

## ETHNOCENTRISM IN AN AGE OF RISING POPULISM: PRELIMINARY EVIDENCES FROM THREE CONTINENTS

Mohammad N. Elahee, Quinnipiac University

Tilottama Ghosh Chowdhury, Quinnipiac University

Farid Sadrieh, Quinnipiac University

### ABSTRACT

This paper presents a two-stage study providing a critical re-examination and re-evaluation of the concept of consumer ethnocentrism. In the first stage, the study, building on the extant literature, proposes a broadened definition of ethnocentrism as a multi-dimensional construct, and presents a validated scale for measuring consumer ethnocentrism. In the second stage of the study, the scale is applied to China, France and the US. Based on empirical data collected from 164 respondents from these three countries, the study shows that while consumers in all three countries hold similar views about the appropriateness of buying local as opposed to foreign goods, US consumers score higher than their Chinese and French counterparts with respect to preference for purely domestic brands as well as home-country-branded goods manufactured in foreign countries. The study concludes with a discussion on the implications of the findings on these varying levels of consumer sentiment about different aspects of ethnocentrism. Directions for future research are also provided.

*Keywords:* Consumer ethnocentrism, normative thinking, local brands, lobar brands, foreign brands

### INTRODUCTION

*“Our Celestial Empire possesses all things in prolific abundance and lacks no product within its borders. There is therefore no need to import the manufactures of outside barbarians in exchange for our own produce.”*

— *Qianlong Emperor’s Second Edict to King George III of England, 1792*

More than two centuries have elapsed since this fateful rebuke from the leader of a moribund China to his counterpart in a rising power whose imperial reach would soon extend throughout Asia. Since then, China has risen from its ashes, conquering markets around the world, leveraging and amplifying the seemingly inexorable and triumphant march of globalization. Former European colonial powers such as Britain and France have seen their power ebb and a former colony, the United States, has apparently reached its zenith. Oddly, however, the emperor’s smug words do not seem anachronistic. Indeed, despite living in an increasingly interdependent world, many across the globe do seem to prefer their domestic products over foreign products, a tendency known in marketing parlance as ‘consumer ethnocentrism’. It is therefore not surprising that consumer ethnocentrism (CE) is a widely researched topic in consumer behavior as well as in international marketing.

The publication of the “*Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale*” (CETSCALE) by Shimp and Sharma (1987) seems to have spurred considerable research interest in CE in different parts of the world. This may be due to the fact that the psychometric properties of the CETSCALE extend far beyond the US where the instrument was originally developed (Durvasula, Andrews & Netemeyer, 1997; Klein, Ettenson & Krishnan, 2006). A cursory search in the ABI database at the time of conducting this study found a listing of 333 scholarly papers that have used CETSCALE in over 20 countries. Researchers have found the prevalence of consumer ethnocentrism in both developed countries such as the US, West European countries, Japan, (Bilkey & Ness, 1982; Netemeyer, Darvasula & Lichtenstein 1991; Evanschitzky, Wangenheim & Blut, 2008) and developing countries such as Albania (Koksal & Tatar, 2014), Bangladesh (Chowdhury, 2015), China and Russia (Parker, Hytco & Hermanns, 2016)); Israel (Shoham & Brencic, 2003) to name but a few.

It should be recalled here that the construct CE is derived from the general notion of ethnocentrism proposed by Sumner (1906) and is built around two inter-related facets of consumers’ psyche: 1) a tendency to view one’s own country and domestic products as superior to foreign countries and imported products, and, consequently 2) showing preference for purchasing domestic goods over foreign goods. An implicit normative aspect present throughout the scale items is the view that the purchase of domestic goods is patriotic and that of foreign goods is unpatriotic and even unethical.

