

**PURCHASE INTENTION OF PIRATED BRANDED PRODUCT**  
**A Cross National Study of Australia and Indonesia**  
**A Proposed Study**

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**Abstract**

The proposed study investigates purchase intention of pirated branded product by focusing on cross national study of Australia and Indonesia. The study will employ one level of analysis, customers who are aware that they are buying pirated branded product – non-deceptive customers. Several constructs used in the study are moral ideology, consumer ethics, product cues, and product performance expectation, with particular regard to their intention to purchase pirated branded products. A cultural factor will be used as a context variable to explain the proposed model of the study. Information concerning high and low involvement products will be obtained through this research based on the responses gathered. The study will use a quantitative research approach by involving post graduate students of business as samples of this study. The result of the study will be expected to contribute knowledge regarding pirated branded products.

*Keywords; Cross-cultural Studies, Product Counterfeiting, Purchase Intension, Personal Character, Product Character*

**1. Background and research questions**

Many illegitimate manufacturers around the world have pirated a wide variety of branded products. These fake products were associated with both luxury and common goods (Olsen & Granzin 1992; Masland & Marshall 1990; and Field 2000), ranging from high involvement goods, such as aircraft parts (Bloch, Bush & Campbell 1993) and prescription drugs (Harvey & Ronkainen 1985), to low involvement products, such as literature and leather wallets (Wee, Tan & Cheok 1996). Scholars have addressed various studies of pirated branded products both on the demand side (Cordell, Wongtada & Kieschnik 1996; Lai & Zaichkowsky 1997) and on the supply side (Bush, Bloch & Dawson 1989; Harvey 1987; Harvey & Ronkainen 1985).

However, issues related to purchase intention and pirated branded products are not yet explored thoroughly. One study dealing with purchase intention is concerned with lawfulness, product performance expectation and extrinsic cues (Cordell, Wongtada & Kieschnik 1996). Another study has examined consumers' perception using modified Zeithaml's Means-end model (Field 2000). Constructs in this model examined perceived quality (extrinsic and intrinsic cues), perceived value, perceived price, product involvement, risk, and consumer values (materialism, status consumption, and personal values). In addition, these two studies involved a single country, USA, and they did not examine issues related to moral ideology and ethical beliefs.

Considering all these, the present proposed study focuses on consumers' intention to purchase pirated branded products, with particular attention to their moral ideologies and ethical beliefs in relation to their perceptions of extrinsic and intrinsic cues, and product performance expectation. In addition, the present study is cross national, involving Australia and Indonesia, because these are the countries that are missing in previous studies. To be specific, the proposed study addresses the following research questions:

- a. To what extent do moral ideologies between Australia and Indonesia consumers differ?
- b. To what extent do consumer ethics between Australian and Indonesian consumers differ?

- c. To what extent do product cue perceptions toward pirated branded products between Australian and Indonesian consumers differ?
- d. To what extent do expected product performance perceptions toward pirated branded products between Australian and Indonesian consumers differ?
- e. To what extent do purchase intention toward high and low involvement pirated branded products between Australian and Indonesian consumers differ?

## **2. Purpose of the Study**

Previous studies have focused on either the demand side (e.g. Cordell, Wongtada & Kieschnik 1996; d'Astous & Gargouri 2001; Miller 1999) or the supply side (e.g. Olsen & Granzin 1992; Bush, Bloch & Dawson 1989). The proposed study will focus on the demand side, with particular attention to purchase intention. The study will be mainly concerned with pirated branded products, especially involving situations in which the original manufacturers may suffer. Samples of respondents of the study will be taken from two countries: Australia and Indonesia. As this study will investigate non-deceptive counterfeiting, in which customers are aware that they are buying fake products, rather than victims of deception (Bloch, Bush & Campbell 1993), the study has the following specific objectives:

- a. To identify the difference of moral ideologies between Australia and Indonesia consumers.
- b. To identify the difference of consumer ethics between Australian and Indonesian consumers.
- c. To identify the difference of product cue perceptions toward pirated branded product between Australian and Indonesian consumers.
- d. To identify the difference of expected product performance perceptions toward pirated branded product between Australian and Indonesian consumers.
- e. To identify the difference of purchase intention toward high and low involvement pirated branded products between Australian and Indonesian consumers.

## **3. Theoretical Framework and the Research Model**

This part compares two main theories of attitude studies in general, namely probability theory and latent process theory. Secondly, it provides reasons why the latter is chosen to guide this study. Thirdly, it explains that a consumer's attitude is a function of beliefs. Finally, the discussion will arrive at the operational definition of a consumer's attitude as an intervening variable to be used in this investigation.

