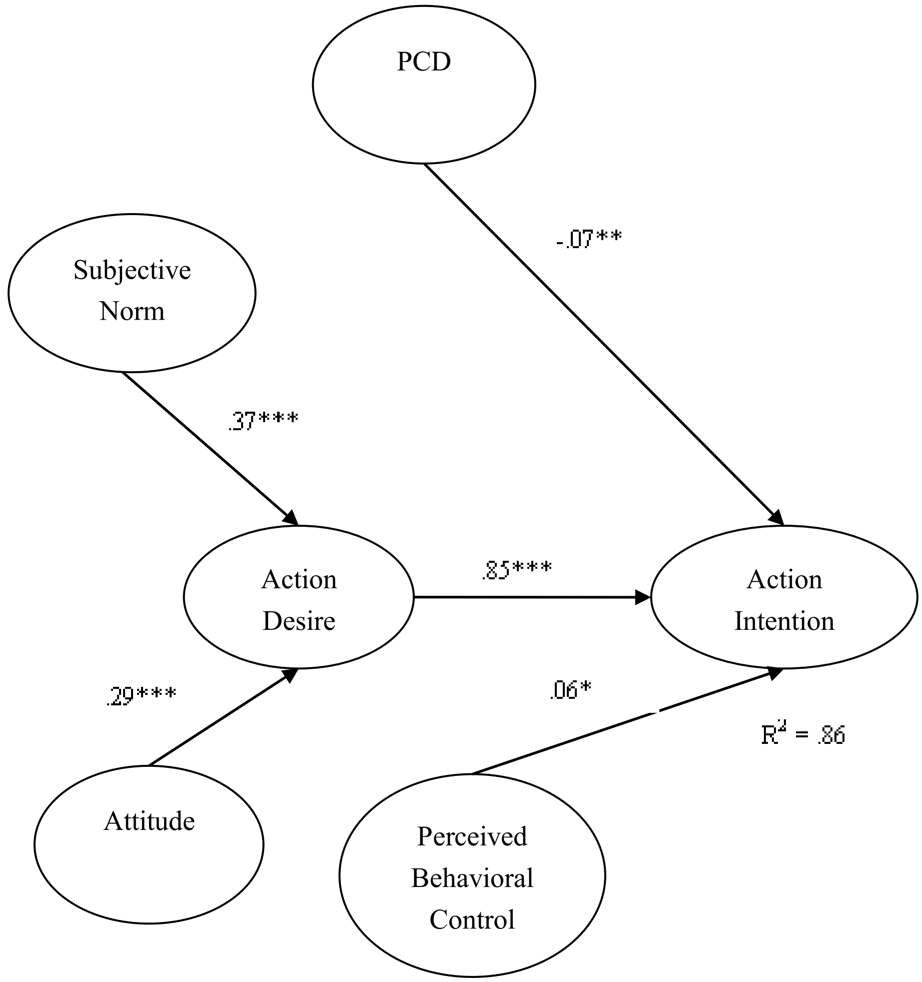

Figure 4.1 Findings for Structural Equation Model

PCD = Consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection by important others; Values shown in standardized regression weights;* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

In order to test the moderator effect of the subjective norm on the relationship between PCD and action intention (i.e., H6), the researcher created an interaction term in the structural equation model using the "orthogonalizing" method (i.e., residual centering) in SEM. This method has several advantages over the extant procedures such as mean centering (see Little, Bovaird, and Widaman 2006 for details). However, the moderator effect of the subjective norm on the relationship between PCD and action intention (H6) was not significant (p = .12).

Overall, about 30 percent of the variance in action desire was explained by its antecedents. And there was considerable variance in action intention explained by its antecedents (R^2 = 0.86).

The Mediating Role of Action Desire

To determine if action desire mediates the relationship between the action intention's antecedents (i.e., attitude and subject norm) and action intention, the researcher employed a traditional procedure described by Baron and Kenny (1986) using the following three models:

Model 1: Action desire = f_1 (attitude, subjective norm)

Model 2: Action intention = f_2 (attitude, subjective norm)

Model 3: Action intention = f_3 (attitude, subjective norm, action desire)

The procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) has three steps. First, if action desire is a mediator, attitude and subjective norm should show associations with it (Model 1), which is supported; standardized regression weights for subjective norm to action desire and for attitude to action desire are .37 (p = .001) and .29 (p = .001), respectively. Second, other independent variables without the mediator variable should show associations with the outcome variable (i.e., the action intention variable) (Model 2), which is also supported; standardized regression weights for subjective norm to action intention is .36 (p = .001), and standardized regression weights for attitude to action intention is .29 (p = .001). Third, the action desire variable, entered as an additional independent variable, should have a larger effect than other independent variables on the action intention variable (Model 3), which is also supported: standardized regression weights for action desire to action intention, for attitude to action intention, and for subjective norm to action intention, are .89 (p = .001), .09 (p = .003), and .11(p = .001), respectively. Further, after controlling the effects of action desire as the mediator, the researcher found that the impact of attitude and subjective norm as the predictors on the outcome variable action intention is not significant at p = .05 level. Given these results, the researcher concluded that action desire fully and respectively mediates the effects of attitude and the subjective norm on action intention toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits.

Test of Control Variables

In the interest of securing additional support for the validity of this study's model, the researcher performed tests with demographic variables as control variables, viz., sex, age, student status, employment status, and annual household gross income. The procedures were to treat each demographic variable as a manifest variable and add a direct path from the demographic variable to the outcome variable (i.e., action intention) in the model. If an additional direct path not initially included in the model was significant, the corresponding demographic variable should be controlled and kept in the SEM model. Results show that sex was positively and significantly associated with action intention ($p = .014$), meaning that compared with their male counterparts, female college students have stronger action intention toward the deliberate purchase of counterfeits. Moreover, income was negatively and significantly associated with action intention ($p = .017$), showing that students with lower annual household gross income are more likely to deliberately purchase counterfeits.