Although the existence of CE in different parts of the world as measured by the CETSCALE is well documented, significant changes have occurred in how goods are produced, promoted, and purchased since the publication of this widely used instrument. The emergence of the Internet, the removal of barriers in international trade, the rapid dissemination of information, and the standardization of marketing practices across countries have created a “global consumer segment” (Hassan & Katsanis, 1991). In addition, the increasing incidence of offshore manufacturing, the growth of global supply chains, and the availability of home-country-branded but foreign made products, hereafter “lobal brands”, have greatly diminished the validity of “*Made in...*” labels (Baker & Michie, 1995; Baughn & Yaprak, 1993; Chao, 1993). These developments may call into question the premise on which the whole notion of CE is built. We therefore argue that the profound changes of the last 30 years, especially with respect to how products are made in multiple countries, call for a revised and expanded scale to capture the sentiment of today’s consumers. We also posit that CE is not a unidimensional construct as envisioned in the CETSCALE, but a multi-dimensional construct.

In today’s turbulent business environment crisscrossed by contradictory currents- one promoting globalization and openness and the other, economic nationalism, thwarting the same- it is possible that consumers in one country may harbor certain aspects of CE while consumers in another country exhibit some other aspects of CE. It is thus imperative for researchers and practitioners to develop a more nuanced understanding of consumer ethnocentrism. To gain this understanding, this study sets out three objectives. First, it attempts to provide a critical re-examination and re-evaluation of the very concept of CE. Building on the extant literature, it proffers a broadened definition of CE and a new framework conceptualizing CE as a multi-dimensional construct. Second, it proposes and validates a refined scale for measuring CE that would capture the multi-dimensionality of the construct. Third, by using the newly validated and expanded scale of consumer ethnocentrism (expanded CETSCALE hereinafter), this study examines the attitudes of Chinese, French, and US consumers toward *local* and *lobal* [home-country brand, but manufactured elsewhere] brands vis-à-vis foreign brands. This paper focuses on these three

countries across three continents in recognition of their size and relative importance in the global marketplace, which will be discussed in greater detail later in the paper.

### **THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

It is well established that international marketing research lags behind practice in the field (Gummesson, 2014, 2002; McDonald, 1983). This inability to accurately reflect and inform the most current practices in marketing may be attributed in part to the use of inappropriate scales that compromise the verity of results. The CETSCALE is a textbook example of this problem (Douglas & Nijssen, 2003). A major flaw of the CETSCALE, as demonstrated by Sharma (2015), is the disconnect between its conceptual definition and how it is operationalized. Sharma points out that even though consumer ethnocentrism was defined as a set of beliefs by Shimp and Sharma (1987), 16 of the scale's 17 items focus on normative and broad economic aspects and only one item is related to consumer beliefs. Sharma (2015) further posits that this emphasis on socio-normative and economic aspects - subject to change over the years, limit the generalizability of the CETSCALE over time. The CETSCALE was also found to be unable to capture the variations observed in the level of consumer ethnocentrism across different cultural/environmental contexts (Vida, DMITROVIC & Obadia, 2008), thus further limiting its generalizability. Despite these flaws, the CETSCALE, as noted earlier, continues to be used extensively by researchers.

A number of recent studies have attempted to extend the CETSCALE with multi-dimensional constructs. For example, in his revised scale, Sharma (2015) proposed three constructs, which he called: 1) 'affective reaction' (affinity for domestic products and aversion toward foreign products), 2) 'cognitive bias' (evaluative bias in favor of domestic products), and 3) 'behavioral preference' (rejection of foreign products and acceptance of domestic products). In another study, Siamagka and Balabanis (2015) offered, from a social identity perspective, five elements: 1) pro-sociality, 2) cognition, 3) insecurity, 4) reflexiveness, and 5) habituation. In an earlier study, Mavondo & Tan (1999) conceptualized a three dimensional scale with a moral, a cognitive, and an economic component. While these recent studies have largely confirmed the multi-dimensionality of ethnocentrism, none of them considers the hybrid nature of many brands, i.e., goods produced in one country, but sold under the brand originating in a different country. Our scale attempts to rectify these omissions. This inclusion of home-country-branded goods produced in another country, which we label as "Lobal Brands"- combining 'local' with 'global' in our scale, is crucial given the growing importance of cross-border supply chains that facilitates manufacturing a product in multiple countries. Although ethnocentrism has been studied in branding related contexts before (e.g., Lee & Mazodier, 2015; Lee, Phau & Roy, 2013; Hamlin, Baumann & Tang, 2013), we make branding more prominent by distinguishing among purely local brands (i.e, goods manufactured in home country and selling under a local brand), foreign brands, and lobal brands (home country branded goods produced in foreign countries), a necessary 21<sup>st</sup> century distinction not found in previous research on consumer ethnocentrism.

