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# **Counterfeiting and Culture: Consumer Attitudes towards Counterfeit Products**

## **Abstract**

This paper examines how culture influences consumer attitudes and behavior towards counterfeit luxury products. By using structural equation modeling and multigroup analysis on survey data, this paper shows how consumers' attitude towards counterfeits is stronger in Individualist and Feminine countries, and mainly influenced by social consensus and purpose of purchase.

To reduce the demand for counterfeits, marketers must therefore adopt culture-specific strategies to address subtle differences among various cultural groups. While counterfeiting should be emphasized as a shameful practice in Individualist countries, more emphasis should be placed on the overall society's well-being rather than individual rights in Collective countries.

## **Key Words**

1. Counterfeiting
2. Culture
3. Cultural influences
4. Consumer behavior
5. Counterfeit luxury products

## **Introduction**

In recent years, the world market for counterfeit products – i.e., low quality, unauthorized replicas of products protected by Intellectual Property (IP) rights, usually sold through unauthorized channels at a fraction of the originals' cost – has dramatically increased (ICC, 2011). Among other product categories, luxury products are the most counterfeited, given their high dependence on brand name, reputation and image; they are also very popular with consumers and require relatively simple production technologies (Nia and Zaichkowsky 2000; Penz and Stöttinger 2005; Yoo and Lee 2009). However, counterfeiting cannot be attributed solely to sellers: demand from consumers who knowingly purchase counterfeit goods is, in fact, a major cause for the existence and growth of the phenomenon (Gentry et al. 2001; Norum and Cuno 2011).

Culture has been identified as a key factor in influencing attitude and purchase intention of counterfeits (Chakraborty et al. 1996; Wan et al. 2009; Ang et al. 2001; Bian and Veloutsou 2007; Chapa et al. 2006; Penz and Stöttinger 2008). With respect to previous studies, however, this work takes into account the fact that culture is a multidimensional issue that affects counterfeit purchases in a complex manner.

The objective of this paper is thus to address such a complexity by studying the moderating effect of culture on the relationships between determinants, attitudes and purchase intentions of counterfeit (vs. original) luxury products. The approach taken is to measure cultural differences through two of Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions (Individualism-Collectivism and Masculinity-Femininity, since together they can better represent countries' cultural traits) on a sample of consumers from around the world.

## **Conceptual Framework, Research Model and Hypotheses**

Previous research has investigated the determinants of consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of counterfeit products (Staake et al. 2009; Phau and Teah 2009; Bian and Moutinho 2011; Kim et al. 2012; Poddar et al. 2012; Liao and Hsieh 2013). The model proposed here is derived from the studies of Eisend and Schuchert-Güler (2006) and Yoo and Lee (2009), to which we added the cultural moderating variable (Hofstede 1980; Steenkamp et al. 1999). As Figure 1 shows, consumer's purchase intention of counterfeits and of originals is influenced by five determinants, whose effect may be (partly or totally) mediated by consumers' attitude.

*Figure 1 about here.*

### ***Determinants***

*Price Sensitivity (PS).* Consumers who are sensitive to price have been found to be more prone to buying counterfeit products rather than original products (Nia and Zaichkowsky 2000). Thus, a high sensitivity to price has a positive effect on counterfeit products' evaluation by the consumer (D'Astous and Gargouri 2001). Price sensitivity can also be representative of a whole set of personal attributes ranging from monthly income to perceived risk (De Matos et al. 2007), value consciousness (Wang et al. 2005) and product involvement (Bian and Moutinho 2011).

*Brand Sensitivity (BS).* Also brand sensitivity positively affects counterfeit purchases (D'Astous and Gargouri 2001). If the consumer has a high sensitivity to the brand, this turns into attraction towards the counterfeit product, as the fake still conveys a 'prestigious' image. Consumers buying luxury products aim to show that they can afford the high prices of famous brand names, purchasing more of both original and counterfeit products (Nia and Zaichkowsky 2000). Developing this idea, brand sensitivity is used in this model to represent personal image (Chuchinprakarn 2003), self-identity (Yoo and Lee 2009), personal gratification and novelty-seeking (Wang et al. 2005).

*Price/Quality inference (P/Q)*. In general terms, price advantage associated to counterfeit goods is one of the main motives for their purchase (Albers-Miller 1999). More specifically, however, previous studies have demonstrated that some consumers (*smart shoppers*) will choose counterfeits if they believe that such products are equal to the genuine, except for the fact that they offer a higher price advantage; others, alternatively, believe that the price cut more than compensates the loss of quality (Poddar et al. 2012).