Comparison to the Theory of Planned Behavior Model

To understand the value of this study's model, comparing it to established models in the literature should prove useful. The researcher compared this study's model to the theory of planned behavior model which has action intention as well (i.e., the purchase intention in the theory of planned behavior model) as the focal dependent variable.

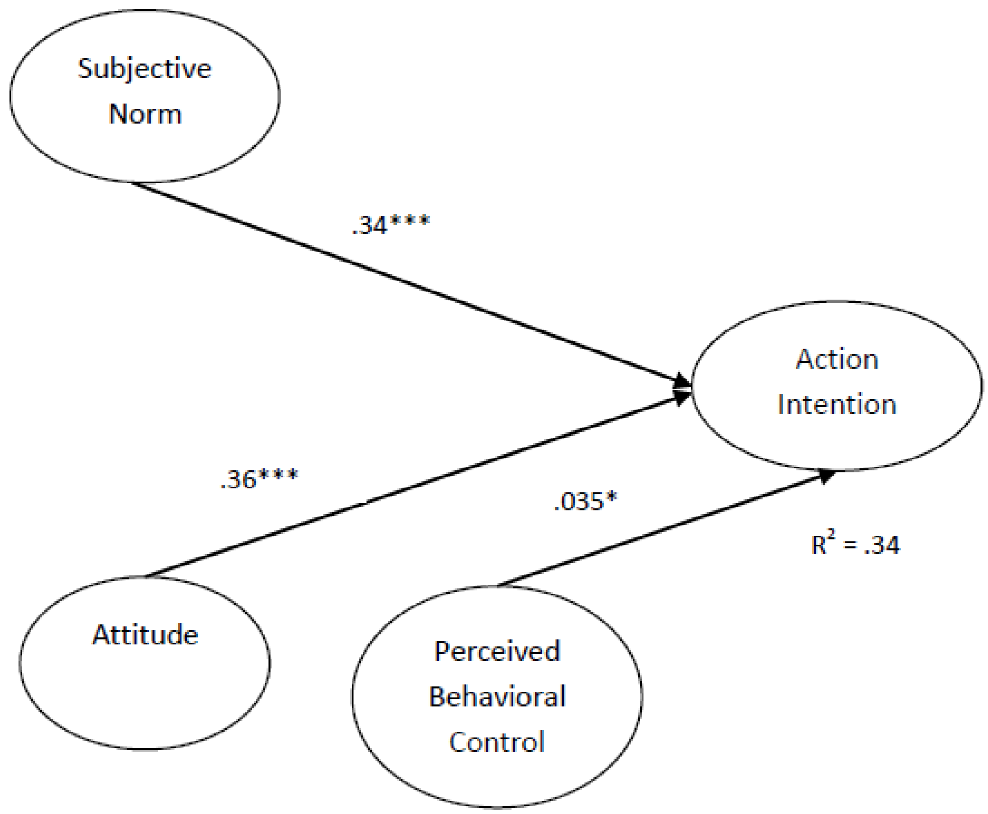

Figure 4.2 Findings from the Theory of Planned Behavior as a Comparison Model

Values shown in standardized regression weights;* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

The researcher fit the theory of planned behavior model to this study's data using the Amos version of the 19.0.0 program. Figure 4.2, reporting standardized regression weights, p-values, and R^2, pictorially represents these results from the theory of planned behavior as a comparison model. The results demonstrated that only 34 percent of the variance in action intention was explained by the variables in the theory of planned behavior model. In contrast, the research's model (i.e. Figure 4.1) accounts for approximately 86 percent of the action intention's variance in comparison to what is noted above. Additionally, compared with the theory of planned behavior model, this study's model provides more insights into the psychological processes occurring before the action intention.

Summary and Discussion of Findings

In summary, this study's empirical results support its refined model and demonstrate PCD's existence. Figure 4.3 presents the final model for this study's context. Table 4.7 summarizes the results of the hypotheses tested. Key findings of the research are subsequently discussed.