Based on their review of CE studies conducted in the US in the 15-year period from 1994 to 2008, Lumb and Kuperman (2012) found the reported CETSCALE scores to be very stable over this extended period of time. A substantial number of studies have found a link between CETSCALE scores and intended purchase behaviors (e.g., Acharya & Elliott, 2003; Evanschitzky *et al.*, 2008; Watson & Wright, 2000). The overwhelming evidence linking CETSCALE scores to purchase intention is very important and relevant for marketing strategists planning to compete in markets

with both foreign and domestic competitors and deciding whether to position their brands as foreign or domestic (Klein, 2002).

### **FIRST STAGE: RECONCEPTUALIZATION AND VALIDATION OF THE CETSCALE**

As noted earlier, we posit that consumer ethnocentrism is a multifaceted construct and the unidimensional CETSCALE cannot adequately capture different aspects of consumer ethnocentrism. In today's interconnected world, there are many brands that are produced in multiple locations allowing manufacturers to take advantage of lower costs and/or gain greater access to foreign markets. Since ethnocentrism influences purchase decision (Bilkey & Ness, 1982), it is imperative for marketers to better understand targeted customers' ethnocentrism and general attitude toward buying foreign products as opposed to local brands. Marketers also need to understand whether consumers perceive brands as containing a unique message or are simply a carrier of the country-of-manufacturing effect. Based on our expansive view of CE, we propose that the consumer ethnocentrism has three separate dimensions, as explained below:

**Normative Thinking Dimension:** We define the *normative thinking* dimension as consumers' normative thinking toward their own country and national market and its domestic products vis-à-vis foreign products. Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller and Melewar (2001) show that consumers' ethnocentrism is largely driven by their patriotism and nationalism. Similar views were also supported in some prior studies (e.g., Yaprak & Baughn, 1991) that illustrated how nationalistic feelings may lead consumers to think buying foreign products is not right. We posit that it is the consumer's normative thinking that shapes his/her attitude toward the appropriateness of buying foreign products. It should be clarified here that this dimension does not examine the actual purchase intention of consumers- it simply focuses on consumers' thinking about the appropriateness of buying foreign goods as opposed to domestic goods. Such normative thinking, which is the first dimension of our ethnocentrism construct, captures the deeper conviction about what is right or wrong, or patriotic or unpatriotic when it comes to the purchase of foreign and domestic products. An example of a measurement item from our scale is: *It is not right to purchase foreign-made products, because it puts Americans out of jobs*).

**Preference for Purely Local Brands:** We define 'Purely Local Brands' as those goods which are produced in the home country under a brand name that has also originated in the home country. For example, Wolverine is an American brand and all Wolverine boots are made in the US. Therefore, Wolverine would be an example of a purely local brand in the US. Consumers' perceptions about purely local brands versus home country branded but foreign manufactured products and also purely foreign brands (i.e., goods manufactured in foreign countries under a brand name originating in a foreign country) capture their sentiments about both the country of origin and country of manufacturing. We argue that feelings of economic insecurity, inability to cope with rapid changes, uncertainty about the future, and eroding standards of living, which were once the predicament of the poor, are now threatening to engulf the more vulnerable members of the middle class (Edsall, 2017). During these times of upheaval, sentiments of nationalism and perceptions of real or imagined foreign perils, dormant during years of relative stability and prosperity, may revive and find their expression at the ballot box as well as in the marketplace, in the form of populism and consumer ethnocentric behavior respectively. Therefore, we posit that certain consumer segments would prefer local brands over foreign brands. The sensitivity of consumers to the country of manufacturing when considering only local brands is at the core of

the second dimension of our consumer ethnocentrism scale. An example of a measurement item of this dimension would be: *American brands made in the U.S., first, last, and foremost*. For the sake of brevity, we label this dimension as “*Purely Domestic Brands*”

