Understanding College Student Demand for Counterfeit Luxury Brands in Hong Kong China: The Role of Image Congruence and Self-Monitoring

Kenneth Justin Lee

Master of Business Administration

University of Ottawa, Ontario, Canada, 1992

Bachelor of Science (Honors), Actuarial Science

University of Western Ontario, Ontario, Canada, 1989

International Graduate School of Business

Division of Business

University of South Australia

Submitted on this first day of September in the year 2011 for the partial requirements of the degree of Doctor of Business Administration

DBA DISSERTATION DECLARATION

"I hereby declare that this paper submitted in partial fulfillment of the DBA degree is my own work and that all contributions from any other persons or sources are properly and duly cited. I further declare that it does not constitute any previous work whether published or otherwise. In making this declaration I understand and acknowledge any breaches of the declaration constitute academic misconduct, which may result in my expulsion from the program and/or exclusion from the award of the degree."

Kenneth J. LEE Date: September 1, 2011

Kenneth Justin Lee

DEDICATION

This is dedicated to my loving and generous wife, Cecilia and two little adorable daughters, Leticia and Larisa for their understandings and more importantly for giving me the opportunity to undertake and share this wonderful long journey. I would have been unable to start and finish this endeavor without them.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Professor Timothy Graeff at Middle Tennessee State University and Professor Ling Peng at Hong Kong Lingnan University for providing me with valuable suggestions and ideas to get the dissertation amendments completed at a high doctoral standard. Furthermore, thanks to my supervisor, Dr. Ivan Lai for his invaluable advice. Without his help and wise guidance I might still be navigating blindly the ocean of opportunities available for relevant and interesting research. Last but not least, the Programme Director, Dr. Margarite Kolar and Marketing Professor David Corkindale for their continuous support and encouragement so that I am able to complete my thesis on schedule.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF FIGURES……..viii

LIST OF TABLES……ix

ABSTRACT……..x

1. CHAPTER ONE – Introduction

1.1 Managing Brand Image and Counterfeit Brand ……..…..…..1

1.2 Reasons for Undertaking the Study – Need and Value…….....5

1.3 Aims and Objectives of the Study……..…….7

1.4 Research Question……..……10

1.5 Research Model…….……11

1.6 Research Hypothesis…….……12

1.7 Research Methodology…….……..13

1.8 Terminology…….……..14

1.9 Structure of the Thesis……..…..15

2. CHAPTER TWO – Research Literature Review

2.1 Introduction……..……..16

2.2 Self-Concept…….……16

2.2.1 The Development of the Self-Concept…….……..18

2.2.2 Empirical Evidence of the Self-Concept……19

2.2.3 Brand Personality Concept…….23

2.2.4 Measuring the Self-Concept……...25

2.2.5 Stability of the Self-Concept……..26

2.2.6 Self-Concept and Consumption…… 26

2.2.7 Self-Concept and Brand-Image……. 27

2.2.8 Self-Concept and Advertising……29

2.2.9 Self-Concept and Product Use…….....…31
2.2.10 Self-Concept and Product Symbolism……33
2.3 Image Congruence Hypothesis……..35
2.3.1 Image Congruence Hypothesis and Consumption Situation…..39
2.4 Self-Monitoring and Social Roles…….42
2.4.1 Self-Monitoring and Image Congruence……43
2.5 Buyers of Counterfeit Branded Product in China……..48
2.6 Other Variables…….….50
2.7 Development of the Counterfeit Purchase Study……..….51
3. CHAPTER THREE – Research Design and Methodology
3.1 Introduction…….……...54
3.2 Types of Self-Concept…….……..54
3.3 Self-Image Measures…….55
3.3.1 Semantic Differential Scale……56
3.3.2 The Product-Anchored Q-Method……..56
3.3.3 The Standardized Personality Measure.....57
3.4 Image Adjective Selection…….58
3.5 Congruity Models……..61
3.6 Dependent and Moderator Variable – Self-Monitoring……62
3.7 Sample Populations……63
3.8 Products…….64
3.9 Research Procedures …….……....65
3.10 Questionnaire Design…….…66
3.11 Brand and Self-Images…….…67
3.12 Self-Monitoring Scale……..68
4. CHAPTER FOUR – Research Findings and Analysis
4.1 Data Preparation – Survey Questionnaire…….….70

4.1.1 Descriptive Statistics-Demographic Variables…….……70

4.1.2 Descriptive Statistics- Study Variables…….....71

4.2 Image Congruence – Congruity Analysis…….....73

4.3 Self-Monitoring and Genuine/ Counterfeit Product……75

4.4 Discussion……80

5. CHAPTER FIVE – Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Conclusion – Aims and Answers to the Research Question……84

5.2 Contribution – Theoretical Implications……..85

5.3 Contribution – Managerial Implications……..87

5.4 Study Limitations……94

5.5 Concluding Comments and Future Research……...95

REFERENCES……99

APPENDIXA: Congruence Calculations Demonstration……111

APPENDIX B: Different Overall Score Calculations……..112

APPENDIX C: Survey Instrument……113

APPENDIX D: Information Sheet for Subjects……...120

APPENDIX E: Kelly's Repertory Grid Technique.....122

APPENDIX F: Sample Size Equation…..……..123

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

Figure 1: Motivations for buying branded counterfeits……9

Figure 2: Research conceptual model……..……11

Figure 3: The relationship between Self-Concept and Brand Image Influence…..28

Figure 4: Communication of self to others via symbolic products…….34

Figure 5: Self-monitoring – three forms of expression……..43

Figure 6: Two main steps of the calculations in image congruence…….……..62

Figure 7: Effects of level of ideal self-image congruence and level of self-monitoring on respondents' overall evaluation of the genuine Gucci brand**……..**..81

Figure 8:Effects of level of actual self-image congruence and level of self-monitoring on respondents' overall evaluation of the genuine Gucci brand….**..**……..81

Figure 9: Effects of level of ideal self-image congruence and level of self-monitoring on respondents' overall evaluation of the counterfeit Gucci brand…….……..82

Figure10:Effects of level of actual self-image congruence & level of self-monitoring on respondents' overall evaluation of the counterfeit Gucci brand……82

Figure 11: The setting inside the subway train crowded with people…….92

Figure 12: Taiwan Banana Brand (Hermes Look-alike)…….97

Figure 13: Original Hermes Birkin Hand Bag……97

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

Table 1: The hypothesised relationships……..12

Table 2: Scale to Measure Self-Images and Product-Images……37

Table 3: Global assessment of self-image product-image congruency……39

Table 4:Self-monitoring measure (Revised by Lennox and Wolfe)……47

Table 5: Relevant Publications on the Development of Counterfeit Purchase…51

Table 6: Malhotra (1981) Scale to measure Self-Image and Product-Image…59

Table 7: Full set of 50 adjectives used & their corresponding relevance scores.60

Table 8: Adjectives used to describe brand Gucci and Self-Images……..66

Table 9: Percentages & Frequencies for the Variables Describing Sample…..70

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables (Genuine Products)…….71

Table 11: Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables (Counterfeit Products)…72

Table 12: Correlation between Image Congruence and Brand Evaluations…..74

Table 13: Cluster Analysis Summary……76

Table 14: Correlation between Image Congruence & Brand Evaluations Separated by Self-Monitor Level…….77

Table 15: Regression Analysis Results……..78

Table 16: Regression Estimates (Standardized) for Interaction between Self-Monitoring and Image Congruence……79

ABSTRACT

This dissertation offers insights into the evaluation and purchase of non-deceptive counterfeit branded product, one of the fastest-growing issues in Hong Kong and many Asian countries. According to Elsend and Pakize (2006) and Sharma and Chan (2011) study, it was reported that young people was much more likely to purchase counterfeit products. Therefore, in this study, college students were chosen as the subject of investigation. There were some limited studies on the demand of counterfeit products. For example, Cordell et al. (1996) found three major motivators for counterfeit consumption - the status symbol of the brand, the retailer's channel of distribution and the price of the counterfeit branded products. Many others discovered that consumers "knowingly" purchase counterfeits as a statement to the brand companies for selling their branded products at greatly inflated prices (Rutter and Bryce, 2008; Wee et al., 1995; Kau et al., 1990). This study extends current research by examining the harmony of self-image and brand-image (i.e. effects of image congruence) and consumer self-monitoring level on counterfeit brand evaluations. The notion of consumers purchasing a particular brand because that particular brand's image is congruent with their own self-image is known as the Image Congruence Hypothesis. The idea is that consumers reflect their behaviours and feelings to the branded products they consume, and hence choose brands or products with similar images to their own self-images.

Many of the earlier studies support the consistency between product-image and self-image (Birdwell, 1964; Dolich, 1969; Kernan and Somers, 1967; Grubb, 1965; Grubb and Stern, 1971; Graeff, 1996). Self-monitoring realizes that some individuals are more aware of the external environment and will change their behaviour in a way that they believe will be more socially appropriate. Those individuals who have this tendency to monitor the environment and adjust their behaviour are referred to as high self-monitors, whereas, those are less sensitive to the external environment are low self-monitors. Therefore, the two major aims of this study are:

☒ To study the effect of Image Congruence on Purchase Evaluations for Counterfeit products.

☒ To determine the Moderating Effect of Self-Monitoring Behaviour on the relationship between Image Congruence and Purchase Intentions for counterfeit brand.

Classified as either high self-monitors or low self-monitors, 200 university students participated in an experiment in which they evaluated the brand Gucci (both genuine and counterfeit), described the brand image, and described their own actual self-images and ideal self-images. Using a generalized Euclidean distance model, students' difference scores were calculated (reflecting the level of congruence between the brand-image and their self-image (actual and ideal). After that, these image congruence scores were correlated with the measure of the overall purchase intentions. Finally, to determine whether the effect of image congruence on purchase intentions was stronger for high self-monitors than for low self-monitors, correlations between image congruence and brand evaluations were then analyzed and compared.

The findings in this research study illustrate that the image congruence does not seem to have a lot of influence on the purchase of counterfeit brand with the exception of high self-monitors. Based upon these findings, in particular, using the nature and unique characteristics of high self-monitors, this study makes specific and practical recommendations, such as upgrading genuine brand-image and downgrading counterfeit brand image strategies, to fight against non-deceptive counterfeit brands for both branded product marketers and policy makers.

1. CHAPTER ONE - Introduction

1.1 The Importance of Managing Brand Image and Counterfeit Brand

A recent study of marketing by Elliott Ettenberg concluded that although 'everything else has been reinvented' including supply chain management (e.g. finding a new distribution channel) and new product development, marketing remained 'a shockingly old-fashioned business' in which rules emphasised on the product and the place where to sell it rather than on the consumer (The Economist, Sept 2001). Nonetheless, once products became brands and brands became both representative of a lifestyle and tools with which corporations sought to build and retain customer loyalty, multinational corporations became more interested in customers and switched their focus from merely validating the qualities of products to marketing lifestyles, aspirations and images. If marketing is now less about products and more about lifestyle or a search for an attractive branding then as The Economist (2001) noted, 'The new marketing approach is to build a brand and not a product – to sell a lifestyle – which requires far greater knowledge of the consumer. This is far harder than describing the behaviour of a product'.

Today, the dynamic marketing environment has forced all its members, companies big or small, to adopt or change themselves. This includes all aspects of the marketing mix, whether place, price, promotion or even the product itself. Only a few products may have achieved to survive without having to change one or more of the strategies surrounding the product. Some of the strategies which concern the product itself can be classified as the core product, actual product and the augmented product. It is the actual and augmented product which allows marketers to increase their competitiveness – the core product is basic and it has been taken for granted.

However, people are much more complex. They have anxiety, drive, and desire. They are both nostalgic and resentful of the past. They are always pulled between practicality and impulse. Their egos are shaped by the conflict between self-satisfaction and society's norm and value. One of the ways in which marketers make their product more competitive is to introduce the products as brands. One advantage of branding is that it can differentiate the product category. Furthermore,

it allows the marketer to add value to his or her product. These added values can be intangible, such as the image which is targeted to fulfil the consumer psychological needs. Today's products, brands and advertisements are heavily based on images. Understanding or predicting, how brand images influence consumers product preferences and furthermore, when and in which circumstances these influences are greater, would facilitate marketers to target more accurately and therefore to be more competitive.

Consumers may prefer to buy those brands which have a congruent image with their self-image according to the image congruence hypothesis. To attract consumers' attention, product acceptance as well as retention, product information has to be consistent with consumers' self-image. If a purchase takes place where incongruence exists, consumers are very unlikely to come back and make another purchase (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987). This process of consumers purchasing products or brands that they believe, possess symbolic images similar and/or complementary to the image they hold of themselves, is referred to as image congruity. Sirgy (1982, 1985) highlighted the importance of self-concept theory to consumer behaviour research by explaining that consumers who perceive the product image to be consistent with their actual self-concept are likely to feel motivated to purchase and consume that particular product. It happens because the greater the congruity of self-concept with a particular product, the greater the probability that the product will satisfy a consumer. Unfortunately, of all these brand name products that carry a recognizable higher class image are especially prone to product counterfeiting. Due to the success of the genuine branded products, the competitive offerings of the counterfeiting may appear indistinguishable from the genuine brand they imitate (Cordell et al., 1996).

The international trade amount was estimated to be worth US$90 billion in 1997 and reached almost US$300 billion in 2006 for the counterfeit products (Gentry et al., 2006) and that figures accounts for almost six percent of overall world trade (Delener, 2000). Clearly, the problem of counterfeit products is by no means new and shows no sign of slowing down in the foreseeable future and counterfeiting has become a major economic fact and event in our society. Product counterfeiting represents an ever growing problem for genuine producers of globally brands, ranging from recorded music, software programs and luxurious products to mass market consumer products, such as oregano and coffee bean, despite the efforts on

the part of international trade organizations to prevent counterfeiting practices (Bush et al., 1989; Phau and Prendergast, 1998). Since the consumer cannot distinguish the counterfeit products which are packaged with logotypes and trademarks from the genuine, the consumer may lose confidence in branded products and even worst, their innocent lives. This growing trend of counterfeiting is a serious economic, social and political problem (Kay, 1990). Reports indicate that counterfeiting and illegal trade offset the sales of genuine branded products by between US$15 billion and US$50 billion annually in the United States (Commuri, 2009).

There has never been a big market like China. It is the fastest growing, most interesting, and least bureaucratic place around. China's growing importance to the world economy is indisputable. The country is not a flavour of the month. The acquisitive appetite of today's mainland Chinese shopper has played a key role in thrusting the People Republic of China to the world's third largest trading force within the consumer sector. Many, many companies, both foreign and domestic, are angling furiously to grab a piece of the action. Multinational Corporations are slowly but surely, becoming more sure-footed in many areas. Statistics show that China has now become the fourth-largest consumer for LV (Louis Vuitton), the fifth for Gucci, the third for Mont Blanc, and the tenth for Rolex watches. With no doubt, the Chinese consumer market is one of the biggest markets for all luxurious brands and has tremendous growth potential. In the next 10 years or so, affluent Chinese consumers, with their enormous purchasing power and trend-defining lifestyles, will reshape the luxurious market like never before (Hedrick-Wong, 2007).

Multinational Corporations placed so much emphasis on promoting brands in China largely because brand-recognition and sales in Hong Kong, Singapore and Taiwan had already made Asia the fastest growing market for most of the top international brands. Those in luxurious product and fashion business such as Gucci and Armani realized that approximately one third of their sales were made in Asia and that Asian consumers continued to display high levels of brand loyalty (Hedrick-Wong, 2007).

Although it is not possible to receive precise or official data to measure the seriousness of the problem, the situation of counterfeiting is definitely very serious in China. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that China is a counterfeiting major world centre - over 38% of the US customs seized counterfeit products are come from China. Foreign Multinational Corporations estimate the total loss of sales is

approximately 20% of all the sales value due to the counterfeit products (Porteous, 2001). According to one United States report, the piracy problem is still very serious in China in particular the computer software sector, even though the Chinese government has made the statement of protecting intellectual property rights (IPR) very clearly to the people living outside China. The bright side is that there are some people believe the future may improve because China is preparing a very comprehensive set of rules and regulations on IPR to tackle counterfeit and piracy problems. To coordinate the efforts across fourteen agencies, the Chinese government set up a national anti-counterfeiting committee in October 2000 (Boyarski et al., 2001). Some sources saying this special law enforcement group may be established due to the fact that China has joined the WTO (World Trade Organization) in December 2001 (after 15 years of negotiation) and Chinese policy makers now recognize the country's business development and success of Chinese companies are being adversely affected by its counterfeiting problem (Porteous, 2001). Nevertheless, in the long term, it is not quite clear that if the Chinese government alone will be sufficient to help solve this big counterfeiting problem.

As mentioned, some people might suspect that the IPR reforms are implemented simply to please some of the WTO members. IPR law enforcement in China is under tremendous pressure. The generally indifferent public attitude of Chinese people to IPR enforcement makes the work of understaffed enforcement offices even more difficult. Where a factory manufacturing counterfeit products is providing an economic solution to the poverty of a locality, even the enforcement officers will be hard pressed to find the enthusiasm to rush in and close it down. According to Porteous' study, China has two good reasons to raise its levels of awareness in intellectual property and literacy. First, since becoming a member of the WTO, China needs to understand and respect the IPR of others. Strong IPR protection helps in attracting foreign direct investment (FDI), technology transfer and IPR exploitation. China now needs to give a good image of itself to the rest of the world, particularly on the issue of counterfeiting. The closure of the 'Xiang Yang' market in Shanghai (the 'market of fakes') a few years ago, was clearly a first step in this direction. Second, as it becomes a prime mover in global economic activity, China also seeks protection of its own intellectual property as well.

Awareness of the IPR problems facing China was explained clearly by one my mainland ex-students in my teaching class: 'Having got used to freely using

other's technological and scientific inventions, like computer software downloaded from the internet, many Chinese enterprises have undergone severe sanctions after the entry to WTO in 2001. The leak of commercial and technological secrets happens all the time due to indifference to IPR. It is also very common to see people in China do not understand IPR and do not know how to protect it so that their IPR has always been infringed. It is even more common to know that people have infringed other's IPR unconsciously'. Cheung and Prendergast (2006) discovered that a substantial proportion of Chinese consumers did not regard purchasing counterfeited products as "dishonourable". Companies in China may have to think of their own solutions to make sure that they are not being compromised by the counterfeiting problem, instead of just depending on the Chinese Government's support, like providing IPR education. As a result, it is very crucial for both Chinese policy makers and the marketers in particular to investigate and solve the counterfeiting issues before spending heavily on branding a new product or to protect the valuable goodwill of the existing brands.

1.2 Reasons for Undertaking the Study - Need and Value

Some 15 years ago, counterfeit products were reserved for consumers who could not afford the high price of genuine products and often those buyers had to go to specific locations (for example, certain Asian or North African countries) to find products. Today, these products are sold everywhere, from New York to Milan or from Tokyo to Shanghai, not to mention Bangkok and Hong Kong. Of course, China is hardly the only country engaged in this illegal trade. China is, however, hands down, the largest pirate nation on the planet. The statistics speak loudly and clearly for themselves. Most famous brands are subject to counterfeiting, the extent of which depends on the popularity and desirability of their products and on prevailing attitudes toward lawfulness (Cordell et al., 1996).

The above discussion implies that counterfeiting is something that everyone should seriously look into. To fight the 'supply' side of the counterfeit, manufacturing companies employ different anti-counterfeiting strategies, such as packaging change, publicity of the damage of counterfeiting and legislative pressure (Olsen and Granzin, 1992; Chaudhry and Walsh, 1996). Nevertheless, empirical

study on the "demand" for counterfeit brands is far from sufficient (Wee et al., 1995). Previous study also has indicated that about one-third of consumers would deliberately purchase counterfeit products (Phau et al., 2001; Tom et al., 1998). As a matter of fact, Bloch et al. (1993) found over 33% and Tom et al. (1998) found 38% of consumer respondents have an experience in purchasing counterfeit products. Quite a number of researchers have proposed that demand is one of the leading causes of the upward trend of the counterfeiting phenomenon (Ang et al., 2001; Gentry et al., 2001). Since then, some studies have shown interest in identifying key determinants that affect consumer choice of counterfeited brand products (Wee et al., 1995; Phau et al., 2001; Eisend and Schuchert-Guler, 2006; Gentry et al., 2006; Harvey and Walls, 2003; Penz and Stottinger, 2005; Rutter and Bryce, 2008)).

Nevertheless, there have been recent trends which were not expected by either the brand manufacturers or by researchers. One study found that about two-thirds of respondents indicated that the availability of counterfeits would not lower the value, satisfaction, and status of the genuine branded products and a little more than half would not believe that counterfeit branded products affect demand for the genuine (Nia et al., 2000). Generally, consumers believe counterfeits are lower in quality and higher in defects (Bamossy and Debra, 1985). However, one important issue that such studies did not take into consideration was that today's counterfeit branded products are, in fact, of a much higher quality. Indeed, the level of counterfeit has become so sophisticated that only an expert can tell the counterfeit from the genuine. With this increased sophistication in the production of counterfeits, the consumer's motivation to buy those counterfeit products will also become more complex than previous studies seem to indicate.

As mentioned, empirical work examining the strategies for affecting the "demand" side of the counterfeits is still not sufficient. To date,, very little attention or study has been paid to the motivations of consumers in buying the counterfeits, a deeper investigation and examination of the determinants of counterfeit purchase like this study will definitely contribute to the existing knowledge. This study explores, whether the image congruence effects hold for counterfeit products and how the level of self-monitoring moderates the image congruence effects on consumer evaluation and acceptance of genuine and counterfeit products. So far, image congruence studies have been limited to examining the relationships in the context of genuine branded products. Whether

the image congruence hypothesis holds in the contexts of counterfeit products remains unknown. Therefore, the findings will provide important insights to marketers of genuine products and to policymakers, helping them determine countermeasures against suppliers of counterfeit products, such as identifying counterfeit product-prone consumers and the product attributes that attract them. By doing so, marketing strategies will then be able to plan and execute effectively.

1.3 Aims and Objectives of the study

Empirical study on the demand side for counterfeit brand is still not enough despite the literature focuses heavily on the supply side of the issue, such as studies of illegal distributors and legal or political measures from government (Wee et al., 1995). Since the market for counterfeit brands depends on consumers' desire for genuine luxurious brands (Penz and Stottinger, 2005; Hoe, Hogg and Hart, 2003), therefore, it is important to understand why consumers purchase luxury brands in the first place before looking at the motives underlying counterfeit brand purchases.

Put aside the quality issues, some researches suggest that consumers typically purchase counterfeit brands to fulfil their important social goals (Bearden and Etzel, 1982). Moreover, a recent research done by Lu and Pras (2006) in China showed the main motivation for people to purchase counterfeits was to fulfil their social needs. Social needs encourage consumers to follow rules and to use products and brands which are popular among their peers. Consumers conform to the expectations of others concerning purchase decisions and that leads to the Chinese focus on "face" (Cheung and Prendergast, 2006a). The principal social motivation of those who could not afford genuine luxury brands was of wanting to be like those who could afford such things. The needs were also socially motivated by an inability to buy the genuine product and yet being pushed by their social environment to have the next best thing – the counterfeit one.

Although, there are obviously many different ways in which marketers can segment their consumers, such as age, gender, religion and social-class, consumer research has identified that consumers can also be grouped using the so-called self-image or personalities. Self-image is simply the way a person perceives himself or herself. Furthermore, research has found that a person has more than one

self-image such as the actual self-image (how a person actually perceives himself or herself) or ideal self-image (how a person ideally perceives himself or herself). In this context, it is believed that consumers with different self-images prefer different brands which have different brand-images. Moreover, it is suggested that consumers purchase products which are closely related to their self-images. This is referred to as image congruence or congruity, the harmony of self-image and brand-image. Previous research also has suggested that publicly consumed goods (brands in particular) have a higher consistency between the ideal self-image and the brand-image. Whereas for privately consumed products (such as watching television at home alone with a can of soft drink), actual self-image is more congruent with the brand-image or at least equally congruent with the ideal self-image. Furthermore, there are also other key factors which can influence the brand evaluations, such as the consumption situation or the level of self-monitoring (Graeff, 1996).

One of the central themes of this study is that these social motivations lead Chinese consumer's propensity to consume counterfeit branded products. This particular study will make use of the image (personality) congruence theories explain the driving force (motive) behind the counterfeit consumption (Figure 1). Extending the concept of the social needs (Lu and Pras, 2006), this study will focus mainly on the linkage between brand-image and self-image along with the moderating effect of self-monitoring. Virtually, no research has ever been addressed the counterfeit issue from this perspective. If we are able to examine and understand more about this magic linkage, then we will be able to find viable solutions to break it. Hopefully, the decision or desire to purchase the counterfeit will then be lost in the consumer mind.

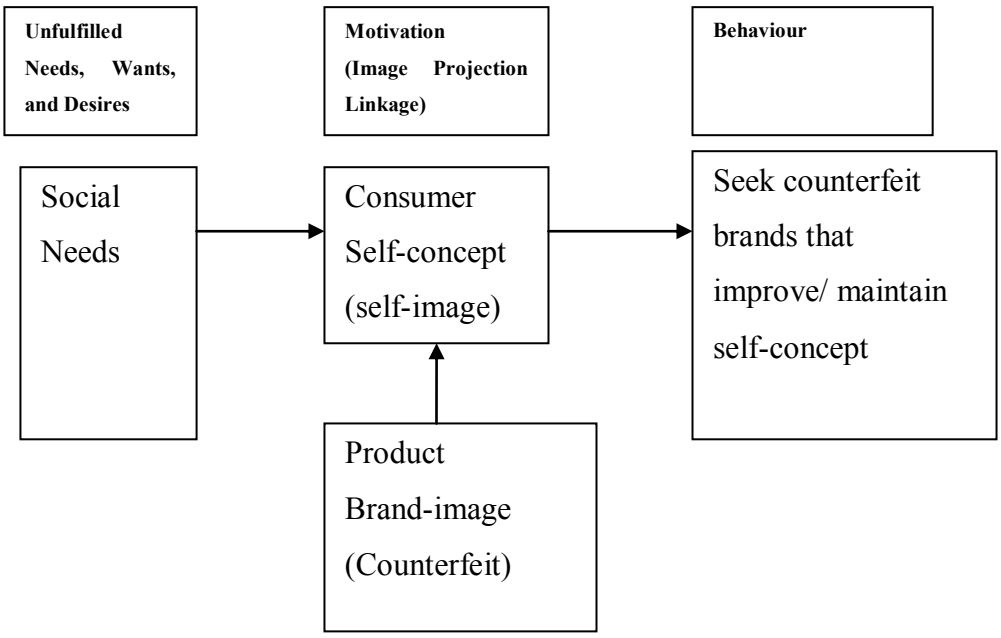


Figure 1: Motivations for buying branded counterfeits

The main objectives of this experiment are:

- ☒ To study the effect of Image Congruence on Purchase Evaluations for Counterfeit products.
- ☒ To determine the Moderating Effect of Self-Monitoring Behaviour on the relationship between Image Congruence and Purchase Intentions for counterfeit brand.