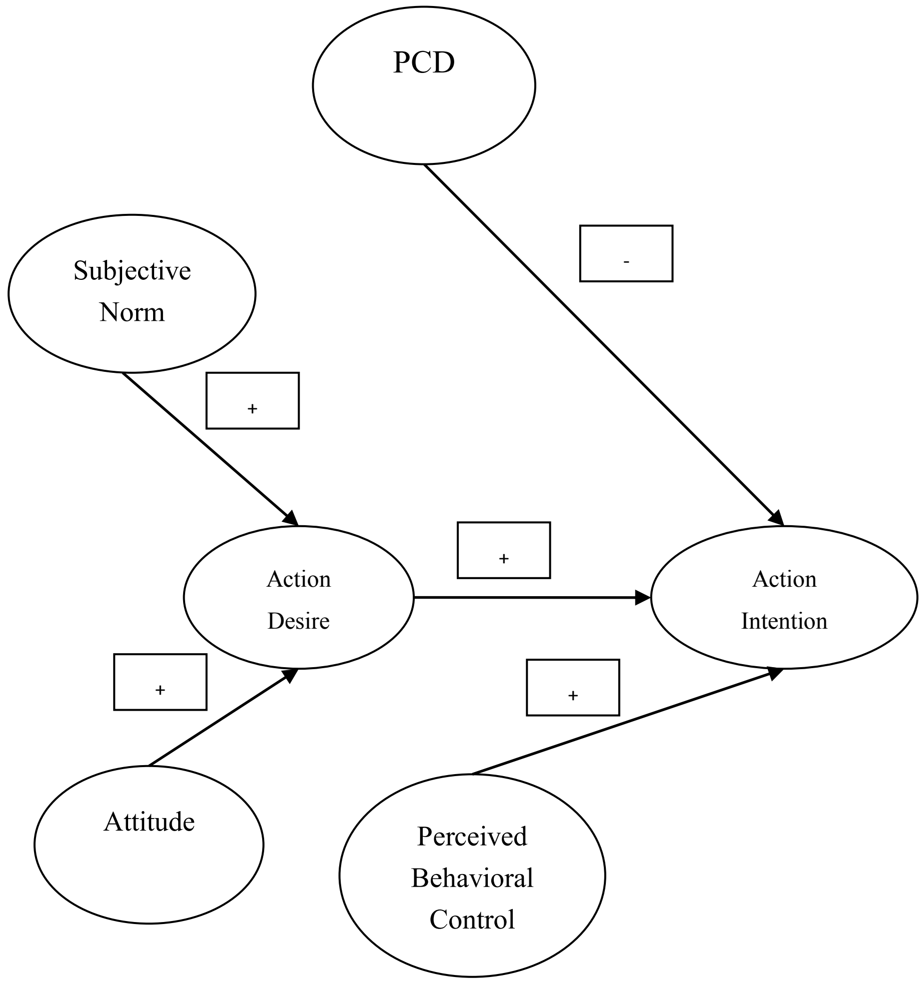

Figure 4.3 Final Empirically Validated Model

PCD = Consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection by important others

Table 4.7 *Summary of Hypotheses and Conclusions*

Hypothesis	**Statement**	**Result**
H1	The stronger the consumer's action desire to deliberately purchase counterfeits, the stronger the consumer's action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits.	Supported
H2	Action desire will mediate the effect of attitude on action intention.	Supported
H3	Action desire will mediate the effect of subjective norm on action intention.	Supported
H4	The greater the consumer's perceived behavioral control over the deliberate	Supported

	purchase of counterfeits, the stronger the consumer's action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits.	
H5	The higher the consumers' perceived counterfeit-detection by important others, the lower the consumers' action intentions toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits.	Supported
H6	Subjective norms will moderate the relationship between the consumers' perceived counterfeit-detection by important others and their action intentions toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits. The more favorable the subjective norms are, the weaker the relation between PCD and action intentions; the less favorable the subjective norms are, the stronger the relation between PCD and action intentions.	Not Supported

The Mediating Role of Action Desire

A central focus of this study was to examine whether or not action desire was an essential antecedent to action intention in deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior. As expected, among all the paths analyzed in the research's empirically validated model, action desire had the strongest effect on the action intention of deliberately purchasing counterfeits ($\beta = .86$, $t = 22.48$, $p < .001$). Action desire was also found to fully mediate the effects of attitude and subjective norm on action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits. Theoretically, such evidence confirms the research's assertion that deliberate counterfeit consumption may be purposive and effortful goal-directed behavior. In the counterfeit-consumption context the initiation of action desire follows action-related mental events (e.g., attitude and subjective norm.) This finding means that in order for attitude and subjective norms to impact the action intention in deliberately purchasing counterfeits, the motivational stage of action desire is required. The motivational stage of action desire reflects a personal motivation to act or not to act, which can be energized or inhibited by emotive feelings in the counterfeit-consumption context. Therefore, an action desire to deliberately purchase counterfeits, suggested by a favorable attitude toward counterfeit consumption, needs to be desirable before developing into an action intention to buy the counterfeits. By the same line of reasoning, important others can influence the personal motivation to act in regard to action desire simply by positively supporting it. With the addition of the mediating construct of action desire to deliberately purchase counterfeits, the explanatory capability of the study's proposed goal-striving model more than doubles (from $R^2 = .34$ to $R^2 = .86$).

The Role of PCD

Another central focus of this study relates to its newly identified construct, consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection (PCD) by important others. Results demonstrate PCD's existence and show that PCD negatively and directly affects consumers' action intentions to deliberately purchase counterfeits ($\beta = -.07$, $t = -2.89$, $p < .01$). PCD's direct influence on action intention (toward the deliberate purchase of counterfeits) indicates that PCD contains some of the "ingredients" of consumers' self-regulation; also, PCD's negative effect on action intention demonstrates that it can serve as an inhibitor to act.

The Role of Attitude, Subjective Norm, and Perceived Behavioral Control

As discussed earlier, among all the pathways in the research's empirically validated model, action desire had the strongest effect on the action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits. The next strongest pathway came from the subjective norm to action desire ($\beta = .37$, $t = 8.27$, $p < .001$), followed by the next strongest pathway from attitude to action desire ($\beta = .29$, $t = 6.50$, $p < .001$). The weakest but still statistically significant pathway existed between the perceived behavioral control's effect on action intention ($\beta = .06$, $t = 2.42$, $p < .05$), next to the pathway from PCD to action intention ($\beta = -.07$, $t = - 2.89$, $p < .01$).

This study's results are consistent with previous studies demonstrating that attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control are determinants for action intention (Ajzen 1991; Xiao 2008). However, past research produced mixed findings regarding the order of importance of these three determinants. Past review studies showed that compared with perceived behavioral control and attitude, subjective norm was the weaker predictor of intention (Ajzen 1991; Xiao 2008). For example, in their study regarding the prediction of intentions to participate in a Web survey, Bosnjak, Tuten, and Wittmann (2005) found that perceived behavioral control toward participation best predicted the intention to participate, followed by attitude and subjective norm, respectively. Similarly, to test a proposed Online Pre-Purchase Intentions Model, Shim et al. (2001) reported that attitude, next to previous Internet purchase experience and perceived behavioral control, was among the best factors at predicting the participants' intention to continue seeking information from the Internet. Chang (1998) also found that perceived behavioral control was a better predictor of unethical behavioral intention than attitude.

