Misuse of ideas: Buying pirated products

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ABSTRACT

Product piracy has been a long unsolved problem for international marketers as it damages their brand reputation and discourages innovation in a business arena. However, some say that product piracy benefits to society if products copied are worth the price paid. This study tends to answer who the buyers of pirated products are and to provide a useful information for domestic and international marketers as well as the government. Thailand was used to be the site of study as it is a big production site and market of copy products. Demographic and personal experiences were posited in the model in determining the purchase intention of copy products, international branded products, and Thai products. It was found that men are more likely to choose copy products rather than Thai products than women as women are more likely to choose Thai products rather than international branded products than men. Peer pressure also had a high effect as people tend to choose similar products as their peers. Results also indicated that people who travel less often are less likely to buy copy products. Finally, people who are less exposed to buy Thai campaign are more likely to choose copy products not Thai products.

Product piracy has been a problem for business especially in international business arena for a long time. Its activities have widened to a broad range of goods pirated. The Anti-Counterfeiting Group stated that fake products comprise about 3-6% of world trade (Carty, 1994). Most product piracy was created in emerging economies. Thailand was thus chosen to be the site of the study since it is not only the big production site of fake products but also the big market for fake products (from domestic and international counterfeiters and of domestic and foreign buyers). Bush, Bloch, and Dawson (1989) argued that one reason that makes pirated and copied products flourish is the successful international marketing of well-known branded products. Technological advances have further increased the rate of copying products. Counterfeiters find it much easier to produce products to be very similar to original products (Cottman, 1992). Product piracy has been claimed for discouraging innovation (McDonald & Roberts, 1994). Without ground for innovation, no business competes. Product piracy creates a loss to the industry and to the society at large. In other words, consumers will have less variety of products and services to choose, leading to a lower standard of living.

On the other hand, imitating products may benefit the society as a whole. Wilke and Zaichkowsky (1999) argued that imitations can create a benefit to society if copied products are knowingly bought by consumers and can be identified as fake items. Or the benefit may occur if fake products are of higher quality and value to the customer. Imitation may also bring the benefit to the society in that in the process of imitating others' innovations, these imitators may discover something new and be able to deliver their own innovation. Wilke and Zaichkowsky (1999) also pointed out that in the context of pirated luxury goods (such as brand name products), the benefits tend to be greater

than the risks of imitations both to the consumers in particular and to the society as a whole. Reasons are such those explained.

Pirated products which are the focus of this study are, in fact, a category of fake products. Fake products are mainly of two kinds: counterfeits and pirated products. Fake products are ranged from fashion products to hi-tech products which require an intensive research and development. Counterfeit products are fake products which the manufacturer intentionally produces to deceive customers to believe that they are buying the genuine ones (McDonald & Roberts, 1994; Wilke & Zaichkowsky, 1999). In other words, buyers do not know that the products bought are fake. The reputation of the brand owners thus is damaged if consumers thought the products bought were genuine (Carty, 1994). Counterfeits are usually found in drugs, fertilizers, auto parts, and many others. Pirated products are ones that the manufacturer produces without an intention to deceive the consumer. In contrast, consumers are aware that they are buying pirated products, i.e., buying at a fraction of the original price, buying at a certain location, or noticing obvious differences in quality or some feature details (McDonald & Roberts, 1994; Wilke & Zaichkowsky, 1999). Pirated products are found mostly in luxurious goods (such as brand name handbags, shoes, clothes, and watches) and software. Buyers of pirated goods do not feel cheated as they knowingly buy these products. It is important to note that the terms of counterfeits, copied products, fake products, and pirated products are often used interchangeably.

This study focuses on only pirated products since it is more interesting to study the real purchasing behavior/intention rather than the deceived one (of buying counterfeits). The reason of choosing to study the purchasing behavior of pirated

products in Thailand is that fake products have flooded Asian markets which are one of important markets in the world economy (Reynolds, 2002). According to Hofstede's (1980) cultural framework, Southeast Asians are classified as collectivists. Collectivists, in general, associate their behaviors with the reference group. Imitation to their reference group is common. Wee (1997: 18) also suggests that Western lifestyles are perceived as fantasy among Southeast Asians and this fantasy can be realistically reached when people are increasingly affluent. When not all people can afford to be similar to their reference group, fake products are thus a popular solution.