**Preference for *Lobal Brands*:** Drawing from the terms ‘**Local**’ and ‘**Global**’, we define ‘*Lobal Brands*’ as those goods that are manufactured in a country (or countries) that is (are) not the home country of the brand under which they are produced. In other words, we label home country branded goods manufactured elsewhere as “*Lobal Brands*”. An example of a lobal brand in the context of the US, i.e., an American Brand made abroad, would be an Apple iPhone made in China. We posit that consumers’ perceptions about goods manufactured in foreign countries may vary depending on whether the brand is domestic or not. This evaluation constitutes the third dimension of consumer ethnocentrism. In others words, we are expanding the scope of consumer ethnocentrism by including in it not just the preference for local brands, but also the preference for lobal brands. An example of a measurement item for this dimension would be: “*American people should always buy American brands irrespective of where the product is manufactured*”.

Of these three dimensions, the first two (normative thinking and perceptions about purely local brands) do exist in the current CETSCALE, but as part of the same dimension. We separated them into two dimensions and then introduced a third dimension concerning preference for lobal brands, which is missing in the current CE literature. Based on above discussion, we formally hypothesize:

**H<sub>1</sub>:** *The construct consumer ethnocentrism has three dimensions: preference for purely local brands, preference for lobal brands, and normative thinking.*

### **Validating the Scale**

During the first stage of our research, we undertook a comprehensive review of the extant literature to discuss the issues related to ethnocentrism and the emergence of domestically branded foreign made products with our colleagues who are active in research in the area of consumer behavior. During this validation stage, our research was confined only to US consumers. Our efforts resulted in developing a 20 item instrument (see Appendix 1) to capture the three aforementioned dimensions of consumer ethnocentrism: The items of the scale were mainly developed from previous work on ethnocentrism by P. Sharma (2015), Shimp and Sharma (1987) and ‘country-of-origin effect’ (indicated by “Made in...”) by Bilkey and Ness (1982). The 20 item instrument was first used during the first phase of the study and revised based on the results of this phase for its subsequent application in the second phase of the study.

### **Methodology During the First Stage of the Study**

The first stage of our research was aimed at validating the instrument and involved a study sample inclusive of thirty-six participants, who were all business students enrolled in a university in the Northeastern region of the US. The use of student sample is a standard practice for scale validation (Sharma, 2015). We used Structural Equation Modelling via Amos 24.0 to clarify the multi-dimensional aspect of ethnocentrism in this phase. The participation was anonymous and voluntary and no incentive was given to students for their participation.

## Results of the First Stage

*Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Reliability:* The measurement model with all the three constructs (three sub dimensions of the proposed ethnocentric scale) was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis. The model fit was found to be satisfactory. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was .95, the Incremental Fit Index (IFI) was .96, the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) was .93, and RMSEA was .046;  $\chi^2(51) = 54.8$ , *ns*. All of the factor loadings used in the final model were highly significant ( $p$ 's < .01). Non-significant factor loadings in the original model were dropped from the final model. Thus, we started with seven measurement items for normative thinking, eight for the purely domestic products, and five for the global products dimensions, and ended with four measurement items for normative thinking, five for the purely domestic products, and three for the global products dimensions (see Appendix 2 for final scale items). Further, regarding internal consistency reliability, Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for all three multi-item constructs satisfactorily exceeded the desired level of .70 (Nunnally, 1978) and composite reliability was also highly satisfactory (all greater than 0.90).