While the relative importance among these determinants found in this study differ from several past studies, it concurs with studies in similar cultural contexts and consumption situations. In his dissertation examining consumers' software piracy using an extended theory of reasoned action, Aleassa (2009) found that the subjective norm had a stronger effect than attitude on the intention to purchase pirate software. Following Aleassa's reasoning (2009), the subjective norm's stronger effect—compared with attitude—in motivating or inhibiting the action desire of college students in Beijing to deliberately purchase counterfeits, might be attributed to the collectivistic culture in China, which values interdependence and cooperation, and subordinates individual goals to group goals. As a result, the subjective norm, rather than the attitude, primarily influences individual behavior (Triandis 1997). The interdependence, connectedness and harmony valued by collectivistic cultures also often reminds individuals that they are an integral part of a group, which in turn influences individuals not to distance themselves from their groups; otherwise, separation from the group may lead to discomfort or even pain (Triandis 1988).

The relatively low variance explained by the perceived behavioral control in this study might be due to two reasons. First, the collectivistic culture in China makes participants too responsive and submissive to the demands of significant others in their groups as displayed by the stronger effect of subjective norm and attitude, potentially causing them to put less weight on their own sense of “control” in carrying out a specific behavior. The second reason might be due to the fact that it is too easy to buy counterfeits products in Beijing, resulting in mitigated concern regarding perceived behavioral control in their decision-making processes. In their studies regarding why consumers purchase counterfeits, Penz, Schlegelmilch, and Stöttinger (2009) also found that across several countries, perceived behavioral control was less strong and less consistent than attitude and subjective norm in explaining intention to buy counterfeits; even so, perceived behavioral control was nonetheless still an influential factor.

The Role of Control Variables

Results also reveal the influence of sex and income on action intention toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits. Specifically, female college students tend to have stronger action intention than their male counterparts, and counterfeits to be attractive to students from low-income families as well. These results are consistent with previous findings (Eisend and Schuchert-Güler 2006; and Staake, Thiesse, and Fleisch 2009).

CHAPTER 5

IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This chapter discusses the research's implications—both theoretically and managerially—and provides future research directions while acknowledging its limitations.

Theoretical Contributions

Although there has been some progress made in understanding consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior, past studies on this behavior to a large extent are descriptive and lack a theoretical framework embedded in the study design. For the very few studies using theoretical approaches, limited managerial implications exist, since the guiding theories are insufficient in the context of deliberate counterfeit consumption.

This research advances our theoretical understanding of the underlying dynamics that drive consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior by particularly investigating the role of action desire and the proposed construct of consumers' Perceived Counterfeit Detection (PCD) by important others. The study not only integrates the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1991) and the model of effortful decision making and enactment (Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basuroy 2003), but also extends these theories. It re-conceptualizes the relationships of the key constructs in the above stated theories with action desire and PCD. Results confirm that deliberate counterfeit consumption may purposive and effortful goal-directed behavior, as action desire not only had the strongest effect on action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits, but also respectively mediated the effects of attitude and subjective norm on action intention regarding the deliberate purchase of counterfeits. Overall, action desire in goal-directed behavior in general and counterfeit-consumption behavior in particular, is vital for predicting action intention, which in turn, is an important predictor for actual behavior (e.g., Ajzen 1991). Decision-making process models with action desire appropriately included are expected to substantially improve the explanation and predication, compared to other models such as the theory of planned behavior (which excludes action desire), thereby demonstrating such decision-making process models' theoretical and practical utility.

In addition, when studying consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior, researchers should take PCD into consideration. PCD is a cognitive determinant of action intention and reflects a counterfeit-brand consumer's sense of control over performing the chosen actions in order to serve decision enactment. More specifically, buying counterfeit products requires consumers to consider factors related to PCD, such as whether or not consumers will use counterfeit products publicly or privately, the product quality of the counterfeits, others' ability to detect the counterfeits, and the effectiveness of punishment and law enforcement, meaning that buying counterfeits does not occur simply because consumers decide to act. Further research is warranted to explicate the exact nature of PCD and its antecedents and consequences.

Compared with other theoretical approaches such as the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1991) and the model of effortful decision making and enactment (Bagozzi, Dholakia, and Basuroy 2003), the refined goal-striving model developed in this research provides a relatively comprehensive and integrated explanation for unethical behavior in general and deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior in particular. The research's goal-striving model fits the data well; the model explained twice as much variance in the outcome variable (i.e., action intention toward deliberate purchase of counterfeit products) than did the theory of planned behavior model. Additionally, this research's model provides more insights into the psychological processes preceding the outcome variable (e.g., the impact of PCD on action intention and the mediating role of action desire). Using this research's goal-striving model as a base framework, future studies can extend this model—considering goal setting, goal striving, and goal realization together, for instance—in order to provide a more comprehensive and integrated explanation for deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior. Future studies applying and extending this research's model to contexts similar to deliberate counterfeit consumption (such as software piracy, humans' lying behavior, and employees' sabotage behavior), is also promising and warranted.