*Social Consensus (SC)*. Social consensus refers to the acceptance or rejection of consumers' behavior by a social circle of family members, friends or business associates (Tan 2002). The more adverse the social consensus towards counterfeiting, the lower the intention to purchase fakes by a consumer, and vice versa. Social consensus also accounts for influences of group membership and aspiration (Chuchinprakarn 2003), ethical conceptions, moral judgments and integrity (De Matos et al. 2007), legality (Wang et al. 2005) and religious beliefs (Penz and Stöttinger 2005).

*Purpose of purchase (PU)*. Bian and Veloutsou (2007) tested the effect of the purpose of purchase on attitude towards counterfeit products. They made a distinction between personal use and use as presents, showing how consumers were more willing to buy counterfeits for themselves rather than for others. In turn, counterfeit purchases are usually made for (in descending order) personal use, family member use, gifts to other, exchange with others, and other (Prendergast et al. 2002), and are more likely to occur on holiday rather than at home (Eisend and Schuchert-Güler 2006).

### ***Culture as a moderating variable***

Over this basic model, we considered the moderating role played by the cultural dimension. Culture is a subtle factor underlying attitudes, behaviors, perceptions and ideologies that is very difficult to change. Each culture around the globe has its own norms for what its citizens should think, say, do and wear (Lee and Workman 2011). It determines systematic differences

in consumer behavior and also affects the needs consumers satisfy through the acquisition and use of goods (Steenkamp et al. 1999). Since counterfeiting is a global phenomenon, analyzing how culture can influence attitudes and behaviors becomes particularly relevant (Penz et al. 2009). Previous studies have demonstrated that culture-specific influences (values, legal norms, ethical codes) push different ethnic groups to behave differently on counterfeiting issues (Chakraborty et al. 1996; Husted 2000). However, the mechanisms through which culture affects consumers' attitudes and purchase intention have not been fully addressed by previous literature.

To empirically analyze cultural influences, this study makes use of Hofstede's (1980) cultural paradigm, and focuses on the role played by Individualism and Masculinity out of the five cultural dimensions identified in the original study<sup>1</sup>. These two variables were chosen since individualistic and masculine countries would likely share many of the same characteristics, such as the desire for individual achievement and preference for autonomy (Clements et al. 2009), and since it has been proven that differences of perceptions of ethicality are associated with both individualism and masculinity (Arnold et al. 2007).

Individualism and collectivism define the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. They represent the way people relate to others in their society and reflect emotional and cognitive attachments to particular networks of individuals (Husted 2000). In collectivist cultures, morality is defined in terms of good of the well-being of the group, which means the maintenance of solidarity. On the other hand, in individualist countries, equity is preferred over equality. Collectivistic cultures emphasize mutual obligations and concerns for the needs of the group before those of oneself (Swaidan 2012). Therefore, when referring to counterfeit products, collectivist cultures will propend more towards sharing, since "individual claims on intellectual property are subordinated to more fundamental claims of social well-being"

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<sup>1</sup> Hofstede's cultural model was chosen since many studies in international marketing have proved the validity of its variables for cross-cultural analyses (Clark 1990; Soondergaard 1994; Soares et al. 2007, etc.).

(Steidlmeier 1993). In these societies counterfeiters should flourish since greater product variety and consumption with the purpose of differentiating the purchaser from others are the widespread cultural norms (Santos and Ribeiro 2006). Individualist cultures, by contrast, will tend to condemn counterfeiting much more since individual rights prevail over group interests. Therefore, we claim:

**H1:** *Individualism* will moderate the relationships between determinants, attitudes and purchase intentions. The lower the *Individualism* of a country, the stronger the effect of determinants on purchase intention of counterfeits.

Masculinity vs. femininity refers to the solutions given by countries to the distribution of roles between genders, but also to the emphasis put onto wealth, success, ambition, material things, and achievement (in masculine countries) versus helping others, preserving the environment, and equality (in feminine countries). In masculine countries, ethical issues regarding business are less strongly perceived; such cultures tend to stress competition among people, performance, material success, ostentatious manliness and the pursuit of visible achievement. Therefore it has been suggested that the “success-oriented” mentality of masculine countries fosters corruption, ethically questionable business practices and, therefore, the development of favorable attitudes and purchase intentions of counterfeit goods (Ronkainen and Cusumano 2001; Paul et al. 2006; Santos and Ribeiro 2006; Moores 2008).

We therefore state:

**H2:** *Masculinity* will moderate the relationships between determinants, attitudes and purchase intentions. The higher the *Masculinity* of a country, the stronger the effect of determinants on purchase intention of counterfeits.