### **3.1. Concept of Attitude**

Attitude as a general scientific concept is considered important for two reasons. Firstly, it has long been a very important concept in social sciences. Allport (1935:798), for example, states that attitude has been "the most indispensable concept in social psychology". Bein's (1928) concern over the plethora of meanings of attitude used in sociological research shows that attitude has been a crucial concept in sociology. Secondly, it is believed that attitude toward a pirated branded product is not separate from attitude phenomena in general because such attitude is a social phenomenon.

In their discussion of attitude as a scientific concept, DeFleur and Westie (1963:20-21) state that the various specific definitions of attitude available in the literature essentially can be grouped into two main theories: probability and latent process theories. The major difference between the two is in the way attitudes are inferred. The proponents of the probability theory maintain that attitude is inferred from the consistency of responses to a defined attitude stimulus. In this sense attitude is the same as the inferred property of the responses themselves, called consistency. Viewed in this way, attitude functions as a dependent variable (the response) as opposed to the independent variable (the stimulus). The proponents of the latent process theory, however, maintain that attitude is not the manifest responses themselves, but a hypothetical variable which operates within the individuals who provide the responses. The consistency of responses is understood as due to the control and guidance of the mental processes. Therefore, attitude is regarded to be an intervening variable. This study, however, adopts the latent process theory because the theory can help to explain the variables involved in the study.

### **3.2 Attitude as a function of beliefs**

Attitude is a function of beliefs (Ajzen 1989:247). Each belief suggests an evaluation. Therefore, a belief about a pirated branded product becomes an aspect of attitude toward the product. Similarly, since an intention to purchase a pirated branded product is affected by an evaluation or a judgement about the product, the intention to purchase the product also indicates an aspect of attitude toward the product. Thus, a consumer's beliefs about a pirated branded product are indicators of the consumer's attitude toward the product.

However, it is important to note that attitude toward a pirated branded product is not equivalent to belief about the product. One reason is that belief is like opinion, both of which primarily contain cognition or reasoning, while attitude indicates an evaluation or judgement which suggests preference. Therefore, the terms 'belief' and 'opinion' are considered the same in this investigation. Another reason is that both belief and opinion are "generally narrower in content or scope than the broad evaluative orientation called attitude" (Oskamp 1977:12).

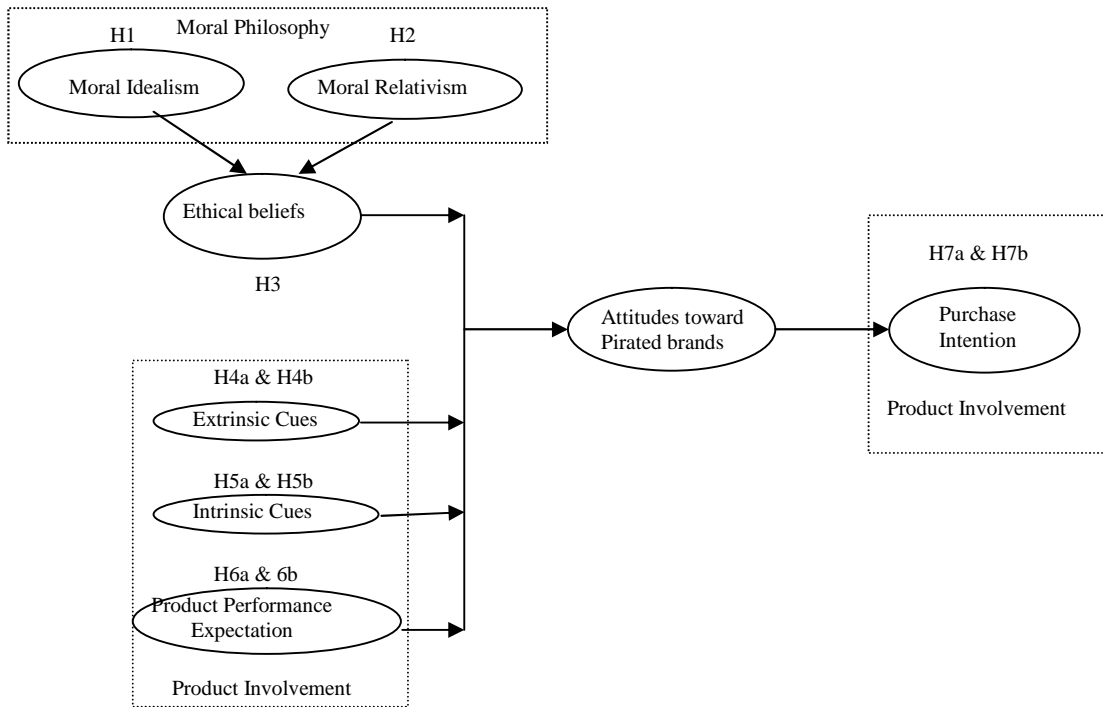
The relationship between a consumer's attitude toward a pirated branded product and his or her beliefs about the product is a relationship of causality. This means that the existence of attitude is dependent upon the existence of beliefs. A consumer will not have a particular attitude toward a pirated branded product unless he or she holds certain beliefs about the product. Without holding any beliefs about the product, the consumer is not able to make an evaluation or judgement regarding the relative value of the product. Thus, a consumer's 'beliefs' about a pirated branded product are 'the fundamental building blocks ..., serving as the informational base that ultimately determines his attitudes' toward the product (Fishbein & Ajzen 1975:14). Accordingly, a consumer's attitude, as any other attitude in general, is 'actually a function of beliefs' (Ajzen 1989:247).