Managerial Implications

In addition to its major theoretical contributions, this research offers important managerial implications that can aid in the development of effective strategies to decrease consumer consumption of counterfeits. To reduce counterfeit consumption, the conceptual reasoning and empirical results pertaining to consumers' perceived counterfeit detection (PCD) indicate that effective strategies can be employed to increase consumers' PCD, which in turn will reduce consumers' action intention to buy counterfeit brands. For example, genuine-brand manufacturers can work on increasing the difficulty of their brands being counterfeited through using all levels of brand protection approaches like complex production processes, secure packaging, hidden images, and microtext. The more difficult it is for genuine brands to be counterfeited, the lower the perceived product quality of the counterfeit counterparts, and the higher the consumers' PCD. It is also worth the time and effort for genuine-brand manufacturers and their agencies to enhance the general public's knowledge with regard to detecting the counterfeit counterparts from their genuine brands, as this will increase consumers' PCD. Moreover, consumers' PCD will be considerably increased if incentive for reporting potential counterfeits will be provided to the general public, because the general public is often in a good position to discern counterfeits.

In addition to the approaches that can be used by the genuine-brand manufacturers in the fight against counterfeiting, punishment and law enforcement can play a clearer and more decisive role. Although not hypothesized and tested in this research, one can expect that the negative relationship between consumers' PCD and action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits will be moderated by the effectiveness of punishment and law enforcement. The less effective the punishment and law enforcement (which is not effective in China at this time; Staake, Thiesse, and Fleisch 2009), the stronger the negative relation between consumers' PCD and action intention (and vice versa), which was supported by this research. This implies that genuine-brand manufacturers and their agencies can discourage consumers from purchasing counterfeits by finding ways to increase counterfeit consumers' perceived effectiveness of punishment and law enforcement.

Moreover, the above discussion of this study's findings in Chapter 4 indicates that practitioners should make decisions and base specific strategies on research that is intended for a particular counterfeit context. This procedure will help protect against overgeneralizing, and thereby mistakenly applying results and implications from one counterfeit context to a different counterfeit context. For example, this study shows that Beijing college students' intentions toward the purchase of counterfeits were greatly influenced by their action desire, and that opinions and behaviors of significant others were stronger than attitude and perceived behavioral control in predicting their behaviors. However, when examined in different cultural contexts and consumption situations (e.g., U.S. vs. China), the order of importance of the factors on action intention (e.g., attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control) may differ (e.g., Chang 1998).

In the context of this research, action desire and subjective norm, the two strongest factors in predicting intention to buy counterfeits, could be changed by appropriate and effective intervention programs (Barnett, Far, Mauss, and Miller 1996). For example, genuine-brand manufacturers can potentially reduce consumers' desire to buy counterfeits through making the genuine counterparts more affordable and accessible, which is supported by the findings from this study that counterfeits were attractive to students from low-income families (for details, see "The Role of Control Variables" section in Chapter 4). This approach may be particularly applicable for the context of this research, as most genuine luxury brands come from Western countries but are often not accessible to or affordable for Chinese consumers (e.g., Staake, Thiesse, and Fleisch 2009). However, genuine-brand manufacturers may face a dilemma when using this approach, because making the genuine brands more accessible and affordable to the general public may make the genuine brands lose their value and exclusivity as a status signal (Han, Nunes and Drèze 2010). In contrast, it may be more feasible and effective to expose participants to new information in order to increase the likelihood of creating new norms to replace existing ones, a strategy that has been successfully implemented to change perceived norms of other deviant behaviors such as drinking behavior (Haines and Spear 1996).

Although this research, along with cross-cultural studies (e.g., Penz, Schlegelmilch, and Stöttinger 2009), found that perceived behavioral control was less strong and less consistent than attitude and subjective norms in explaining the intention to buy counterfeits, perceived behavioral control was still an influential factor. Therefore, it is important for genuine-brand manufacturers, governments, enforcement agencies, and the like to find approaches to reduce counterfeit accessibility to consumers, in addition to penalizing manufacturing of counterfeits.

Besides the implications derived from the findings surrounding each individual construct in the validated goal-striving model, perhaps the most important implications should come from the whole goal-striving model itself. Finding many seemingly elusive—and sometimes contradictory and conflicting—suggestions concerning deliberate counterfeit consumption is actually often not difficult. However, it appears from this research that without a clearer guiding framework money and effort spent on an anti-counterfeiting campaign could likely be wasted. This study's refined theoretical goal-striving model provides a clearer understanding of the general underlying dynamics driving consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior, and the particular role of action desire along with the proposed construct of PCD. By connecting those seemingly elusive and scattered suggestions into a simple but relatively comprehensive framework, this goal-striving model helps practitioners see the "trees as well as the forest." When attempting to fight against counterfeiting, practitioners not only can easily pinpoint those important factors identified in the goal-striving model, but also can know when and how these factors will play a role. Moreover, practitioners will not get lost in different cultural and consumption situations, as they are aware that the order of importance of the factors in the model may vary, depending upon different counterfeit-consumption contexts. Finally, a fully extended model—considering goal setting, goal striving, and goal realization collectively—will provide greater comprehensive guidance for practitioners in order to discourage consumers from buying counterfeits.

Limitations and Future Research

Despite its contributions, researchers need to consider the major limitations of the study addressed here when interpreting its results, as well as when applied to their future research. First, since this study was cross-sectional in nature, it could not assert to provide direct evidence with regard to mental processes happening in participants' minds. The cross-sectional survey design and self-reported measures also suggest that the common method bias is still a concern, even though in this study several procedural steps in the questionnaire design were taken in order to overcome common method bias and statistical techniques demonstrated that this kind of bias was not likely to be a threat. Future research might consider conducting controlled experimental research in order to manipulate the variables of interest and to address these issues, which might also find support with regard to the subjective norms' moderating role on the relationship between PCD and action intentions.