1.4 Research Question

A recent research done by Bian and Moutinho (2009) has shown that brand personality performs well in determining consideration of counterfeit branded product among all other tested variables such as product involvement, perceived risk, consumer demographic variables and product knowledge. Therefore, the aim of this research study is to extend the findings of previous studies which have suggested that consumers buy products with brand-images which are congruent with their self-images and try to fill the research gap by answering the following research question:

What are the effects of Image Congruence on purchase evaluation of Counterfeit Branded Product?

Apparently, no research has ever been carried out addressing this question. The present study is the first attempt to find a solution to this research question. By understanding more about the activities of the consumer buying behaviour in the context of self-image, brand-image and counterfeit branded products, this study attempts to explore how the image congruence holds with different self-monitors and that we may be better able to make recommendations to marketing practitioners of genuine branded products and to policy makers, in order to help them take counter-measures against consumers of counterfeit products, such as identifying counterfeit-product-prone consumers and the product attributes that attract them.

Previous researches have examined different forms of deception, such as, blur counterfeiting (Bian, 2006) and non-deceptive counterfeiting and deceptive counterfeiting (Grossman and Shapiro, 1988). This study examines the counterfeiting in the context of non-deceptive counterfeiting where consumers knowingly purchasing counterfeits. Using non-deceptive counterfeiting context is critical as this enables us to investigate the consumers' true perceptions of counterfeit brand products and their purchase evaluations.

1.5 Research Conceptual Model

Based upon the theoretical background just presented above, figure 2 shows the model proposed and submitted to empirical test. The model attempts to explore whether the image congruence effects hold for counterfeit product and how the level of self-monitoring moderates the image congruence effects on consumer evaluation and acceptance of genuine and counterfeit product. Therefore, we have the following conceptual model:

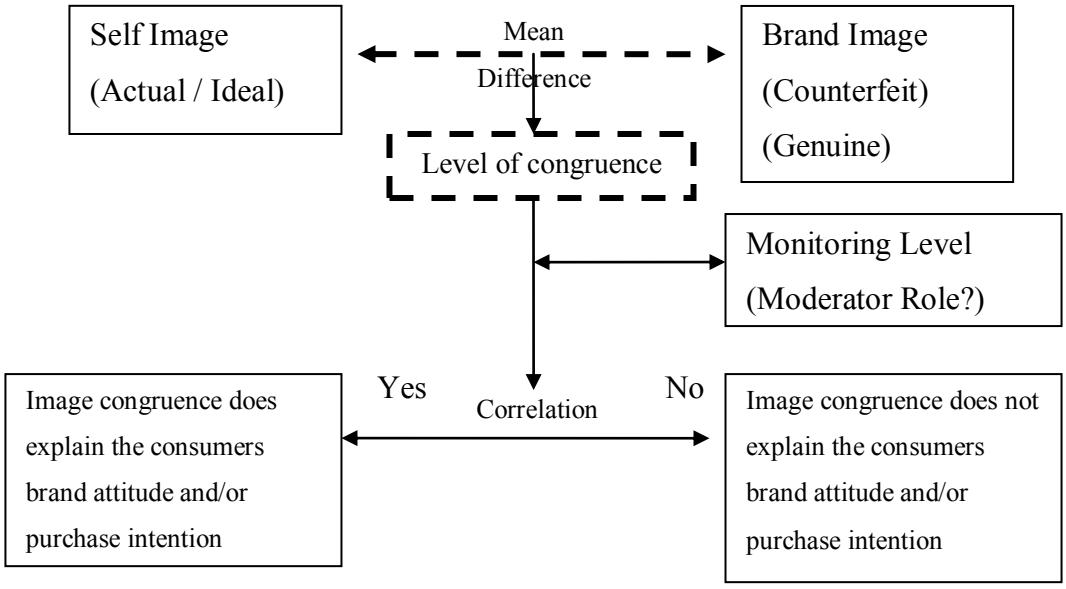


Figure 2: Research Conceptual Model

This study has made use of the Euclidean-distance model. Figure 2 explains the two main steps of the calculations in image congruence. The mean difference score of a self-image (actual or ideal) and the brand-image (genuine or counterfeit) are calculated to identify the level of congruence for that type of self-image. After that, the level of congruence must then be compared with either brand attitude or purchase intention. This correlation will indicate if image congruence influences the dependent variables (brand attitude or purchase intention). In this model, we are also interested in examining how the moderating variable (monitoring level) may potentially moderate the effects of image congruence on brand attitude and purchase intention for both genuine and counterfeit products.

1.6 Research Hypothesis

To contribute to the expanding literature of consumer buying behaviour of counterfeits, this study examines whether consumer evaluation of counterfeits is in fact a function of image (actual and ideal) congruence. In addition, whether cconsumers' purchase intention of counterfeits is affected by consumers' level of self-monitoring will also be examined.

To date, most studies of image congruence have been undertaken with genuine branded products and they have shown that congruence between self-image and brand-image is positively related to consumers' product evaluations.

Graeff (1996) came to the conclusion that high self-monitors present a more congruent image with the brands or products they consume than low monitors do and consumers' evaluation of publicly consumed products are more affected by the congruence between ideal image and brand image than actual self-image.

The hypothesised (expected) relationships were shown in table 1 below.

Table 1: The hypothesised relationships

Counterfeits	**Actual-image**	**Ideal-image**
Image Congruence (High)	High purchase intention (hi self-monitor even stronger)	Higher purchase intention (hi self-monitor even stronger)
Image Congruence (Low)	Low purchase intention	Low purchase intention

Accordingly, the following hypotheses are suggested:

H1: Counterfeit Image Congruence would have a positive association with the intent to purchase counterfeit products.

H2: The effects of Counterfeit Image Congruence on product evaluations would be strongly related to ideal congruence than actual congruence.

H3: The effect of Image congruence on intent to purchase counterfeit product would be stronger for high self-monitors than for low self-monitors.

1.7 Research Methodology

The research methodology is based on Graeff (1996) study. Having a pre-test to find out the most relevant adjectives for the chosen brand (Gucci), a questionnaire will then be designed to compare the congruencies between perceived brand-image and the individual's self-image (actual self-image and ideal self-image).

Using a generalized Euclidean distance model (based on Graeff, 1996), students' difference scores were calculated (reflecting the level of congruence between the brand-image and their self-image for both actual and ideal). After that, these image congruence scores were correlated with the measure of the overall purchase intentions. To measure self-monitoring, Snyder's Self-Monitoring Scale (1974) will be utilized (based on Graeff, 1996). In order to categorise respondents into either Low or High self-monitoring groups, the self-monitoring scores will be bisected at the median suggested by previous research (Hogg et al. 2000) with justification.

Finally, to determine whether the effect of image congruence on purchase intentions was stronger for high self-monitors than for low self-monitors, correlations between image congruence and brand evaluations were then analyzed and compared.

1.8 Terminology

According to Rosenberg (1989) and Graeff (1996):

Self-concept	The overall image that a person holds of him or herself.
Actual self-image	A person's realistic appraisal of his or her qualities (how consumers see themselves).
Ideal self-image	A person's conception of how he or she would like to be (how consumers would like to see themselves).
Image congruence model	The approaches based on the prediction that products will be chosen when their attributes march some aspect of the self.
Actual congruence	Congruence between actual self-image and brand image.
Ideal congruence	Congruence between ideal self-image and brand image.
High self-monitors	Those who are more sensitive to external cues and will change their behaviour in a manner that they believe will be more socially acceptable or appropriate.
Low self-monitors	Those who are less sensitive to external cues.

1.9 Structure of the Thesis

The structure of this study is arranged as follows:

CHAPTER TWO presents Literature Review - selected concepts (conceptualizations) and proposed hypotheses.

CHAPTER THREE presents Research Design and Methodological issues.

CHAPTER FOUR presents Research Findings and Results of the analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE presents Conclusion and Recommendations - analysis of the theoretical and managerial implications, the research limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

2. CHAPTER TWO - Research Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

One of the areas in which psychology has made a huge contribution to the study of consumer behaviour is the understanding of consumer's choice of products or brands. For example, Belk (1988) found that consumers reflect their personality, behaviour and their feelings with their purchase patterns. Consumers have a number of long-lasting images of themselves. Sirgy (1982, 1985, and 1986) noticed that consumers often prefer brand-image consistent with their own self-image. These self-images, or perceptions of self, are very closely associated with personality in that consumers tend to buy products with an image or personality that closely correspond to their own self-image. Onkvisit and Shaw (1987) stated 'the consumer is seeking a great deal more: he also wanted prestige, reputation, and other meaningful symbols. This need can be satisfied solely by the social meanings associated with the image of the manufacturer, retailer, and product'. Consumption is a way of self-presentation. By means of self-presentation, one tries to improve one's image in the desired (ideal) direction (Antonides and Raaij, 1988). To understand the consumer's choice of products or brands, research has referred to the notion of consistency between the self-image and the brand-image, the image congruence/ image congruity. In China, in particular, the lower middle-class with their limited budgets, buying a high-quality counterfeit is an alternative for them to achieve their dream and to enjoy the happiness or image that comes from possessing (and being seen to possess) a reversed product – social need.

2.2 Self-Concept

In a socially determined frame of reference, self-concept has been defined as the total sum of an individual's ideas, feelings and thoughts about oneself in relation to other objects (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987). It is a dimensional concept including one's actual self-concept (how individuals perceive themselves to be) and one's ideal self-concept (how individuals would like themselves to be). It has been theorised

that purchase intentions are often affected by one's self-concept (Sirgy, 1982). This argues that brands are consumed because their image is congruent with the self-image of the consumer. The notion of consumers perceiving brands as having an 'image' is taken up by Graeff (1997). If brands are perceived as having an 'image' and from the notion of the 'self-concept', it can be acknowledged that individuals have an image of themselves, an interesting issue is whether, and to what extent, there is a relationship between people's view of themselves and the brands which they purchase. There are a number of additional facets to this issue, not least the fact that consumers can have more than one self-concept.

According to Rosenberg (1979):

- The actual-self refers to how a person actually perceives him/herself.
- The ideal-self refers to how a person would like to perceive him/herself.
- The ideal social-self, how a person would like other people to perceive him/herself.
- The expected-self, how the person would like to act.
- The situation-self, how people would like to act in different situations, for example, a businessman would act seriously at work but in his or her free time, when playing sports he or she might be more carefree.
- The extended-self, refers to the possessions a person possesses. This can be summarised with Belk's statement (1988) that "we are what we have (which) may be the most basic and powerful fact of consumer behaviour".
- The 'possible-selves' which are a person's perception of what he or she would like to become. The possible-selves have more future orientation than the other self-concepts.

According to Mowen and Minor (1998), there is a final-self which is based on the extent to which people define themselves in terms of others or groups with whom they are affiliated. However, actual-self and ideal-self received the most theoretical consideration and empirical support (Graeff, 1997). It was Sirgy (1982, 1985) who stated that out of all self-concepts the most effective for product evaluations are the ideal and actual self-concepts. The degree of harmony between a person's self-concept and product image which he or she consumes is referred as the image congruence. Therefore, to follow the footsteps of other researchers in the context of

Self-concept, for example Mehta (1999) and Sirgy et al. (1997), both actual self-concept and ideal self-concept are being used in the present study.

In different situations or with respect to different products, consumers may choose a different self-image to lead their attitudes or behaviour. For socially enhancing or socially conspicuous products (like clothing and vacation destination), consumers may be led by either ideal self-image or ideal social self-image, while for products that are consumed privately (like household appliance and furniture), consumers may be led by their actual self-image. Marketers can segment their markets on the basis of relevant consumer self-images, and then position their products as symbols/images of such self-images. Therefore, the concept for self-image has strategic implications for marketers. Such a strategy is consistent with the basic marketing concept, in that the marketer first assesses the needs and wants of a consumer segment with regards to both the product category and an appropriate self-image symbol and then proceeds to develop appropriate marketing mix (4P- product, price, place and promotion) strategies that meet both criteria. Another approach is to assess the discrepancy or difference between a consumer's self-image and the brand-image. This particular approach has been widely accepted to study differences in the perceptions of Eastern versus Western brands of fashion clothing and self-image brand-image congruency (O'Cass and Lim, 2002) which we will discuss in detail later. Much of this research provides greater insight into understanding of why and how marketer creates status to a brand and how product usage situation is used to communicate an image to others.

2.2.1 The Development of the Self-Concept

The self-concept includes individuals' attitudes, perceptions, feelings and evaluations of themselves as persons. Attitudes toward the self, like all attitudes, are learned. They emerge through experience with the environment and through interactions with other people. The newborn infant has no conception or awareness of separateness as a person. The infant is simply a centre of sensations, some pleasant and some unpleasant, that are not differentiated from the surrounding world. At the outset, the infant is simply an integral part of the environment (Cooley, 1902).

The development of self-awareness consists of differentiation. An infant will gradually learn to differentiate her body from the objects around her. She learns to distinguish her thumb from her pacifier because when she sucks on her thumb, she experiences a sensation in both her thumb and her mouth, whereas when she sucks on her pacifier, she only experiences a sensation in her mouth. She learns to distinguish between her sock, which is detachable, and her foot, which is not. Gradually, the child will learn the limits of her body (Cooley, 1902).

Self-awareness is not limited to an awareness of the body, although the body image forms an essential part of the self-concept. As language develops, the small child's horizons will be vastly expanded. Words symbolize and stand for things-people, objects, and activities. She learns a name for herself and can now deal in the abstract. She is able to think of herself as she was yesterday, as she is today, and as she will be tomorrow. She is able to conceive of herself in relation to others and in relation to her physical environment. Slowly, she develops a concept of herself as a separate entity that stands in various relationships to other people and to objects. Her perception of herself is coloured by her relationships, and by the ways in which significant others (parents, teachers, siblings, and peers) see her. She may see herself as "cute" because she is repeatedly told she is cute. The self develops, not as a personal, isolated process, but as a social phenomenon. The way others react to the child as an object influences and shapes the child's concept of self as an object (Cooley, 1902).

2.2.2 Empirical Evidence of the Self-Concept

As discussed previously, marketers have long recognized the importance of self-concept as a determinant of consumer purchases and have used it as a basic of market segmentation, there have been systemic studies designed to demonstrate the relationship between consumers' self-concepts and brands or product categories. One problem has been the general inadequacy of the available instruments for measuring self-concept. A second problem has been the difficulty of finding a common language to describe the self-concepts of consumers and the perceived characteristics of consumer products. For example, an individual may perceive

herself as being "sensitive", or another individual may describe himself as "submissive", but it is always difficult to conceive of a product or brand in similar terms (Sirgy, 1982). However, a few studies have been made of the relationship between the consumer behaviour and self-concept. Sirgy has provided a comprehensive review of these self-concept studies applied to consumer behaviour. The following materials summarise the result of three key studies.

The Sommers Study

In an exploratory study, Sommer (1964) tested the hypothesis that members of two social strata would describe themselves differently in terms of product. This hypothesis was apparently based on the following rather involved line of reasoning:

1. Since the self-concept is formed through communications and interaction with significant others, members of different social strata should have somewhat different self-concepts.
2. Consumer products have symbolic meanings and are seen as instruments for communicating aspects of the self-concept.
3. Therefore, members of different social strata should differ in terms of the products they use to describe themselves.

Sommers chose five classifications of products for inclusion in his study: clothing, toiletries and cosmetics, food, household appliances, and leisure products. Each class of products contained ten items that were divided into two subgroups, labelled by Sommers as "standard" and "specialty" groups. For example, the food classification for the standard and specialty product groups is listed below:

Standard Subgroups	**Specialty Subgroups**
Catsup	Frozen orange juice
Flour	Instant coffee
Shortening	Frozen seafood
Potatoes	Cake mix

Bread	Refrigerator biscuits

Sommers selected 50 upper-strata and 50 lower-strata housewives using the Warner Index of social class. Each product was typed on a separate card and, using the Q-technique, the experimenter asked each housewife to sort the cards into nine stacks/ piles based on how well the products described her. For example, in stack one the housewife would place the two products that best describe her; in stack two, the three products that describe her next best; and so on and so forth. The number of cards she placed in each stack was indicated by a predetermined frequency that approximated the normal distribution curve. The reason for having nine (an odd number) of stacks in the Q-technique is to allow for a neutral position.

On the basis of his analysis, Sommers concluded that, while the basic product categories of clothing, toiletries and cosmetics, food, house appliances, and leisure products were too broad to demonstrate the descriptive properties of products in terms of self-image, the "standard" and "specialty" subgroups did provide such descriptive data. Thus, while the Sommers' study is global in nature, it did support the general hypothesis that upper-strata (upper-status) and lower-strata (lower-status) women do describe themselves differently in terms of products.

The Grubb and Hupp Study

Grubb and Hupp (1968) investigated the relationship between self-concept and ownership of two brands of automobiles – the Volkswagen 1200-1300 and the Pontiac GTO. They theorized that:

"For an individual consumer and his significant references, total understanding of the product's symbolic meaning includes perceptions of the kinds of people whom they believe use that product. When a person endorses a specific brand/ product in the interaction process, he is communicating that he wishes to see himself as associated with the kind of people he perceives consume the brand/ product. Based on this theory, the hypothesis was advanced: consumers of a specific brand of a product would hold self-concepts similar to the self-concepts they attribute to other consumers of the same brands. Furthermore, consumers of a

specific product would hold self-concepts significantly different from self-concepts they attributed to consumers of a "competing brand" (Grubb and Hupp, 1968).

Using a modification of the semantic differential, the adjectives shown in the accompanying table were selected to describe the Volkswagen and Pontiac owners.

Volkswagen 1200-1300 Owners	**Pontiac GTO Owners**
Thrifty	Status-conscious
Sensible	Flashy
Creative	Fashionable
Individualistic	Adventurous
Practical	Interested in the opposite sex
Conservative	Sporty
Economical	Style-conscious
Quality-conscious	Pleasure-seeking

A questionnaire including these descriptive adjectives was given to each respondent to measure (a) self-concept, (b) perception of the self-concepts of Volkswagen owners, and (c) perception of the self-concepts of Pontiac GTO owners. Usable responses were obtained from 36 GTO owners and 45 Volkswagen owners.

While some of the findings were ambiguous, analysis of data revealed that:

1. The self-concepts of Pontiac GTO owners were significantly different from the self-concepts of the Volkswagen 1200-1300 series owners.
2. Volkswagen owners rated themselves substantially lower than Pontiac owners on traits such as status-consciousness, fashionable, adventurous, interested in the opposite sex, sporty, style-conscious, and pleasure-seeking.
3. While Pontiac owners rated themselves favourably on most of the items on the Volkswagen scale, they did not rate themselves as highly on these items as the Volkswagen owners rated themselves.
4. Volkswagen owners felt that the traits on the Pontiac scale were applicable to Pontiac GTO owners, but not applicable to Volkswagen owners.
5. Pontiac owners perceive other GTO owners as being more status-conscious, flashy, fashionable, adventuresome, interested in the opposite sex, sporty, style-conscious, and pleasure seeking than Volkswagen owners.

Grubb and Hupp concluded that their findings provide further empirical data supporting the relationship of the self-concept of consumer behaviour.

The Dolich Study

Dolich (1969) studied the relationship of self-concept to product preferences for four product groups: beer, cigarettes, bar soap, and toothpaste. The semantic differential technique was used with 200 University of Texas students enrolled in an advanced undergraduate course in psychology. Students used the same scales to describe (a) their self-concept, (b) their ideal self-concept, (c) their preferred brand in each of the product groups, and (d) their least-preferred brand in each of the product groups.

Analysis of the findings showed that there is a greater congruence between the self-concept and the preferred brand than between the self-concept and the least preferred brand. Dolich concluded, in part, "Results of the investigation appear to verify psychological theories that consumers tend to relate the brand symbol to self-concept" (Dolich, 1969).

A more recent application of self-concept theory to consumer behaviour was carried out by Sirgy (1982). Using a role playing technique, Sirgy found that preferences for automobiles were directly related to the degree to which the product image of automobiles was consistent with the consumer's self-concept.

By and large, the studies of self-concept we have reviewed all suggest that the way consumers see and think about themselves has an important influence on their consumption. Marketers can use knowledge of this phenomenon to their advantages.

2.2.3 Brand Personality Concept

Marketers always try to develop personality traits/ dimensions for brands as if brands are human beings. Therefore, brand personality is defined as a set of human like attributes that associated with a particular brand. An example is a study by Aaker et al. (2001) that developed personality dimensions in several countries by

asking consumers to rate a representative set of commercial brands on a list of personality attributes. In the United States, five key dimensions were found and labelled sincerity (down-to-earth, real, sincere, honest); excitement (daring, contemporary, exciting, imaginative); competence (reliable, intelligent, secure, confidence); sophistication (good looking, glamorous, charming, upper class); and ruggedness (masculine, tough, outdoorsy, and western).

Similar studies were conducted in Japan, which resulted in one more sets of five dimensions. The five Japanese dimensions overlapped with the American ones with respect to excitement, competence, sincerity, and sophistication. One dimension, named peacefulness, was defined by a special blend of attributes (for example, shy, dependent, peaceful, and naive), which was assumed to be indigenous for Japan. The dimension peacefulness is likely related to the collectivistic aspects. A Korean study (Sung and Tinkham, 2005) of brand personalities of famous global brands like Nike, Adidas Sony, BMW and Volkswagen discovered two unique Korean brand personalities. The first, named passive likeableness, included traits like easy, smooth, family oriented, playful, and sentimental. The second was named ascendancy and included traits like strict, heavy, intelligent, and daring. These findings suggest that, even if companies wish to be consistent, having connected one specific personality trait to a global brand, across cultures consumers attach different personalities to these brands. These are the personalities/ traits that are viewed and reckoned as fitting by consumers, but they can be very different from what the company wanted.

Furthermore, similar brand personality dimensions may exist across society and culture, but the similarities are often based only on partial equivalents, meaning that superficially similar dimensions comprise of different associations. Constructs tend to shift in meaning when examined in different cultural situations. For example, excitement is associated with being spirited, young, contemporary, and daring, but in the United States it also conveys independence, imaginativeness, and uniqueness, whereas in Japan it includes talkative, funny, and optimistic. The previous discussion demonstrates using personality descriptors for brand positioning across cultures may be difficult (Foscht et al., 2008).

2.2.4 Measuring the Self-Concept

Previous research has made use of many different measures, for example, semantic differential scale, Q-sorting method, standardised personality measures and the elicitation of self-awareness.

One of the popular methods of measuring the self-concept involves the use of the Q-sort technique. Q-sorting is a complex form of rank-ordering. It involves giving the respondent a number of cards, usually somewhere between 60 and 120, where each card contains a statement of a situation for the respondent to evaluate. Each respondent is asked to sort these cards into a number of piles arranged by the research to reflect the degree of the respondent's personal assessment of each statement.

In using Q-sorts to measure the self-concept, a number of statements addressing various elements of the self are developed by the researcher, for example, "I usually take the initiative when meeting others". Each statement is then printed on a card. Respondents are given these cards and instructed to sort them into a predetermined number of piles (such as seven piles), based on how each respondent assesses these statements. The reason for having an odd number of piles in the Q-sort is to allow for a neutral position. Respondents are instructed to place into the neutral pile those cards that are left over after other choices have been made. These are the statements toward which the respondent is indifferent. The number of cards to be placed in each pile is often designed to approximate the distribution of the normal curve. Data from the Q-sort is then analyzed through statistical techniques that may include factor analysis and cluster analysis. Measurement of the self-concept through Q-sorting helps marketers identify clusters of individuals that exhibit similar concepts of self. The assumption is that people with similar self-concepts tend to exhibit similar consumption habits; therefore, such identification would help marketers decide on the appropriate marketing strategies to target them (French and Glaschner, 1971).

2.2.5 Stability of the Self-concept

Even though, the self-concept is relatively stable, it is not static. Sometimes consumers change their self-concept as a result of encountering new experiences or as a consequence of a change they bring about in their own lives. For example, changing the appearance of the body through corrective and plastic surgeries or implants can bring about a change in the way people feel about themselves. Cosmetics, hair restyling or colouring, colour contact lenses, dieting as well as liposuction are other means people employ to improve their appearance. As a consequence, their initial self-concept goes through a corresponding change. Some people even hire professional image consultant to attain an appropriate and mutually agreed-upon self-image. Image consultants offer their clients or celebrities advice on various personal attributes, such as clothing, colour, presentation, appearance, posture, speaking and media skills (Wisenblit, 1989).

2.2.6 Self-concept and Consumption

Products and services consumption contributes to the definition of the self. It has been said that we are what we consume. In other words, the products and services that people consume facilitate them define their self-concept and social identity (Nasar, 1989). People more often than not, use another individual's possessions or consumption behaviour to help them make judgements about who that person is. They often consider a person's clothes, make of automobile, dwelling, home decoration, and leisure activities to make references about that person's personality. Grubb and Grathwohl (1967) believe that one meaningful way of understanding the role of products is to see them as symbols serving as a means of communication between individuals and their significant others. In the same way that the use of certain products and services influences other's perceptions of who we are, these same products are instrumental in determining our own concept of self.

Many studies support the view that congruence exists between product consumption and self-concept (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987; Ericksen, 1996). Self-product image congruence refers to the tendency of individual to choose and use

products that match some aspects of the self. As discussed above, previous study discovered that car owners' rating of themselves tended to match their perceptions of their cars. For example, Pontiac-owners, viewed themselves as more flashier and active than did Volkswagen owners (Birdwell, 1964). Another study found congruence between the self-concept and preference for beer, cigarettes, bar soap, and toothpaste (Dolich, 1969). A third study found congruity between consumers' self-images and store images, with implications regarding store loyalty (Bellenger et al., 1976).