Fake items are not, in fact, common only in developing countries. They have been, in fact, spreading to developed countries and have accounted for a significant percentage of the domestic economy. For instance, during the first fiscal year of 2002 (October 1, 2001-March 31, 2002), U.S. Customs Service seized counterfeit and pirate products of US$ 26 million, of which are wearing apparel (19%), consumer electronics (16%), media (16%), cigarettes (10%), watches and parts (9%), handbags, wallets, and backpacks (6%), toys and electronic games (6%), cigarette rolling papers (4%, sunglasses and parts (2%), headwear (2%), and other commodities (9) (http://www.iacc.org). Not surprisingly, China was the leading player accounting for 38% of the total value of fake items seized in the U.S., followed by Taiwan accounting for 10%, and Hong Kong and Pakistan each accounting for 6% of the total value.

Objectives of this study are twofold. First, it is to study who are the buyers of pirated products. In other words, what demographic and other personal characteristics differ between consumers choosing fakes and those not choosing fakes. Second, it is to provide a practical implication for marketers of Thai products and copy products, and for

international marketers of foreign branded products to segment their target market correctly. And for international marketers who want to prevent fake products would benefit from the identification of the segment of consumers who knowingly buy pirated products (Gail, Garibaldi, Zeng, & Pilcher, 1998). Next is literature of past research dealing with consumer behavior of buying counterfeit products.

Literature review

Most studies on fake products are on the supply side, i.e., how to protect intellectual property and how to prevent the floods of fakes to the market. Only a few studies were done on the demand side of fake products. Bloch, Bush, and Campbell (1993) used a field experiment to investigate consumers' willingness knowingly to select a fake apparel product. The sample of adult consumers surprisingly chose a copy over a genuine one when the price of the former was lower. This was explained by the fact that function risks are lower for apparel products compared to those of other products such as auto parts or engines. In addition, prestige gains are high compared to non-existing risks of using copied apparel items.

The research by Wee, Tan, and Cheok (1995) is probably the most complete one in studying the determinants of purchase intention of counterfeits. They challenged the assumption that price is the dominant factor in intention to purchase counterfeit products. Non-price determinants which were classified as psychographic (attitude towards counterfeiting, brand status, and novelty-seeking), demographic (age, educational attainment, and household income), and product-attribute variables (appearance, durability, image, perceived fashion content, purpose, and quality) were found to be related with purchase intention of fake products. However, some differences exist across

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different types of fake products (books, computer software, leather wallets/purses, and watches) used in the study. Overall results indicated that product-attribute variables have highest power in explaining intention to purchase fake products.

The ethical issue of counterfeit purchasing behavior was also studied by some researchers. Chan, Wong, and Leung (1998) treated the behavior of buying counterfeits as one of unethical practices. They found that consumers from different countries use similar rules in judging the ethicality of a given behavior. The findings also found certain cultural elements of Chinese consumers in their ethical judgments. An interesting one is that Chinese consumers are highly influenced by group norms as they have double standards for their public and private lives in judging the ethicality. Another interesting finding is that Chinese consumers are more situation-oriented and practical. When asked whether it is right to buy a counterfeit product, Chinese consumers tend to emphasize more on the context rather than the behavior itself. For example, they may judge based on the availability and price of the genuine international products. If international products are not available locally or their prices are too high or unreasonable, they will judge the behavior of buying counterfeits as a reasonable practice. On the other hand, if genuine international branded products are available in the local market with a reasonable price, they will judge the behavior of counterfeit buying as unethical (Chan et al., 1998).

It should be noted that no specific theory was used in studying counterfeit purchasing behavior. This study tends to be more comprehensive in positing demand-side characteristics related with purchase intention of copy products. Model used to be tested in this study is presented next.

Model development

This study is focusing on the demand side of pirated products. It is aimed to identify who the buyers of fakes are. Demographic and other personal experiences are used as independent variables in the model. It is expected that personal characteristics, not product attributes, are important predictors in purchasing behavior. Personal experiences such as travel experience and an exposure to buy Thai product campaign are also posited in the model.

Product attributes are not included in the study. It is assumed in this study that fake leather products popular in Thai market are not visually different from original ones. Wee et al. (1995) found that consumers preferred to buy copied leather wallets/purses (leather products are also used as an exemplar in this study, as described in the next section) when they found minimal visual differences between copied products and original ones. Wee et al. (1995) also found that other product attributes (e.g., durability, image, and quality) were not significantly related with the intention to purchase counterfeits.