### **3.3. A consumer's attitude as an intervening variable**

If a consumer's attitude toward a pirated branded product is seen as a function of beliefs, it is to be regarded as an intervening variable. It is 'a construct which exists only in the mind' of a consumer (Oskamp 1977:14). It is a 'mental state of readiness' (Allport 1935:805). As a construct, attitude is 'an abstraction formed by generalization from particulars' (Kerlinger 1973:29). This implies that a consumer's attitude toward a product is not assessable from only one response. It must be inferred from responses covering a range of beliefs necessary to understand it. As a state of readiness, a consumer's attitude implies that it will operate only when a stimulus activates it. Once it is activated, it will take control of relating the stimulus and the belief system of the consumer, and select the appropriate belief(s) as the response. Viewed in this way, a consumer's attitude toward a pirated branded product becomes a mediator between the stimulus and the belief system of the consumer.

However, since the responses are the beliefs themselves, for practical purposes the variables mediated by the consumer's attitude can be reduced to two, the stimulus and the response, the former being the independent variable and the latter being the dependent variable. Thus, attitude as an intervening variable mediates between the independent and dependent variables (Oskamp 1977:14). This is the operational definition of a consumer's attitude toward a pirated branded product followed in this study. The research model below illustrates the relation among these variables.

### **3.4. The Research Model**



#### 4. Formulation of hypotheses

In line with the objective of the research mentioned earlier, this study focuses on issues of purchase intention. It explores the magnitude of consumer ethics and consumer perceptions toward purchase intention of pirated branded product, involving Australians and Indonesians. As it involves Australians and Indonesians, the general framework of the study should naturally explore the nature of the business ethics and the behaviour of consumers in these two countries. However, since the purchase intention relates to brand piracy, the discussion of the formulation of the research hypotheses in this chapter will be related to the literatures, particularly the concepts of pirated branded product used in previous studies.

Australia and Indonesia are two separate countries. The values underpinning the business ethics and the behaviour of consumers in the two countries also vary. In comparison, most western nations, such as Australia, have experienced a lower level of pirated product business activity rather than most eastern nations, such as Indonesia (Swinyard, Rinne & Kau 1990; and Marro & Steel 2000). According to Hofstede (1980), these countries differ on five cultural dimensions – power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individuality, masculinity, and Confucian dynamism.

Hofstede’s cultural dimensions are used here as a variable context to explain the phenomena of differences of the business ethics and consumer behaviour in Australia and Indonesia. The reason for this is that the five cultural dimensions of Hofstede are well established in the literature and have shown to be valid and reliable (Shane 1995; Hofstede 1997; Robertson et al. 2002). In addition, although Hofstede’s dimensions are generally applied at the national level, studies have indicated that they also exist at the individual level (Dorfman & Howell 1988; Triandis et al. 1988). It is, therefore, logical to argue that people in Australia share certain values that are different from the values shared by people in Indonesia (Robertson et al. 2002).

##### 4.1. Moral Ideology

As can be observed in the researched model above, ethical beliefs are dependant upon the type of moral ideology that a group of people share. Logically, people who share moral idealism hold certain ethical beliefs which are different from the ethical beliefs of people sharing moral relativism. In fact, many scholars have found that moral idealism and moral

relativism are important in evaluating ethical differences (e.g. Rawwas 1996; Lee & Sirgy 1999; Rawwas 2001; Swaidan et al. 2003). In this regard, Vitell et al. (1991) and Rawwas (1996) emphasise that moral ideology is a significant overall determinant of consumers' ethical beliefs.