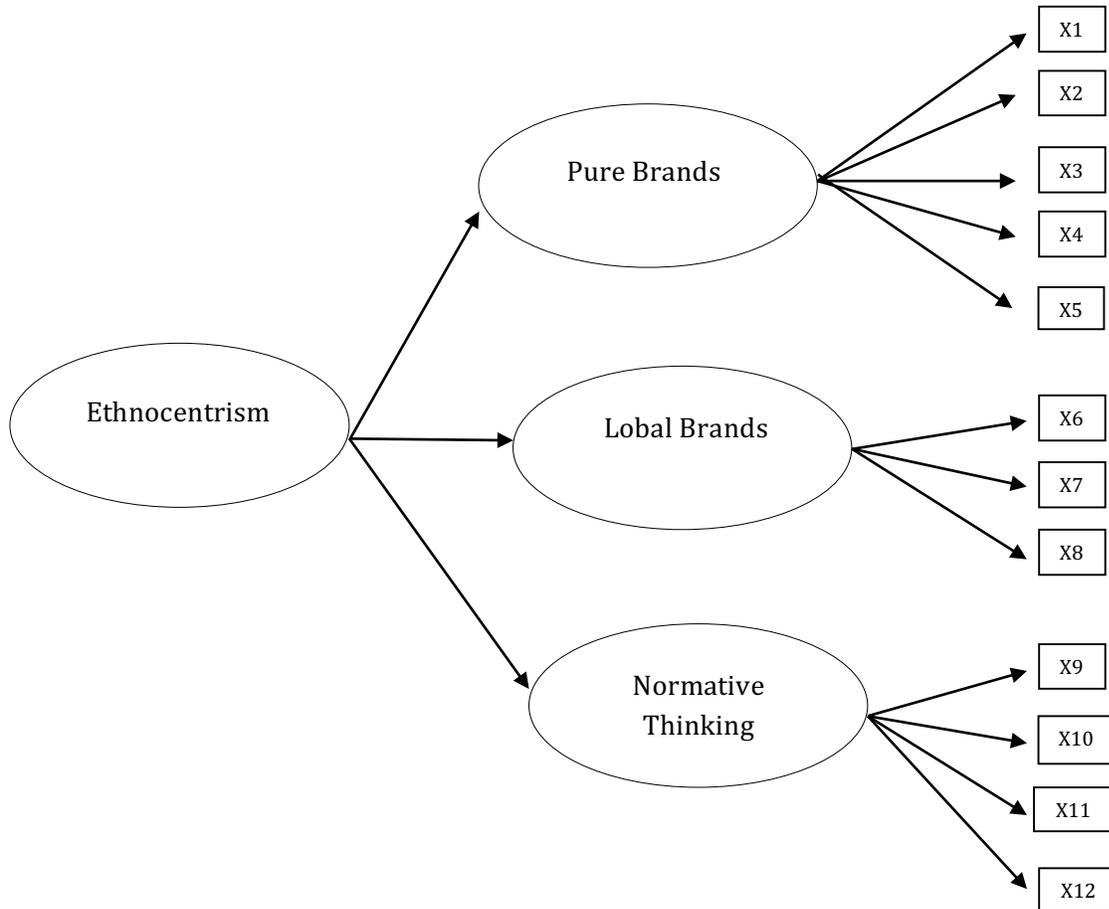
Discriminant validity was ascertained by investigating whether the shared variance (i.e., squared intercorrelation) between each pair of constructs was less than the average variance extracted from the items by each individual construct (see Fornell and Larcker 1981). All the three possible pairs of constructs did conform to Fornell and Larcker's norm. Specifically, the shared variance between normative thinking and pure dimension (.10) did not exceed the average variance extracted by each of these two latent constructs from their respective items (.68 and .88, respectively). Further, with regard to the discriminant validity between normative thinking and hybrid dimension, their shared variance was .12, whereas the average variance extracted by these latent constructs from their respective items was .68 and .78, respectively. And, the shared variance between hybrid and pure dimension (.29) did not exceed the average variance extracted by each of these two latent constructs from their respective items (.78 and .88, respectively). The measurement model hence showed satisfactory discriminant validity.