## **Methodology**

### ***Sample and Data Collection***

A sample of university students from various countries was employed for this study. Students were chosen as our respondents in order to increase homogeneity of the sample and to minimize random error caused by selecting the general public (Calder et al. 1981); furthermore, they were chosen since they fall in the age group with a financial income that doesn't usually allow them access to genuine luxury products, making them attracted to counterfeits (Gentry et al. 2001). The data was collected on through a website where students took one out of two identical self-administered questionnaires, diverging only on the brand of the products tested. Participation was voluntary; anonymity was ensured and the demographic details were requested purely for statistical analysis. Given the cultural and linguistic diversity of respondents, the questionnaire was developed and submitted only in English under the assumption that all international university students have the same medium-high English knowledge, face the same difficulties in comprehension, and likely interpret the questions in the same way (Lowe and Corkindale 1998). A total of 204 complete responses were received.

### ***Research Instrument and Measures***

The questionnaire consisted of 6 sections and 30 questions. The survey instruments were built by adapting scales validated in previous research. All scales had a good reliability and a good consistency of measure (Cronbach  $\alpha$  values are greater than 0.7, except for PS (0.63) - Table 1). Table 2 shows Pearson's correlation tests among individual variables.

*Tables 1 and 2 about here.*

Section 1 through 5 used 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (7). Section 6 collected information on the respondents' demographic characteristics, i.e. gender, age, education, occupation, nationality and income (table 3).

*Table 3 about here.*



In regards to the two cultural variables, each respondent was assigned to a “high” level or a “low” level of Individualism (IDV) and Masculinity (MAS), depending on whether the value of the two variables for their country-of-origin (taken from Hofstede’s 1980 original study) was higher or lower than the average of the respective variables computed across all respondents (table 4).

*Table 4 about here.*

### ***Product and Brand Stimuli***

In order to involve the respondents in a hypothetical purchase-intention situation, sections 5 and 6 were about specific products and brands. Given the budget constraints that students usually face, we excluded from our analysis luxurious product categories that were considered too expensive (e.g. dresses, watches, cars). We thus focused on sunglasses since this product category is widely used among young people. Gucci and Dolce&Gabbana brands were chosen since both are famous Italian luxury brands and among the most counterfeited worldwide.

### ***Procedure***

After having collected all responses to the questionnaire, we first performed descriptive statistics on the data; then, using AMOS 17 software, we performed a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to verify the consistency of the measurements of our constructs; finally, we ran the overall model using Structural Equations Modeling (SEM) and performed multigroup analysis in order to test the cultural moderation of Individualism and Masculinity. Critical ratios for difference between parameters were calculated in order to verify whether the differences for each parameter between high and low IDV/MAS countries were statistically significant.

### **Findings**

### ***Econometric Model***

We used Structural Equations Modeling (SEM) to analyze the overall model and the model with cultural moderation.

According to the results of a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)<sup>2</sup>, we decided to use the mean values of question items as representative of the 5 unobserved determinants.

After running the overall model with SEM, multigroup analysis (Byrne 2001) was carried out to test cultural moderation. Results of the analysis are reported in table 5.

*Table 5 about here.*

Only three determinants (**P/Q**, **SC** and **PU**) resulted to have a significant effect on **Attitude**. Direct relationships between determinants and purchase intentions were significant for **P/Q** and **PU** towards purchase intention of counterfeits (**PIC**) (positive relationships), and for **BS** and **SC** towards purchase intention of originals (**PIO**) (positive relationships). **Attitude** was found to significantly affect both **PIC** (positive relationship) and **PIO** (negative relationship) (Figure 2).

*Figure 2 about here.*

### ***Cultural Influences***

While a general comparison between the original model and the model with cultural moderation will be discussed further below, in this section we focus our attention on the moderating effect of the two cultural variables, IDV and MAS.

As table 5 shows, in both high and low IDV countries, Individualism influences purchase intention of counterfeits. First, relative to high IDV countries, in low IDV (collectivistic) countries **SC** and **PU** play a stronger role in determining a positive attitude towards counterfeits. Then, once consumers have formed a positive attitude towards counterfeits, the

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<sup>2</sup>  $\chi^2=234.716$ ;  $df=106$ ;  $\chi^2/df = 2.21$ ;  $p=.000$ ; CFI = .900; GFI = .900; RMSEA = .077 (Bollen & Long, 1993). Further details upon request.

effect of **Attitude** on **PIC** is greater in collectivistic countries relative to more individualistic countries. Thus, Hypothesis 1 is largely supported, even though the moderating role of Individualism has not been confirmed for all determinants.

Table 5 shows that also Masculinity affects consumers' purchase intention of counterfeits. With respect to IDV, however, we obtained counterintuitive results. First, contrary to expectations, **SC** and **PU** play a weaker role to induce a positive **Attitude** towards counterfeits in more masculine countries (high **MAS**). Furthermore, the effect of **Attitude** on purchase intention of counterfeits (**PIC**) is weaker for more masculine countries relative to less masculine countries, albeit positive in both cases. Thus, Hypothesis 2 does not find support in this study.