With respect to the present investigation, it is important to note that many studies have used moral ideologies to explore the ethical beliefs of consumers. Many studies have explored ethical beliefs of consumers based on cultural differences in one country. For example, Vitell et al. (1991) conducted the study in the United States, Al-Khatib et al. (1995) carried out the study in Egypt, and Kenhove et al. (2001) in Belgium. Other studies used moral ideologies to compare the ethical beliefs of consumers in two or three countries. These include studies by Singhapakdi et al. (1994) in the United States and Thailand, Rawwas et al. (1995) in Hong Kong and Northern Ireland, Al-Khatib et al. (1997) in the United States and Egypt.

Apart from that, studies have indicated that moral idealism and moral relativism have significantly different impacts upon ethical beliefs. In general, consumers with high moral idealism have greater ethical beliefs and consumers with high moral relativism have lower ethical beliefs (Rawwas et al. 1994; Al-Khatib et al. 1995; Singhapakdi et al. 1999; and Kenhove et al. 2001). Rawwas et al. (1995), for instance, found that Hong Kong consumers who hold high idealism tend to view all types of questionable consumer actions as less moral than Northern Irish consumers who have low moral idealism on the same scale.

In fact, Singhapakdi et al. (1995) concluded that idealism positively influences marketers' perceptions regarding the importance of ethics and social responsibility, whereas relativism negatively influences marketers' perceptions regarding the importance of ethics and social responsibility. In another research, Singhapakdi et al. (1999) found that Malaysia consumers who scored low on idealism and high on relativism were less sensitive to unethical marketing practices. In summary, therefore, it is expected that people who are more idealistic would be more likely to reject consumer questionable activities. Similarly, it is expected that consumers who are more realistic would be less likely to reject questionable activities (Swaidan et al. 2003).

Accordingly, since most Western nations, such as Australia, have experienced a lower level of pirated product business activity rather than most Eastern nations, such as Indonesia (Swinyard, Rinne & Kau 1990; and Marro & Steel 2000), the present study proposes the following hypotheses:

*H1: The moral idealism of Australian consumers is expected to be higher than the moral idealism of Indonesian Consumers.*

*H2: The moral relativism of Australian consumers is expected to be lower than the moral relativism of Indonesian consumers.*

#### **4.2. Ethical Beliefs**

The above discussion has emphasised that in general, consumers with high moral idealism have greater ethical beliefs and consumers with high moral relativism have lower ethical beliefs (Rawwas et al. 1994; Al-Khatib et al. 1995; Singhapakdi et al. 1999; and Kenhove et al. 2001). This fact suggests that it is worth exploring the extent to which differences in moral idealism and moral relativism between Australian consumers and Indonesian consumers affect their ethical beliefs regarding questionable activities.

In fact, not many studies on consumer ethics have been done in Asia. Yet, the findings of several studies support the above suggestion. For example, since Asian consumers tend to have high moral relativism, they are likely to have lower ethical beliefs (Singhapakdi et al. 1999; Kenhove et al. 2001). As a result, Asia has a reputation of "moral jungle" (Chan, Wong & Leung 1998). In this case, Vitell & Muncy (1992) assert that ethical beliefs differ across cultures and nationalities, and that personal attitudes play a significant role in consumers' ethical decision making.

This assertion is supported by the argument that cultural factors, such as national identity, values and customs are known to be important influences on ethical decision (Bartels 1967). The primary dimensions of a culture are the values of its members that describe the basic convictions regarding what is right or wrong based on a group of people's beliefs (Hofstede et al. 1990). Individuals learn the cultural values from the society in which they help to mould the person's behavioural patterns. As a result, consumers from different cultures tend to hold different views of ethical issues (Singhapakdi et al. 1999). Al-Khatib, Vitell & Rawwas (1997), for example, states that US consumers are different from Egyptian consumers in terms of their ethical beliefs. They differ in various questionable consumer practices and their preferred ethical ideology. Singhapakdi et al. (1999) claim that Malaysian consumers who hold low idealism and high relativism are less sensitive to unethical marketing practices than US consumers. They further state that international marketers operating in a country similar to Malaysia could get by with lower ethical standards than they would be able to do in a country like the US.

Since consumers from different cultures tend to hold different views of ethical issues, we can assume that Australian consumers tend to have ethical beliefs which are different from those of Indonesian consumers. As hypothesised above, the moral idealism of Australian consumers is expected to be higher than the moral idealism of Indonesian Consumers. On the other hand, the moral relativism of Australian consumers is expected to be lower than the moral relativism of Indonesian consumers. With this consideration, we can expect that the moral ideology of Australian consumers and the moral ideology of Indonesian consumers would affect their respective ethical beliefs differently. Thus, such expectation can be formulated in the following third hypothesis.