*Structural Model:* Since the measurement model was found to be satisfactory, the hypothesized structural model shown in Figure 1 was estimated. This was a model inclusive of a second order latent variable (ethnocentrism). A second-order latent variable is a latent variable whose indicators are themselves latent variables and consequently have no measured indicators (Kenny, 1994). As our objective is to show that the ethnocentric scale should have three sub dimensions, we used such a second order latent variable model. The model fit the data quite well. The CFI was .93, the IFI was .95, the TLI was .89, and RMSEA was .056;  $\chi^2(52) = 57.6$ , *ns*. The multi-level model revealed significant support for the relationships hypothesized between ethnocentrism and the three sub-dimensions, namely, normative thinking, pure brands, and hybrid brands. Specifically, the data confirmed significant positive relationships between ethnocentrism and normative thinking, purely domestic products, and global products ( $ps < .01$ ).

The results thus support H<sub>1</sub> that the ethnocentrism construct has three dimensions. Our proposed model was compared against a unidimensional ethnocentric model (see figure 2). As expected, the fit for the unidimensional model was poor- yielding a CFI score of 0.48, an IFI score of 0.60, a TLI score of 0.26, and an RMSEA score of 0.15;  $\chi^2(55) = 95.6$ ,  $p < .001$ .

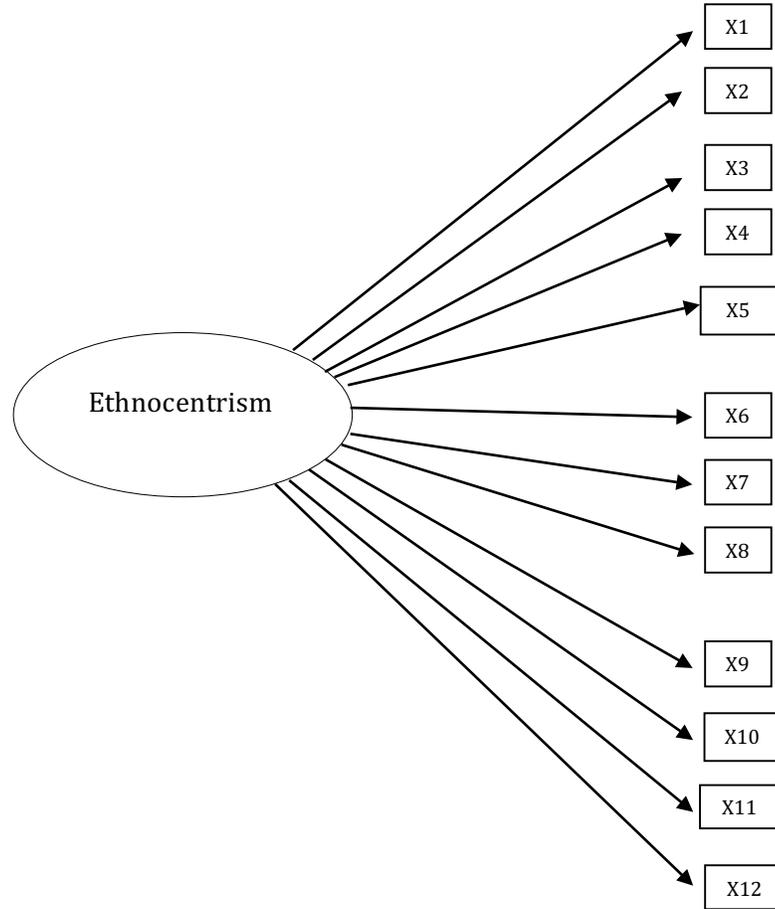
Figure 1

A Structural Model of the Relationships between Ethnocentrism and its Three Dimensions



**NOTE:** All measurement indicators are denoted by  $x_i$  ( $i = 1$  to  $12$ ). Please refer to Appendix 2 for descriptions. All parameter estimates are significant ( $p_s < .01$  with the exception of  $x_7$  at  $p < .05$ ).

Figure 2  
Comparative Uni-Dimensional Model of Ethnocentrism



**NOTE:** All measurement indicators are denoted by xi ( $i = 1$  to 12). Please refer to Appendix 2 for descriptions.

To reconfirm validating model fit once more, we conducted all similar analyses mentioned above with the integrated data from China, USA, and France in the second stage of the study ( $n = 164$ ). As expected the multi-dimensional ethnocentric model fit the integrated data quite well too. The CFI was .93, the IFI was .93, the TLI was .90, and RMSEA was .086;  $\chi^2(52) = 136.32, p < .001$ . This once more shows support for our H1.