To preview, as we will discuss below, certain properties tend to characterize the products that consumers use as symbols. To qualify, the products must be visible in use; that is, conspicuous products that are readily apparent to others. Products such as automobiles, clothing, and furnishings are good examples. The product class must also carry a distinctive brand name, steep price tag, or prestigious origin so as to allow formation of a stereotypical image of the user.

2.2.7 Self-Concept and Brand-Image

It was mentioned earlier that a person's self-image influences the products they buy. Researchers such as Hong and Zinkhan (1995), Belk, Bahn and Mayer (1982), and Onkvisit and Shaw (1987) have found a relationship between the product (brand) image and the consumers' self-concept, particularly for products such as automobiles, health, cleaning, jewellery, clothing, food and cigarettes, furniture and home appliances.

The relationship between the consumer's self-image and the product brand image can have significant effects on the product evaluations, such as brand attitudes and purchase intentions (Graeff, 1996). This process is described below in figure 3.

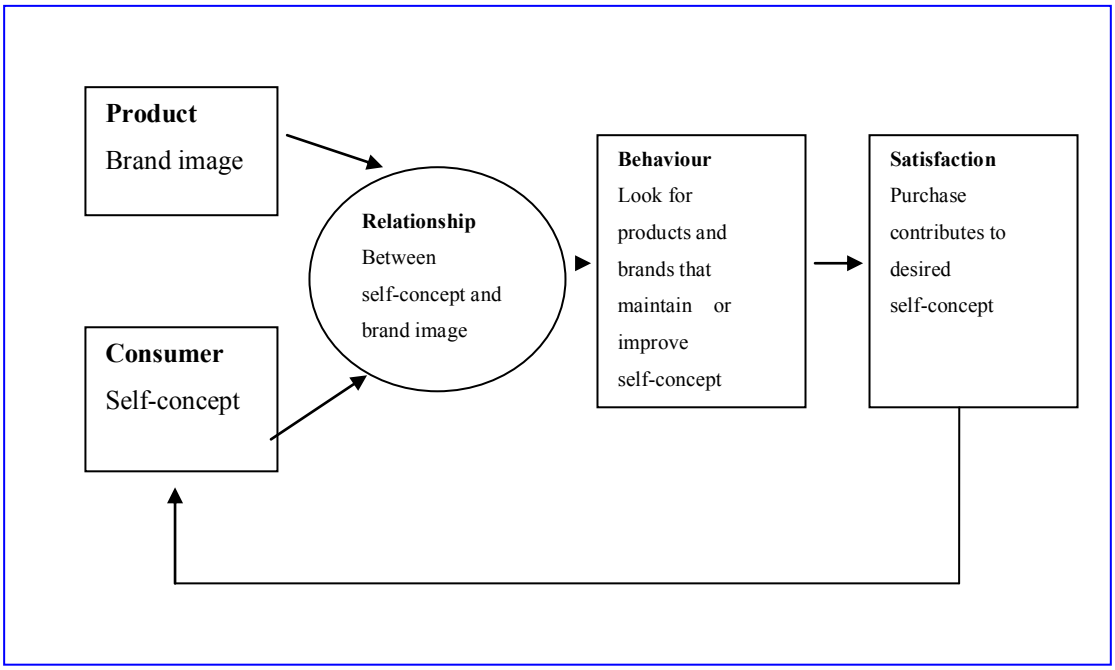


Figure 3: The relationship between Self-Concept and Brand Image Influence

According to Keller, brand Image refers to the schematic memory of a brand. It includes the target market's interpretation of the product's attributes, usage situations, benefits, users, and marketer characteristics. It is what we feel and think of when we hear or see a brand name. Basically, it is the set of associations consumers have learned about the brand (Keller, 2003). The importance of branding and brand image can be seen in the fact that products which have traditionally been unbranded such as water, chicken and apple, are becoming more and more branded. The ability to benefit from a brand-image is called brand equity. Brand equity is basically the value added to a product making use of the perceptions a consumer has of a particular brand name. Brand equity contributes to different areas, such as allocation of preferred shelf space, acceptance of new products, perceived value, premium pricing options, perceived quality, and even to valued assets on a company's accounting balance sheet statement (Kumar and Ganesh, 1995). Brand equity concepts are commonly referred to as 'brand value' and 'brand meaning'. Brand meaning, a qualitative dimension, refers to the qualities of a brand that create meaning. Since value depends upon meaning, changing brand meaning is the same as changing the value of the brand (Kumar and Ganesh, 1995).

For all these reasons, companies have begun to nurture their brand names carefully (Kurt, 1995). It is easier to acquire brand than to create a brand name with good strength because a brand that has been promoted strongly in the past retains a cumulative name recognition level. Brand equity is also an important basis for licensing. Nevertheless, the increase in licensing has increased counterfeiting business, as counterfeiters put famous licensor names to different products without the benefit of an agreement or contract, and sell them as licensed products. Counterfeiting has spread to many product categories, and a lot of counterfeit merchandise is virtually identical to the original and, for unaware customer with poor knowledge, barely undetectable. Counterfeits have appeared in many different parts of the world, in particular, South-East Asia, including Hong Kong and the mainland China.

2.2.8 Self-Concept and Advertising

In individualistic cultures like the United States, advertising that appeals to personal success, independence, individual benefits and preferences are more effective, whereas in collectivistic cultures, like China and Korea, advertising appeals focusing on in-group benefits, family and harmony are more effective (Han and Shavitt, 1994). A commercial in which a person breaks from a group and starts doing something on his own that the group has not thought of would be seen as positive in the individualistic cultures of the West but negative in collectivistic Asian cultures (Bowman, 2002). For collectivists, one's identity is in the group.

Members of collectivistic and individualistic societies will respond quite differently to advertisements focusing collectivistic or individualistic appeals. In the United States, people will be more persuaded by advertisements emphasising individualistic benefits such as personal success and independence, whereas in China, people will be more attracted to advertisements emphasizing collectivistic benefits, such as harmony, in-group benefits, and family (Han and Shavitt, 1994).

Advertising appeals that present a brand in a way that coincides with consumers' self-concepts seem to result in more favourable brand attitudes. This was confirmed in a study by Wang et al. (2000), they use the terms separated versus

connected for appeals that are attractive for consumers in individualistic cultures or collectivistic cultures. A connected advertising appeal focuses interdependence and togetherness as opposed to a separated advertising appeal focuses independence and autonomy.

The importance of both context and the relationship orientation of the self in collectivistic cultures can explain the frequent use of celebrities in Chinese advertising. The use of celebrities in advertising varies across cultures. There are indications that in Western societies these variations are related to the degree of masculinity (need for success), which is likely to explain why in the United States the cult of personality and obsession with celebrity and stardom is profound. However, in the collectivistic China, the use of celebrities in advertising is even much stronger than in the United States. In his description of the celebrity phenomenon in China, Praet (2001) provides explanations that refer to two collectivistic aspects: the relational self and context. In China, unlike in most countries, celebrity appearances are not limited to famous actors, singers, sports stars, or comedians. Advertising is not only the stage for established celebrities to capitalize their fame; but also the steppingstone for models and aspiring actors toward fame.

In China, the word star is reserved for those who are seen to have long-lasting popularity, and talent is used to describe most celebrities in the entertainment world. Many of these talents are chosen on the basis of their beauty and looks. First, in the context of entertainment and advertising, this phenomenon seems not to pose problems of distinctiveness, which it might give in the context of the family or a work-related environment. Second, in the world of brands with similar product attributes, the function of using such talent is to give the brand "face". This is also explained as part of the creative process in which a creative team in the advertising agency prefers to explain a proposed campaign by showing the client a popular talent around whom the campaign is to be built rather than talking about an abstract creative concept (Praet, 2001). In a large study comparing 25 countries, Praet found that mainly collectivism explains differences or variations in the use of celebrities in advertising, where the functions of a celebrity is to give "face" to the brand in a world of brands with similar product attributes (Praet, 2008).

2.2.9 Self-concept and Product Use

As discussed previously, the behaviour of consumers in collectivist cultures will tend to be motivated by externally focused, social needs such as harmony, affiliation, status, admiration and social consciousness (Cheung and Prendergast, 2006b). It is the public meanings (that is, those meanings attributed to the product which the individual believes are held by others) that motivate purchase decisions for this consumer whose self-concept is orientated towards an interdependent-self. This consumer's identity lies in familial and social relationships.

This orientation towards the interdependent-self motivates the Chinese consumer in both public-use purchases and private-use purchases, but in a different way. Chinese consumers are characterised by a pragmatic approach when it comes to private-use purchases. The purchase decision is typically depended upon utilitarian features of the product such as price-to-quality ratios and physical characteristics. The Chinese are very price conscious when purchasing items for personal use and take great pride in being smart in money matters. When purchasing items destined for public-use, however, the Chinese consumer in general is far less concerned with price and practicality.

Some scholars have theorised that the individualistic orientation of Western cultures leads to a greater personal attachment to 'things' such as automobiles, pets and clothes, whereas the high level of interdependence of Chinese individuals corresponds with a lesser personal attachment to material objects and a stronger attachment to human beings. Thus, for private-use purchases, Chinese base their evaluation of goods more on product features and utilitarian features than on emotional appeal. Therefore, private-use purchases are low-involvement items when compared with high-involvement social-use purchases, which must reflect the complex Chinese conception of human relations (Yang et al., 1989).

The interdependent self influences private-use purchase decisions by encouraging conformist consumption. As the Chinese consumer regards his own identity in the context of society, even in private, he does not want to deviate far from socially acceptable norms. Thus, even among his consumption of items for private use, he will choose the same products and brands chosen by other members of his group. The Chinese, when choosing between brands they have never tried, will also normally pick the one they have seen used by others. This is not an

exclusively Chinese feature. Westerners will choose the brand that is familiar too. What is different, however, is the Chinese motivation: to maintain homogeneity among the group and to feel within the safety of societal norms. In other words, it is the conformist orientation that motivates Chinese consumers in their low-involvement, private–use purchase decisions.

The Asian orientation towards the interdependent-self is also revealed in the case of public-use consumption. The distinctly status-seeking consumption patterns among Chinese consumers in public-use purchases reflect the inherent social risk and lead to high-involvement purchase decisions. The purchase decision criterion for products for social use is the capacity of the product to convey the right meanings according to accepted norms and standards. Such meanings are transmitted through signals such as price, brand name and packaging rather than inherent product qualities. In a situation in which a product is purchased as a gift for a person who is socially significant to the giver, the choice of product is often based less on its intrinsic quality or the probability of it being liked by the recipient, and more on a precise calculation of what kind and level of relationship needs to be demonstrated in the particular social context.

The high level of development of conspicuous consumption in China reflects the importance attached to and resources devoted to public-use consumption. For luxury goods companies, such as Louis Vuitton and Gucci, China is regarded as the area of greatest importance. While conspicuous consumption may seem to clash with such traditional characteristics of Chinese cultures as pragmatism, collectivism and modesty in self-presentation, the explanation lies in the meaning that luxury products convey and importance in Chinese culture of status and face-giving. The symbolic meaning which will be discussed below associated with ownership and gift-giving forms the foundation of conspicuous consumption in China. Conspicuous consumption is a means of securing the social recognition and adhering to the norms of reciprocity and gift-giving so important in collectivist cultures. While the desire to assert the independent-self can serve as the stimulus for conspicuous consumption in a Western context. In an Asian context likes China, interdependence can similarly serve as the stimulus: one buys products that fit with a socially desirable image of a public self (Yang et al., 1989).

2.2.10 Self-concept and Product Symbolism

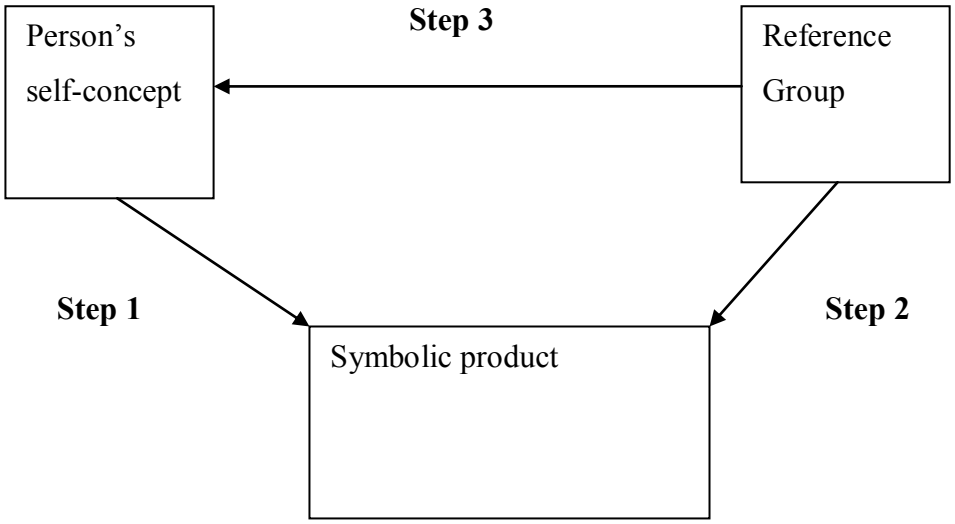
One must recognize that products may act as symbols for consumers in order to understand how the self-concept influences buyer behaviour. Symbols are "things which stand for or express something else" (Warner, 1959). Some researchers have argued that the main reason for buying many products is not for their functional benefits but for their symbolic values (Levy, 1959). Some others have written that consumers' personalities can be defined by the products they consume (Tucker, 1957). Recently, many field researchers believe that consumers see their possessions as an extension of themselves. In fact, different studies have discovered a relationship between the self-image of a consumer and of certain products that he or she buys. Clothing, automobiles, health products, cleaning products, grooming products, leisure products, retail store patronage, food products, cigarettes, magazines, home appliances, and home furnishing are products for which such self-image/ product-image congruence have been found (Belk et al., 1982).

There are three characteristics for such communicative products (Holman, 1981). First, the products must have visibility in use, such that their consumption, purchase, and disposition are easily noticeable to others. Second, the products must show variability – that is, some consumers do not have the financial resources or time to posses it, whereas others must have the resources to own the product. If everyone could use the service or own the product and if, it were identical for everybody, it could not be a symbol. Third, the product must have personalizability. Personalizability refers to the extent to which a product denotes a typical image of the average consumer (Holman, 1981).

One can easily notice how such symbolic products such as jewellery or automobiles possess the characteristics of variability, visibility and personalizability. Figure 4 below shows the importance of recognizing symbolic nature products. In the figure, there are three steps showing (1) person's self-concept, (2) reference group, and (3) symbolic product. The consumer may consume a product that symbolizes a feature of his or her self-concept to the reference group.

In Step one, the person consumes a product that may communicate his or her self-concept to the reference group. As shown in step two, the consumer hopes that the reference group will have the desired perception of the product symbolic nature. In step three, the consumer finally hopes that the reference group sees him or her as

having some of the same symbolic nature or qualities as the product (Grubb and Grathwohl, 1967). Therefore, in order to communicate symbolically different aspects of their self-concepts to others, consumers may be conceptualized as purchasing products. The theory the consumers choose products and brands that correspond to his or her self-concept has been named Image Congruence Hypothesis (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987) which will be the next discussion focus.



Step 1: Person consumes products that are symbolic of self

Step 2: Reference group associates products with consumer

Step 3: Reference group attributes to consumer the product symbolic qualities

Figure 4: Communication of self to others via symbolic products

2.3 Image Congruence Hypothesis

The notion of consumers purchasing a certain brand because that brand-image is congruent with their own self-image is known as the Image Congruence Hypothesis. The idea is that consumers reflect their feelings and behaviours to the products they purchase, and therefore, choose products or brands with similar images to their own self-images. Many of the earlier studies support the consistency between self-image and product-image (Birdwell, 1964; Dolich, 1969; Kernan and Somers, 1967; Grubb, 1965; Grubb and Stern, 1971).

The Image Congruence hypothesis derives major support from Cognitive Dissonance theory, "To minimise a dissonance associated with a purchase, the consumer must achieve a consistent self-image by purchasing the right products from the right manufacturers at the right shops" (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987). Basically, the theory of cognitive dissonance is based upon the notion that consumers have a need for consistency and order in their lives and that a state of conflict is produced when behaviours/ beliefs conflict with one another. However, through a process of cognitive dissonance reduction, in which people are motivated to reduce this inconsistency/ dissonance and therefore, unpleasant tension, the conflict that arises when selecting between two choices may be resolved (Festinger, 1957). When cognitive dissonance happens after a purchase has been made, it is called 'post-purchase dissonance'. Post-purchase dissonance is very common as purchase decisions usually need some amount of compromise. However, it is possible to leave consumers with an uncomfortable feeling about their prior actions or beliefs – a feeling that consumers would seek to resolve by modifying their attitudes to match with their behaviour (Matz and Wood, 2005). Therefore, attitude change is quite often an outcome of behaviour or an action in the situation of post-purchase dissonance. Following a purchase, the conflicting thoughts and dissonant information are key factors that force consumers to change attitudes so that they will be consonant with their actual purchase behaviour. Apart from those consumer-initiated tactics for reducing post-purchase uncertainty, such as rationalise the decision as being smart, seek out advertisement that support the decision or talk to relatives or friends hoping to get positive feedbacks, marketing people can also facilitate consumers to relieve their dissonance by incorporating messages in their advertising specifically targeted at reinforcing consumer's confidence,

complimenting their wisdom, offering better customer services. However, there is evidence that the majority of consumers feel that marketing people may stretch the truth about their products in their advertisement (Lampert, 2004).

However, post-purchase dissonance does not happen with all product purchases. It will most likely occur when (a) decision is important, either financially or psychologically; (b) alternatives are available; (c) the alternatives have desirable features; (d) the alternative features are qualitatively different; and (e) the individual makes a choice freely, with little or no outside pressure (Brock, 1962). In addition, post-purchase dissonance does not occur in all situations, nor is the type of dissonance reduction that will occur easy to predict in advance. The complexity of the phenomenon, and the availability of alternative theories to explain some of the same behaviour observed in dissonance studies (such as attribution theory) led a number of researchers to dismiss dissonance theory as offering little help to the marketing manager. Yet, in recent years, dissonance theory has enjoyed something of a resurgence of interest. Research appears to confirm that there is growing recognition that dissonance theory is compatible with the explanations of behaviour offered by other theories (Cooper and Croyle, 1984). What is clear is that dissonance is very true and real, but that is a much more complicated phenomenon than was initially thought to be the case. This makes it somewhat more difficult to apply to in real life marketing situation.

The self-concept cannot be the only variable in determining the image congruence hypothesis, according to Onkvisit and Shaw (1987) “the self-concept does not operate in separation; other variables can also moderate its impact”. As discussed earlier, self-concept has more components than the more frequently used actual and ideal self-concepts. However, other components of self-concept, such as situational ideal-self were not used as frequently as the actual and ideal self concepts. When products/ brands are consumed in public, consumers are interested in impressing others by their act and type of consumption. Previous researches have discovered that publicly consumed products evaluations are more influenced by ideal congruence; meanwhile, privately consumed products evaluations are more influenced by actual congruence (Graeff, 1996; Hong and Zinkhan, 1995). Therefore, managing ideal congruence effects (between ideal self-image and brand-image) may be more important than managing the actual congruence effects (between actual self-image and brand image) for the publicly consumed products.

Furthermore, variables such as self-monitoring, price, income, product-life cycle (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987) are also important but the most significant one is the situation which consumers are at the moment of making the purchase or the situation where the product is going to be consumed.

All in all, image congruency has been a major attention for most of consumer researchers, and much of the research indicates that the self-concept is important due to the fact that different perceptions of the self affect purchase behaviour and decisions. Some of the leading researchers on the self-concept suggest that consumer behaviour is, partly determined by the congruence resulting from a psychological comparison involving the consumer's self-concept and the product-user image. More importantly, consumer researchers are now able to measure a consumer's self-concept, self-image and product-image congruency. The most popular measurement method is the semantic differential. Researcher Malhotra has developed a set of fifteen pairs of adjective as shown in table 2 below. They have been proven effective in describing the ideal self-concepts and actual self-concepts of consumers and celebrities as well. This particular instrument can be used to ensure a match among the image of a brand, the self-concept (actual or ideal) of a target market, and the characteristics of an advertising spokesman (Malhotra, 1981).

Table 2: Scale to Measure Self-Images and Product-Images

Self-concept measure								
Please rate how you see yourself on the following descriptive word pairs by circling a number in each row closer to the word that describes you.								
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Calm
Rugged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Delicate
Uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Comfortable
Dominating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Submissive
Thrifty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Indulgent
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unpleasant
Contemporary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uncontemporary
Organized	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unorganized
Rational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Emotional
Youthful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mature

Formal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Informal
Complex	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Simple
Orthodox	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Liberal
Colourless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Colourful
Modest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Vain

Another approach in measuring self-image congruence was suggested by Sirgy et al. (1997). Rather than indirectly, this new approach measured the self-image congruence experience directly via the use of product-user image and self-image. Under this approach, subjects were asked to describe the brand's 'typical user' first and then characterize congruence with their own self-image:

> 'Take a moment to think about (Brand A). Think about the kind of person who typically uses (Brand A). Imagine this person in your mind and then describe this person using one or more personal adjectives such as classy, stylish, sexy, old, or whatever personal adjectives that you can use to describe the typical user of (Brand A)".
>
> "Once you have finished this, indicate your agreement or disagreement to the following statement: (Brand A) is consistent with how I see myself (actual self-congruity)".

Subjects showed their responses on five point Likert Scales (strongly agree=1 to strongly disagree=5) concerning the above self-image statements for actual self-image after characterizing user image of the brand. As discussed, this approach tries to indicate the congruity relationship directly and does not need to calculate the distance scores which will be discussed in details later.

Nevertheless, according to O'Cass and Lim (2002), as shown in Table 3 (Global assessment of self-image product-image congruency), self-image product-image congruency can be used to assess global images and study the discrepancy between self and products or brands.

Table 3: Global assessment of self-image product image congruency

Adapted from Aron O'Cass and Kenny Lim (2002)

Instruction: These items relate to the images you have of Calvin Klein clothing and your own self-image. Think for a moment about the way you actually see yourself (your actual self) and how you would ideally like to be (your ideal self). Then read each statement and respond to how you see Calvin Klein and how you see your actual self and your ideal self. (1 is strongly agree; 6 is strongly disagree)
Calvin Klein's image is very similar to my own actual image. 1 2 3 4 5 6
The brand's image and my own actual image are very similar. 1 2 3 4 5 6
Calvin Klein portrays an image very similar to the image I would ideally like to have and portray. 1 2 3 4 5 6
The image I would ideally like to have and portray and the image of Calvin Klein are very similar. 1 2 3 4 5 6

2.3.1 Image Congruence Hypothesis and Consumption Situation

Factors beyond characteristics of the person and of the product that influence the purchasing and/or using of products and services define consumption situation. Yet, situational effects can be behavioural (such as entertaining a friend) or perceptual (such as being depressed) (Kakkar and Lutz, 1981). It is easy to understand that consumers tailor their purchases to specific situations, and that the way they feel at a particular point in time affects what they feel like doing or buying. Smart marketing people should recognize these effects, and tailor their messages and efforts to match with situations in which consumers are most prone to purchase.

According to Kakkar and Lutz, consumers respond to marketing influences and the situation simultaneously but they do not respond to stimuli such as advertisements and products presented by marketing people in isolation. To truly understand a consumer's behaviour, we must recognize the consumer's primary

stimulus object, such as an advertisement or a product that the consumer is responding to, and about the situation in which the response is happening (Kakkar and Lutz, 1981). To sum up, a key marketing learning is that consumers often react and behave very differently depending on the situations.

According to Belk (1975), consumer behaviour falls under four types of situations. They are the communications situation, the purchase situation, the usage situation and the disposition situation. First, the communications situation in which consumers receive information has a big effort on their behaviour. Therefore, a marketer should be able to communicate an effective message to consumers who are interested in the product and are in a receptive communication mood. Nonetheless, it is not an easy task to find high-interest potential buyers in receptive communications situations. For example, it will be extremely difficult to communicate to your target customers if they have the flu. Second, the purchase situation in which a purchase is made can affect consumer behaviour. Therefore, a marketer should try to understand how purchase situations affect consumers so as to develop effective marketing strategies that increase the purchase of their products. For example, the decision to purchase the product will change when we see there is a long queue at the checkout counter. Third, the usage situations in which the product may become appropriate. Based on this knowledge, marketer can demonstrate in each relevant usage situation how their products create consumer satisfaction. For example, the decision to consume beverage with one's parents for lunch as opposed to with one's best friends for dinner. Fourth, the disposition situation in which an old product disposition must happen before or simultaneously with the new product acquisition. Therefore, in order to develop more effective and ethical products and marketing campaigns, marketing people need to understand how situational influences affect disposition decisions. For example, one's disposition decision may change when one has finished reading the newspaper after class and note that one is running late for a football game.

In terms of the third consumption/ usage situation, Graeff (1996), Dolich (1969), Ross (1971) and Munson (1974) have studied the different effects of self-concept on both private and publicly consumed goods or in other words the conspicuousness of products. For instance, Munson's (1974) study was concerned with the conspicuousness of products and the social class interaction of their consumers. Munson's results showed that preference for conspicuous products was

related to ideal self-concept for upper-middle class respondents. However, lower class respondents' preferences were not related to either ideal or actual self-concepts for neither conspicuous nor inconspicuous products. On the other hand, Dolich (1969), Ross (1971) and Sirgy (1982) had anticipated that the ideal self-concepts would be more closely related to product preference in regard to highly conspicuous products than the actual self-concepts. Furthermore, for inconspicuous products, it had been expected the actual self-concept would be more closely related to product preference than to the ideal self-concepts. However, their results have not supported these expectations.

Graeff (1996) used the self-monitoring levels as one of his variables. His study results support the argument that "high-self monitoring is associated with a greater effect of image congruence on consumers' evaluation of publicly consumed products, but not privately consumed ones" (Graeff 1996) and "consumers' evaluation of publicly consumed products are more affected by the congruence between ideal image and brand image than actual self-image, meanwhile ideal and actual congruence have same effects on consumers' evaluations of privately consumed product" (Graeff, 1996).