*H3: Australian consumers' likelihood of rejecting questionable activities will be higher than that of Indonesian consumers.*

### **4.3. Product Involvement**

Product involvement is an important variable in consumer researches. It influences the extent of the decision making process, interest in advertising, brand commitment, and frequency of product usage (salma & Tashchian 1985; Celsi & Olson 1988; and Park & Young 1986; Quester & Smart 1996). In relation to decision making, highly involved individuals are expected to use more choice criteria, to search for information on a wider range of product attributes, and to process information in greater detail (Edgett & Cullen 1993). Thus, when a consumer buys a product, his/her attitude towards the product may differ from his/her attitude towards another product, depending on the category of the product.

Understandably, the level of product involvement affects the process of a consumer's decision making. It interacts with the psychological state of a consumer, and such interaction guides the choice of a product (Quester & Smart 1998). The more important a product is to a shopper, the more information the shopper will need prior to purchase. Therefore, it seems logical that in this situation the shopper would opt for the store brand (Miquel, Capliure & Manzano 2002). In fact, the emotional appeals and product involvement have favourable effects on brand name recall, attitude, and purchase intention (Hitchon & Thorson 1995).

Basically product involvement has two distinct types. One type is called situational involvement, the one that occurs only in specific situations such as a purchase. The other type is termed enduring involvement, the one that reflects ongoing concern with a product that transcends situational influences. The present research will address only enduring product involvement. The reason for this choice is the fact that many researchers have focused a lot of attention on explicating the nature of enduring product involvement and on devising ways to measure this construct (Zaichkowsky 1987). In addition, enduring involvement with product category is argued to play a major role in shaping consumer attitudes and evaluations of brands.

In line with the topic of the study, which focuses on purchase intention of pirated branded products, the notion of enduring product involvement in this research will be related to pirated branded products only. To measure the level of product involvement, the researcher will use Zaichkowsky's involvement instrument (Zaichkowsky 1994; Solomon & Rabolt 2002).

#### **4.4. Product Attributes Cues**

The use of information to search and evaluate the quality of a product is important. Since Leavitt (1954) examined the use of price in assessing product quality, the use of information to evaluate products has attracted considerable empirical research attention (Field 2000). Many studies on the use of information (see Park & Lessig 1981; Punj & Staelin 1983; Johnson & Russo 1984; and Rao & Monroe 1988) suggest that prior product knowledge influences the degree to which consumers recall, search for and use information to evaluate product quality.

Operationally, prior product knowledge has been defined either in terms of what people perceive they know about a product (subjective knowledge) or in terms of what knowledge an individual has in memory (objective knowledge) (Rao & Monroe 1988). In this case, consumers are likely to depend on their self-confidence about what product characteristics they actually know (Park & Lessig 1981). This means that increased product knowledge leads to better developed knowledge structures about a product (Marks & Olson 1981).

Nevertheless, generalizing about quality across products has been difficult for managers and researchers (Zeithaml 1988). Product attributes that signal quality have been dichotomized into extrinsic and intrinsic cues (Olson 1977). Accordingly, extrinsic cues, such as brand name, price, and store name, are product related attributes, which are not part of the physical product itself. In contrast, intrinsic cues, such as food's ingredients, represent product related attributes that cannot be changed or manipulated without changing the physical characteristics of the product (Richardson, Dick & Jain 1994; Rao & Monroe 1989).

Extrinsic and intrinsic cues are important means for consumers to make purchase decisions. They use these cues to form perceptions of quality. Research findings suggest that consumers tend to use both extrinsic and intrinsic cues concurrently when evaluating product quality (Jacoby, Olson, Haddock 1971; Simonson 1989; Richardson, Dick & Jain 1994), and thereby they affect purchase intentions of consumers (Forsythe, Kim & Pete 1999); and Rao & Monroe 1989).

In a particular situation, intrinsic cues indicating quality is difficult to evaluate prior to purchase when intrinsic attributes are experienced attributes (Zeithaml 1988). Haircut and delivery service, for example, are difficult to evaluate prior to purchase. Intrinsic attributes of insurance policies are also experienced attributes. Consumers facing this condition tend to rely on extrinsic cues before making a decision to purchase. In this case, extrinsic cues are more accessible than the intrinsic cues. Understandably, consumers tend to disregard the intrinsic cues before making a decision to purchase.

Nevertheless, consumers may rely on intrinsic cues when intrinsic cues are search attributes and/or have high predictive value regarding the quality of a product. Meals and beverages in restaurants, for instance, are often available to consumers to taste. The consumers have the opportunity to evaluate the attributes of the products intrinsically before they decide to make a purchase. Certainly, the intrinsic cues of famous branded products, such as products from Sony, Nike, IBM, and Microsoft, represent search attributes. Yet, as these products are already popular, they tend to have high predictive value. Consequently, consumers may easily decide to purchase a famous branded product even without experiencing it before hand.