## **Discussions and Conclusions**

### *Discussion*

This study offers some contributions to the literature on counterfeit products. First, the inclusion of culture within the model intended both as nationality/country-of-origin and as the shared values, practices, and experiences which characterize groups of people, allows a better understanding of the counterfeiting phenomenon, in contrast with previous studies that treated culture as a residual, generic variable.

Second, since counterfeiting is a global phenomenon, this study reassessed the applicability of previous research (Chakraborty et al. 1996; Penz and Stöttinger 2005) to a broader context. Our analysis shows how culture does have a moderating effect on the relationship between determinants, **Attitude** and **PIC**. When the original model was re-run with the cultural variables, some relationships that were significant in the original model remained significant (and culture simply reinforces or weakens the original relationship), while others that were not significant in the original model became significant (Figure 3).

*Figure 3 about here.*

The effect of **Attitude** on **PIC** is lower for consumers from more Masculine countries, like Croatia, Bulgaria or Italy, compared with those from more Feminine countries, like Sweden, Holland or Finland. The effect of **Attitude** on **PIC** is lower for consumers from Individualistic cultures, like USA, Australia or Germany, compared with more Collectivist cultures, like China, Taiwan or South Korea.

### ***Managerial and Political Implications***

The results of the study provide interesting managerial and political implications on how to reduce consumer complicity and consumer demand for counterfeit products. Each national group has a different attitude towards counterfeits: global marketers must therefore be alert of the subtle cultural differences among consumers and reflect them in advertising messages and social communication campaigns aimed at curbing consumer complicity and increasing awareness on the damaging consequences of counterfeiting. For instance, in Individualist countries it should be stressed that counterfeiting is a shameful practice that brings loss of face upon family, school and business firms. In Collectivist countries, more emphasis could be placed on the overall society's well-being rather than individual rights.

Given the higher propensity of people in Collectivist cultures to purchase counterfeits, more resources should be destined to fight the phenomenon in these countries. Anti-counterfeiting campaigns, carried out by brand owners on their own or with the patronage of institutions/anti-counterfeiting associations (such as, for example, the Quality Brands Protection Committee - QBPC - China) should emphasize the unethical nature and limited social benefits of the phenomenon. Firms need to be more proactive in Collectivist countries by convincing governments that counterfeiting negatively affects countries' economies, societies and individual consumers, and that stricter regulations and *enforcement* should increase the overall well-being of the society.

A further comment should be made for the role played by Price/Quality inference (**P/Q**) in determining consumers' purchase intention of counterfeits. Even though no difference has emerged in the study between low and high IDV/MAS countries, **P/Q** remains a significant determinant for both **Attitude** and **PIC** across both cultural variables. In turn, firms should think about modifying consumers' perception of counterfeits' price/quality relationship and increasing the perceived value of buying the "real thing" (Penz et al. 2009). To further deter consumer demand for counterfeits, marketers could also activate specific anti-counterfeiting strategies (*protection, cooperation, prosecution and in-formation*) and use different technologies, either *track-and-trace, overt* or *covert* (Pastore and Cesareo 2012; Pastore and Cesareo 2013).

### ***Limitations, Further Research and Conclusion***

The study suffers different limitations. First, the limited heterogeneity of the convenience sample implies low generalizability of results. Second, only one product category was tested, affecting respondents' attitude and purchase intentions. Finally, even though Hofstede's data is the 'normal science' approach to cross-cultural business studies, it is somewhat outdated. More methodological and statistical fine-tuning is therefore required.

In order to address such limitations, the study could be extended to different product categories that require different involvement, knowledge and perceived risk (such as very luxurious jewelry, cars or clothing), thus making the results more generalizable. Furthermore, the study could be replicated using Hofstede's variables measured at the individual level (Yoo, Donthu and Lenartowicz 2011) to test cultural differences more accurately, (Husted and Allen 2008). Similarly, the cultural dimensions could be combined with demographic variables.

Albeit these limitations, this study makes an important initial contribution to the project of examining the influence of cultural differences on consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards counterfeit products. Our work suggests that firms and governments'

policies for the prevention and control of counterfeiting need to be sensitive to the cultural heterogeneity of consumers around the world.