To date, most studies of image congruence have been undertaken with genuine (original) branded products and they have shown that congruence between self-image and brand-image is positively related to consumers' product evaluations.

Based on the above considerations, the following hypotheses are suggested:

H1: Counterfeit Image Congruence would have a positive association with the intent to purchase counterfeit products.

H2: The effects of Counterfeit Image Congruence on product evaluations would be strongly related to ideal congruence than actual congruence.

2.4 Self-monitoring and Social Roles

As consumers assume diverse social roles, they put on different selves like actors who perform in a theatre. Each role requires its own props, script and costumes (Goffman, 1959). A person learns what others expect from the role and develops the behaviour necessary to meet these expectations. Whether the role is that of husband, boss, or student, different aspects of the self come into play and are manifested in person's behaviour. Some components of the self are more active in one role than in another. As a parent, the individual may be caring, affectionate, and giving – characteristics that may not be apparent in the same person's role as a boss. Some identities are more central to the self than others. An individual's identity as a parent can be more central than that as a tennis player. The degree of centrality of identity is instrumental in determining the seriousness an individual places on performing what is expected from the role. The importance of role recognition to marketers lies in the observation that people are often concerned about the impression they make on others. An elevated level of sensitivity about the image that a person communicates to those around her or him, results in heightened concern about the appropriateness of one's consumption-related behaviours. Those who demonstrate greater public self-consciousness are sometimes referred to as high self-monitors.

High self-monitors are intensely familiar with the way they present themselves within social environments. In contrast to low self-monitors, high self-monitors are more apt to select products depended on their estimates of how these products will be perceived by others (Holbrook et al., 1990). Such persons tend to be more interested in heavier users of cosmetics and clothing (Solomon and Schopler, 1982). The degree to which a consumer is a high or low self-monitor can be gauged by the extent to which he or she agrees or disagrees with statements such as "I guess I put on show to impress or entertain others" and "I would possibly make a good actor" (Snyder and Gangestad, 1986). The self-monitoring will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

2.4.1 Self-Monitoring and Image Congruence

One of the variables used in image congruence research was self-monitoring. Self-monitoring has received more and more attention from both consumer behaviour researchers as well as from social psychologists since firstly being introduced by Snyder (1974). Self-monitoring reflects the degree to which a person observes and controls his or her expressive behaviour and self-presentation in accord with social cues (Snyder, 1979; Gould, 1993). High self-monitors control their expressive self-presentation for the sake of desired public appearance (Graeff, 1996). According to Snyder (1974), they also possess the skills to take notice of social cues for their own self-presentation. However, the low self-monitors lack either the desire to regulate their expressive self-presentation or the ability (Snyder and Gangsted, 1986). Thus, it would be correct to say that high self-monitors are more possibly to act in accord with social norms than low self-monitors.

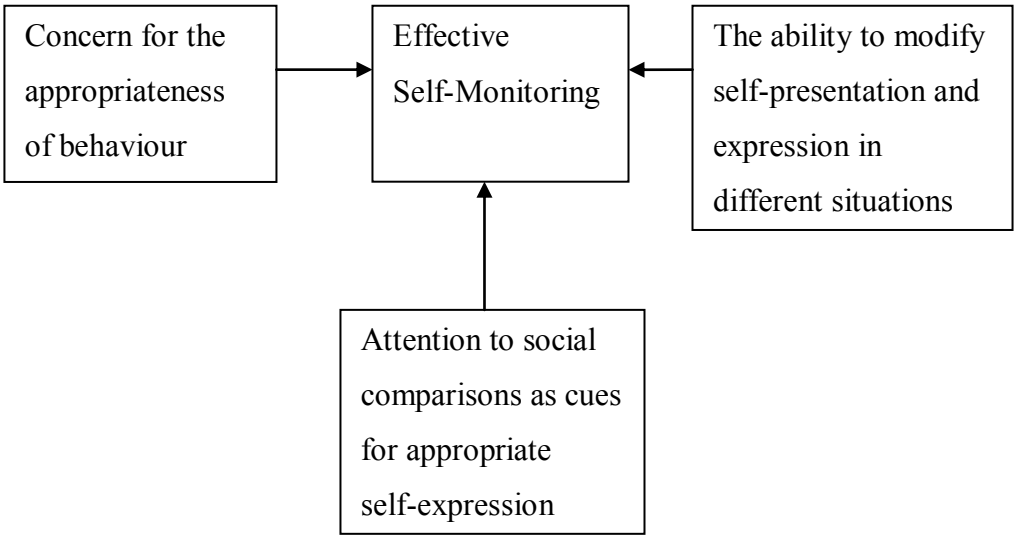


Figure 5: Self-monitoring – Three forms of expression

Self-monitoring has three forms of expression (figure 5): concern for the appropriateness of behaviour, the ability to modify self-presentation and expression across situation, and attention to social comparisons as cues for appropriate self-expression (Nantel and Strahle, 1986). In other words, people ensure that their

behaviour is appropriate for the occasion by observing what others are doing and by acting in harmony with that behaviour. Rather like the inexperienced diner who watches others see which knife and fork to use for each course, people take cues from those around them in order to ensure polite behaviour. Low self-monitors are more likely to behave according to some inner drive, and may even prefer to be seen as being different from the rest of humanity; high self-monitors are more likely to conform with those around them, and are therefore, more susceptible to appeals to be fashionable.

Snyder (1974) developed the self-monitoring scale to identify the high self-monitors. The statements, high self-monitors agree with, are for example: "When I am unsure how to act in a social situation, I look to the behaviour of others for cues," "In different situations with different people, I often act like very different people", "I am not always the person I appear to be," and "In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else." On the other hand, low self-monitors typically agree with statements such as, "I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or to win their favour," and "I have trouble changing my behaviour to suit different people and different situation". Graeff (1996) has used the scale to identify high and low self monitors. He compared the high and low self-monitors with respect to image congruence and the consumption situations. Graeff (1996) came to the conclusion that high self-monitors present a more congruent image with the products or brands they consume than low-monitors do.

Researchers have studied variables that may potentially moderate the effects of image congruence on product evaluations. Researchers have considered the moderating effects of product conspicuousness (Dolich, 1969; Ross, 1971), social class (Munson, 1974), sex role (Gentry, Doering & O'Brien, 1978), product personalization (Sirgy, 1981), and product ownership (Gentry et al., 1978). However, only a few research studies have examined how personality variables might moderate the image congruence hypothesis. For example, Munson (1974) examined the moderating influence of consumer aggressiveness on the relative influence of actual self-image and ideal self-image on product evaluations.

According to image congruence hypothesis, product evaluations are influenced by the degree of congruence between product-image and self-image. Thus, personality variables related to consumers' awareness of their own

self-concept (image) and the degree to which they are influenced by maintaining and enhancing their self-concept in social settings (dealing with the purchase and the use of products) should moderate the image congruence relationship. Identifying such personality variables may allow marketers to target consumers who may be particularly influenced by image appeals in advertising or promotional activities. As a matter of fact, the results from a number of studies indicate that low self-monitors have more favourable evaluations of product-oriented advertisements promoting product features and functional benefits rather than product image, meanwhile high self-monitors have more favourable evaluations of image-oriented advertisements (Snyder & Debono, 1985, 1987, 1988).

Self-monitoring is one of the important personality traits that help us to understand a particular set of consumer behaviours. Self-monitoring realizes that some consumers are more aware of the external environment cues and will modify their behaviour in such a way that they believe will be socially acceptable. Those consumers who have this tendency to monitor the external environment and modify their behaviour are regarded to as high self-monitors, whereas those who are less sensitive to the external environment are called low self-monitors. In response to criticism of Snyder's scale concerning about the psychometric properties, Lennox and Wolfe (1984) developed a revised self-monitoring scale. The revised self-monitoring scale developed by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) is comprised by 13 items. It uses a 6-point (rating from strongly agree to strongly disagree) bipolar format as opposed to true/ false scale of Snyder (1974). Half of their items are told to measure an individual's ability to modify self-presentation and the other half measure an individual's sensitivity to the expressive behaviour of other factors.

As illustrated in Table 4, measures of self-monitoring tap into this aspect by identifying the sensitivity and ability components. Self-monitoring has also been examined in the context of consumption of specific product types. More importantly, the extent to which consumers possess self-monitoring characteristics might be reflected in brand and product choices due to the differences in concerns for appearance and prestige and orientations.

To illustrate the concept, imagine sitting at a bar where one consumer is intent on talking about the contents and taste of her wine while another consumer is far more concerned with what other people might think of her brand-choice of wine. The first consumer has little regard for what other people might think of her chosen

brand of wine, let alone how she happens to look, while the other is concerned about the brand's image, what it projects to other consumers and whether or not she has worn the right dress for the situation. The former is a typical example of low self-monitor and the latter a classic example of high self-monitor. Always, preoccupied with what others think of their appearance and actions are high self-monitors. They are able to easily interpret situational or interpersonal cues and then respond by modifying their behaviours. Whereas, low self-monitors have little concern with either their social environment or their physical environment and at times might even avoid situations where they might be required to modify their self-images (O'Cass, 2000).

High self-monitors could be thought of as actors on a stage, continually changing their persona to fit the role they believe they are expected to play, and using products (like a prop) to fit in, whereas low self-monitors are relatively insensitive to social cues and often seek products that offer functionality over style or image. High self-monitors have been found to exhibit very different attitudes towards unbranded and branded clothing, believing that an unbranded item must be lower in quality and should be rejected as unacceptable, while low self-monitors seek functional attributes over brand names.

High self-monitors are more affected by visual images in the advertisement and tend to give socially based arguments for product purchases. Low self-monitors normally make their judgement on the quality of argument offered and give utilitarian based arguments for purchase intentions, and they generally believe that they have less control over the market and feel to a certain extent that they are influenced by market events. On the other hand, high self-monitors might feel compulsory to browse so that they could remain aware of any shifts in fashion trends and clothing brands that they need as props to project a desired image (O'Cass, 2001).

Table 4: Self-monitoring measure (Revised version of the Lennox and Wolfe self-monitoring scale)

Ability factor
• When I feel that the image I am portraying is not working, I can readily change it to something that does. • In a social situation, I have the ability to alter my behaviour if I feel that something else is called for. • I have found that I can adjust my behaviour to meet the requirements of any situation in which I find myself. • I have trouble changing my behaviour to suit different people and different situation. • Once I know what a situation calls for, it is easy for me to regulate my actions accordingly.
Sensitivity factor
• In conversations, I am sensitive to even the slightest change in the facial expression of the person with whom I am conversing. • I am often able to read people's true emotions correctly (through their eyes). • My powers of intuition are quite good when it comes to understanding the emotions and motives of others. • I can usually tell when I have said something inappropriate by reading it in the listener's eyes. • I can usually tell when others consider a joke to be in bad taste, even though they may laugh convincingly. • If someone is lying to me, I usually know it immediately from that person's way of expression.

Therefore, one of the purposes of this study is to examine the effects of self-monitoring within the context of image congruence hypotheses. High self-monitors are more aware of their own expressive behaviours and self-presentation and are more affected by maintaining and enhancing their own self-image. Compared to high self-monitors, low self-monitors tend to be less responsive to appeals that reflect the image of the self they strive to be in social situations. Graeff (1996) has used the scale to identify low and high self-monitors.

He compared the low and high self-monitors with respect to image congruence and consumption situations. Graeff (1996) came to the conclusion that high self-monitors present a more congruent image with the brands or products they consume than low monitors do.

Accordingly, this study also tries to test the following hypothesis:

H3: The effect of Image congruence on intent to purchase counterfeit product would be stronger for high self-monitors than for low self-monitors.

2.5 Buyers of Counterfeit Branded Product in China

Lu et al. (2006) undertook a qualitative study using focus groups of buyer and non-buyer of counterfeit branded products. The focus groups, in Beijing and Shanghai, consisted 30 people, aged from 20 to 47 years. All were middle-class professional with different income levels. The analysis of the study revealed eight profiles of counterfeit consumers as follows:

1) The tourist – is typically someone who buys a counterfeit branded product on their vacations or travels as a souvenir for herself or for someone in her immediate circle.
2) The rationalist – is a consumer who refuses to pay a high price for a product she thinks is not worth it, believing the high price to reflect only the marketing costs rather than the actual cost of the product. This type of buyer is very rational in her purchasing decision-making in general.
3) The show-off - is someone who buys counterfeit branded goods bearing the iconic logos and trademarks of the genuine brands. What show-off is looking for is the immediate recognition by others of the brand she carries. She wants to make sure everyone knows she has the trendy brand of the moment. She will attempt to convince others she has the genuine brands. She buys well-known brands to convey social status and image to others.

4) The imitator - is a consumer who buys counterfeits to copy her celebrity idols (for example, a pop star or a famous singer or actress) or a group of people of a social class to which they know they want to belong.

5) The conformist - is a consumer who buys counterfeits to fit in with and, more importantly, be accepted by her social or peer group. An example often cited was that of a consumer who would feel obliged to buy a brand that every other member of her group had. If she could not afford to buy the genuine brand, she choose a good quality counterfeit and was constantly scared of the day someone would realize it was a counterfeit.

6) The hedonist - is someone who buys genuine branded products as well as counterfeit branded products, depending on her mood and often her own instant pleasure. This type of buyer consumes for her own pleasure and enjoys the opportunity to fool her friends. She is often able to get away with the counterfeit products because her friends hardly know which is counterfeit and which is genuine.

7) The fooled - is a consumer who buys counterfeits by mistake. She may buy it from internet auction site (for example, e-Bay / TaoBao Net in China) or from an unauthorized dealer without knowing it.

8) The rebel – is someone who purchases counterfeits to protect against the dominance of established brands that often care only about their profits. She refuses to contribute to the growth of the genuine brands. She may also buy counterfeits just because they are illegal and enjoy the excitement for breaking the law.

2.6 Other Variables

It has been suggested that there are more factors which can influence the Image Congruence. According to Sirgy (1982), moderator variables used for the Image Congruence studies were mainly product conspicuousness, product sex-typing, product personalisation, attitude vs. behaviour, product ownership, self confidence, sex and personality type. In terms of consumption situation, Graeff (1996), Dolich (1969), Ross (1971) and Munson (1974) have studied the different effects of self-concept on both private and publicly consumed goods, i.e. the conspicuousness of products. For instance, Munson's (1974) study was interested in the conspicuousness of products and the social class interaction of their consumers. Munson's results indicated that preference in lower class respondents was not related to either actual or ideal self-concepts for neither conspicuous nor inconspicuous products. However, preference for conspicuous products was related to ideal self-concept for upper class respondents.

There are three additional potential factors which have not studied in the concept of image congruence thus far. The first is the urban vs. rural residence, the second is the non-minority vs. minority ethnic groups and the third is minority vs. majority religious groups. It has been found that these variables have a significant effect on the adoption or purchase of products or services (Bridges, Florsheim and John, 1996).

Other factors underlying consumer counterfeiting behaviour suggested in the previous study include the sanctions and penalty related with criminal behaviour, direct or indirect social pressure (Ang, Cheng, Lim and Tambyah, 2001; Albers-Miller, 1999) and religiosity (Stoettinger and Penz, 2003). As expected, the price advantage of counterfeit branded product relative to genuine branded product still plays a key role in consumers' on-going demand for Counterfeits (Bloch, Bush and Campbell, 1993; Stoettinger and Penz, 2003). Apart from price, income, product-life cycles (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987), counterfeit proness (Sharma and Chan, 2011), and cultural difference in attitude toward counterfeit (Kwong et al., 2009) are also important variables to be considered.

2.7 Development of the Counterfeit Purchase Study

As discussed, previous research on counterfeiting mainly emphasizes on its "supply" side. To fight the 'supply' side of the counterfeit, manufacturing companies employs various anti-pirate strategies, such as packaging change and publicity of the damage of counterfeiting (Olsen and Granzin, 1992). However, empirical study on the "demand" for counterfeit brands is still far from sufficient as there is no single theory able to capture the diversity of counterfeits with respect to either product-type dependency or quality. To date, most publications focus on awareness, demography, customer attitudes and buying intentions (Staake et al., 2009) (Table 5).

Table 5: Relevant Publications on the Development of Counterfeit Purchase

Author(s)	Year	Brief description
Grossman and Shapiro	1988	Demand price curve on counterfeit and genuine items.
Tom et al.	1998	Survey that found young and low income more likely to buy counterfeit. (US)
Bloch et al.	1993	Study that indicated counterfeit consumers are of lower status and less confident.
Wee et al.	1995	Study that indicated product attribute variables impact purchase decision than demographic factors.
Chakraborty et al.	1996	Study that indicated high ethnocentrism increases customers' feeling of guilt if goods is made in USA
Cordell et al.	1996	Study that tested relationship between: willingness to buy counterfeit product and their attitude toward lawfulness; expected performance of fakes and intention to buy fakes in the future; likeliness to intentionally buy counterfeit.
Chang	1998	Validity of the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behavior in illegal software copying. Perceived behavioral control was

		found to be more important.
Swee et al.	2001	Survey that found less income group buy more counterfeit and consider it less risky and less unethical. (Asian)
Wagner and Sanders	2001	Study that found religion impact counterfeit decision.
Prendergast et al.	2002	Survey that found price, product quality, friends' opinion all impact buying counterfeit. (HK)
Tan	2002	Survey that found moral intensity scale of consequences, social risk, financial ability all impact decision on buying counterfeit. (China)
Hoe et al.	2003	Study that found fashion counterfeit to be substitute for designer brands and helped build confidence. (UK)
Hung	2003	Study on origin of counterfeit in China due to high domestic demand. (China)
Balkin et al.	2004	Study that indicated piracy improves value of intellectual property.
Penz and Stottinger	2005	Study on purchase decision on fashion accessories, CDs, watches and found expected quality as major factor. (Australian)
Wang et al.	2005	Survey that found personal and social factors have important impact on buying counterfeit. (Chinese)
Cheung and Prendergast	2006a	Study that found middle and high income group buy more counterfeit CDs and female buy more counterfeit apparel. (Asian)
Gentry et al.	2006	Survey that found high price of original software makes people buy counterfeit. (Chinese)
Bian and Veloutsou	2007	Study of British and Chinese consumers who bought counterfeit but perceive them as similar to non-logo product.
de Matos et al.	2007	Survey that found attitudes (perceived risk, experience, subjective norm, integrity, price-quality inference and personal gratification) had impact on buying counterfeit.(Brazil)
Wan et al.	2009	Survey that found face consciousness, favourable

		deontological judgment and perceived social benefits had important impact on buying counterfeit. (Hong Kong)
Kwong et al.	2009	Survey that indicated Chinese and Western consumers were different on social cost of counterfeiting, social benefit of reproduction and anti-big business mentality except ethical belief.
Sharma and Chan	2011	A scale to measure counterfeit proneness (CFP).

Previous study indicated that counterfeiting was a disaggregation of product and brand and there were depreciation effects of the demand-price relationships in markets with counterfeit and genuine products (Grossman and Shapiro 1998). Since then, some studies have shown interest in identifying key determinants that affect consumer choice of counterfeited brand products. Penz and Stottinger (2005) based on the theory of planned behaviour to come up with a model to explain the key drivers for the demand of the counterfeit and found that search cost and availability were main factors on counterfeit purchase. Gentry et al. (2006) examined counterfeiting from a consumer search perspective using picture of cues and discovered factors positively affecting purchase decisions of counterfeits were low investment risks, low prices and the fun of showing counterfeit brands to friends in Western market. However, loss of face formed a main obstacle for Chinese customers to buy counterfeit. Several other contributions had also focused on examining customer towards counterfeits. de Matos et al. (2007), for instance, found that attitudes such as perceived risk, experience, subjective norm, integrity, price-quality inference and personal gratification had an impact on buying counterfeit in Brazil. Wan et al. (2009) found face consciousness, favourable deontological judgment and perceived social benefits could have important impact on buying counterfeit in Hong Kong. Recently, Sharma and Chan (2011) developed a scale to measure what they called counterfeit proneness (CFP) and validated it via a series of empirical studies. By and large, for non-deceptive counterfeiting, more study effort is needed to analyze the consumer buying behaviour in test markets with and without counterfeit products and the impact of trademarks, brands and company goodwill on consumer buying intentions (Staake et al., 2009).

3. CHAPTER THREE-Research Design & Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Although image congruence is referred to as an important issue in consumer behaviour and has important marketing implications, it has not received the attention it has deserved. Research in image congruence subject goes back to Gardner and Levy (1955) who were the first researchers to mention and discuss the congruity between product-image and actual self-image. Since then, many different techniques and measures have been adopted and applied to this area of research.

Methodological differences between studies are specifically in terms of type of self-concepts, self-concept (and product image) measures, congruity models, dependent and moderator variables, sample populations and products or brands. Furthermore, different techniques were used or suggested for the creation of individual image dimensions. The methodology of this study will discuss each of these differences briefly.

This research study is mostly based on Graeff's 1996 study. However, it includes several modifications and techniques of other researchers such as Sirgy (1982) and Malhotra (1981) regarding the use of those image dimensions that are highly related to the brand being tested to ensure high image saliency and the use of cluster analysis to further examine and classify subjects as either high or low self-monitors instead of using the usual median split approach.

3.2 Types of Self-Concept

As discussed in the literature review, many of the self-concept dimensions (i.e. ideal self-image and actual self-image) were used to examine the congruity between product-image and self-image. However, it was the actual self-image which has received the most attention from researchers, such as Lamone (1966), Birdwell (1964), Green et al. (1969), Ross (1971), and Bellenger et al. (1976). Ideal self-image was generally used within the context of actual self-image, for

example, Dolich (1969), Munson (1974), Belch (1977) and Sirgy (1982), Sirgy and Danes (1981), Hong and Zinkhan (1995) and Graeff (1996, 1997). More recent studies (Graeff, 1997) did use both ideal and actual self-image together with other self-concept dimensions, such as social self, sex-role self and situational ideal self-image.

Therefore, self-concept dimensions used in this study are actual self-image and ideal self-image to go along with the recent studies. Both actual self-image and ideal self-image are considered as static measures of self-image. One of the objectives of this study is to compare the effects of ideal self-image to the actual self-image measure on their brand evaluations.

3.3 Self-image Measures

As discussed previously, the main differences in the context of self-image measures are the variations in the scales used to measure the images of self and product. The most common measurement approach is the semantic differential. Malhotra (1981) has come up with a set of fifteen pairs of adjectives show in table 2. These adjectives have proven effective in describing the actual, ideal, and social-concepts of individuals and images of automobiles and celebrities. This instrument can be used to make sure a match among the actual self-concept or ideal self-concept of a target group, the image of a brand, and the characteristics of an advertising spokeswomen. For example, in its decision to sign Serena Williams to a multi-year endorsement contract, Nike undoubtedly saw a match between the desired self-concept of a young woman, the desired image for Nike's women's athletic-apparel line, and the image of Serena William (Kang, 2003).

This study used a seven-point semantic differential scale. Previous research had mainly made use of four self-concept measures, these were semantic differential scale, the product anchored Q-Method, standardised personality measures and the Sirgy (1997) direct product-user images and self images method.

3.3.1 Semantic Differential Scale

Developed by Charles Osgood in 1957, Semantic differential scales are commonly used when study want interval data where the data can be measured and arranged in order. Semantic differential scales are able to measure subject's attitude toward concepts, such as marketing and personality measurements, and may be useful in situations with different age segments or even culture because researchers can easily manipulate and construct appropriate scales for the subjects to use (Osgood et al., 1957). Nonetheless, the pairs of words need not be exactly opposite and that may be used to discover fine differences in viewpoint. Moreover, the key advantage of using the scale is that researcher can let subjects decide where they fall within the rating system objectively without biases. However, there are 2 key disadvantages in using semantic differential method. First, the lack of standardization (and factorization) of the scales so that the results lack specific meaning and direction for the researchers. Second, the true valance of the scales is rarely captured or understood in the traditional semantic differential method (Mehrabian, 1995).

For measuring image, the current leading measurement method is the semantic differential scale; this has generally been used with a seven-point scale. Respondents are asked to rate adjectives on scales varying from 1-5 to 1-10. For example, if the two bi-polar adjectives are masculine and feminine, a score of 1, would suggest a very strong image of masculinity. However, a score of 7 would mean that the respondent refers to a very strong feminine image.

3.3.2 The product-Anchored Q-Method

Although this method has received some criticisms (French and Glaschner, 1971; Sirgy, 1982) for several shortcomings, it has still been used by researchers such as Belch et al. (1977). This method consists of asking the respondents to describe themselves in terms of products, for example, frozen orange juice, shoes, catsup and potatoes (Green et al., 1973). There are three major criticisms with this method. First, some respondents may find it difficult to describe themselves in terms of products (French and Glaschner, 1971). Second, many products used do not seem to have strong personality stereotypic associations (Sirgy, 1982). Third,

the method fails to differentiate between product-images and self-images; this would prevent attempts to model the self-concept/ product-image congruity process. Therefore, this particular method should be avoided in the image congruence studies (Sirgy, 1982).

3.3.3 The standardised personality measures and Sirgy's new direct method

Sirgy et al. (1997) identified three major problems with the traditional method for measuring self-concept. Firstly, the possible use of the discrepancy scores. Secondly, the use of possible not relevant images (adjectives). Last, the use of possible compensatory decision rules. Therefore, Sirgy et al. (1997) suggested a new approach to measure the self-image congruence directly via the use of self-images and product-user images.

For measuring actual self-congruity, respondents are asked to describe the brand's "typical user" first and after that characterize congruence with their own self-image:

> "Take a moment to think about (brand x). Think about the kind of consumer who typically uses (brand x). Image this consumer in your mind and then describe this consumer using one or more personal adjectives such as stylish, classy, masculine, sexy, old, athletic, or whatever personal adjective you can use to describe this typical consumer of brand (x).
>
> Once you have done this, indicate your agreement or disagreement to the following statement: (brand x) is consistent with how I see myself".

Right after giving characters to the brand user-image, respondents mark their responses on five-point likert scales (i.e. strongly agree = 1 and strongly disagree = 5) pertaining to the above self-image statements for their own actual self-image. This method attempts to measure directly the congruity experience and it does not need to use the distance scores (which will be discussed later). The procedure will be repeated for measuring ideal self-congruity. Our study here will be using the traditional semantic differential scale to measure brand and self images following the suggestions of previous research (Graeff, 1996). One key advantage of using semantic differential scale here is to make our respondents feel more ease and less tension in answering the survey questions as we are dealing with counterfeit brand and that the respondents may feel uncomfortable due to ethical and offensive issues.