Independent variables

Gender

No past research studying the relationship between gender and buying behavior of counterfeit products was found. However, the hypotheses were developed based on intuition of the difference between males and females. Males are expected to prefer copy products more than genuine international or Thai products. This is because men tend to prefer the former as most of which are cheaper and men usually do not care their status compared to women. Since it is assumed that products are not visually different, men are more likely to choose a cheaper product than a genuine international

one. Due to expected price similarity between copy and Thai products, it is predicted that men tend to prefer copy products because of the style of the former one is more common for them than that of the latter. Women may prefer to try different styles of Thai products than men who do not concern much about the fashion and thus tend to use a cheaper version product but same style commonly seen worldwide.

Hypothesis 1: Gender is related with purchase intention such that:

Hypothesis 1a: The likelihood of buying copy products compared to Thai products is higher among males than among females.

Hypothesis 1b: The likelihood of buying copy products compared to genuine international branded products is higher among males than among females.

Age

Wee et al. (1995) found that age was not significantly related with the intention to purchase counterfeits in general, except only the tendency to buy pirated literature. Wee et al. (1995) used the term counterfeit to include all kinds of fake products. This study, however, hypothesized that age is correlated with intention to buy counterfeit products. Good and Huddleston (1995) and Sharma and Shimp (1995) reported that older people tend to be more consumer ethnocentric and more conservative. These people had an experience with wars and hardships more than younger people. They, thus, are expected to have higher tendency in purchasing Thai products rather than foreign branded products. Buying copied products as opposed to genuine foreign branded products is assumed to be even more inappropriate as people are older (under the assumption that age is positively related with social status). The likelihood of buying copy products (vs. Thai products or genuine international branded products) is hypothesized to be lower as people get older.

Hypothesis 2: Age is related with purchase intention such that:

Hypothesis 2a: Age is negatively related with the likelihood of buying copy products compared to Thai products.

Hypothesis 2b: Age is negatively related with the likelihood of buying copy products compared to genuine international branded products.

Income

Income is an important predictor of consumer behavior. It is related with the tastes of consumers and their affordability. Fan and Xiao (1998) found that differences in purchasing power shared high variance in explaining differences in purchasing behavior. Their study was based on the comparison of Chinese, American, and Korean consumers. Chao and Rajendran (1993) found that in the U.S., people who have professional ranks hold positive attitudes toward people who own foreign products while this is not true among foremen. Sharma and Shimp (1995) also used income as a proxy of status and argued that consumers with higher income tend to travel abroad more often and try new products resulting in more openness to foreign products. These studies, however, focused on the genuine foreign branded products. On the contrary, if looking at counterfeit foreign branded products, purchase intention is expected to be negatively related with income level. Wee et al. (1995) also found a supporting result that income had a negative effect on buying intention of counterfeit fashion products such as wallets and purses. It was found in a study by Nia and Zaichkowsky (2000) that people who did not own any fake items had a negative image towards fake luxury goods and generally had a high income level. In other words, higher income means higher purchasing power. Thus, people with higher income can afford international genuine products. In addition, it is expected that Thai products would be a better choice than copied products which are

commonly used among people with low income since the latter are generally at a bargain price.

Hypothesis 3: Income is related with purchase intention such that:

Hypothesis 3a: Income is negatively related with the likelihood of buying copy products compared to Thai products.

Hypothesis 3b: Income is negatively related with the likelihood of buying copy products compared to genuine international branded products.

Peer pressure

Martineau (1968) stated that a person's consumption pattern is a significant predictor of his/her purchasing behavior since it symbolizes his/her social status. In other words, a product a person buys is a symbolic of social status he/she belongs to. Therefore, it is expected that a person will buy similar products that most of his/her peers use in order to maintain his/her social class status and to be accepted among his/her peers.

Group norms play an important role in a collectivistic culture than in an individualistic culture. People from a collectivistic culture are expectedly more prone to behave similarly with their peers than do those from an individualistic culture. Chan et al. (1998) found an interesting result in their study that although consumers from different cultures use a similar set of rules to assess the ethicality of counterfeit buying behavior, Chinese consumers have a unique cultural element in judging the ethicality of their behavior. Specifically, their behavior judgment is heavily influenced by the group norm as they use different standards for their private and public lives as mentioned earlier in the literature review section. The concept of group norms has thus ascertained the hypothesized relationship between peer pressure and purchase intention in the context of

this study as Thailand is presumed to be a collectivistic country (Hofstede, 1980). This relationship is not expected to be that strong among people from an individualistic culture. However, the impact of social status maintenance mentioned earlier is still expected.