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**Table 1: Scales, items, Cronbach  $\alpha$ s and sources**

SCALE ITEMS	AVG	STD DVT	Cronbach $\alpha$	Source
<b>Section 1. PERSON / PERSONALITY TRAITS</b>				
<b>Price Sensitivity (PS)</b>			0.630	D'Astous & Gargouri (2001)
I shop a lot for specials	4.12	1.36		
I find myself checking the prices in the grocery store even for small items	4.74	1.50		
A person can save a lot of money by shopping around for bargains	5.02	1.44		
For me, the price of a product is crucial information	5.37	1.02		
<b>Brand Sensitivity (BS)</b>			0.828	D'Astous & Gargouri (2001)
When making a purchase, I always give attention to the brand	4.47	1.48		
In general, a brand tells a lot about a product's quality	4.86	1.37		
For me, a brand name is a very important information	4.46	1.55		
<b>Section 2. PRODUCT CHARACTERISTICS</b>				
<b>Price/Quality Inference (P/Q)</b>			0.742	Lee & Workman (2011)
Buying counterfeit products demonstrates that I am a wise shopper	2.48	1.48		
I like counterfeit products because they demonstrate imitative abilities on the part of the counterfeiters	2.48	1.57		
I buy counterfeit products because the prices of the designer products are unfair and overpriced	4.04	2.04		
Counterfeit products are just as good as designer products	2.63	1.63		
<b>Section 3. SOCIAL CONTEXT</b>				
<b>Social Consensus (SC)</b>			0.777	Tan (2002)
Your friends, relatives or associates are against buying counterfeit products	3.83	1.56		
Your friends, relatives or associates regard the act of buying counterfeit products as unethical	3.62	1.54		
<b>Section 4. SITUATIONAL CONTEXT</b>				
<b>Purpose of Counterfeit Products Purchase (PU)</b>			0.790	Bian & Veloutsou (2007)
I am willing to buy counterfeit products for my own use	3.36	1.89		
I often buy counterfeit products for my own use	2.45	1.61		
I am willing to buy counterfeit products as presents	1.89	1.38		
I often buy counterfeit products as presents	1.60	1.17		
<b>Section 5. ATTITUDE</b>				
<b>Attitude (A)</b>			0.872	De Matos et al. (2007)
Considering price, I prefer counterfeit Gucci/D&G sunglasses	3.44	2.04		
I like shopping for counterfeit Gucci/D&G sunglasses	2.23	1.53		
Buying counterfeit Gucci/D&G sunglasses generally benefits the consumer	2.79	1.64		
There's nothing wrong with purchasing counterfeit Gucci/D&G sunglasses	3.06	1.82		
Generally speaking, buying counterfeit Gucci/D&G sunglasses is a better choice	2.65	1.61		
<b>Section 6. PURCHASE INTENTIONS</b>				
<b>Purchase Intention of Counterfeits (PIC)</b>			0.912	Coyle & Thorson (2001)
It is very likely that I will buy counterfeit Gucci/D&G sunglasses	2.31	1.57		
I will purchase counterfeit Gucci/D&G the next time I need sunglasses	1.98	1.38		
I will definitely try counterfeit Gucci/D&G	2.31	1.57		
Suppose a friend called you last night to get your advice in his/her search for sunglasses. Would you recommend him/her to buy counterfeit Gucci/D&G sunglasses?	2.43	1.55		
<b>Purchase Intentions of Originals (PIO)</b>			0.931	Coyle & Thorson (2001)
It is very likely that I will buy original Gucci/D&G sunglasses	4.01	1.89		
I will purchase original Gucci/D&G the next time I need sunglasses	3.67	1.84		
I will definitely try original Gucci/D&G	4.01	1.92		
Suppose a friend called you last night to get your advice in his/her search for sunglasses. Would you recommend him/her to buy original Gucci/D&G sunglasses?	4.46	1.68		

**Table 2: Correlation analysis**

<b>PS</b>	1							
<b>BS</b>	.206**	1						
<b>P/Q</b>	.204**	-.092	1					
<b>SC</b>	-.003	.142*	-.445**	1				
<b>PU</b>	.041	-.086	.613**	-.453**	1			
<b>A</b>	.071	-.022	.594**	-.460**	.594**	1		
<b>PIC</b>	.044	-.030	.616**	-.348**	.597**	.735**	1	
<b>PIO</b>	.118	.187**	-.206**	.327**	-.248**	-.417**	-.251**	1
	<b>PS</b>	<b>BS</b>	<b>P/Q</b>	<b>SC</b>	<b>PU</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>PIC</b>	<b>PIO</b>