It should be noted that purchasing of counterfeit products has been described or labelled as "aberrant consumer behaviour" (Tom et al, 1988). As discussed before, using this traditional method requires bipolar adjectives which respondents will use to describe images. Therefore, it is important to use the most relevant adjectives.

3.4 Image Adjective Selection

There are different methods of selecting the individual image adjectives. Researchers have used general adjectives extracted from personality inventories, for instance, Bellenger et al. (1976). Others have chosen to select the adjectives from attributes most related to the products tested, for example, Birdwell (1968) and Schewe and Dillon (1978). Most recent studies have generally used, as suggested by Sirgy (1982), only those adjectives which are most related to the branded products being examined. In order to do so, pre-test interviews (Hogg et. al. 2000) will be incorporated.

Before the design of the initial questionnaire, all adjectives, which were offered by respondents, would be pre-tested with a questionnaire. This was to select only the most relevant bi-polar adjectives. These pre-tests would test the relevance of adjectives, (for example, 50 adjectives used in the case of Graeff 1996 and 1997), and only those which were rated consistently at least moderately relevant would be used in the main study.

Based on Graeff (1996, 1997) study, 35 adjectives (dimensions) were gathered from previous self-image research, and then combined with the 15 adjectives (dimensions) adopted from the Malhotra (1981) measuring self-concepts scale to develop the full set of 50 image measures for the study.

As mentioned, Malhotra (1981) has developed a set of 15 pairs of adjective as shown in the table 6 below. They have been proven effective in describing the ideal self-concepts and actual self-concepts of consumers. This particular instrument can be used to ensure a match between the image of a brand, the self-concept (actual or ideal), and the characteristics of an advertising spokesperson.

Table 6: Malhotra (1981) Scale to Measure Self-Images and Product-Images

Self-concept measure							
Please rate how you see yourself on the following descriptive word pairs by circling a number in each row closer to the word that describes you.							
Exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Calm
Rugged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Delicate
Uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Comfortable
Dominating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Submissive
Thrifty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Indulgent
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Unpleasant
Contemporary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Uncontemporary
Organized	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Unorganized
Rational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Emotional
Youthful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Mature
Formal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Informal
Complex	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Simple
Orthodox	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Liberal
Colourless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Colourful
Modest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 Vain

Fifty pre-test respondents were then asked how relevant each of these fifty different image dimensions was to characterizing or representing the personality of the typical user of the target brand (Gucci) after they were given precise instructions about the nature of the counterfeit product under discussion. Each image dimension was then rated on a 7-point likert scale (ranging from "Not at all=1 to Very much associated with representing the personality of the typical consumer of the brand =7"). The objective of such was to identify a smaller and relevant set of image dimensions for describing the image of the brand. Only 12 of these dimensions were used in this study to measure brand image with a score at least equal to 4.5 on the 7-point scale followed previous study by Graeff (1996, 1997) and Dennis et al. (2002). The image dimension used in this study were: rugged – delicate, exciting – calm, uncomfortable – comfortable, dominating – submission, thrifty – indulgent, pleasant – unpleasant, contemporary – uncontemporary, rational –

emotional, youthful – mature, formal – informal, complex – simple, colourless – colourful.

The full set of fifty adjectives and their corresponding relevance scores are illustrated in Table 7 below.

Table 7: Full set of 50 adjectives used and their corresponding relevance scores

Delicate 6	**Contemporary** 7	Orthodox 2	Angry 1	Warm 3
Positive 4	Creative 4	Compliant 2	Dutiful 2	**Dominating** 5
Exciting 6	Organized 3.5	**Complex** 4.5	Depressed 2	Gregarious 1
Fantastic 4	Sentimental 4	Practical 4	Deliberative 3.5	Confident 2.5
Conscientious 3.5	**Rational** 5.5	**Colourful** 6	Self-conscious 2	Assertive 2.5
Aesthetic 4	Trustable 4	Tender-minded 4	Sexy 4	Classic 4
Indulgent 6	**Youthful** 6	Modest 4	Impulsive 3	Active 4
Feeling 4	Straightforward 2	Competent 4	Feminine 4	Playful 4
Pleasant 7	**Formal** 4.5	Anxious 2	Vulnerable 2	**Comfortable** 5.5
Actionable 2	Altruistic 2	Orderly 2	Trendy 4	Adventurous 4

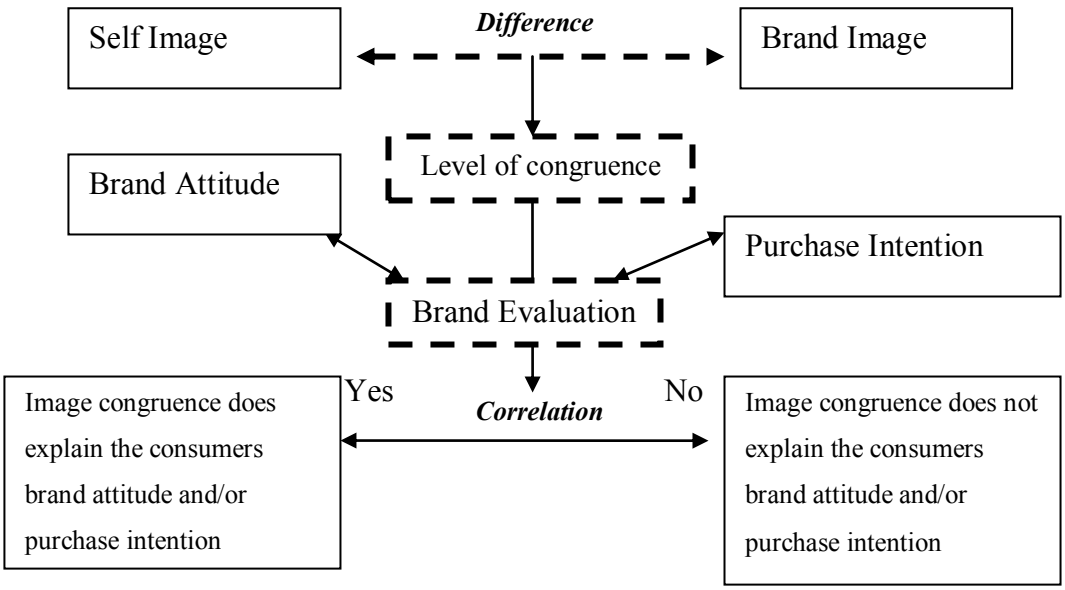
The twelve chosen dimensions were virtually covered in the Malhotra's (1981) scale set with the exception of 3 sets of pair: organized – unorganized, orthodox – liberal and modest – vain. Malhotra's (1981) scale has been proven effective in describing the actual and ideal concepts of individual consumers with acceptable level of reliability (alpha coefficients are in the range of 0.5 to 0.7) and validity through the use of three analytical procedures – factor analysis, cluster

analysis and regression fitting technique. Therefore, this particular scale was adopted in this study.

3.5 Congruity Models

Many different distance models (also known as congruence models) have been used in image congruence studies. The most common ones are the simple-difference model, weighted simple difference model, simple-difference divisional model, Euclidean-distance model and the weighted divisional model (all common models are shown in the APPEDNIX B). Out of all these models, according to Sirgy and Danes (1981) compared a number of traditionally used congruence models as discussed before, Euclidean-distance model was generally as good as the other newer models, such as interactive congruence in terms of its predictability to purchase intentions. To replicate and to compare with previous research like Graeff (1996) and Parker (2009), this study has used the Euclidean-distance model to calculate difference scores reflecting actual and ideal congruence. These difference scores are then correlated with respondents' brand evaluations. Figure 6 explains the two main steps of the calculation in image congruence. The mean difference score of a self-image (actual, ideal self-image) and the brand image were calculated to identify the level of congruence for that type of self-image (either actual or ideal). After that, the level of congruence must then be compared (correlated) with brand evaluation (a combination of both brand attitude and purchase intention). The extent of the correlation would indicate if image congruence influences the brand evaluation. In this study, "difference" refers to the distance between self-image and brand-image and "correlation" is the correlation between "distance" and the brand evaluation.

As the final step, correlation between brand evaluation and image congruence (actual and ideal) were then analysed to see if the effect of image congruence on brand evaluations was stronger for high self-monitors or for low self-monitors.



Note: "Difference" refers to the distance between self-image and brand-image.
"Correlation" is the correlation between "distance" and the brand evaluation.

Figure 6: Two main steps of the calculation in image congruence

3.6 Dependent and Moderator Variable – Self-monitoring

The dependent variables in this study were purchase intentions and brand attitudes. Purchase intentions were measured by asking subjects to indicate how likely they would be to buy the product if they could afford. Following Graeff (1996), these intentions were measured on a 7-point likert scale varying from "Extremely unlikely" to "Extremely likely". Brand attitudes were measured on three, 7-point semantic differential scales (bipolar labels = unfavourable-favourable, good-bad, dislike-like) based on Fishbein's attitude model (Mitchell and Olsen, 1981). According to Graeff (2013), "In social sciences, we often create indices of multiple items where each individual item measures a component (or dimension) of a multidimensional construct. A person's overall feeling, or evaluation, toward a brand is made up of many aspects, including attitudes and purchase intentions. I combined them by simply taking the average of the items for each subject". It was because the average correlation between purchase intentions and brand attitude was

0.81, the three attitude scales and the purchase intentions were then averaged to form a measure of subjects' overall brand evaluation. These measures were reliable. Cronbach's coefficient alpha of these four-item scales was 0.85 and 0.82 respectively for genuine and counterfeit.

Moderator variable in this study was the level of self-monitoring. The self-monitoring scale will be administered in the last part of the questionnaire. Self-monitoring will be measured with the 25-item scale originally developed by Snyder (1974). It consists of a set of true-false descriptive statements which describe: ability to control and modify one's self-presentation and expressive behaviour; concern with social appropriateness of one's self-presentation; attention to social comparison information as cues to situational appropriate expressive self-presentation; and the use of this ability in certain situations. The subjects are then classified as either low or high self-monitors, based on the scores obtained from the median split as suggested by previous research (Graeff, 1996), (Spangenberg, 2006). In addition, the study will also try to explore other alternatives of classification by making use of Cluster Analysis to organize subject data into 2 groups (low self-monitors and high self-monitors) in a way that the degree of association between 2 groups is maximal should they belong to the same group and minimal otherwise (making use of the k-Means Clustering).

3.7 Sample Populations

Respondents were undergraduate Chinese students registered in business study courses. The study was conducted in a classroom not receiving any incentive for participation. An information sheet would be given to each student (Appendix D) and it stated clearly that this survey was completely voluntary and anonymous. Survey instruments (disguised as consumer product questionnaires) containing the experimental measures were conducted in a classroom setting during normal school hours. The average age of student in this study was 22.

In this study, we chose student as our sample for two main reasons. First, it allows the results of this study be able to compare with that reported earlier in Graeff (1996). Secondly, according to Elsend and Pakize (2006) and Sharma and Chan

(2011) study, it was reported that young people was much more likely to purchase counterfeit products.

A convenience sampling of a homogenous group of 200 Chinese students was adopted using the sample size equation (Cavana et al., 2001). Assuming maximum heterogeneity (a 50/50 split), the sample size of 200 (n=200) was derived for a confidence level of 95% and confidence interval (margin of error) of +/- 5. A total of 223 survey questionnaires were collected in the classroom with a view of some buffer for the incomplete (to be discarded) forms. Informal interviews with 50 Chinese students were used for the (image-dimension adjective selection and self-monitoring scale) pre-test. All Chinese students were from the same age group as the main group.

3.8 Products

In regard to the product, past research has been focused on branded products, usually well-known ones. Examples were Budweiser, Reebok and Heineken (Graeff, 1996, 1997). However, there were cases where the brands were unknown or even fictional (Hong and Zinkan, 1995).

The brands for this study were selected from upmarket luxury brands for which shoppers would normally expect to pay a small fortune. That desirability and exclusivity were the very first thing counterfeiters exploit when they traded in the counterfeit branded product market.

Selection procedure for brands:

1. A set of brands were identified through preliminary research (informal interviews with students were used to begin the process of selecting the chosen brands to be used in the main test);
2. They were well advertised and therefore well-known amongst college students;
3. They were easily available and used by either male or female students;
4. They were ‘must have’ when projecting image;

5. They must rely heavily on image appeals in their advertising according to Graeff (1997), this was one of the major criteria to include a brand into an image congruence study and
6. They were commonly found in the black market by counterfeiters.

This procedure generated a list of 7 potential brands.

1) Louis Vuitton
2) Chanel
3) Calvin Klein
4) Gucci
5) Rolex
6) Ralph Lauren Polo
7) Apple iphone 3

To allow sufficient time for subjects to complete the questionnaire and to achieve the research objectives, one particular brand would be chosen. From the above list, the researcher selected one brand to serve as the target of analysis.

The criteria that we used to choose the brand were: relative homogeneity of the product category, frequency of mention, and uniqueness of image. According to the criteria, the target brand finally selected for the study was **Gucci**.

- By and large, this chapter has tried to identify different variation of research methodology in image congruence studies. The literature review indicates that the selection of congruence model, image measurement scale and bipolar adjective selection have great impact on the research.

3.9 Research Procedures

Following Graeff (1996), pretesting was used to determine the image dimensions in which the brands would be described and to ensure their relevance and validity. Fifty pretest students were requested to indicate how relevant each of the fifty different images dimensions was to describe a typical consumer of the chosen brand as discuss in section 3.4. Each image dimension was rated on a 7-point likert

scale ranging from "Not at all…" to "Very much relevant to describing the typical user personality of this branded product".

As described before, only 12 of these dimensions (see Table 8) were used in this main study to measure brand image with a score at least larger than 4.5 on the 7-point scale. The image dimensions used in this study were as follows:

Table 8: Adjectives used to describe brand Gucci and self-images

youthful – mature	contemporary – uncontemporary	dominating – submission	uncomfortable – comfortable
rugged – delicate	rational – emotional	colourless – colourful	pleasant – unpleasant
formal – informal	active - low energy	thrifty – indulgent	complex – simple

3.10 Questionnaire Design

Having found the most relevant adjectives for the target group and the brand, a questionnaire was designed to compare the congruencies between perceived brand images and the individual's self-images (ideal self-image and actual self-image).

Survey instruments were presented in English (disguised as consumer product questionnaires) containing the experimental measures were conducted in a classroom setting during normal school hours. Students were first asked to think about the brand Gucci (both genuine and counterfeit) for a moment. They would then be asked to indicate their pre-experimental attitudes towards the brand. This was done by questions such as 'how familiar are you with the brand' and 'how much experiences have you had with this brand' and questions related to attitude, where respondents would have to indicate if their attitude was unfavourable-favourable; good-bad; dislike-like.

After that, respondents would be asked to indicate how likely they would buy the genuine brand Gucci if they could afford by selecting the appropriate box on the semantic differential scale which has the bi-polar adjectives, 'extremely likely – extremely unlikely'. The above-mentioned procedure would be repeated for the counterfeit brand Gucci. Next, students indicated their perceived image of the brand (genuine and counterfeit) and their actual and ideal self-image on the 12 image

dimensions (refer to Table 8 for image dimensions). According to Graeff (1996), the measures of self images had to be taken after evaluating the brand. This is necessary to prevent subjects intentionally rating the brand-images consistent with their self-images. For instance, if respondents evaluated one brand favourable and themselves as mature, they could rate the brand mature as well, in order to justify the favourable evaluation (Graeff, 1996).

3.11 Brand and Self-images

As suggested by Graeff (1996) study, students were asked the following questions to measure brand-image and self-image.

To measure the perceived genuine brand-images: (repeat for the counterfeit)

Now I would like you to think about the brand, and rate them on the following scales how you perceive its image.

The question would be followed by 12 bi-polar image dimensions.

To measure for the actual self-image:

Now, think about how you see yourself. I would like you to describe yourself as you actually are. What kind of person are you? How would you describe your personality? On the following scales, tick the boxes that best describes how you actually see yourself.

To measure for the ideal self-image:

Think about how you would like to see yourself. Describe yourself as you would ideally like to be. What kind of person would you like to be? How would you like to be able to describe your own personality? On the following scales, tick the boxes that best represent how you would ideally like to see yourself.

The question would be followed by the same 12 bi-polar image dimensions as described above.

3.12 Self-Monitoring Scale

Snyder's Self-Monitoring Scale (1974) was used and measured with the 25 items and it was administered in the last part of the questionnaire. The self-monitoring scores will be bisected at the median in order to categorise respondents into either high or low self-monitoring groups (Hogg et al, 2000; Graeff, 1996; Spangenberg, 2006). Self-monitoring consists of a set of true-false descriptive statements which describe: ability to control and modify one's self-presentation and expressive behaviour; concern with social appropriateness of one's self-presentation; attention to social comparison information as cues to situational appropriate expressive self-presentation; and the use of this ability in certain situations. According to Graeff (1996), the scale of self-monitoring had a Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 (KR-20) reliability of 0.73 which showed good internal consistency reliability. Snyder's original scale was used and preferred in this study as it measured "concern for social appropriateness" which was important and related to the ethical counterfeit issues. The level of self-monitoring was the moderator variable in this study.

Self-monitoring is one of the key personality traits that help us to understand a particular set of consumer behaviours. Self-monitoring realizes that some consumers are more aware of the external environment cues and will modify their behaviour according to what they believe will be socially acceptable. Those consumers who have this tendency to monitor the external environment and modify their behaviour are classified as high self-monitors, whereas those who are less sensitive to the external environment are classified as low self-monitors. In response to criticism of Snyder's scale concerning about the psychometric properties, Lennox and Wolfe (1984) developed a revised self-monitoring scale. The revised self-monitoring scale developed by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) is comprised by 13 items. It uses a 6-point (rating from strongly agree to strongly disagree) bipolar format compared to true or false scale of Snyder (1974). Half of their items are told to measure an individual's ability to modify self-presentation and the other half measure an individual's sensitivity to the expressive behaviour of other factors.

As illustrated in Table 4 before, measures of self-monitoring tap into this aspect by identifying the sensitivity and ability components. As discussed, Snyder's original scale was used and preferred in this study as it measured "concern for social

appropriateness" which was important and related to the ethical counterfeit issues and more importantly, we were able to compare the study results with that of the previous study made by Graeff (1996).

The questionnaire would end with questions regarding student gender, age and ethnic background. Students would be debriefed about the true nature of this research study after they completed the questionnaire. Up to now, the Chapter has taken the reader through the preparation of the questionnaire. A copy of the questionnaire is attached in APPENDIX C for reference. The next chapter will present the results and analysis of data obtained from the above described questionnaire.

4. CHAPTER FOUR - Research Findings and Analysis

4.1 Data Preparation – survey questionnaire

A total of 223 survey questionnaires were collected in the classroom with a view of some incomplete forms; 23 survey questionnaires were disqualified and therefore, were discarded before analysis. 200 completed and cleansed questionnaires (n=200) were analyzed to discover the relationships between brand-image and self-image across different levels of self-monitoring.

4.1.1 Demographic Variables - Descriptive Statistics (respondents' profile)

Table 9 reports percentages of the variables and the frequencies describing the profile of the respondents.

According to the table 9, an average majority (61 percent) of the sample consisted of females. According to the way it appeared, the gender distribution was not quite evenly distributed. If this was the extreme case, the distribution might result in sampling errors created by gender bias and so reducing the data reliability.

Majority of the respondents (98.5%) were local Hong Kong Chinese and the minority (1.5%) were the mainland Chinese. Furthermore, 52 percent of the respondents were high self-monitors.

Table 9:

Percentages and Frequencies for the Variables Describing the Sample (n = 200)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	78	39
Female	122	61

Table 9: (cont.)		
Age		
19-25	200	
Ethnicity		
Hong Kong Chinese	197	98.5
Mainland Chinese	3	1.5
Self-monitoring score		
Low (13.00 and below)	96	48
High (13.01 and higher)	104	52

4.1.2 Study Variables

1. The descriptive statistics for the study variables related to the genuine products are displayed in Table 10.
2. The descriptive statistics for the study variables related to the counterfeit products are shown in Table 11.

Table10:

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables Related to Genuine Products (N =200)

Variables	Range	Mean	SD
Purchase intent	1.00 to 7.00	4.51	1.91
Familiarity	2.00 to 7.00	3.76	1.62
Experience	2.00 to 6.00	2.54	2.20
Attitude (combined)	1.00 to 7.00	4.38	1.68
Genuine Gucci-actual congruence	1.00 to 12.37	5.83	2.29
Genuine Gucci-ideal congruence	0 .00 to 18.97	6.28	2.98

Table 11: *Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables Related to Counterfeit Products (n =200)*

Variables	Range	Mean	SD
Purchase intent	1.00 to 7.00	1.68	1.12
Familiarity	2.00 to 7.00	2.66	1.58
Experience	2.00 to 6.00	2.67	1.14
Attitude (combined)	1.00 to 7.00	1.86	1.17
Counterfeit Gucci-actual congruence	0.00 to 17.00	6.71	2.83
Counterfeit Gucci-ideal congruence	0.00 to 18.98	8.30	3.59

When we compare the above two tables (10 and 11), we can observe that the subjects are quite familiar (3.76 versus 2.66) and experience (2.54 versus 2.67) with Gucci to both genuine branded product and counterfeit branded product. Familiarity and experience ratings are measured to exclude respondents from analysis that are not familiar or experience with a particular brand (i.e. below two on a seven-point scale) (Parker, 2009). All 200 surveys are deemed useful. Yet they are generally not interested in the counterfeit brand when we look at both attitude and purchase intention variables. The mean differences for brand attitude and purchase intent are 2.54 and 2.83 respectively, which are quite significant. And such fact can be seen again when we compare the image congruence score between genuine and counterfeit (actual: 5.83 versus 6.71; ideal: 6.28 versus 8.30). The smaller is the score, the greater is the congruence.

4.2 Image Congruence – Congruity Analysis

Image Congruence Analysis was basically operationalized as the distance between respondents' self-image (both actual and ideal images) and brand image score. To calculate difference scores for actual congruence and ideal congruence, a Euclidean distance (generalized) model was employed. Many different distance models (also known as congruence models) have been used in image congruence studies. The most common ones are the simple-difference model, weighted simple difference models, simple-difference divisional model, Euclidean-distance model and the weighted divisional model (all common models are shown in the APPEDNIX B). Out of all these models, according to Sirgy and Danes (1981) who studied and compared different models indicated that Euclidean-distance model was generally as good as the other newer model, such as interactive congruence in terms of its predictability to purchase intentions. Due to its simplicity nature and to replicate and to compare with previous research like Graeff (1996) and Parker (2009), this study has used the Euclidean-distance model (as illustrated below) to calculate difference scores reflecting actual and ideal congruence. These difference scores are then correlated with respondents' brand evaluations.

The **Euclidean distance** between points **p** and **q** is the distance of the line segment connecting them ($\overline{\mathbf{pq}}$).

In Cartesian coordinates, if $\mathbf{p} = (p_1, p_2,..., p_n)$ and $\mathbf{q} = (q_1, q_2,..., q_n)$ are two points in Euclidean *n*-space, then the length from **p** to **q**, or from **q** to **p** is provided by:

$$\mathrm{d}(\mathbf{p},\mathbf{q}) = \mathrm{d}(\mathbf{q},\mathbf{p}) = \sqrt{(q_1 - p_1)^2 + (q_2 - p_2)^2 + \cdots + (q_n - p_n)^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (q_i - p_i)^2}.$$

Subjects' brand evaluations were then correlated with these difference scores. The results of these correlation analyses conducted across all subjects without considering the effects of self-monitoring are illustrated in Table 12 (a,b).

Negative correlations between distance scores and brand evaluations show the hypothesized positive relationship between brand evaluation and image congruence. The rationale was that incongruence actually was measured by the difference scores calculated for each subject, and brand evaluations were measured

on scales where larger values show more favourable evaluations. In other words, we would expect more favourable brand evaluations for greater congruence. That is to say the higher the congruence, the more favourable of the brand.

As indicated in table 12a, the statistically significant correlations (genuine Gucci brand) indicate that, the image congruence hypothesis was supported by the data. Negative correlations between distance scores and brand evaluations show the hypothesized positive relationship between brand evaluation and image congruence.

Table 12a: The Correlation between Image Congruence and Brand Evaluations

	Genuine Gucci	
	AC	IC
Brand Evaluation	-0.30**	-0.33**

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

Note:

AC meaning: Actual Congruence (congruence between brand image and actual self-image)

IC meaning: Ideal congruence (congruence between brand image and ideal self-image)

Negative correlations between distance scores and brand evaluations show the hypothesized positive relationship between brand evaluation and image congruence. The rationale was that incongruence actually was measured by the difference scores calculated for each subject, and brand evaluations were measured on scales where larger values show more favourable evaluations.

As indicated in table 12b, the statistically significant correlations (counterfeit Gucci brand) indicate that, the H1 (image congruence hypothesis) was not supported by the data. However, for the Counterfeit Gucci brand, the image congruence relationship was still supported (because negative correlation reflects a positive relationship) but the image scores were not significantly associated with the brand evaluations.

Table 12b: The Correlation between Image Congruence and Brand Evaluations

	Counterfeit Gucci	
	AC	IC
Brand Evaluation	-0.03 (n.s.)	-0.02 (n.s.)

Note:

AC meaning: Actual Congruence (congruence between brand image and actual self-image)

IC meaning: Ideal congruence (congruence between brand image and ideal self-image)

Negative correlations between distance scores and brand evaluations show the hypothesized positive relationship between brand evaluation and image congruence. The rationale was that incongruence actually was measured by the difference scores calculated for each subject, and brand evaluations were measured on scales where larger values show more favourable evaluations.

In the next paragraph as well as in the discussion chapter, more of such will be shared and discussed. However, as expected, not only both ideal and actual congruence are positively related to consumers' brand evaluations for genuine branded products, but also, it turns out that correlations for ideal congruence are strongly than that for actual congruence. Therefore, this may suggest that product evaluations might be more closely related to ideal than actual congruence. This is in line with Ross's (1971) hypothesis that for publicly consumed brands, brand preference is more strongly related to ideal congruence than actual congruence.