Second, caution should be taken when generalizing this research's findings for different facts. These facts include that this study was conducted in Beijing, China (i.e., one cultural background), restricted to several product categories, used college students as a convenience sample, and found a high correlation between action desire and action intention (i.e., lack of discriminant validity) that were conceptually expected to be distinct constructs. For example, depending upon different cultural and consumption situations, discussion of the research findings indicates that the order of importance of the factors that affect intention to buy counterfeits may differ. Therefore, conducting similar research in other countries and comparing the findings in those markets will be beneficial to the further explication and understanding of this phenomenon. Considering cultural factors such as individualism and collectivism may offer further insights. Also, future replication and extension is needed using different sample populations, rather than using college students as a convenience sample, to investigate other factors such as the influence of individual differences and demographic characteristics. Moreover, the analysis from this study's data showed that the correlation between action desire and action intention was too high, even though past studies have demonstrated that action desire and action intention are distinct constructs (e.g., Bagozzi, Dholakia and Basuroy 2003) and this study's further analysis using the nested models approach showed that they were indeed two different constructs (e.g., Bagozzi et al. 1991). However, more rigorous empirical studies in the counterfeit-consumption context are needed in order to address whether or not action desire fully or partially mediates the effects of attitude and the subjective norm on action intention toward deliberate purchase of counterfeits. Furthermore, as suggested by other researchers' findings (e.g., Shim, Eastlick, Lotz, and Warrington 2001), future research could take customers' other characteristics (e.g., past experience in purchasing counterfeits) into consideration, for they may explain significant additional variance in customers' intention to participate in the deliberate purchase of counterfeit items.

Aiming to develop a refined theoretical understanding of the motivations and decision-making processes of consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior, this research developed and tested a motivational model with an emphasis on the psychological mechanisms in the goal-striving stage. Serving as a base model and starting point, the motivational model in this study included only a small set of constructs (e.g., attitude, action intention, PCD), one mediator (i.e., action desire), and one moderator (i.e., subjective norms). Future research can examine the entire underlying mechanisms—from goal-setting, goal-striving, to goal-realization stages— to better understand consumers' deliberate counterfeit-consumption behavior, such as the role of consumers' goals (Wu, Bhappu, and Helm 2011) and how the deliberate purchase and use of counterfeits is enacted. Future research can also follow this research's model in general and apply it to contexts similar to deliberate counterfeit consumption in particular, such as software piracy, humans' lying behavior, and employees' sabotage behavior.

Finally, more attention should be given to the construct PCD, as identified and demonstrated in this research. PCD is a cognitive determinant of action intention and reflects a counterfeit-brand consumer's own control perception with regard to deliberate counterfeit consumption, depending upon factors such as whether or not consumers will use counterfeit products publicly or privately, others' actual ability to detect the counterfeits, the product quality of the counterfeits, the effectiveness of punishment and law enforcement, and the actual purchase of counterfeits. As discussed earlier, the negative relation between consumers' PCD and action intention to deliberately purchase counterfeits may be moderated by effective punishment and law enforcement. The less effective the punishment and law enforcement, the stronger the relation between consumers' PCD and action intention, and vice versa. Further research is therefore warranted to explicate the exact nature of PCD, its antecedents and consequences, and its scale development and measurement refinement.

APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE PACKAGE IN ENGLISH

Dear Participants:

Thank you for your participation in this questionnaire. It is being conducted to explore consumer decision-making about luxury brand products.

Although voluntary, your participation does count, makes a difference, and contributes greatly to the successful completion of this Ph.D. dissertation study!

Your participation and responses will be kept **strictly confidential** and will remain anonymous. There are no right or wrong answers, so please take your time to fill out this questionnaire **as honestly and completely as possible**.

<u>Before beginning</u>, please carefully **<u>read this short description</u>** that explains how to fill out this questionnaire.

Many questions in this questionnaire relate to one of 5 product categories: apparel, handbags, shoes, purses or other category. **<u>In question 1, you will be asked to choose only *one* product category. Next answer the remaining questions in the questionnaire, while keeping in mind the specific product category you chose.</u>**

SECTION A: Please respond to the following questions by circling/checking the number that most closely reflects your opinion.

1. Please indicate below the **<u>category</u>** from which you are most likely to **<u>buy a product</u>** during the next 1year. Only check **<u>one</u>** product category.

   ________ （1） Apparel

   ________ （2） Handbags

   ________ （3） Shoes

   ________ （4） Purses

   ________ （5） Other product category (Please specify):__________________

2. During the next 1 year, I **<u>intend</u>** to buy a product from my chosen category:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION B: From the product category that you chose above, please answer the following questions about buying a <u>genuine luxury brand product</u> (as opposed to a counterfeit brand product). Genuine brands include Louis Vuitton (LV), Gucci,

Coach, Dior, Prada, Calvin Klein, Channel, Christian Louboutin, Hermès, Pierre Cardin, Nike, Versace, Armani, and Burberry. Please circle the numbers below that most closely match your view and product category choice.

1. I **intend** to buy a genuine brand product from my chosen product category during the next 1 year.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. During the next 1 year, it is **likely** that I will buy a genuine brand product from my chosen product category.

Highly Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Neither Unlikely Nor likely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Highly Likely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Within the next 1 year, the **strength of my intention** to buy a genuine brand product from my chosen product category can best be described as ______:

Very Weak	Weak	Somewhat Weak	Neither Weak nor Strong	Somewhat Strong	Strong	Very Strong
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION C: Please answer the following questions about buying a counterfeit brand product (as opposed to a genuine luxury brand product) in the product category that you chose above. A counterfeit brand product is a fake copy of a genuine brand product. Circle the number that most closely reflects your opinion.

1. I **intend** to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category during the next 1 year.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

			Nor agree			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. It is **<u>likely</u>** that I will buy a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category during the next 1 year.