Table 3: Sample's demographic characteristics

<i>Variable</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>% of total</i>
<b>GENDER</b>		
Male	93	45%
Female	112	55%
<b>AGE</b>		
19-21	53	26%
22-24	111	54%
25-27	25	12%
28-30	8	4%
>30	8	4%
<b>EDUCATION</b>		
1 <sup>st</sup> year	3	1.5%
2 <sup>nd</sup> year	19	9%
3 <sup>rd</sup> year	57	28%
4 <sup>th</sup> year	40	19.5%
5 <sup>th</sup> year	59	29%
6 <sup>th</sup> year	10	5%
7 <sup>th</sup> year	5	2.5%
>7 <sup>th</sup>	12	5.5%
<b>OCCUPATION</b>		
Yes, working while studying	76	37%
No, not working while studying	129	63%
<b>MONTHLY INCOME (€)</b>		
<500	106	52%
500-1,499	69	34%
1,500-2,499	7	3%
2,500-4,999	4	2%
>5,000	2	1%
No answer provided	17	8%

**Table 4: High vs. Low Individualism and Masculinity**

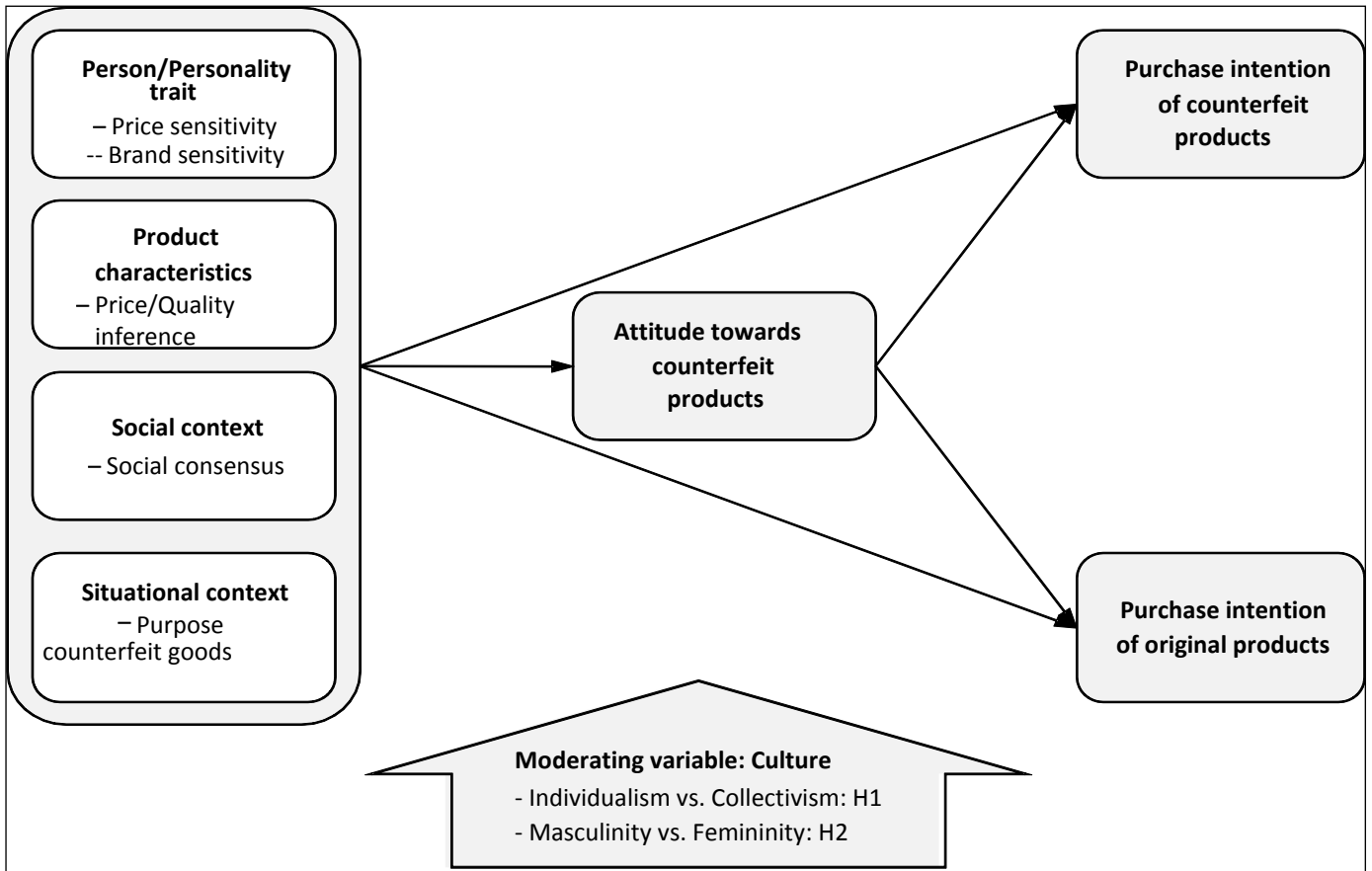
	<i>IDV</i>		<i>MAS</i>	
	<i>n.</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>n.</i>	<i>%</i>
<b><i>HIGH (H)</i></b>	143	70,09	120	58,82
<b><i>LOW (L)</i></b>	61	29,91	84	41,18
<b><i>TOTAL</i></b>	204	100	204	100