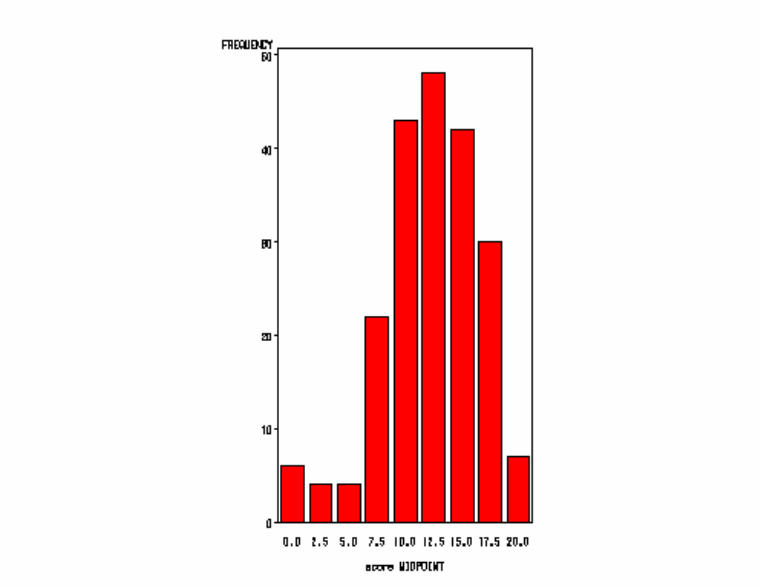
4.3 Self-Monitoring and Genuine/Counterfeit Product

The level of self-monitoring was the moderator variable in this study. The self-monitoring scale was administered in the last part of the questionnaire. Self-monitoring was measured with the 25-item scale originally developed by Snyder (1974). It consists of a set of true-false descriptive statements which describe: ability to control and modify one's self-presentation and expressive behaviour; concern with social appropriateness of one's self-presentation; attention to social comparison information as cues to situational appropriate expressive self-presentation; and the use of this ability in certain situations. This particular scale had a KR-20 reliability of 0.73. Based upon a median split, respondents were then classified into either low or high self-monitors as suggested by previous research (Graeff, 1996), (Spangenberg, 2006).

Furthermore, based on the Cluster (k-means) Analysis with only one linear variable (that is the self-monitoring scale), the statistics showed the best way to sort the data into 2 groups was by looking into the distance between cluster centroids and that would suggest the use of median split to divide respondents into high self-monitors and low self-monitors. For this case, as there were no bumps or "jump points" along the data distribution. The distribution of this data set followed very much like a normal distribution and that the use of medium or median split was deemed appropriate as illustrated in Table 13 below.

Cluster Summary						
Cluster	Frequency	RMS Std Deviation	Maximum Distance from Seed to Observation	Radius Exceeded	Nearest Cluster	Distance Between Cluster Centroids
1	73	2.2328	6.7123		2	6.1223
2	127	2.2529	6.1654		1	6.1223

Table 13: Cluster Analysis Summary



It was hypothesized that counterfeit product image congruence would have larger impacts on counterfeit brand evaluations for high self-monitors and not for low self-monitors. To examine this, separate correlations between image congruence and brand evaluations for low and high self-monitors were then analyzed. The results of these correlations are illustrated in Table 14.

As hypothesized, if self-monitoring does moderate the image congruence relationship, the correlations between high self-monitors' evaluations and image congruence should be larger (that is more negative) than corresponding low self-monitors' correlations.

Table 14. Correlation between Image Congruence and Brand Evaluations separated by Self-Monitoring level.

		Genuine				Counterfeit		
	Low SM		High SM		Low SM		High SM	
	AC	IC	AC	IC	AC	IC	AC	IC
Brand Evaluation	-0.18	-0.13	-0.49**	-0.55**	0.15	0.26	-0.20*	-0.24**

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

Once all subjects were combined and considered together, quite a number of interesting facts showed up in these results, only Genuine (AC & IC) congruence was related to the evaluation. The findings (table 12) indicate that the H2 (*The effects of Counterfeit Image Congruence on product evaluations would be strongly related to ideal congruence than actual congruence*) was not supported by the data.

Nevertheless, both Genuine and Counterfeit (AC & IC) are significantly related to high self-monitors' brand evaluations when the effects of self-monitoring are put into consideration. Neither ideal nor actual congruence is significantly related to brand evaluations for low self-monitors. Therefore, the relationship between brand evaluations and image congruence is significant for high self-monitors only and this shows that self-monitoring does moderate the relationship of image congruence for both genuine and counterfeit products. According to the way it emerged, the effects of low and high self-monitors were cancelled out (offset) once all subjects were combined and considered together for the counterfeit brand.

For the genuine brand, the correlations between image congruence and brand evaluations of high self-monitor are bigger than that of low self-monitor. Interestingly, we notice similar pattern of results for the counterfeit brand as well.

To examine if self-monitoring had the expected moderating effect on the image congruence relationship for the counterfeit brands, we used multiple regression analysis. Overall brand evaluation as the dependent variable was regressed against various independent variables, such as image congruence (the difference score between brand-image and either ideal self-image or actual self-image), self-monitoring level (that is high compared with low) and their interactions (Table 15). Overall, the regression models (Table 15, i,ii,iii,iv) showed the overall R-squared were significant with $F(3,196)=21.52$, $MSE=1.4776$, $p<0.01$; $F(3,196)=24.65$, $MSE=1.4517$, $p<0.01$; $F(3,196)=3.96$, $MSE=1.0587$, $p<0.01$ and $F(3,196)=4.65$, $MSE=1.0532$, $p<0.01$ respectively.

Table 15: Regression Analysis results

i)Regression analysis for Genuine Gucci and Actual Image

	Coef.	**Std. Err.**	**t**	**p>ItI**	**Beta**
Image congruence	-0.12	0.06	-1.81	0.07	-0.16
Self-monitoring	2.65	0.57	4.62	0.00	0.78
Interaction	-0.25	0.09	-2.68	0.01	**-0.50**

($F=21.52$; $R^2=0.2478$, $p<0.01$)

ii)Regression analysis for Genuine Gucci and Ideal Image

	Coef.	**Std. Err.**	**t**	**p>ItI**	**Beta**
Image congruence	-0.07	0.05	-1.31	0.19	-0.12
Self-monitoring	2.66	0.48	5.52	0.00	0.78
Interaction	-0.23	0.07	-3.35	0.001	**-0.55**

($F=24.65$; $R^2=0.2739$, $p<0.01$)

iii)Regression analysis for Counterfeit Gucci and Actual Image

	Coef.	**Std. Err.**	**t**	**p>ItI**	**Beta**
Image congruence	0.04	0.04	1.05	0.296	0.12
Self-monitoring	1.20	0.39	3.06	0.003	0.56
Interaction	-0.14	0.05	-2.60	0.01	**-0.54**

(F=3.94; R^2=0.0569, p<0.01)

iv)Regression analysis for Counterfeit Gucci and Ideal Image

	Coef.	**Std. Err.**	**t**	**p>ItI**	**Beta**
Image congruence	0.01	0.03	0.33	0.745	0.04
Self-monitoring	1.09	0.38	2.84	0.005	0.50
Interaction	-0.10	0.04	-2.37	0.019	**-0.47**

(F=4.65; R^2=0.0665, p<0.01)

Here, we are in particular interested in the interaction because a significant interaction shows that the relationship between image congruence and product evaluation is significantly different across the high and low self-monitoring level.

In Table 16, it summarizes and shows the standardized regression coefficients for the interaction terms. As we can see from the regression analysis, a significant negative regression coefficient shows that the relationship between image congruence and product evaluation is stronger for high self-monitors than that of low self-monitors as the self-monitoring level was indicated as 1 for high self-monitors and 0 for low self-monitors.

Table 16: Regression Estimates (Standardized) for Interaction between Self-Monitoring and Image Congruence.

	Genuine Gucci		Counterfeit Gucci	
Dependent Variable	AC	IC	AC	IC
Brand Evaluation	-0.50**	-0.55**	-0.54**	-0.47*

*p<0.05

**p<0.01

Note: Self-monitoring level was indicated as 1 for high and 0 for low in the regression equation.

Results show that self-monitoring had a **significant** moderating effect on the relationship between evaluation of genuine Gucci and actual congruence (β = -0.50; t= -2.68, p<0.01) and ideal congruence (β = -0.55; t=-3.35, p<0.01). Similarly, for counterfeit Gucci brand, self-monitoring also had significant moderating effect on the relationship between brand evaluation and actual congruence (β = -0.54; t=-2.6, p<0.01) and ideal congruence (β = -0.47; t=-2.37, p<0.05). Therefore, self-monitoring had the expected moderating effect on the relationship between brand evaluations and image congruence for both genuine branded product and counterfeit branded product..

4.4 Discussion

By and large, this study supported the image congruence hypothesis for both genuine branded product and counterfeit branded product. The higher the level of congruence between self-image and brand-image, the more favourable were subjects' brand evaluation. Yet, when it came to counterfeit branded product, there was a lack of significant relationship between image congruence and brand evaluation. Apparently, the study findings indicated that both the H1 (image congruence hypothesis) and the H2 (*The effects of Counterfeit Image Congruence on product evaluations would be strongly related to ideal congruence than actual congruence*) were not supported by the data; However, as the effects of the self-monitoring were considered, both actual-image and ideal-image congruence were significantly related to high self-monitors' evaluation of counterfeit branded product and thus the findings in this study supported the H3 (*The effect of image congruence on intent to purchase counterfeit product would be stronger for high self-monitors than for low self-monitors*) in particularly for the ideal (self) congruence. Effects of level of congruence and level of self-monitoring on respondents' overall evaluation for the genuine Gucci brand were graphed in Figure 7 and Figure 8.

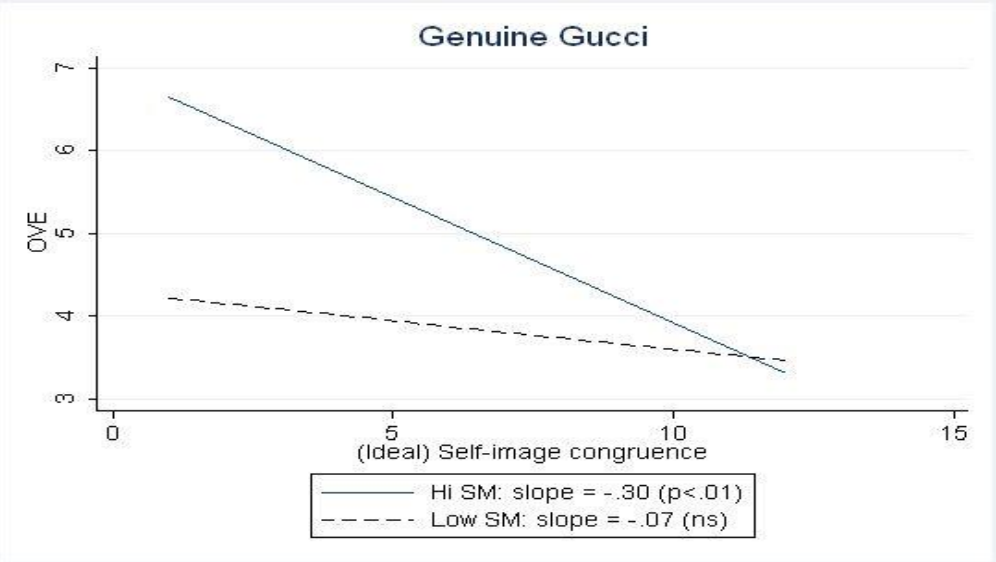


Figure 7: Effects of level of ideal self-image congruence and level of self-monitoring on respondents' overall evaluation of the genuine Gucci brand

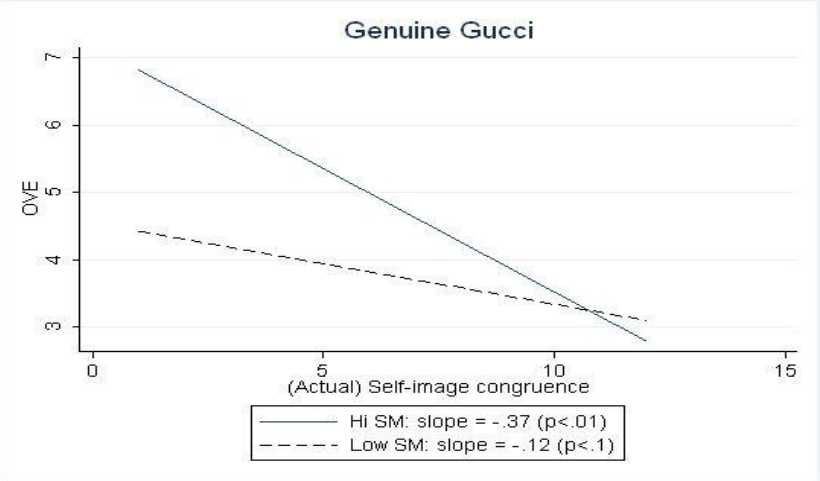


Figure 8: Effects of level of actual self-image congruence and level of self-monitoring on respondents' overall evaluation of the genuine Gucci brand

In alignment with the genuine brand, the relationship between counterfeit image congruence and brand evaluation was also stronger (negative slope or downward sloping) for high self-monitors than for low self-monitors significantly. Effects of level of congruence and level of self-monitoring on respondents' overall evaluation of the counterfeit Gucci brand were graphed in Figure 9 and Figure 10.

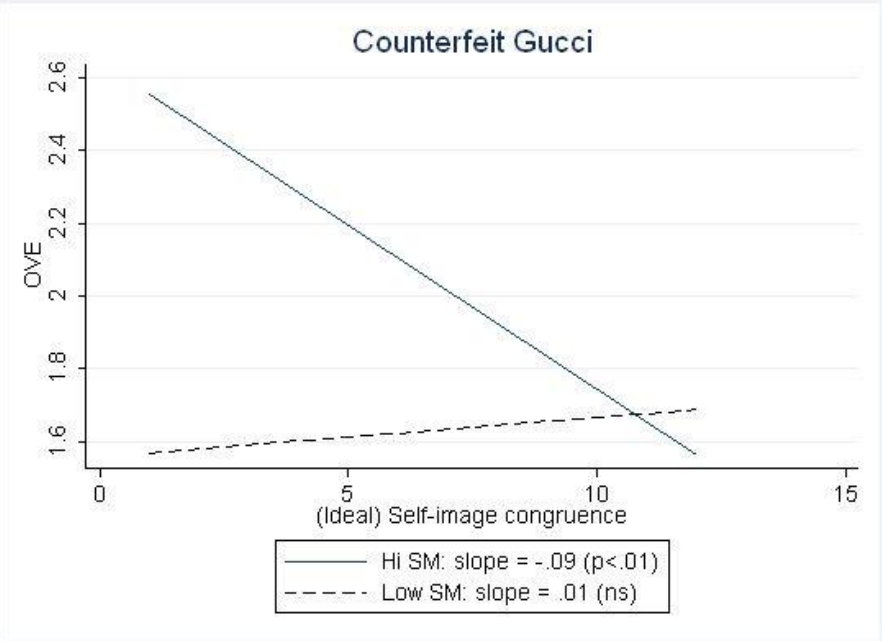


Figure 9: Effects of level of ideal self-image congruence and level of self-monitoring on respondents' overall evaluation of the counterfeit Gucci brand

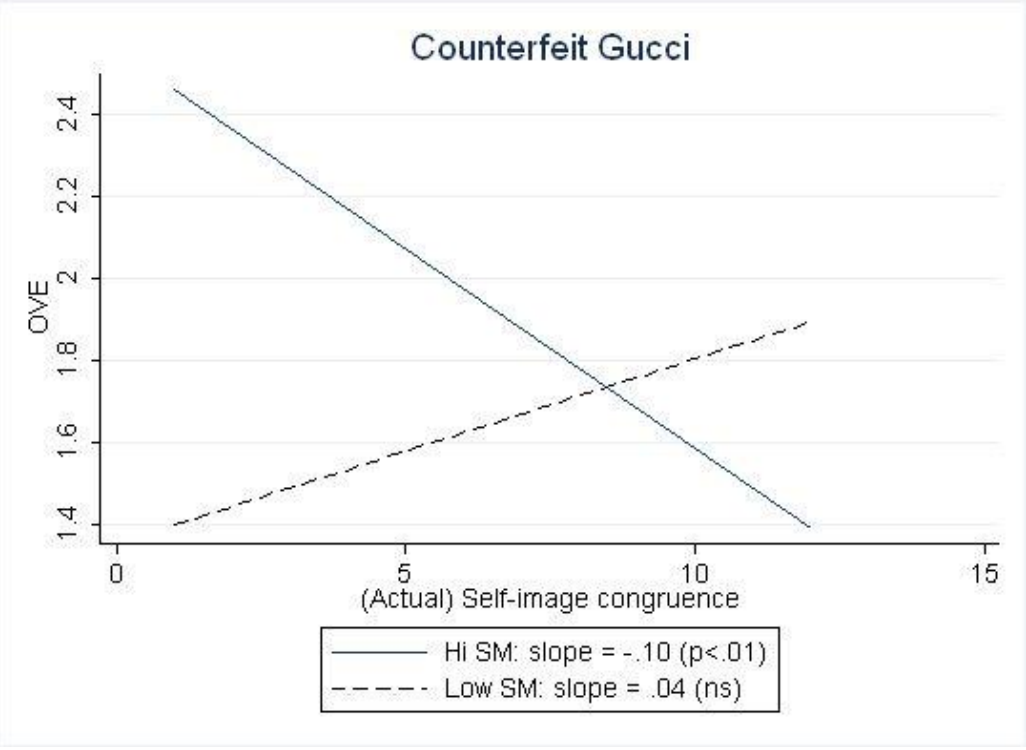


Figure 10: Effects of level of actual self-image congruence and level of self-monitoring on respondents' overall evaluation of the counterfeit Gucci brand

According to Snyder & Tanke (1976), high self-monitors try very hard to be the kind of people called for by each situation in which they find themselves. They make their behaviour fit interpersonal and social considerations of situational

appropriateness. In addition, they are very responsive to image-oriented advertisement in particular. On the other hand, low self-monitors normally do not strive to fit their behaviour to situational considerations and they are in particular responsive to advertisements that highlight functional benefits instead (Snyder & Debono, 1988).

Therefore, this study provides some primary findings that hint of the possibility of high self-monitors' greater need (or desire) to maintain and present a desired or ideal self-image in public usage situations resulted in greater image congruence effects on their publicly consumed brand evaluations.

As shown in Table 14, another intriguing observation from this study was that when the data were analyzed across subjects with the self-monitoring effects, the brand evaluations for both genuine and counterfeit brands were more strongly related to ideal congruence than actual congruence, especially for the high self-monitors. In Dolich (1969) and Ross (1971) studies, they hypothesized that when a brand was consumed in public, consumers were more interested in impressing others by their act of consumption, meanwhile, when the product was consumed in private, there was no need to impress others. Therefore, the evaluations of publicly consumed products might be more affected by ideal congruence, whereas evaluations of privately consumed products might be more affected by actual congruence.

Respondents in this research when evaluating the brand Gucci were probably considered situations of public usage. Dolich and Ross hypothesis concerning the proposition that publicly consumed products (like Gucci) were readily affected by ideal congruence than by actual congruence seem to be supported by the results of this current study. This is especially true for high self-monitors' greater desire or need to present and maintain a desired or ideal self-image in public usage situations. We can think of self-monitoring as a moderator sets up a partition of people holding a given personality trait into subgroups of those more or less likely to translate their psychological dispositions into overt actions; that is, the emphasis is on who does what. (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

Therefore, the findings in this study are pointing to the same direction as those reports by Wee et al. (1995) that brand status (psychographic variable) and projection of status/ ideal image (product-attribute variable) are one of the key factors for the purchase of counterfeit branded product.

5. CHAPTER FIVE – Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Conclusion – Aims and Answers to the Research Question

In consumer field, researchers have shown immense interest in the congruence between a consumer's self-image and brand image due to its impact on the brand evaluation and choice (Hogg et al. ,2000). To date, all of the image congruence (to the best of our knowledge) research have been focused mainly on studying the congruence in the domain of genuine branded products and leaving the counterfeit branded products unanswered. In view of this, the study here tried to examine the effects of image congruence and self-monitoring on the evaluation of a counterfeit product. The results led us to answer the following question:

What are the effects of Image Congruence on the purchase evaluation of Counterfeit Branded Products?

Firstly, the image congruence hypothesis was generally supported. That is the greater the degree of congruence between self-image and genuine brand-image, the more favourable were respondents' genuine brand evaluations. However, there were no significant effects of image congruence on the purchase evaluation of counterfeit branded product.

Secondly, the general hypothesis that self-monitoring moderated the relationship between image congruence and evaluations of brand was supported in this study. When the elements of self-monitoring (moderating variable) were considered, image congruence (both actual and ideal) was significantly related to high self-monitors' evaluations of the counterfeit branded product. This study, therefore, provided empirical evidence that self-monitoring has the moderating effect on the image congruence hypothesis and thus strengthened the image congruence and evaluation linkage for both genuine and in particular the counterfeit product..

Thirdly, one intriguing observation from the current study was that when the data were analyzed across subjects with the effects of self-monitoring, the brand evaluations were more strongly related to the ideal congruence than that to the actual congruence for both genuine and counterfeit brands. Therefore, this study provided

some primary findings (consistent with Dolich (1969) and Ross (1971) ideas) that publicly consumed products evaluation (like Guccci in this study) would be more influenced by ideal congruence and that hinted of the possibility of the public usage situation might affect image congruence and brand evaluation.

5.2 Contribution- Theoretical Implications

From a researcher's point of view, this research study provides a valuable, innovative and differentiated insight into key drivers of demand of counterfeit branded products based upon the image congruence hypothesis and the self-monitoring concept. Several theoretical implications are being suggested by this study.

First, many of the earlier studies support the consistency between product-image and self-image (Graeff 1996, 1997; Dolich, 1969; Kernan and Somers, 1967; and Grubb and Stern, 1971). However, this study is the one of the pioneers (to the best of our knowledge) to contribute several empirical findings that support the extension of the image congruence hypothesis to the domain of luxury counterfeit branded product.

Secondly, self-monitoring is found to have a positive moderating effect for not only on the genuine but also on the counterfeit product. Self-monitoring realizes that some individuals are more aware of the external situations (environment) and will adjust or modify their behaviour in such a way that they believe will be more socially appropriate and acceptable. Those individuals who have this sensitivity to monitor the environment, adjust their behaviour and maintain a desired (ideal) self-image in a public usage situations are referred to as "high" self-monitors; meanwhile, those who are less sensitive to the external environment are "low" self-monitors. The findings in this study demonstrate that the image congruence does not seem to have a lot of impact on the purchase of counterfeit brand with the exception of "high" self-monitors. Consequently, the findings in this study lead to confirm the positive moderating role played by self-monitoring in consumer product choice as this important factor (culprit) certainly not only affects/ moderates genuine product but also counterfeit product purchase evaluations.

Thirdly, when evaluating the brand Gucci in this research, respondents were likely considered public usage situations. Results from previous study suggested that consumer's evaluations of publicly consumed brands were more affected by the congruence between ideal self-image and brand image rather than actual image (Graeff, 1996). However, the above results were not completely true in the counterfeit study here. The result from this study offer interesting insight into the possible explanations for the insignificant relationship between ideal self-image and counterfeit brand image congruence purchase evaluations. When data were analyzed across subjects with the effects of self-monitoring (high self-monitors), product evaluations were more strongly related to ideal congruence than actual congruence for the counterfeit brands. It is likely that high self-monitors tend to be more aware of their own expressive behaviours and image and are more influenced by maintaining and enhancing their own self-image (Graeff, 1996). Thus, we can hypothesize that when a brand is consumed in public, consumers are more interested or motivated to impress others by their act of consumption of luxury "counterfeit" brand. Consumption is a way of self-presentation. By means of self-presentation, one tries to improve one's image in the desired (ideal) direction (Antonides and Raaij, 1988). This is especially true for high self-monitors' greater desire or need to present and maintain a desired or ideal self-image in public usage situations.

This study may add hints to our theoretical understanding of consumers' desire for counterfeit brands are associated with their social goals and motivations (Wilcox et al. 2009). One good venue for future research is to examine the role of self-monitoring in the relationship between luxury counterfeit brand evaluation and image (actual and ideal) congruence under private usage situations.

Therefore, this research study adds empirical support to the existing literature by exploring the important relationship between image congruence hypothesis and self-monitoring concept, in the context of counterfeit branded products purchase.

5.3 Contribution- Managerial Implications

Many research study support the idea that congruence exists between product consumption and self-concept. (Onkvisit and Shaw, 1987; Ericksen, 1996). Self-product image congruence refers to the tendency of individual to choose and use products that match some aspects of the self. The idea that individuals purchased certain brand because that brand-image is congruent with their own self-image is known as the Image Congruence Hypothesis. The notion that individuals reflect their feelings and behaviours to the products they purchase, and therefore, choose products or brands with similar images. As discussed, certain properties tend to characterize the products that individuals use as symbols. To qualify, the products must be visible in use; that is, conspicuous products that are readily obvious to others. Products such as automobiles, clothing, and furnishings are obvious examples. The product class must also carry a distinctive brand name, steep price tag, or prestigious origin, etc so as to allow formation of such a stereotypical image of the user. Although, the self-concept is quite stable, it is not static. Quite often, individuals may change their self-concept as a result of encountering new experiences or as a consequence of a change they bring about in their own lives, therefore, their self-concept goes through a corresponding change. Based on the imagine congruence hypothesis, marketers can make the counterfeit image different from the genuine one by injecting negative personality traits (symbols) to it, such as cruelty, illegal, triad gang, so on and so forth, in such a way that it would widen the congruence distance between the self-concept and the counterfeit brand. By doing so, the high-congruence has now become low-congruence.

Self-monitoring has been proven to influence consumer's consumption motives when examining specific product types, like Gucci fashion brand. It affects consumers' buying behaviour related to fashion clothing because it is related to their interests of conveying a message of themselves to other people. High self-monitors seem to have a strong interest in their own image and appearance (social-symbolic approval) and they seem to be aware of the impressions or messages that fashion clothing sends to others about themselves. Therefore, social approval motives are a strong driver for a high self-monitor's choice in fashion clothing. In short, self-monitoring has an indirect relationship with fashion clothing involvement through specific symbolic motives (Hodson and Sorrentino, 1999).