Hypothesis 4: Peer pressure is related with purchase intention such that:

Hypothesis 4a: The likelihood of buying copy products compared to Thai products is highest among people whose peers mostly use copy products compared to those whose peers mostly use genuine international branded products or Thai products.

Hypothesis 4b: The likelihood of buying copy products compared to genuine international branded products is highest among people whose peers mostly use copy products compared to those whose peers mostly use genuine international branded products or Thai products.

International exposure

International exposure or foreign travel experience is a personal experience, being an important predictor of purchase intention. Sharma and Shimp (1995) used the term differently, i.e., cultural openness. It is expected that people with opportunity of getting an interaction with other cultures have high probability of accepting foreign brands. Since copy products are usually under foreign brands, it is expected that people who travel very often will more likely choose copy products rather than Thai products. On the other hand, if compared between copy products and genuine international branded products, it is expected that the probability of buying copy products (rather than genuine international branded products) will be higher as people travel less often. This is because people who travel more have a greater chance to see that genuine products are of better quality when compared with fake ones. It is thus assumed that they will accept genuine products more than copy ones.

Hypothesis 5: International exposure is related with purchase intention such that:

Hypothesis 5a: The likelihood of buying copy products compared to Thai products is higher as people travel more often.

Hypothesis 5b: The likelihood of buying copy products compared to genuine international branded products is higher as people travel less often.

Exposure to buy Thai campaign

Showers and Showers (1993) argued that the recent wave of "Buy American" campaign encouraged by some American companies provided an interesting context for international marketing research especially in the topic of country-of-origin (COO). Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Bamossy (1994) found that buy-domestic campaign may generate affective feelings toward local products but may not necessarily induce customers to buy those products. Exposure to buy Thai campaign is defined as *the extent to which consumers are exposed to buy Thai campaign.* It is expected that the more exposed to buy Thai campaign a person is, the more likely he/she is buying Thai products rather than copy products. The campaign is not expected to have an effect on the purchase intention of genuine international branded products compared with copy products.

Hypothesis 6: Exposure to buy Thai campaign is related with purchase intention such that:

Hypothesis 6a: The likelihood of buying copy products compared to Thai products is least among people who are most exposed to buy Thai campaign.

Hypothesis 6b: The likelihood of buying copy products compared to genuine international branded products is not related with exposure to buy Thai campaign.

Dependent variable

Purchase intention

Purchase intention is a categorical variable classified into three categories, i.e., a potential buyer of copy products, a potential buyer of international branded

products, and a potential buyer of Thai products. The proportions of future purchase of copy products, international branded products, and Thai products in the next two years were asked. Percentages were given to each category of products based on the number of pieces not the value of the products since the prices of these three product categories are significantly different.

Wee et al. (1995) argued that purchase intention, not an actual past purchase, was a proper measure for two main reasons. First, a response bias would occur if actual purchase was used since respondents may give information based on different time frames. Second, confounding effects may occur if respondents use past purchase experience in evaluating items such as product attributes (though not included in this study).

Leather products, such as handbags, wallets, belts, and shoes are used as an exemplar in the study. The reason is that leather products are viewed as luxurious products and their brands or images are obviously shown to people around them. Another reason of choosing leather products is that leather products are in the top 10 of Thailand's foreign export earners. It is one of the most important industries contributing to Thailand economy. Research methods to be used in testing above hypotheses are presented in the next section.

Research methodology

A survey method was used in collecting data. The pretest of the questionnaire with eight academic scholars and a later pilot test with 80 students provided useful information on modification of survey items and instructions. Feedback was incorporated in the final questionnaire.

4,500 survey questionnaires were sent to university students both in regular and part-time programs, of which 3,592 were useable. 69.8% and 30.2% of respondents are female and male respectively. Age of respondents is ranged from 16 to 50, with an average of 21.9 years old. 74.8% of respondents are in an undergraduate level, 23.5% are in a master level, and 1.7% are in other programs. 80% of respondents major in social and humanity sciences while only 20% are in physical sciences major. 74.6% do not work, 8.2% have part-time jobs, and 17.2% have full-time jobs. Average income of respondents is 9,191 baht per month.