**Table 5: SEM models**

	<i>Overall Model</i>	<i>Low IDV Countries</i>	<i>High IDV Countries</i>	<i>Significance of Difference H-L IDV</i>	<i>Low MAS Countries</i>	<i>High MAS Countries</i>	<i>Significance of Difference H-L MAS</i>
<i>Proposed Path</i>	<i>Coef.</i>	<i>Coef.</i>	<i>Coef.</i>		<i>Coef.</i>	<i>Coef.</i>	
PS → A	-.024	-.036	-.032		.017	-.062	
BS → A	.066	-.011	.078		-.049	.117	
P/Q → A	.331 *	.397 *	.299 *		.320 *	.360 *	
SC → A	-.178 *	-.027	-.258 *	*	-.040	-.277 *	**
PU → A	.318 *	.447 *	.257 *	*	.507 *	.165 **	**
PS → PIC	-.055	-.150 **	-.027		-.082	-.038	
BS → PIC	.019	.109	-.010		.013	.035	
P/Q → PIC	.245 *	.180 **	.266 *		.160 **	.279 *	
SC → PIC	.079	-.034	.119 **		.011	.115	
PU → PIC	.173 *	.073	.216 *		.039	.224 *	
PS → PIO	.098	.354 *	-.038	**	.332 *	-.087	**
BS → PIO	.144 *	.002	.166 *		.027	.181 *	
P/Q → PIO	.092	-.169	.243 *	**	-.078	.249 *	*
SC → PIO	.170 *	.134	.172 *		.102	.219 *	
PU → PIO	.027	.312 *	-.159	**	.179	-.114	*
A → PIC	.528 *	.680 *	.480 *	*	.703 *	.469 *	*
A → PIO	-.413 *	-.344 *	-.479 *		-.383 *	-.480 *	
<i>RMR (&lt;0.05)</i>	0.015		0.023			0.024	
<i>RMSEA (&lt;0.08)</i>	0.017		0.071			0.062	
<i>CFI (&gt;0.95)</i>	0.999		0.996			0.997	
<i>NFI (&gt;0.95)</i>	0.998		0.994			0.993	
<i>NNFI (&gt;0.95)</i>	0.997		0.920			0.900	