In China, the relative low income level precludes all but a small minority of new (nouveaux) riches from being able to afford the luxury of status-seeking consumption through top luxury brands. Some studies (Hong, 1994) estimate that only around 120 million Chinese have a high enough income to afford even modest branded items such as detergent or packaged food. For most Chinese, a desire to conform is the more probable motivation of purchase decisions. Whether buying household products, luxury brands or clothes, for example, Chinese tend to choose the 'middle-of-the-road' style or brand rather than one that would make them stand out.

Part of the reason for the more conformist-oriented consumption patterns in China lies in the fact that consumerism is still new to China. In the 1970s, Chinese were acquiring bicycles, watches and sewing machines; in the mid-1980s, they were acquiring refrigerators, television sets and washing machines. The Chinese consumer of today is buying air conditioners, mobile phones, video digital cameras and modern toilets. If the economic growth of China continues at the same speed and rate that it has in recent years, the next purchase could be personal car (Hong, 1994). People aspire to Western brands because they have an image or impression of higher quality compared with the local brands. Parts of the attraction, however, does lie in status-seeking, as can be seen by the tendency to leave tags on sunglasses and labels on the sleeves of new suits (Hong, 1994).

Not only China is now a fast developing country, but also is a major world counterfeiting centre. The majority of the middle class people now in China are standing on this big EGO (show-off) symbolic platform. However, what they want to do is to project status that they are a person literally and figuratively on the move and on the way up. Therefore, there are big demand for luxury brands in publicly display products, for example, Gucci, LV and BMW. For this penny-pinched middle class, they do not have enough financial resources to pay for this expensive projection. They will have to turn to and consume the counterfeit versions to satisfy their desire to project that desired or ideal image. Buying a high quality counterfeit is an alternative for them to achieve their dream and to enjoy the happiness that comes from possessing (and being seen to possess) a symbolic product (Lu et al. 2006).

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2000), motivation is created by a state of tension as a result of an unfulfilled need. People will be then impelled by such a driving force to reduce this tension consciously and subconsciously through

behaviour that they believe will fulfil their needs and so relieve them of the stress they experience and feel. The unfulfilled needs, wants, and desires are translated as motivations which drive the consumer's behaviour. The unfulfilled needs of a buyer of counterfeit products are generally psychological – to do with self-esteem (self-respect), prestige, affection (social/ love), power (status) and learning – acquired in response to the society or the culture (for example, social class).

Usually, members of a specific social class perceive members of other social classes as having either less (inferior) or more (superior) status than they do because categories of social class are normally ranked in a hierarchy way, ranging from low to high status. As a result, people may regard social class membership as a reference group for them to develop their own attitudes and behaviours. Within the context of reference group, specific social class members may turn to other members of the same class for tips and hints regarding appropriate behaviour are normally expected.

Meanwhile, members of a particular social class (say lower middle-class) may hope to level up their social class ranking by copying the behaviour of members of the upper middle-class. To achieve this goal, they may try to read upper middle-class books, play upper middle-class sports and dine at upper middle-class restaurants so that they can observe upper middle-class behaviour. Therefore, the upper middle-class becomes a reference group for such a "poor" lower middle-class.

The hierarchical aspect of social class has important managerial implications for marketers as consumers may want to buy certain products because they are used and preferred by members of their own or higher social class (e.g. imported Mercedes Benz private car), and consumers may not want to buy certain products because they are perceived to be used and preferred by members of lower-class (e.g. local branded private car). Therefore, various social class segments have become a natural market segmentation basis for marketers for selling different branded products.

Along with the social class segments' direction, former Chinese Leader, Deng Xiaoping, once said famously that "to get rich is glorious," its Chinese people have always remembered this message and displayed the trapping of wealth to win the society approval. Not surprisingly, in Lu et al. (2006) study showed that there was a high level of show-offs, conformists and imitators in the Chinese counterfeit market. The imitator, the show-off, and the conformist buy counterfeits as a way of

pursuing luxury brands and a luxury lifestyle with their limited financial means. Although they are loyal buyers of counterfeits, they would undoubtedly become genuine luxury consumers if their financial situation improved and allowed. These are the potential genuine branded product consumers in the future..

Lu et al. (2006) study was in line with this current study in a sense that both Lu's qualitative research and our quantitative study (based on image congruence hypothesis) suggested the idea that Chinese consumers might be interested in a counterfeit brand on the basis of the social motives (that is its symbolic properties).

What is more and important discovery from this research is the moderating effect of the self-monitoring (personality) variable. Basically, it is the high self-monitoring that drive consumer to consume counterfeit products.

Therefore, we can base upon Lu's three psychographic segments (imitators, show-off, and conformist) and combined with the unique characteristics of high self-monitoring. We can create segment-appropriate communications that trigger counterfeit-inhibiting/ counterfeit-desisting ultimate objectives. Based on the imagine congruence hypothesis, we can make the counterfeit image different from the genuine one by injecting negative personality traits to it, such as cruelty, illegal, triad gang, and so on, in such a way that it would distance the congruence image between the self and the counterfeit brand. By doing so, the high-congruence is no longer exist and it has now become low-congruence.

To communicate and deliver the message effectively, we have to take note of the unique characteristics of high self-monitors and the impact of image congruence on the purchase of counterfeit product. There are three important areas to take note of:

1) High self-monitors are very concerning how and what others think of their actions and appearance. They are able to change their behaviour readily based upon interpersonal or situational cues. (Snyder and Gangestad, 1986).
2) High self-monitors are easily affected by images in the advertisement and they tend to support their product purchases with socially based arguments. On top of that, high self-monitors may feel the need to keep their eyes open so that they remain on top of the fashion trends to project a desired image by using fashion or clothing brands as a props (O'Cass, 2001).
3) To discourage consumer from buying the counterfeits, we may try to highlight and emphasize the positive side of the genuine product or the negative side of the

counterfeit branded products. Yet, no genuine branded goods producers have come forward to directly address the counterfeit issue in their advertising campaigns because they do not prefer to give free publicity to the counterfeiters or to create confusion among their current genuine brand buyers (Wee et al., 1995). The genuine brand marketers should highlight the fact that prestigious images projected by the genuine brand products cannot be matched and cloned by the use of counterfeits.

Based on the above three key areas, four practical strategies or tactics for future actions are recommended as follows:

1) **Effective Communications through proper use of advertising**

In an empirical study with college students, Snyder (1989) discovered that high self-monitors assigned more favourable evaluations to those advertisements that convey information about the images to be projected by using the product (image oriented advertisements), meanwhile, low self-monitors assigned their most favourable evaluations to those advertisements that convey information about the product itself (product-oriented advertisements). Some advertisements (like perfumes, high fashion) clearly depend almost exclusively on image rather than information and would appeal particularly to the high self-monitor. Yet, even in expensive luxury items that are supposed to involve maximum cognitive decision making, image was more important to high self-monitors. That is to say, high self-monitors are especially concerned about their self-worth, monitor self more, and more concerned about their image, and thus, are more susceptible to image advertising.

An effective advertisement should be tactically designed and executed. TV commercials are preferred and should be used because their impacts are larger in terms of their vivid expression of emotion and feelings. The main objective is to make consumers less favourable evaluations of counterfeit brands with images inconsistent with their own self-image and to understand the risk of being spotted and rejected by their important peers, social groups or reference groups in the society for using counterfeit brands. For example, a person being spotted as a consumer of counterfeit products in a public area, such as the subway train (figure 11), and seeing how others reacted to that,

highlighting the outcome of losing faces and being rejected by the general publics featured in the image-based TV commercials. Advertising slogan such as "If you put on fake clothes, you will become a fake person - You are what you wear!" may be introduced.



Figure 11: The setting inside the subway train crowded with people

2) **Downgrade Counterfeit Brand Image through proper education**

Educational campaign appeals to the importance of family in Chinese culture. Policy makers should try to impose negative images (negative beliefs and expectations) on the counterfeit by discussing and exploring the ethical issues and consequences related to counterfeiting, such as loss of jobs, human trafficking, and drug dealing in the image-oriented advertisement (Berman, 2008). We can also highlight the issue that the person who gains from selling counterfeits may use that money to sell illegal drugs to the young children. We should not only focus on high self-monitor adults, but also on the adolescent – the young population.

One reason that image is so important to adolescents is that it is a time of searching for an acceptable identity, an identity valued by their peer culture, and one that separates them clearly from their parents. While actually quite conforming to peer group, it is their identity that asserts their independence for them. Erickson (1956) concludes that identity is the most important task of adolescence. Adolescents listen to peers, rather than parents or any adults, are super conscious of what the peer group is wearing,

saying, and doing, and direct their image to the peer group. Also, younger customers have been proven to indicate bigger awareness of product symbolism (Belk et al., 1982) and as discussed in section 3.7, it was reported that young people age between 18 to 24 are easier targets for counterfeiters.

3) **Upgrade Genuine Brand Image through Corporate Social Responsibility initiatives**

Apart from just linking luxury brands to aspiration, marketers may also consider building a real environmentally friendly, healthy and green image to differentiate its image from the counterfeit. Louis Vuitton, for instance, launched a 'core value' or realism advertising campaign lately that add unique, socially responsible and ethical image to the brand (Louis Vuitton Moet Hennessey, 2007). By doing so, it may actually discourage counterfeit consumption due to the incongruence/ discrepancy with the image.

4) **Preventive measure through constant innovation to distinguish counterfeit from genuine products**

By constantly developing new products, we may stay one step ahead of the counterfeiter. This particular measure, more than anything else, may be the best way to beat infringers. Also, product security devices are one of the best ways to ward off counterfeiters. These devices include printed codes (serial number), digitized fingerprints of label, holograms (holographic images) and microchips etc. (Mason, 1985). From the perspective of the genuine branded products, it is only right that they should take strong legal stand or action to uphold intellectual property rights and to protect them against counterfeiting activities. On the other hand, from a marketing viewpoint, many current counterfeit buyers are potential consumers of genuine branded products and thus it is important that the genuine brands pay more attention to educating these big potential consumers, orienting them away from the counterfeits and making them appreciating more the creativity and talents of their designers.

5.4 Study Limitations

The biggest limitation of this study is that of generalization. To what extent the data collected from a group of students in an isolated Tuen Mun city (New Territory in Hong Kong), is generalizable to all Chinese in China is simply unknown as there are some obvious differences in terms of culture and social values between the two. Results of this study should therefore not be generalized beyond the student body in the sample. This study relied upon a convenience sample of college students and the sample was slightly skewed with more female students (61%) than male students (39%) and some of the questions in Snyder 's (1974) self-monitoring scale might present a problem to ask the respondent without much working experience to answer questions such as "I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well I should". In addition, the choice of using Gucci brand may have an issue - female students may have more ideas to express for Gucci than male counterparts, even though Gucci has designed products specifically for the male market. In future, the study should be extended to product or brand with varying degrees of gender-specificity and also to other product categories, such as Rolex watch. Up to now, most of the studies investigating the consumer's preference for counterfeits do not reflect the diversity of counterfeits in terms of their quality or product type dependency (Staake et al., 2009).

This study examined only one counterfeit branded product. Practically, each brand might have quite a range of counterfeit versions available (i.e. Grade A or B) in the market place. The perceived brand image for each of these counterfeit versions may be quite different from one another. Thereby, this research results may only be applicable to the general (overall) counterfeit version in the market place.

Most of findings in this study are based upon correlation analysis and so they may not be rigorous enough to validate the hypothesized relationship. However, this study is an exploratory study in the context of counterfeits, the author believes that simple correlation analysis was able to provide some simple yet important information (such as the direction of effects and strength of relationships to the existing literature). Nonetheless, future studies should improve the experimental design and use more rigorous analysis method to further validate all these hypotheses.

Since both sale and manufacture of counterfeits in Hong Kong and China are crimes by law, therefore purchasing counterfeits is a socially unacceptable behaviour. Students' self-reports survey data were collected in the classroom (public area), which meant that the students' tendency to produce more socially acceptable responses could have an impact on the data collected. Thereby, survey data in this study might be biased to a certain extent. It would be better if we could allow students to complete the questionnaire at home. But, in that case, the response rate might be suffered as a result. Further research, if considering the same age group (young population), should try to reduce the length of questionnaires or should introduce a technique or method in which young people might find it to be more interesting, fun and enjoyable and would not lose their concentration or interest. One way to achieve this is to introduce PC software. This would enable young people to fill in the questionnaire using the computer anytime anywhere.

5.5 Concluding Comments and Future Research

Counterfeit brands are certainly a serious problem in Hong Kong and mainland China. The government measures alone will not be sufficient to protect multinational corporations from being harmed by counterfeiters despite both Hong Kong and the mainland Chinese government have increased enforcement of its anti-counterfeiting measures to suppress the supply side. The author believe that the study can help marketers to deter consumers from buying counterfeits products by examining the crucial roles played by both image congruity and self-monitoring in consumer choice. However, this is only the tip of the iceberg as counterfeit consumption appears to be a complex socio-psychological phenomenon with multiple motivations (Sharma and Chan, 2011) and psychological acculturation (Wan et al., 2009).

One suggestion for future research should make use of Kelly's Repertory Grid technique (Appendix E) to produce relevant image dimensions for assessing image congruence (Buttle, 1985). Kelly's Repertory Grid has been widely used in other areas of consumer research as a means of qualitatively eliciting consumer perceptions. According to Buttle (1985), Repertory Grid is a valuable technique "whenever image is felt to be a key factor in consumer choice behaviour". After

having chosen the brands which will be used in the study, it is important to use relevant adjectives to measure the images. Kelly's Repertory Grid Technique allows researchers to select constructs (image dimensions or also referred to as bi-polar adjectives) without any observer bias.

Another suggestion for future research should try to study the product or brand with varying degrees of gender-specificity and examine different counterfeit versions of a brand. However, it is also possible that the counterfeit branded product represents a totally new image, one that fuses the image of the genuine brand together with an image associated with it being counterfeit, that is, the consumer actively discloses the fact that it is counterfeit in order to project an image that denotes sophistication (they understand the value of the genuine brand) together with an element of consumer savvy, one knows how to get such products relatively cheaply. Also, the consumer may dwell on the latter by discussing with their social acquaintances the quality of manufacture of the counterfeit and how close this is to the genuine product.

Indeed, the consumer may project specific images by showing that they know what the main characteristics of the genuine product actually are. Such discussion may give rise to another individual trait (Snyder and Fromkin, 1980), need for uniqueness. One of the outcomes of this high need for uniqueness is the desire to possess unique products (Simonson and Nowlis, 2000), as these items provide differentiation from others. To "define the person as different from members of her or his reference group" (Snyder and Fromkin, 1980), high uniqueness consumers are likely to prefer distinct/ unique product design (Bloch, 1995). It could provide the counterfeit product with "hacker ethic" and another potential construct for the researcher to look into in the future (Rutter and Bryce, 2008). Also, it is important to note the way we define the word counterfeiting as it will affect the scope and importance of it. Typically, researches consider counterfeiting as illegal trademark infringement, however, more and more mass market fashion brands, for example, Taiwan Banana (see Figure 12), typically steal its handbag design from other high-end brand name, such as Hermes Birkin (see Figure 13). Hence, there is a need to expand the scope of counterfeiting to accommodate such a new definition for both researchers and marketers – disclosed counterfeit product consumption in other words.



Figure 12: Taiwan Banana Brand (Hermes Look-alike)



Figure 13: Original (Genuine) Hermes brand Birkin Hand Bag

The effect of image congruency and self-monitoring on the product or brand evaluation and choice is obviously still much to learn about. For example, future research may emphasize on consumers who may fall between and fall on the polar extremes identified as medium self-monitors and extreme self-monitors respectively. Based on the cluster analysis in this study, the respondents may be divided into three distinct groups For example, one might sort the data into three equal groups with the following criteria: (1) score <= 11; (2) 12 <= score <= 14; (3) score > 14.and thus, the study may have high self-monitors, medium self-monitors and low self-monitors respectively.

Nonetheless, it is crucial to recognize that self-monitoring may be value dependent and culturally bound, therefore, a closer look between economic and cultural or social values and the intention to purchase counterfeits should be taken and tested on a bigger scale. Finally, to curb counterfeit purchase, research should attempt to explore how promotional (advertising) message/ language and new media, such as mobile phone advertising can be utilized to lower congruence level between self-image and counterfeit brand-image for high self-monitors under different consumption situations in the future. Hopefully, all these suggestions might improve the research results and enhance the contributions to this research area. In the near future, the old motto, "**If you can make it, they can fake it**" will no longer be true.

References

Aaker, J.L., Benet-Martinez, V., and Garolera, J. (2001), "Consumption symbols as carriers of culture: A study of Japanese and Spanish brand personality constructs", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 81, pp. 492-508.

Albers-Miller, D. (1999), "Consumer Misbehaviour: Why People buy Elicit Goods", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 9, (2), pp. 273-287.

Ang, S.H., Cheng, P.S., Lim. E.A.C., and Tambyah, S.K. (2001), "Spot the difference: Consumer responses towards counterfeits", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 18, pp. 219-235.

Antonides, G. and Raaij, W.F. (1998), *Consumer Behaviour, A European Perspective*, Wiley, England.

Balkin, D.B. and Shepherd, D.A.(2004), "Piracy as strategy? A re-examination of product piracy", Working Paper *Economia*, pp04-8, Instituto de Empresa, Madrid.

Bamossy, G., and Debra, S.L. (1985), Product counterfeiting: Consumers and manufacturers beware. In E.C.Hirschman & M.B. Holbrook (Eds.), *Advances in consumer research* (Vol. 12, pp. 334-340). Provo, UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Baron, R. M., and Kenny, D. A. (1986), "The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol.51, pp. 1173-82.

Bearden, W.O. and Etzel, M.J. (1982), "Reference Group Influence on Product and Brand Purchase Decisions", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 9, (2), pp.183-94.

Belch, G.E., and Landon, E.L. (1977), "Discriminant Validity for a Product Anchored Self Concept Approach", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 14, May, pp. 252-56.

Belk, R.W. (1975), "Situational Variables and Consumer Behaviour", *Journal of Consumer Research*, December, p.158.

Belk, R.W. (1988), "Possessions and the extended self", *Journal of Consumer Research*", Vol. 15, pp. 139-68.

Belk, R.W., Bahn, K.D., and Mayer. R.N. (1982), "Developmental recognition of consumption symbolism", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 10, pp. 4-17.

Bellenger, D.N., Steinberg, E. and Stanton, W.W. (1976), "The Congruence of Store Image and Self Images as It Relates to Store Loyalty", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 52, pp. 17-32.

Berman, B. (2008), "Strategies to Detect and Reduce Counterfeiting Activity", *Business Horizons*, Vol. 51, (3), pp. 191-99.

Bian, X. (2006), "An examination of factors influencing the formation of the consideration set and consumer purchase intention in the context of non-deceptive counterfeiting", PhD thesis. University of Glasgow in the UK.

Bian, X.and Moutinho, L. (2009), "An investigation of determinants of counterfeit purchase consideration", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 62, pp. 368-378.

Bian, X. and Veloutsou, C. (2007), "Consumers' attitudes regarding non-deceptive counterfeit brands in the UK and China", *The Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 14, (3), pp.211-22.

Birdwell, E.A. (1964), "Influence of image congruence on consumer choice", *Reflections on progress in marketing*, American Marketing Association, Chicago, pp. 290-303.

Birdwell, E.A. (1968), "A study of influence of image congruence on consumer choice", *Journal of Business*, Vol. 41, pp.76-88.

Bloch, P.H. (1995), "Seeking the Ideal Form: Product Design and Consumer Response", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 59, (3), pp.16–29.

Bloch, P.H., Ronald, F.B., and Leland C. (1993), "Consumer 'accomplices' in Product Counterfeiting", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 10, (4), pp. 27-36.

Bowman, J. (2002), "*Commercials rise in the Eas*t", Media and Marketing Europe Pocket Guide on Asian TV. London:Emap Media,8.

Boyarski, J.R., Fishman, R.M., Lawrence, J.D., Linn, J., and Young, T. (2001), "China touts intellectual property enforcement efforts", *Intellectual property and Technology Law Journal*, October, pp. 21-22.

Bridges, E., Florsheim, R. A., and John, C. (1996), "A cross cultural comparison of response to service promotion", The Service Industries Journal, Vol. 16, (3), pp. 265-286.

Brock, T.C. (1962), "Cognitive Restructuring and Attitude Change", *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, Vol. 64, pp. 264-71.

Bush, R.F., Bloch, H.P., and Dawson, S. (1989), "Remedies for product counterfeiting", *Business Horizons*, January/ February, pp. 56-66.

Buttle, F. (1985), "Measuring Food Store Image Using Kelly's Repertory Grid", *The Service Industries Journal*, pp. 79-89.

Cavana, R.Y., Delahaye, B.L., and Sekaran, U. (2001), Applied business research: Qualitative and Quantitative methods. John Wiley & Sons.

Chakraborty, G., Allred, A., and Bristol, T. (1996), "Exploring consumers' evaluations of counterfeits: the role of country of origin and ethnocentrism", *Advances in consumer research*, Vol. 23, pp. 379-84.

Chakraborty, G., Allred, A., Sukhdial, A. S., and Bristol, T. (1997), "Use of negative cues to reduce demand for counterfeit products", *Advances in consumer research*, Vol. 24, pp. 345-349. Chicago: Association for Consumer Research.

Chang, M.K. (1998), "Predicting unethical behaviour: a comparison of the theory of reasoned action and the theory of planned behaviour", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 17, (16), pp. 125-34.

Chaudhry, P.E. and Walsh, M. (1996), "An assessment of the impact of counterfeiting in international markets: the piracy paradox persists", *The Columbia Journal of World Business*, Fall, pp. 35-48.

Cheung, W.L. and Prendergast, G. (2006a), "Buyers Perceptions of Pirated Products in China", *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, Vol. 24,(5), pp. 446-62.

Cheung, W.L. and Prendergast, G. (2006b), "Exploring the Materialism and Conformity Motivations of Chinese Pirated Product Buyers", *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 18,(3), pp. 7-31.

Commuri, S. (2009), "The Impact of Counterfeiting on Genuine –Item Consumers' Brand Relationships", Journal of Marketing, Vol. 73(3), pp.86-98.

Cooper, J., and Croyle, R.T. (1984), "Attitude and Attitude Change", *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol. 35, pp. 395-426.

Cordell, V.V., Kieschnick, R.L., Jr., and Wongtada, N. (1996), "Counterfeit purchase intentions: Role of lawfulness attitudes and product traits as determinants". *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 35, pp. 41-53.

Cooley, C.H. (1902), *Human Nature and the Social Order*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, p.152.

de Matos, C.A., Ituassu, C.T. and Rossi, C.A.V. (2007), "Consumer attitudes toward counterfeits: a review and extension", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 24, (1), pp.36-47.

Dennis, C., Harris, L., Sandhu, B. (2002), "From bricks to clicks: understanding the e-consumer", *Qualitative Market Research: An international Journal*, Vol. 5, (4), pp. 281-290.

Delener, N. (2000), "International Counterfeit marketing: Success Without Risk", *Review of Business*, Vol. 21, (1/2), pp. 16-20.

Dillman, D.A. (2000), Mail and Internet Surveys. John Wiley & Sons, NY.

Dolich, I.J. (1969), "Congruence relationships between self-images and product brands", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol.6, pp. 80-84.

Eisend, M. and Pakize, S.G. (2006), "Explaining Counterfeit Purchases: A Review and Preview", *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, Vol. 12, pp.1-23..

Erickson, E. (1956), "The problem of ego identity", In, J.J. Conger, &, N.L. Galambos (1997). *Adolescence and Youth: Psychological Development in a Changing World* (5th ed.). New York: Addison Wesley Longman.

Erickson, M.K. (1996), "Using self-congruity and ideal congruity to predict purchase intention: a European perspective", *Journal of Euro-Marketing*, Vol. 6, (1), pp. 41-56.

Ettenberg, E. (2001), "New Marketing", The Economist, 19 September 2001, p.65.

Festinger, L. (1957), "A theory of Cognitive Dissonance", Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

French, W.A., and Glaschner, A.B. (1971), "Levels of actualization as matched against life style evaluations of products", *Proceedings of the American Marketing Association*, Vol. 30, pp. 358-62.

Foscht, T., Maloles III, C., Swoboda, B., Morschett, D., and Sinha, I. (2008), "The impact of culture on brand perception: A six-nation study", *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 17, (3), pp. 131-42.

Gardner, B.B., and Levy, S.J. (1955), "The product and the brand", *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 33, pp.33-39.

Gentry, J.W., Doering, M., and O'Brien, T.V. (1978), "Masculinity and femininity factors in product perception and self-image", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 20, pp.419-24.

Gentry, J.W., Putrevu, S., Shultz, C.J., and Commuri. S. (2001), "How now Ralph Lauren? The separation of brand and product in a counterfeit culture", *Advertising Consumer Research*, Vol. 27, (1), pp. 258-65.

Gentry, J.W., Sanjay P., and Clifford, J. S. (2006), "The Effects of Counterfeiting on Consumer Search", *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol. 5 (September), pp. 1-12.

Goffman, E. (1959), "*The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life*", Garden City, NY: Doubleday.

Gould, S.J. (1993), "Assessing self-concept discrepancy in consumer behaviour: The Joint effect of private self-consciousness and self-monitoring", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 20, pp. 419-24.

Graeff, T.R. (1996), "Image Congruence Effects on Product Evaluations: The Role of Self-Monitoring and Public/ Private Consumption", *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 13, (5), pp. 481-99.

Graeff, T.R. (1997), "Consumption Situations and the Effects of Brand Image on Consumers Brand Evaluation", *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 14, (1), pp. 49-70.

Graeff, T.R. (2013), personal communication through email.

Green, P.E., Maheshwari, A., Rao, V.R. (1969), "Self-concept and brand preference: An empirical application of multidimensional scaling", Journal of the Market Research Society, Vol. 11, (4), pp.343-360.

Grossman, G.M., and Shapiro, C. (1988), "Foreign Counterfeiting of Status Goods", *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 103 (February), pp. 79-100.

Grubb, E.L. (1965), "Consumer perception of self-concept and its relation to brand choice of selected product types", *Marketing and economic development*, American Marketing Association, Chicago, pp. 419-22.