In the survey, respondents were asked to determine the proportion of future purchase of Thai branded leather products, foreign branded products, and copy made products to the total of leather products they will purchase in the next two years. The category was assigned according to the highest proportion identified to that product category. If the numbers are tie in either two or three categories, that observation would be dropped from the sample, reducing the sample size to 2,923. The reason of not asking respondents directly to identify types of products they will likely buy is to reduce the problem of social desirability. It is expected that most Thai students will not want to tell publicly that they are going to buy Thai products and copy products as foreign-branded products are perceived as prestigious.

Of 2,923 respondents, 69.9% are female and 30.1% are male. Age of respondents is ranged from 16 to 50, with the average age of 21.9 years old. 75.2% of respondents are undergraduates, 23.0% are master students, and 1.8% are in other programs. 80.6% of respondents have major in social and humanity sciences while 19.4% major in physical sciences. 75.2% do not have jobs (since a majority of sample is undergraduate students),

8.2% have part-time jobs, and 16.6% have full-time jobs. Average income of the sample is 8,960 baht.

Peer pressure was asked as what kind of products respondents' peers commonly used, i.e., Thai products, foreign-branded products, or copy-made products. International exposure was asked as how often respondents travel internationally which 0 denotes none, 1 denotes not frequent, 2 denotes sometimes, and 3 denotes frequent. Exposure to buy Thai campaign is rated by respondents on how often they have seen Thai products campaign, i.e., none (1), last month (2), two weeks ago (3), last week (4), and yesterday (5).

Statistical analysis

Multinomial logistic regression was used in analyzing the data. Discriminant analysis is not an appropriate method. One key assumption in discirminant analysis is a multivariate normal distribution of the data, and is violated when the independent variables are a combination of metric and nominal variables (Sharma, 1996), which is the case of the data in this study. Multinomial logistic regression, instead of binary logistic regression, was adopted since the dependent variable was classified to more than two categories, i.e., 1 if most likely to buy copy products, 2 if most likely to buy foreign branded products, and 3 if most likely to buy Thai products.

One important condition for multinomial logistic regression is that independent variables should not be correlated or no multicollinearity. Out of six independent variables, only age and income are continuous variables. Others are categorical variables either as on an ordinal scale or a nominal scale. Therefore, only age and income were tested for their correlation. It was found that age and income are significantly correlated

with Pearson correlation at 0.628 (p<0.001). Only income was thus kept in the model since it has higher variance than age. Respondents are not different in terms of age since all of them are students even though some of them are part-time students. It is also asserted by Wee et al.'s (1995) study that age is not a good segmentation variable for intention to buy counterfeits.

Hypotheses testing

The findings in Table 1 show the likelihood of buying copy products over Thai products and that of buying foreign-branded products over Thai products. Table 2 shows the likelihood of buying copy products over foreign branded products and that of buying Thai products over foreign branded products.

Hypothesis 1a is supported as it is found that odds of events (buying copy products over Thai products) for females (vs. males) is less than 1 (0.693). Put differently, males are more likely to buy copy products (vs. Thai products) than females. Hypothesis 1b is not conclusive as the results in Table 2 regarding the relationship between gender and the likelihood of buying copy products (vs. foreign branded products) are not significant. However, it is interesting to note that (either from Table 1 or Table 2) females are more likely to buy Thai products rather than foreign branded products than males as the odds of this event is greater than 1 (1.354).

Hypothesis 2a and 2b are not tested since age was dropped from the test due to its high correlation with income. Both hypothesis 3a and 3b are inconclusive as the results are not significant.

Hypothesis 4a was found supported as the odds of buying copy products (compared to Thai products) is greater than 1 (10.523) for those whose peers use copy

products rather than Thai products while the odds of buying copy products (compared to Thai products) is only 3.634 for those whose peers use foreign branded products rather than Thai products (see Table 1). Hypothesis 4b was also found supported as the odds of buying copy products (compared to genuine international branded products) is greater than 1 (8.464) for those whose peers use copy products rather than international products while the odds of buying copy products (compared to genuine international branded products) is only 2.391 for those whose peers use Thai products rather than international products (see Table 2).

Hypothesis 5a was found an indefinite answer as not all variables of frequency of foreign travel are found significant. However, it can be seen from Table 1 that the odds of buying copy products (rather than Thai products) is lower than 1 (0.645) among those having never traveled than those who travel very often. Hypothesis 5b was also found an indefinite conclusion as not all variables of international travel frequency are found significant. The results in Table 2 are in fact found in an opposite direction from that hypothesized as people who travel less (not frequent or sometimes) has odds of buying copy products (rather than international branded products) lower than 1 (.468 and .620 respectively) compared to those travel very often.