##### **4.4.1. Extrinsic Cues as factors affecting consumers' assessment of product quality.**

Consumers form an overall evaluation regarding the degree of quality of a product on the basis of extrinsic cues, such as the price of the product, its brand name, the name of the store selling the product, and its country of origin. These cues form brand equity (Field 2000). The creation of brand equity includes a clear identity of a product, which provides a strong 'product personality' with the product's symbols and slogans (Aaker 1992). The equity is often determined by brand image, which is the assortment of attributes and associations that consumers link with a brand name (Biel 1992).

However, there are manufacturers that fake genuine products (Delener 2000). This fact has influenced consumers' purchasing behaviour. Normally, consumers consider that extrinsic cues, such as brand image, product reputation,

company reputation and brand equity are directly related to the appearance of the brand name on a product. Such consideration is true, particularly with a famous branded product, because this kind of product is closely associated with a consumer's social status. As a result, consumers who are not able to afford genuine branded products will likely buy the pirated version of the products, simply because they want to increase their social status by associating themselves with products' brand names (Field 2000).

Considering that, as previously discussed, Australian consumers tend to hold high moral idealism with greater ethical beliefs and Indonesian consumers are likely to hold high moral relativism with lower ethical beliefs (Rawwas et al 1994; Al-Khatib et al. 1995; Singhapakdi et al. 1999; and Kenhove et al.2001), we can formulate the following hypotheses:

*H4a: Australian consumers' likelihood of purchasing high involvement pirated brands will be less significantly influenced by extrinsic cues than that of Indonesian consumers.*

*H4b: Australian consumers' likelihood of purchasing low involvement pirated brands will be less significantly influenced by extrinsic cues than that of Indonesian consumers.*

#### **4.4.2. Intrinsic Cues as factors affecting consumers' assessment of product quality.**

Although consumers can be expected to rely on extrinsic cues when assessing product quality (Bearden & Shimp 1982; Rao & Monroe 1989; and Dodds, Monroe & Grewal 1991), they also have the ability to sense and evaluate intrinsic attributes at the time of purchase. In fact, it is relatively easier to sense a claim that says '100 percent fruit juice on a beverage container' than to evaluate a claim that says '100 percent quartz on wristwatch' (Agarwal & Teas 2002:215). Understandably, most consumers often lack the detailed information, expertise, interest, and/or time needed to evaluate a product's quality based on intrinsic product attributes (Monroe 1971).

Even so, specific or concrete intrinsic attributes differ widely across products, as do the attributes consumers use to infer quality. Obviously, attributes that signal quality in fruit juice are not the same as those indicating quality in washing machines or automobiles. Even within a product category, specific attributes may provide different signals about quality. In an exploratory study of beverages, for instance, Zeithaml (1988) found that consumers held consistent perceptions of the relative quality of different forms of fruit juice. In this case, 'quality perceptions were highest for fresh products, next highest for refrigerated products, then bottled, then frozen, then canned, and the lowest for dry product forms' (Zeithaml 1988:8).

In addition, other researches have concluded that intrinsic cues generally were more important to consumers in judging quality because they have higher predictive value than extrinsic cues (Olson & Jacoby 1972; Szylbillo & Jacoby 1974; Rigaux-Bricmont 1982). In this regard, Zeithaml (1988:9) asserted that 'consumers depend on intrinsic attributes more than extrinsic attributes at the point of consumption', that is when most intrinsic attributes can be evaluated and therefore become accessible as quality indicators. In pre-purchase situations, that is when intrinsic attributes are search attributes (rather than experience attributes), intrinsic attributes can be important as quality indicators. For instance, purity (100 % fresh juice and no added sugar) is the criterion they use to judge quality across all fruit beverage category.

However, since this research is concerned with brand piracy and the consumers' intention to purchase pirated brands, the argument in this subsection should be related to the moral idealism and moral relativism that the consumers under study have.