Grubb, E.L., and Grathwohl, H.L. (1967), "Consumer self-concept, symbolism and market behaviour: a theoretical approach", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 31, (4), pp. 22-7.

Grubb, E.L., and Hupp, G. (1968), "Perception of Self, Generalized Stereotypes, and Brand Selection", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 5 (February), pp. 58-63.

Grubb, E.L., and Stern, B.L. (1971), "Self-concept and significant others", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 8, pp. 382-85.

Han, S.P., and Shavitt, S. (1994), ":Persuasion and culture: Advertising appeals in individualistic and collectivistic societies", *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 30, pp. 326-50.

Harvey, P.J., and Walls, W.D. (2003), "The revealed demand for pirate goods: probit analysis of experimental data", *International Journal of Management*, Vol. 20, (2), pp.194-201.

Hedrick-Wong, Y. (2007), Succeeding Like Success: The Affluent Consumers of Asia, John Wiley & Sons (Asia) Pte. Ltd.

Hodson, G., Sorrentino, R.M. (1999), "Uncertainly orientation and the big five personality structure", *Journal of Research in Personality*, Vol. 33, pp. 253-61.

Hoe, L., Hogg, G. and Susan, H. (2003), "Fakin'It: Counterfeiting and Consumer Contradictions", *European Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 6, pp. 60-67.

Hogg, M., Cox, A., and Keeling K. (2000), "The impact of self-monitoring on image congruence and product/ brand evaluation", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 34, (5/6), pp. 641-66.

Hung, C.L. (2003), "The business of product counterfeiting in China and the post-WTO membership environment", *Asia Pacific Business Review*, Vol. 10, (1), pp.58-77.

Holbrook, M.B., Solomon, M.R., and Bell, S. (1990), "A Re-Examination of Self-Monitoring and Judgments of Furniture Designs", *Home Economics Research Journal*, Vol. 19, September, pp. 6-16.

Holman, R. (1981), "Product as Communication: A Fresh Appraisal of Venerable Topic", *Review of Marketing*, Chicago: American Marketing Association, pp. 106-19.

Hong. J. (1994), "The resurrection of advertising in China", *Asian Survey*, Vol. 34, (4), pp.326-42.

Hong. J.W., and Zinkan, G.M. (1995), "Self-concept and advertising effectiveness: The influence of Congruency, Conspicuousness, and Response Mode", *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 12, (1), pp. 53-77.

Howell, D.C. (1982), *Statistical methods for psychology*, Boston, MA: Duxbury Press.

Kakkar, P., Lutz, R.J. (1981), "Situational Influence on Consumer Behaviour: A Review", *Perspectives in Consumer Behaviour*, third edition, Glenview IL: Scott, Foresman, pp. 204-14.

Kang, S. (2003), "Nike, Serena Williams Partner Up", *The Wall Street Journal*, December 12, 2003, p. B2.

Kau, A., Keng, R.H., and Swinyard, W.R. (1990), "The mortality of software piracy: a cross-cultural analysis", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 9, (8), pp. 655-64.

Kay, H. (1990), "Fake's progress", *Management Today*, July, pp. 54-8.

Keller, K.L. (2003), "Brand Synthesis", *Journal of Consumer Research*, March, pp.595-600.

Kernan, J.B., and Somers, M.S. (1967), "Dimensions of Product Perception", *Southern Journal of Busines*s, April, pp. 94-102.

Kumar, V., and Ganesh, J. (1995), "State-of-the-art in brand equity research: What we know and what needs to be known", *Australasian Journal of Market Research*, Vol. 3, (1), pp. 3-21.

Kurts, A. (1995), "Protecting your brand name", *Marketing*, September, pp.57-8.

Kwong, K.K., Yu, W.Y.P., Leung, J.W.K., and Wang, K. (2009), "Attitude Toward Counterfeits and Ethnic Groups: Comparing Chinese and Western Consumers Purchasing Counterfeits", *Journal of Euromarketing*, Vol. 18, (3), pp.157-68.

Lamone, R.P. (1966), "The use of semantic differential in a study of self image, product image and prediction of consumer choice", unpublished PhD. Thesis, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195.

Lampert, P. (2004), "Cognitive dissonance", *Progressive Grocer*, Vol. 83, May, p16.

Levy, S. (1959), "Symbols for sale", *Harvard Business Review,* Vol. 37, pp.117-124.

Lennox, R., and Wolfe, R. (1984), "Revision of the Self-Monitoring Scale", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 46, pp. 349-64.

Lichtenstein, D. R., Ridgway, N. M., and Netemeyer, R.G. (1993), "Price perceptions and consumer shopping behaviour: a field study", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 30, May, pp. 234-45.

Louis Vuitton Moet Hennessey (2007), "Exceptional People, Extraordinary Journeys: The New Louis Vuitton Core Values Advertising Campaign", *The Magazine*, (October 10), available at http://www.lvmh.com.

Lu, X., and Pras, B. (2006), "Une typologie des consommateurs de produits de luxe en Chine", *Marche et Strategies,* Philippe Beraud, Paris.

Malhotra, N.K. (1981), "A Scale to Measure Self-Concepts, Person Concepts, and Product Concepts", *Journal of Marketing Research*, November, p.462.

Mason, T. (1985), "How high tech foils the counterfeiters", *Popular Science*, May, p. 103.

Matz, D.C., and Wood, W. (2005), "Cognitive dissonance in groups", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 88, January, pp.22-37.

Mehta, A. (1999), "Using self-concept to assess advertising effectiveness", *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol. 39 (January/ February), pp. 81-9.

Mehrabian, A. (1995). "Relationships among three general approaches to personality description", *Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 129, pp. 565-581.

Mitchell, A.A., and Olson, J.C. (1981), "Are Product Attribute Beliefs the Only Mediators of Advertising Effects on Brand Attitudes?" *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 18 (3), pp. 318-322.

Mowen, J.C., and Minor, M. (1998), *Consumer Behaviour*, Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

Munson, J.M. (1974), "Topological investigation of self-concept congruity and brand preference: Toward a predictive model", Ann Arbor, MI: University Microfilms International.

Nantel, J., and Strahle, W. (1986),"The self-monitoring concept: a consumer perspective", *Advances in Consumer Research*, pp. 83-7.

Nasar, J.L. (1989), "Symbolic Meanings of House Styles", *Environment and Behaviour*, Vol. 21, May, pp. 235-57.

Nia, A., and Judith, L.Z. (2000), "Do counterfeits devalue the ownership of luxury brands?", *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, Vol. 9, (7), p. 485.

O'Cass, A. (2000), "A psychometric evaluation of a revised version of the Lennox and Wolfe revised self-monitoring scale", *Psychology and Marketing*, Vol. 17, (5), pp. 397-419.

O'Cass, A. (2001), "Consumer self-monitoring, materialism and involvement in fashion clothing", *Australasian Marketing Journal*, Vol. 9, (1), pp. 46-60.

O'Cass, A., and Lim, K. (2002), "The influence of brand associations on brand preference and purchase intention: An Asian perspective on brand association", *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 14, (2/3), pp.41-72.

Osgood, C.E., Suci, G., and Tannenbaum, P. (1957), *The measurement of meaning*. Urbana, IL: Univeristy of Illinois Press.

Olsen, J.E., and Granzin, K.L. (1992), "Gaining retailers' assistance in fighting counterfeiting: conceptualisation and empirical test of a helping model", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 68, (1), Spring, pp. 90-112.

Onkvist, S., and Shaw, J. J. (1987), "Self-concept and image congruence: Some research and managerial implications", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Winter, pp. 13-24.

Parker, B. (2009), "A comparison of brand personality and brand user-imagery congruence", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 26, (3), pp.175-84.

Penz, E., and Stottinger, B, (2005), "Forget the 'Real' Thing: Take the Copy! An Explanatory Model for the Volitional Purchase of Counterfeit Products", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 32, (1), pp.568-75.

Penz, E., and Stottinger, B. (2008), "Corporate Image and Product Similarity-Assessing Major Demand Drivers for Counterfeits in a Multi-Country Study", *Psychology and Marketing*, Vol. 25, (4), pp. 352-81.

Perry, V.G. (2001), "Antecedents of consumer financing decisions: a mental accounting model of revolving credit usage", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 28, (1), p.13.

Phau, I., and Prendergast, G. (1998), "Custom made fakes: a mutant strain of counterfeit products", *Proceedings of Globalisation of Business*, 16-18 November, Cyprus.

Phau, I., Prendergast, G., and Chuen L.H. (2001), "Profiling brand-priacy-prone consumers: an exploratory study in Hong Kong's clothing industry", *Journal of Fashion Marketing Management*, Vol. 5, (1), pp. 45-55.

Porteous, S.D. (2001), "China's trade advantage undermined by counterfeiting menace", *World Trade*, November, pp. 28-9.

Praet, C.L.C. (2001), "Japanese advertising, the world number one celebrity showcase? A cross-cultural comparison of the frequency of celebrity appearances in TV advertising", *Proceedings of the 2001 special Asia-Pacific conference of the American Academy of Advertising*, pp. 6-13.

Praet, C.L.C. (2008), "The influence of national culture on the use of celebrity endorsement in television advertising: A multi-country study. *Proceedings of the 7th international conference on research in advertising.* Antwerp, Belgium,s.1., CD-ROM.

Prendergast, G., Leung, H., and Phau I. (2002), "Understanding consumer demand for non-deceptive pirated brand", *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol. 20, (7), pp. 405-16.

Rosenberg, M. (1979), *Conceiving the self*, Basic Books Inc., New York.

Ross, I. (1971), "Self-concept and brand preference", *Journal of Business*, Vol. 44, (1), pp. 38-50.

Rutter, J. and Bryce, J. (2008), "The Consumption of Counterfeit Goods: 'Here be Pirates?', *Sociology*, Vol. 42, (6), pp.1146-64.

Schewe, C.D. and Dillon, W.R. (1978), "Marketing information system utilisation: An application of self-concept theory", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 6, pp.67-79.

Schiffman,L.G. and Kanuk, L.L. (2000), *Comsumer Behavior*,7d ed. Prentice-Hall.

Sharma, P., and Chan, R.Y.K. (2011), "Counterfeit Proneness: Conceptualization and Scale Development", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 27, (5/6), pp.602-26.

Simonson, I., and Nowlis, S. (2000), "The Role of Explanations and Need for Uniqueness in Consumer Decision Making: Unconventional Choices Based on Reasons", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 27, (1), pp.49-68.

Sirgy, M. J., and Danes, J.,(1981), "Self-image/ Product-image Congruence Models: Testing Selected Mathematical Models", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 9, pp 556-61.

Sirgy, M.J. (1982), "Self-concept in consumer behaviour: A critical review", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 9, pp. 287-300.

Sirgy, M.J. (1985), "Using self-congruity and ideal congruity to predict purchase motivation", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 13, pp. 195-206.

Sirgy, M.J. (1986), *Self-Congruity: Toward a Theory of Personality and Cybernetics*, Praeger Publishers, New York, NY.

Sirgy, M.J., Grewal, D., Mangleburg, T.F., Park, J., Chon, K., Claiborne, C.B., Johar, J.S. and Berkman, H. (1997), "Assessing the predictive validity of two methods of measuring self-image congruence", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 25(3), pp. 229-41.

Snyder, C. R., and Fromkin, H.L. (1980), "*Uniqueness: The Human Pursuit of Difference*", New York: Kluwer Academic.

Snyder, M. (1974), "The self-monitoring of expressive behaviour", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 30, pp 526-537.

Snyder, M. (1979), "Self-monitoring processes", *Advances in experimental social psychology*, Vol.12, pp. 85-128.
Snyder, M. (1989), "Selling images versus selling products: Motivational foundations of consumer attitudes and behaviour", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 16, pp.306-11.

Snyder, M., and Debono, K.G. (1985), "Appeals to image and claims about quality: Understanding the psychology of advertising", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 49, pp. 586-97.

Snyder, M., and Debono, K.G. (1987), "*A functional approach to attitudes and persuasion*". In M. P. Zanna, J. M. Olsen, & C.P. Herman (Eds.), Social influence: The Ontario Symposium (Vol. 5). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Snyder, M., and Debono, K.G. (1988), "*Understanding the functions of attitudes: Lessons from personality and social behaviour*". In A. P. Pratkanis, S. J. Breckler, & A. G. Greenwald (Eds.), Attitude structure and function. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Snyder, M., Gangestad, S. (1986), "On the Nature of Self-Monitoring: Matters of Assessment, Matters of Validity", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 51, pp. 125-39.

Snyder, M., Tanke, E.D. (1976), "Behavior and Attitude: Some People Are More Consistent than Others*", Journal of Personality*, Vol. 44, pp. 510-17.

Solomon, M.R., and Schopler, J. (1982), "Self-Consciousness and Clothing", *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 8 (3), pp. 508-14.

Sommers, M.S. (1964), "Product Symbolism and the Perception of Social Strata", *Toward a Scientific Marketing*, pp. 200-16.

Spangenberg, E.R., and Sprott, D.E. (2006), "Self-Monitoring and Susceptibility to the influence of Self-Prophecy", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 32, (3), pp. 550-56.

Staake, T., Thiesse, F., and Fleisch, E. (2009), "The Emergence of Counterfeit Trade: A Literature Review", European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 43, (3/4), pp.320-49.

Stoettinger, B., and Penz, E. (2003), "The Demand for Counterfeits: Are Consumers Across Borders Triggered by the Same Motives?", *Advances in Consumer Research*, Vol. 10, pp. 81-89.

Sung, Y., and Tinkham, S.F. (2005), "Brand personality structures in the United States and Korea: Common and culture-specific factors", *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 15, (4), pp.334-50.

Swee, H., Peng, S.,Lim, E. and Tambyah, S. (2001), "Spot the difference: consumer responses towards counterfeits", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 18, (3), pp.219-35.

Tan, B. (2002), "Understanding consumer ethical decision making with respect to purchase of pirated software", *Journal of consumer Marketing*, Vol. 19, (2), pp.96-111.

Tom, G., Garibaldi, B., Zeng, Y. and Pilcher, J. (1998), "Consumer demand for counterfeit goods", *Psychology and Marketing*, Vol. 15, (5), pp. 405-21.

Tucker, W. (1957), "*Foundations for a Theory of Consumer Behaviour*", New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Valerie, S. (1981), *Business Applications of Repertory Grid*, McGraw-Hill Book Company, United Kingdom.

Wagner, S.C., and Sanders, G.L. (2001), "Considerations in ethical decision making and software piracy", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 29, (1/2), pp.161-7.

Wan, W.W.N., Luk, C. L., Yau, O.H., Tse, A.C.B., Sin, L.Y.M., Kwong, K.K. and Chow, R.P.M. (2009), "Do Traditional Chinese Cultural Values Nourish a Market for Pirated CDs?", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 88, pp. 185-96.

Wang, C.L., Bristol, T., Mowen, J.C., and Chakraborty, G. (2000), "Alternative modes of self-construal: Dimensions of connectedness-separateness and advertising appeals to the cultural and gender-specific self", *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 9, pp.107-15.

Warner, L. (1959), "*The Living and the Dead*", New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Wee, C. H., Tan, S. J. and Cheek, K. H. (1995), "Non-price determinants of intention to purchase counterfeit goods – an exploratory study", *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 12, (6), pp. 19-46.

Wilcox, K.. Hyeong, M.K., and Sankar, S. (2009), "Why do consumers buy counterfeit luxury brands?", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 46, pp.247-59.

Wisenblit, J.Z. (1989), "Person Positioning: Empirical Evidence and a Paradigm", *Journal of Professional Services Marketing*, Vol. 4, pp. 53-84.

Yang, C. (1995, September 11). Out!Out! Damned Knockoffs. Business Week, p.6.

Yang, C.E., Ho, S.C., and Yau, H.M. (1989), "*A conception of Chinese consumer behaviour', Hong Kong Marketing Management at the Crossroads: A Case Analysis Approach, Hong Kong*, Commercial Press, pp. 317-42.

APPENDIX A: Congruence Calculations Demonstration

The following steps provide insight into the calculations of the mean difference score of congruence (for actual self-image and ideal self-image).

1. After having measured brand image and self images on the same semantic differential scales.

Semantic differential scale	Brand Image	Self-image	Difference
Youthful-1234567-Mature	7	5	7-5=2
Pleasant-1234567-Unpleasant	5	2	5-2=3
Rational-1234567-Emotional	1	2	1-2=-1

2. The Euclidean distance model is applied as follows:

For the 3 dimensions described above, the square root of: 2 (squared) +3(squared)+-1(squared)
= square root of: 4+9+1
= square root of :14
= 3.74

3. This difference score for this subject can then be analysed like any other variable regressed against brand attitude, correlated with another variable, etc. For example, each subject will have a difference score and a brand attitude. One can correlate the difference scores with attitudes. If the correlation is significantly negative (and one measured attitude on a seven point scale where large numbers indicate more favourable attitudes), this tell one that the more similar a consumer's self-image is to the brand image (smaller the difference score), the more favourable one's brand attitude (larger in 1-7 scale values).

APPENDIX B: Different Overall Score Calculations

SIMPLE-DIFFERENCE MODEL:	∑(S-P)
WEIGHTED SIMPLE-DIFFERENCE MODEL:	∑W(S-P)
SIMPLE-DIFFERENCE DIVISIONAL MODEL:	∑(S-P)/P
WEIGHTED DIVISIONAL MODEL:	∑W(S/P)
EUCLIDEAN-DISTANCE MODEL:	√ (∑(S-P)□)

Source: Based on Sirgy(1982)

APPENDIX C: Survey Instrument

Survey Questionnaire (Consumer Product)

Instructions:

The following is a study about the consumer buying behaviour concerning counterfeit products. We are surveying university students for their opinions about genuine and counterfeit brand products. Your input is very valuable, so please answer the following questions very carefully.

(The participation is voluntary and anonymous)

Before you start, I would like you to take a moment and think about the brands Gucci (both genuine and counterfeit).

Section 1

Q1. Please indicate your familiarity, experience and your attitude towards the **Genuine** brand Gucci. Tick the boxes which are appropriate.

How familiar are you with the genuine brand Gucci?

Not at all familiar Very familiar

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How much experience have you had with the genuine brand Gucci?

Hardly any A great deal

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

What is your attitude toward the genuine brand Gucci?

Unfavourable Favourable

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

What is your attitude toward the genuine brand Gucci?

Bad Good

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

What is your attitude toward the genuine brand Gucci?

Dislike Like

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

If you can afford, how likely you will buy the genuine brand Gucci products?

Extremely unlikely Extremely likely

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q2. Please indicate your attitude and purchase intention toward the **Counterfeit** brand Gucci. Tick the boxes which are appropriate.

How familiar are you with the counterfeit brand Gucci?

Not at all familiar Very familiar

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How much experience have you had with the counterfeit brand Gucci?

Hardly any A great deal

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

What is your attitude toward the counterfeit brand Gucci?

Unfavourable Favourable

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

What is your attitude toward counterfeit brand Gucci?

Bad Good

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

What is your attitude toward the counterfeit brand Gucci?

Dislike Like

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

If you can afford, how likely you will buy the counterfeit brand Gucci products?

Extremely unlikely Extremely likely

1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q3. Now I would like you to think about the brands one at a time, and rate them on the following scales how you perceive their image.

3a – Brand Gucci (Genuine)

Youthful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mature
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unpleasant
Rational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Emotional
Uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Comfortable
Rugged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Delicate
Colourless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Colourful
Dominating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Submission
Complex	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Simple
Formal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Informal
Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Low energy
Thrifty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Indulgent
Contemporary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uncontemporary

3b – Brand Gucci (Counterfeit)

Youthful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mature
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unpleasant
Rational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Emotional
Uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Comfortable
Rugged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Delicate
Colourless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Colourful
Dominating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Submission
Complex	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Simple

Formal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Informal
Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Low energy
Thrifty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Indulgent
Contemporary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uncontemporary

Q4. Now I would like you to describe yourself as you **actually** are. Think about how you see yourself. What kind of person are you? How would you describe your personality? On the following scales, tick the boxes that best represents how you actually see yourself.

Youthful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mature
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unpleasant
Rational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Emotional
Uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Comfortable
Rugged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Delicate
Colourless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Colourful
Dominating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Submission
Complex	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Simple
Formal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Informal
Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Low energy
Thrifty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Indulgent
Contemporary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uncontemporary

Q5. Describe yourself as you would **ideally** like to be. Think about how you would like to see yourself. What kind of person would you like to be? How would you like to be able to describe your personality? On the following scales, tick the boxes that best represent how you would ideally like to see yourself.

Youthful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Mature
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unpleasant
Rational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Emotional

Uncomfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Comfortable
Rugged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Delicate
Colourless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Colourful
Dominating	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Submission
Complex	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Simple
Formal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Informal
Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Low energy
Thrifty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Indulgent
Contemporary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uncontemporary

Q6. SELF-MONITORING SCALE

DIRECTIONS: The statements below concern your personal reactions to a number of different situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering. IF a statement is TRUE or MOSTLY TRUE as applied to you, **circle the "T"** next to the question. If a statement is FALSE or NOT USUALLY TRUE as applied to you, **circle the "F"** next to the question.

(T) (F) 1. I find it hard to imitate the behaviour of other people.

(T) (F) 2. My behavior is usually an expression of my true inner feelings, attitudes, and beliefs.

(T) (F) 3. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.

(T) (F) 4. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.

(T) (F) 5. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.

(T) (F) 6. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.

(T) (F) 7. When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look to the behavior of others for cues.

(T) (F) 8. I would probably make a good actor.

(T) (F) 9. I rarely seek the advice of my friends to choose movies, books, or music.

(T) (F) 10. I sometimes appear to others to be experiencing deeper emotions than I actually am.

(T) (F) 11. I laugh more when I watch a comedy with others than when alone.

(T) (F) 12. In groups of people, I am rarely the center of attention.

(T) (F) 13. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.

(T) (F) 14. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.

(T) (F) 15. Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time.

(T) (F) 16. I'm not always the person I appear to be.

(T) (F) 17. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor.

(T) (F) 18. I have considered being an entertainer.

(T) (F) 19. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.

(T) (F) 20. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.

(T) (F) 21. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.

(T) (F) 22. At a party, I let others keep the jokes and stories going.

(T) (F) 23. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well as I should.

(T) (F) 24. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).

(T) (F) 25. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Section 2

Q7. Please fill in as appropriate.

Gender: Female O

Male O

Age:

Ethnic background:

"If you want to receive a summary of the report – Please contact me at my email: kenlee@ln.edu.hk

Thank you for your support!

APPENDIX D: Information Sheet for Subjects

Dear Participants,

RE: An Invitation for the Survey

By: Mr. Kenneth J. Lee (email: Kenlee@ln.edu.hk, telephone: (852) 2616-8319)

This survey is a research project for the requirement of a **doctoral study** from the University of South Australia, International Graduate School of Business (IDSB), Division of Business.

As the researcher for this study, I would like to invite you, whom I deeply appreciate as a valuable participant, for this study.

The research project is related to

"Image Congruence Effects on the Purchase Intentions of Genuine and Counterfeit Brands: the Role of Self-monitoring".

- This is an academic study to examine such a personality variable - the role of self-monitoring on the effects of brand self-image congruence on the purchase intentions of genuine branded products and counterfeit branded products.
- The questionnaire is divided into 2 sections. For section 1 (question 1-6), these questions briefly describe a particular feeling towards either the product or yourself. Since there is no right or wrong answer, please just circle the number that you think how you feel.
- Section 2 is related to some personal information which helps to perform data analysis and making this study more meaningful.
- This is a ***voluntary and anonymous*** survey and no incentive for participation.
- It is important to note that all participants are free to leave or discard the survey any time of your own accord.
- All information collected are kept in strict confidence and would not be released in any form or any means to outsiders. All information collected as part of the study will be retained for five years and stored on CDRom in a

locked cabinet at the researcher's office as per university policy. Data analysis will only be used for academic reference.

The University of South Australia's Human Research Ethics Committee has reviewed this study. Should you wish to discuss the project with someone directly involved, in particular in relation to matters concerning policies, information about the conduct of the study, or your rights as a participant, please contact: Ms Lan Lac, Executive Officer

IGSB Human Research Ethics Committee
University of South Australia
GPO Box 2471, Adelaide SA 5000
Email: Lan.Lac@unisa.edu.au

- The researcher will take every care to remove responses from any identifying material as early as possible. Likewise, individual's responses will be kept confidential by the researcher and not be identified in the reporting of the research.
- Participants who are interested to know the result of the survey can contact me at the following address:

Kenlee@ln.edu.hk

Thank you for your support and participation.

Kenneth J. Lee

APPENDIX E: Kelly's Repertory Grid Techniques

According to Buttle (1985), "A critical issue in store image studies is the method by which these (bi-polar adjectives) criteria are obtained. A disturbing tendency in such image research is for the researcher to select the criteria himself and ask subjects to evaluate stores (brands or products) against them". The Repertory Grid Technique will be applied as follows:

- Before the initial interview, respondents were requested to add any further brands which they know or prefer.
- A minimum of nine elements (brands in this case) are listed in separate cards from which three at a time are randomly chosen and shown to the interviewee.
- The randomly selected triads are shown to subjects.
- The subjects are then asked to find the odd one out of the three brands. Subjects, for example, may say that brand A is the odd one, the researcher will then ask why this is so.
- With the same triad, respondents are asked to provide more differences, the first few constructs mentioned by respondents are normally been very obvious differences. However, it is the researcher's initiative to ask the respondents to find more differences especially relevant to their feelings or images which the brands represent to them.
- Nine to ten separate triads will be shown to subjects. This will then be replicated with further subjects.

Further details on Repertory Grid Techniques can be found from Valerie (1981), and Buttle (1985).

APPENDIX F: Sample Size Equation

The targeted sample sizes for the study (n=200) was calculated using Dillman's (2000) suggested sample size:

$$Ns = \frac{(N_p)(p)(1 - p)}{(N_p - 1)(B/C)^2 + (p)(1 - p)}$$

In this equation, N_s represents the necessary sample size,

N_p represents the estimated size of the population, (=415)

p represents the estimated response (=50%)

B represents the amount of sampling error, (=5%) and

C represents the Z statistic associated with the selected confidence level.(=1.96)

Therefore, Ns = 200 (Round up)