Hypothesis 6a was found inconclusive as only one variable of exposure to buy Thai campaign is significant (Table 1). It is, nevertheless, found a satisfying result that those who are least exposed to buy Thai campaign has odds of buying copy products (rather than Thai products) high as 2.135 times to those who have highest exposure to buy Thai campaign. Hypothesis 6b was also found an inconclusive result in that two out of four variables of an exposure to buy Thai campaign are somewhat significantly related

($p<0.05$) with the likelihood of buying copy products compared to genuine foreign branded products.

Discussion

From the findings above, it is found that males are more likely to choose copy products (vs. Thai products) than females. When females feel that they cannot afford genuine international branded products, they will rather choose local branded products instead of copied ones. Females are expectedly more fearful of losing face than are males. Also, it can be argued that the products used by males are not as noticeable as females. While leather products used by males are mostly wallets, belts, and shoes, ones mostly used by females are handbags and wallets. Therefore, females have to be more careful in choosing products to not lose face.

Females, on the contrary, are more likely to choose Thai products (vs. international branded products) than males. This finding is quite counter-intuitive since it was expected that men are less brand conscious and more price conscious than women. It may be because women purchase more items than men. In other words, leather products for men are generally used longer than those for women since products for women are more fashionable and tend to be changed very often. Therefore, men tend to choose better quality products (usually genuine international branded products) which are more durable than either Thai products or copied ones.

Above findings also support the effect of peer pressure. This effect may be high due to the fact that the sample of this study is mainly undergraduate students. As people get older and more mature, they may tend to be less impacted by peer pressure. This finding has a significant implication for marketers in promoting their products, i.e., using

presenters around the age of target markets. In addition, it should be considered in future research whether the peer pressure effect will hold in individualistic cultures or not.

Income was not found to have any effect on the purchase intention of the three product types. Nia and Zaichkowsky (2000) argued that people often buy fake fashionable items because it is fun. That may explain why income does not make a difference in identifying purchase intention. That is, people with more income may choose more fake products because they find the fun out of them. Attitudes towards products may be a more important predictor than income itself.

For international travel experience, it was found that the less often people travel, the less likely they will buy copy products (vs. both Thai and international branded products). This sounds very counter-intuitive and contradicts to the theoretical setting. Results may be confounded by other factors, e.g., countries people travel. If people travel to China and Hong Kong, this finding may hold since lots of copy products are available in these markets. On the contrary, if traveling to Europe and North America, this will not be the case. Therefore, this limitation should be taken into account in future research.

Lastly, people who are less exposed to buy Thai campaign are more likely to choose copy products (vs. Thai products). Therefore, it is a government responsibility in developing ethnocentric sentiment in Thai people in order to buy less copy products and more Thai products gradually. A continuing education may be needed throughout each generation.

To eliminate fake products in the market, branded goods manufacturers must first understand who the buyers of copied products are. Understanding demand side is more

useful in developing anti-counterfeiting remedies (Bloch et al., 1993). Bloch et al. (1993) believed that supply always exists when there is demand.

The demand side information is also useful for government in establishing anti-counterfeiting measures. It is difficult to eradicate counterfeit products from the market as long as demand still exists. However, it is important to be noted that counterfeits commonly occur in countries with less effective laws and regulations (Delener, 2000). Strict law enforcement is still highly needed.

Limitations of this research are a few worth mentioned. Generalizability power is limited since the study focused only on fashionable items. Results of the study may not be able to explain the behavior in buying other kinds of fake products, e.g., software, drugs, and others. Also, the inclusion of only students may limit generalizability of the study. However, Yavas (1994) confirmed with his studies that the use of students is not inappropriate in modeling and testing attitude-behavior relationships mostly hypothesized in marketing research.

A limitation in the study points out one direction for future study. Counterfeit buyers may differ by product type (Bloch et al., 1993). Consumers buying copied fashionable items may be different from those buying pirated software or CDs. Therefore, different product types may be used as an exemplar in future research.