Earlier in Section 3.2, it was concluded that idealism positively influences perceptions regarding the importance of ethics and social responsibility, whereas relativism negatively influences perceptions regarding the importance of ethics and social responsibility. Considering that people in Western nations, such as Australia, have experienced a lower level of pirated product business activity rather than those in Eastern nations, such as Indonesia (Swinyard,



Rinne & Kau 1990; and Marro & Steel 2000), and that they are more idealistic than those from Eastern nations when they come to terms with genuine products, the present study proposes the following hypotheses:

*H5a: Australian consumers' likelihood of purchasing high involvement pirated brands will be less significantly influenced by intrinsic cues than that of Indonesian consumers.*

*H5b: Australian consumers' likelihood of purchasing low involvement pirated brands will be less significantly influenced by intrinsic cues than that of Indonesian consumers.*

#### **4.5. Product Performance Expectations**

Despite the assumption that Australian consumers are less likely to buy pirated products, due to their high moral idealism, there are chances in which they are willing to buy such products when they deal with product performance expectations. When purchasing genuine branded products, certainly consumers are motivated by various factors, such as price and product performance. Yet, they may be tempted to buy pirated branded products when they perceive that the performance of these products can meet their minimum expectation relative to the price they have to pay. This implies that 'the better the expected functional performance, the more likely the consumer is to buy the counterfeit' (Cordell et al. 1996:43).

This prediction is supported by a finding that although Western consumers were able 'to recognise' the high quality of 'the product category leader', 'they tended to find the imitator brands and the original brands to be very similar in quality' (Lai and Zaichkowsky 1999:190). In addition, Wilke and Zaichkowsky (1999:13) emphasise that imitators are 'adding value of producing goods or equal value at lower prices and/or producing goods with additional functional attributes that enhance the performance of the original brand or product, which readily perceived by the consumer.' Understandably, the combination of lower prices of pirated branded products and their additional functional attributes becomes a factor that can drive the purchase intention of Western people, such as those in Australia.

Certainly, Eastern people, such as those in Indonesia, also consider prices and quality when buying pirated branded products. Yet, culturally the way they perceive such products are different from the way Western people view the products. Third-world and Asian nations traditionally believe that copyright is a Western concept created to maintain a monopoly over the distribution and production of knowledge and knowledge-based products (Altbach 1988). This implies that although Eastern people may be aware that buying pirated branded products are unethical, this awareness does not seem to stop them from purchasing such products. Moreover, their purchase intention is usually driven not only by the cheaper prices of the pirated branded products, but are also motivated by the notion that such products are a means to 'show off' (Lai and Zaichkowsky 1999:181). Quality, therefore, does not seem to be an important consideration. If they find that 'the performance of the products does not meet their expectation', they 'tend to attribute the failure to fate rather than to the company from whom the product was purchased or even the manufacturer' (Lai and Zaichkowsky 1999:192).

With all these considerations, the hypotheses are formulated as follows:

*H6a: Australian consumers' likelihood of purchasing high involvement pirated brands will be more significantly influenced by product performance expectation than that of Indonesian consumers.*

*H6b: Australian consumers' likelihood of purchasing low involvement pirated brands will be more significantly influenced by product performance expectation than that of Indonesian consumers.*

#### **4.6. Purchase Intention**

The research model mentioned in appendix... shows that customers' intention to purchase a pirated branded product is not separate from their attitudes toward the product. This is in line with the general theory of attitude – latent process theory - adopted for this study. As concluded the theory, attitudes toward a pirated branded product are a function of

ethical beliefs about the product. They are the manifestation of consumers' ethical beliefs about the product. Because of this, their intention to purchase a pirated branded product is influenced by their attitudes toward the product.

In section 7.1., it is assumed that Australian consumers are expected to have higher moral idealism than Indonesian consumers. Because of this, in Section 7.2., they are also expected to have higher ethical beliefs than their Indonesian counterparts. Considering that consumers' attitudes toward a product are the manifestation of their ethical beliefs about the product, the intention of Australian consumers to purchase a pirated branded product in relation to the intention of Indonesian consumers to buy the product can be formulated in the following hypotheses.

*H7a: Australian consumers' likelihood of purchasing high involvement pirated brands will be significantly lower than that of Indonesian consumers.*

*H7b: Australian consumers' likelihood of purchasing low involvement pirated brands will be significantly lower than that of Indonesian consumers.*

## **5. Research Methodology**

The proposed study follows the functionalist paradigm based on realist ontology, positivist epistemology, the deterministic view of human nature, and nomothetic methodology. Realist ontology postulates that reality is understandable and exists independently of the knower (Smith 1983, and Lukviarman 2001). The realist school of thought sees reality as "being" rather than "becoming", which leads to the existence of an objective that produces proper explanatory and predicative knowledge of reality.

By assuming that scientific theories can be assessed objectively by reference to empirical evidence, positivist epistemology provides a way to know the subject-object relationship. It seeks to explain and predict what happens in the social world by searching for regularities and casual relationships between its essential elements (Burrell & Morgan 1979). This study will view the human being and his activities in deterministic ways 'as being completely determined by the situation or environment in which he is located' (Burrell & Morgan 1979).