\* $p < 0.1$ ; \*\* $p < 0.05$

Figure 1: Theoretical framework



**Figure 2: Significant relationships in the overall model**

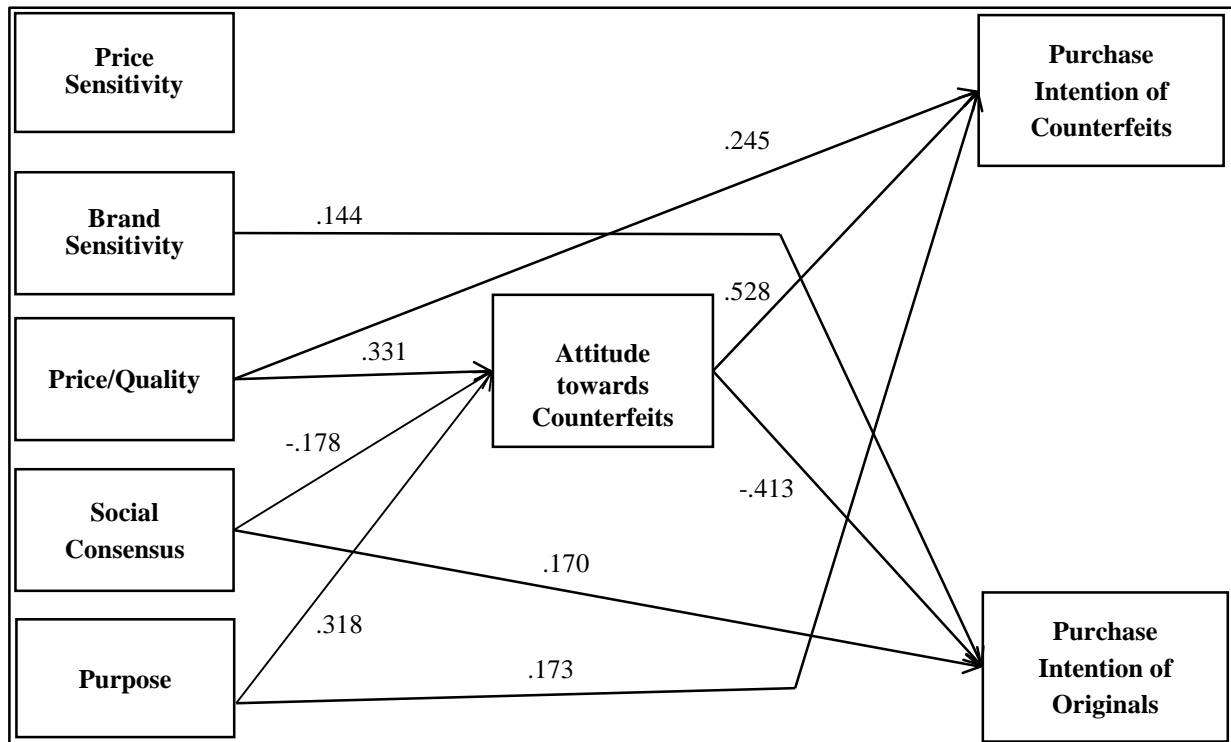
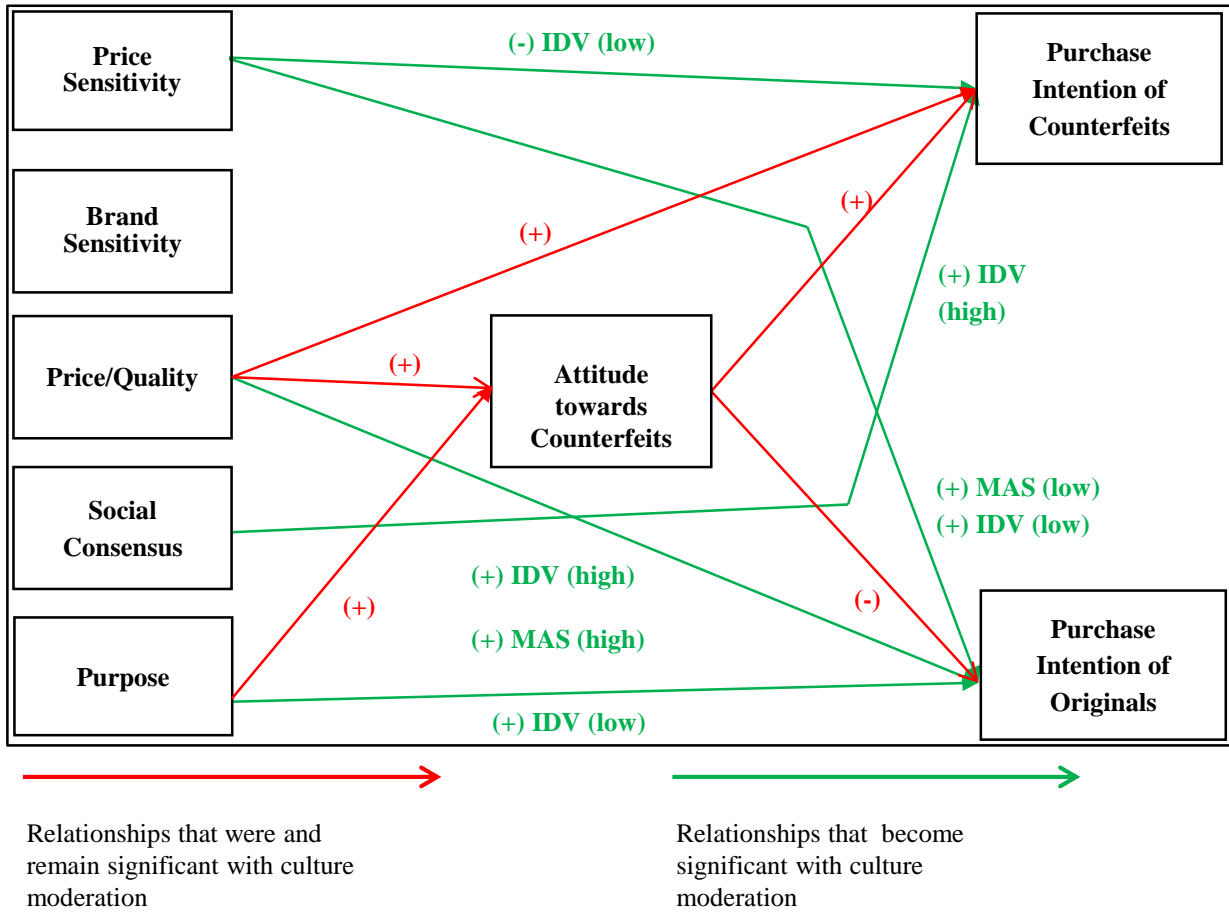




Figure 3: Effects of cultural moderation



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