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Table 1
Parameter Estimates for Buying Copy Products, Foreign Branded Products, and Thai Products (as a base case)

Buying:		B	Std. Error	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp (B)
Copy	Intercept	-1.806	.271	44.418	1	.000	
	Gender=1 (Female)	-.367	.119	9.469	1	.002**	.693
	Gender=2 (Male)	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Peer=1 (Copy)	2.354	.171	188.510	1	.000***	10.523
	Peer=2 (Foreign)	1.290	.182	50.529	1	.000***	3.634
	Peer=3 (Thai)	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Income	.000	.000	.798	1	.372	1.000
	Travel often=0	-.439	.142	9.606	1	.002**	.645
	Travel often=1	.314	.356	.781	1	.377	1.369
	Travel often=2	-.070	.165	.181	1	.670	.932
	Travel often=3	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Campaign=1	.758	.230	10.875	1	.001***	2.135
	Campaign=2	.118	.189	.392	1	.531	1.125
	Campaign=3	-.050	.213	.054	1	.816	.952
	Campaign=4	.034	.202	.029	1	.865	1.035
	Campaign=5	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
Foreign	Intercept	-2.517	.295	72.830	1	.000	
	Gender=1 (Female)	-.303	.125	5.865	1	.015*	.739
	Gender=2 (Male)	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Income	.000	.000	1.860	1	.173	1.000
	Peer=1 (Copy)	1.090	.192	32.155	1	.000***	2.973
	Peer=2 (Foreign)	2.162	.172	158.311	1	.000***	8.691
	Peer=3 (Thai)	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Travel often=0	-.503	.153	10.870	1	.001***	.605
	Travel often=1	1.073	.298	12.933	1	.000***	2.925
	Travel often=2	.408	.162	6.314	1	.012**	1.503
	Travel often=3	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Campaign=1	.926	.263	12.414	1	.000***	2.525
	Campaign=2	.647	.218	8.796	1	.003**	1.910
	Campaign=3	.557	.238	5.483	1	.019*	1.745
	Campaign=4	.459	.232	3.926	1	.048*	1.582
	Campaign=5	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.

[a] This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.
* $p < .05$
** $p < .005$
*** $p < .001$

Table 2
Parameter Estimates for Buying Copy Products, Thai Products, and
Foreign Branded Products (as a base case)

Buying:		B	Std. Error	Wald	Df	Sig.	Exp (B)
Copy	Intercept	-.160	.288	.310	1	.577	
	Gender=1 (Female)	-.064	.138	.216	1	.642	.938
	Gender=2 (Male)	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Income	.000	.000	3.824	1	.051	1.000
	Peer=1 (Copy)	2.136	.145	217.485	1	.000[***]	8.464
	Peer=2 (Thai)	.872	.229	14.506	1	.000[***]	2.391
	Peer=3 (Foreign)	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Travel often=0	.064	.170	.144	1	.705	1.067
	Travel often=1	-.759	.334	5.164	1	.023[*]	.468
	Travel often=2	-.478	.182	6.873	1	.009[**]	.620
	Travel often=3	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Campaign=1	-.168	.285	.347	1	.556	.845
	Campaign=2	-.529	.247	4.578	1	.032[*]	.589
	Campaign=3	-.606	.272	4.957	1	.026[*]	.545
	Campaign=4	-.424	.263	2.606	1	.106	.654
	Campaign=5	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
Thai	Intercept	.355	.255	1.945	1	.163	
	Gender=1 (Female)	.303	.125	5.865	1	.015[*]	1.354
	Gender=2 (Male)	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Income	.000	.000	1.860	1	.173	1.000
	Peer=1 (Copy)	1.073	.134	64.144	1	.000[***]	2.923
	Peer=2 (Thai)	2.162	.172	158.311	1	.000[***]	8.691
	Peer=3 (Foreign)	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Travel often=0	.503	.153	10.870	1	.001[***]	1.654
	Travel often=1	-1.073	.298	12.933	1	.000[***]	.342
	Travel often=2	-.408	.162	6.314	1	.012[**]	.665
	Travel often=3	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.
	Campaign=1	-.926	.263	12.414	1	.000[***]	.396
	Campaign=2	-.647	.218	8.796	1	.003[**]	.524
	Campaign=3	-.557	.238	5.483	1	.019[*]	.573
	Campaign=4	-.459	.232	3.926	1	.048[*]	.632
	Campaign=5	0[a]	.	.	0	.	.

[a] This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.
[*] $p < .05$
[**] $p < .005$
[***] $p < .001$