For analysis of data, this study will utilize nomothetic methodology through a quantitative approach. This approach assumes the object of the study can be objectively measured and controlled using a particular research instrument relatively unaffected by individual perceptual differences of the researchers (Lukviarman 2001). Thus, the constructs and factors included in the theoretical framework are all measurable and observable. These methods will be replicable so that the findings can be confirmed or disconfirmed (Hofmeyer 2001).

### **5.1. Construct Measurements**

The measurements of constructs will be adapted from previous research, because their reliability and validity have been rigorously tested. The following measurements will be used in the study:

- a. Purchase intention of pirated brands will be measured by the common seven point "highly likely-highly unlikely" scale. The use of a seven point Likert scale is justified to measure various willingness to purchase (Kalwani & Silk 1982; Lee & Green 1991; Wee, Tan & Cheok 1996)
- b. Moral ideologies (moral idealism and moral relativism) are measured using EPQ (Ethical Position Questionnaires) developed by Forsyth (1992). The reliability of this scale has been indicated in several studies (e.g. Al-Khatib et al. 1995, Erffmeyer et al. 1999, Kenhove et al. 2001, and Swaidan et al. 2003).
- c. Ethical beliefs are measured using the consumer ethic scale developed by Muncy & Vitell (1992). This scale has displayed acceptable levels of reliability in several studies (Rallapalli et al. 1994; Muncy & Vitell 1992; Rawwas, Vitell & Al-khatib 1994; and Chan, Wong & Leung 1998).
- d. Expected product performance is measured using performance dimension of quality (Boulding & Kirmani 1993). These ratings are based on seven point Likert scales. Then, subjects will be asked to estimate the useful life of the respective genuine and pirated brands. This measurement has been used by Boulding & Kirmani (1993).

- e. Product cues (extrinsic and intrinsic cues) will be measured by using a Likert's seven point scale ranging from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree) This scale has been used by Field (2000).

## **5.2. Research Process**

The entire research process can be seen in the research report. The research paradigm is positivist: thus a quantitative approach will be used to measure and develop hypotheses (Hofmeyer 2001), and questionnaires will be developed and pilot-tested. Quantitative data will then be collected by means of a survey. The data will then be analysed and the hypotheses tested (Chai 2001).

## **5.3. Data Collection and sample of respondents**

Quantitative research will be used in two phases. The first phase will be a pilot phase, designed to pre-test the model and develop appropriate questionnaires. The second phase will be the questionnaire survey phase (Hofmeyer 2001). After fine-tuning the research model, questionnaires will be directly administered to the respondents (post-graduate students). The assumption for choosing these samples is based on cultural differences between Australia and Indonesia. It is also expected that post-graduate students in both countries could reflect their own cultures in regard to the buying decisions of pirated brands. In this regard, it is assumed that these student levels are already emotionally mature, independently responsible of any consequences when they decide to buy pirated branded products. For analytical purposes, secondary data will be extracted from various publicly accessible databases around the world, such as internet-based resources (Ticehurst & Veal 2000). To ensure that the sample is representative, a simple random sampling procedure will be used. Respondents will be chosen from post-graduate students who have been purchasers of pirated brands. The sample size study will be 400 consumers for all countries under the study.

## **5.4. Data Analysis**

The unit of analysis in this study refers to the unit that a researcher observes, measures, and analyses in a study (Neuman 2003). In this proposed study, every respondent in the sample is the unit of study and will be asked about their purchase intention of pirated branded products, and their responses are recorded. Relevant statistical techniques will then be used to analyse their responses and determine the significances of the effects of their moral ideologies, ethical beliefs, product performance expectation, and product extrinsic cues upon their intention to purchase pirated branded products.

## **6. Ethical Issues**

Questionnaires and entry into organisational environments will be integral to this research, and consequently ethics clearance will be applied for. It is anticipated that the research will not have any negative impact on the organization or interviewees, but confidentiality is a significant issue that will be addressed by resolutions such as anonymity of respondents and signed releases prior to publication.

## **7. Data Storage and Retention**

Faculty of Business and Law will retain the data set of this research for five years as required by the Edith Cowan University

## **8. Facilities and Resources**

The researcher will access certain facilities and resources such as journals, books, photocopiers, and computers provided by Edith Cowan University

## **9. Time schedule**

| Schedule                | 2009      | 2010      | 2011     |
|-------------------------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Final Research Proposal | February  |           |          |
| Literature Review       | On going  |           |          |
| Develop Hypotheses      | Oct.-Nov. |           |          |
| Design Questionnaires   | July      |           |          |
| Pilot Study             | September | January   |          |
| Data Collection         |           | Feb.-Aug. |          |
| Data Analysis           |           | Sept-Oct  |          |
| Final Report Writing    |           | November  | February |
| Submission              |           |           | June     |

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