Highly Unlikely	Unlikely	Somewhat Unlikely	Neither Unlikely Nor likely	Somewhat Likely	Likely	Highly Likely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. Within the next 1 year, the **<u>strength of my intention</u>** to buy a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category can best be described as ______:

Very Weak	Weak	Somewhat Weak	Neither Weak nor Strong	Somewhat Strong	Strong	Very Strong
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. I **<u>need</u>** to buy a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. I **<u>want</u>** to buy a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. I have a **<u>desire</u>** to buy a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

			Nor agree			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. I **<u>feel an urge</u>** to buy a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. If I wanted to, I could **<u>easily</u>** buy a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. It would ***<u>not</u>*** **<u>be difficult</u>** for me to buy a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. There are ***<u>no</u>*** **<u>barriers</u>** to prevent me from buying a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. I believe that buying a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category is ______ <u>(circle your answers below):</u>

Foolish						Wise
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Harmful						Beneficial
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Bad						Good
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Negative						Positive
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Useless						Useful
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Disadvantageous						Advantageous
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Punishing						Rewarding
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. Overall, I think that buying a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category is ________.

Negative						Positive
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. Most people who are important in my life would **<u>understand</u>** my decision to buy a <u>counterfeit brand product</u> from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. Most people who are important in my life would **agree** with my decision to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. Most people who are important in my life would **approve** of me buying a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. Most people who are important in my life would **support** me in buying a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. Most people who are important in my life would **encourage** me to buy a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. Important others around me will **sense** when I'm wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. Important others around me will be able to **recognize** when I'm wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20. Important others around me can **detect** when I'm wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. I myself will **know** it when important others around me are wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22. I myself can **recognize** when important others around me are wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

23. I myself can **detect** when important others around me are wearing a counterfeit brand product from my chosen product category.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D: Please respond to the following demographic questions. Circle/check

the number that most closely reflects your answer.

1. My gender is:

   ________ (1) Male

   ________ (2) Female

2. My age (in years) is:

   ________ (1) 18-20

   ________ (2) 21-23

   ________ (3) 24-26

   ________ (4) 27-29

   ________ (5) 30-32

   ________ (6) 33 or older

3. My student status is:

   ________ (1) Freshman (first year)

   ________ (2) Sophomore (second year)

   ________ (3) Junior (third year)

   ________ (4) Senior (fourth year)

   ________ (5) Other (Please specify):_______________

4. My college major is ____________________________________.

5. My employment status is:

________ (1) Not working

________ (2) Employed part time for less than 10 hours per week

________ (3) Employed part time for 11 to 20 hours per week

________ (3) Employed part time for 21 to 30 hours per week

________ (4) Employed full time for 31 or more hours per week

6. What is the approximate amount of your **household** gross income annually? If you live with and/or are supported by your parent(s) or spouse, include their income along with yours.

________ (1) Less than CNY10, 000

________ (2) CNY10, 000-CNY29, 999

________ (3) CNY30, 000-CNY59, 999

________ (4) CNY60, 000-CNY79, 999

________ (5) CNY80, 000-CNY99, 999

________ (6) CNY100, 000-CNY149, 999

________ (7) CNY150, 000-CNY199, 999

________ (8) CNY200, 000-CNY299, 999

________ (9) CNY 300,000-CNY 399,999

________ (10) CNY 400,000-CNY 499,999

________ (11) More than CNY500, 000

________ (12) I do not know at all

________ (13) I do not want to answer this question

7. I **honestly responded** to the questions in this questionnaire.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor agree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

If you have any questions, suggestions or comments about this questionnaire, please write them below:

____

____

____

End of the questionnaire. Please check to see if you have missed answering any questions. Thank you again for your participation.

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE PACKAGE IN CHINESE

调查问卷

亲爱的校园朋友：

您好。我们诚挚地邀请您参加关于品牌商品消费的博士论文问卷调查。您的参与和宝贵意见对本研究有极大的帮助。

本问卷需要大约10分钟完成、答案无所谓对错；您的参与纯属自愿、完全以匿名的方式进行；您的回答将严格保密，并仅供学术研究。因此，请您无所顾虑地填写本问卷，并尽可能回答所有问题。如果您有任何问题，请和我们联系。

敬祝：学业进步！健康快乐！

请按适合自己的速度回答问题。

问卷填写步骤说明

在开始填写本问卷之前，请您**先阅读**此问卷填写步骤说明。

首先，您需要**是本科生**并一定要**先回答第一部分中的问题1**。问题1列出5种商品种类：服装（apparel）、手提包（handbags）、鞋类（shoes）、钱包（purses）和其他种类。在回答问题1时，您**只能选择1**种商品种类。

然后，请您回答问卷中的其他问题，并根据您在问题1中已选择的商品种类，作出相应的回答。

第一部分：

请针对以下陈述，在最接近您答复的**数字上打钩或划圈**。

1. 在未来1年内，我最想购买的商品属于以下商品中的**哪一类**（请**只选择1种**商品种类）。

________（1）服装 （apparel）

________（2）手提包（handbags）

________（3）鞋子（shoes）

________（4）钱包（purses）

________（5）其他商品种类（请注明）：________________________

2. 在未来1年内，我**打算**在我所选的商品种类中买件商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第二部分：

在市场上有很多奢华品牌的真货（正品）商品。这些奢华品牌经常被仿冒与复制，成为常说的假冒商品。奢华品牌的例子有Louis Vuitton（路易威登，LV）， Gucci （古奇）， Coach（酷茨）， Dior（迪奥）， Prada（普拉达）， Calvin Klein（卡尔文·克莱恩，CK）， Channel（香奈儿）， Christian Louboutin（里斯提·鲁布托）， Hermès（爱马仕）， Pierre Cardin（皮尔·卡丹）， Nike（耐克）， Versace（范思哲）， Armani（阿玛尼）和 Burberry（巴宝莉）。

针对您在第一部分问题1中已选的商品种类，请回答以下有关购买真货品牌商品的问题，并请在最接近您答复的数字上打钩或划圈。

1. 我**打算**在未来1年内在我选的商品种类中（即在第一部分问题1中作出的选择。下同）买件真货品牌产品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. 我**可能**会在未来1年内在我选的商品种类中买件真货品牌产品。

很不可能	不可能	稍有不可能	既非不可能也非可能	稍有可能	可能	很可能
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. 在未来1年内，我在我选的商品种类中买件真货品牌商品的**意愿强度**可形容为________：

非常弱	弱的	稍有弱的	既非弱也非强烈的	稍有强烈的	强烈的	非常强烈的
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第三部分：

针对您在第一部分问题1中已选的商品种类，请回答以下有关购买**假冒品牌商品**的问题，并请在最接近您答复的数字上打钩或划圈。

1. 我**打算**在未来1年内在我选的商品种类中买件假冒的品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. 在未来1年内，我**可能**会在我选的商品种类中买件假冒的品牌商品。

很不可能	不可能	稍有不可能	既非不可能也非可能	稍有可能	可能	很可能
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. 在未来1年内，我在我选的商品种类中买件假冒品牌商品的**意愿强度**可形容为：

非常弱	弱的	稍有弱的	既非弱也非强烈的	稍有强烈的	强烈的	非常强烈的
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. 我**需要**在我选的商品种类中买件假冒的品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. 我**想要**在我选的商品种类中买件假冒的品牌商品。

很不可能	不可能	稍有不可能	既非不可能也非可能	稍有可能	可能	很可能
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. 我**渴望**在我选的商品种类中买件假冒的品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. 我**感到一种冲动**要在我选的商品种类中买件假冒品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. 如果我想的话，我可以**容易地**在我选的商品种类中买件假冒品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. 如果我想的话，对我来说**并不难**在我选的商品种类中买到假冒品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. 如果我想的话，**没什么困难会妨碍**我在我选的商品种类中买件假冒的品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. 我**认为**在以上商品种类中买假冒品牌商品是（在答案处划圈）________：

不明智的						明智的
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

有害的						有益的
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

坏的						好的
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

负面的						正面的
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

没用的 有用的

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

无优势的 有优势的

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

有惩罚的 有回报的

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. 总的来说，我**认为**在以上商品种类中买假冒品牌商品是________。

负面的 正面的

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. 大多数我生活中重要的人会**理解**我在我选的商品种类中买假冒品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. 大多数我生活中重要的人会**同意**我在我选的商品种类中买假冒品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. 大多数我生活中重要的人会**赞成**我在我选的商品种类中买假冒品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. 大多数我生活中重要的人会**支持**我在我选的商品种类中买假冒品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. 大多数我生活中重要的人会**鼓励**我在我选的商品种类中买假冒品牌商品。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. 当我使用我选的假冒品牌商品时，在我身边重要的人能**感觉出**我用的是假冒品牌。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. 当我使用我选的假冒品牌商品时，对我来说重要的人能够**认出**我用的是假冒品牌。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20. 当我使用我选的假冒品牌商品时，在我身边重要的人能**分辨出**我用的假冒品牌。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. 当周围对我重要的人使用我选商品种类中的假冒品牌商品时，我能**感觉出**他们用的是假冒品牌。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22. 当周围对我重要的人使用我选商品种类中的假冒品牌商品时，我可以**认出**他们用的假冒品牌。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

23. 当周围对我重要的人使用我选商品种类中的<u>假冒品牌商品</u>时，我能**<u>分辨出</u>**他们用的是<u>假冒品牌</u>。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

最后一部分：
请对以下基本资料问题作出应答，并请在最接近您答复的数字上打钩或划圈。

1. 我的性别是

________（1）男

________（2）女

2. 我现在的年龄（岁）是

________ (1)18-20

________ (2)21-23

________ (3)24-26

________ (4)27-29

________ (5)30-32

________ (6)33或更大

3. 我的年级是

________（1）大一

________（2）大二

________（3）大三

_________ （4）大四

_________ （5）其他（请注明）_________________________

4. 我的大学专业是（请填写）____。

5. 我的工作状况是

_________ (1) 不工作

_________ (2) 每周小于10小时的兼职工作

_________ (3) 每周11至20小时的兼职工作

_________ (4) 每周21至30小时的兼职工作

_________ (5) 全职工作（每周31小时或更多）

6. 我家的全部年家庭收入大约为（税前；货币单位：人民币。如果您和父母或爱人一起居住、或由他们支持，请将他们和您的收入一起包括在内）

_________ （1）少于1万元。

_________ （2）1万元至3万元（不含3万元。下同）。

_________ （3）3万元至6万元。

_________ （4）6万元至8万元。

_________ （5）8万元至10万元。

_________ （6）10万元至15万元。

_________ （7）15万元至20万元。

_________ （8）20万元至30万元。

________（9）30万元至40万元。

________（10）40万元至50万元。

________（11）高于50万元。

________（12）完全不知道。

________（13）我不想回答此问题。

7. 我**诚实地回答了**此问卷中的已答问题。

强烈不同意	不同意	稍有不同意	既非不同意也非同意	稍有同意	同意	强烈同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

问卷到此全部结束，请您检查是否有遗漏，再次感谢您的协助。

如果你对本问卷有任何方面的问题或建议，请写在以下空格处。

____

____

____

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