Specifically, the model fit the French data very well. The CFI was .93, the IFI was .93, the TLI was .90, and RMSEA was .077;  $\chi^2(52) = 89.23, p = .001$ . Once again, for US data, the model fits very well. The CFI was .90, the IFI was .91, the TLI was .85, and RMSEA was .088;  $\chi^2(52) = 101.97, p < .001$ . However, the model fits the China data moderately. The CFI was .73, the IFI was .76, the TLI was .59, and RMSEA was .16;  $\chi^2(52) = 120.5, p < .001$ . Overall, though the model fits the data quite well, confirming our scale validation for the proposed multi-dimensional

ethnocentric construct once more [for integrated data: CFI was .93, the IFI was .93, the TLI was .90, and RMSEA was .086;  $\chi^2(52) = 136.32, p < .001$ ].

## **SECOND STAGE: EXAMINING ETHNOCENTRISM AND ITS IMPACT IN THREE CONTINENTS**

Once the validity of our new scale was established, we turned to the main objective of the study by proceeding to administer the validated scale in three countries across three continents. The selection of China, France, and the US was based on several reasons. First, each of these three countries represent an important world market. The US is the largest consumer market in the world, followed by China while France is the sixth largest consumer market in the world (World Bank, 2016). Given the size of their economies, many brands are likely to have originated in these countries. Also, the large number of consumers in these markets attract many foreign branded products. The significance of the results of our study for marketers is thus magnified in proportion to the size of the market.

In addition, these three countries represent very different cultures that are very distinct from each other. Although France and the United States share some cultural roots, their respective cultures have diverged and developed in dissimilar ways. Culture imbues the mental processes that are triggered when consumers think about the appropriateness of buying foreign products. Having the study repeated in three countries with different cultures allow us to gain a better understanding of the construct and its effect in different environments.

Related to the culture of a nation is its history. The collective memory of a population shapes its views of the outsider and the degree of attachment to ethnocentric views. A nation having suffered from humiliating defeats and a shortage of resources, such as China, is likely to develop a historical consciousness that sets it apart from a former colonial power like France, or a resource rich and ascendant country like the United States.

The US, China, and France are geographically quite far from each other, thus giving our study a wide geographic coverage. The dissimilarities between the three countries extend to the evolution of their political economies and the role of marketing. China has had a long experience with central planning, during which marketing in general and branding in particular were practically non-existent. In contrast, marketing has a long history in the US and US consumers are quite sophisticated in their evaluation of corporate marketing messages. The French, on the other hand, have always relied on the state to take an active role in regulating economic activity in general and monitoring marketing practices in particular. Finally, the level of economic development is another distinctive characteristic separating at least one of the countries (China) from the other two. It has been shown that in developing and/or transitional economies like China, the construct of consumer ethnocentrism retains its validity (Klein, Ettenson & Krishnan, 2006). It has been suggested that people living in developing countries are more ethnocentric than those in developed countries (Lindquist, Vida, Plank & Fairjurst, 2001; Sharma, Shimp & Shin, 1995), although the evidence is mixed since there are also differences within developing countries and developed countries (Javalgi, Khare, Gross & Scherer, 2005). It may be that China, as a rapidly developing country, will have similar levels of consumer ethnocentrism as the more developed countries. In sum, the

difference in the level of economic development adds another dimension to enrich and inform our understanding of consumer ethnocentrism across three continents.

## Hypotheses

Existing literature suggest that despite growing interdependence among countries, consumers still harbor ethnocentric views and prefer domestic products over foreign products. As noted earlier, part of this reason might be our innate tendency to safeguard our self-interests. Consumers do worry about the impact of foreign products on their employment, national sovereignty and economic well-being (Edsall, 2017). Numerous studies confirm the presence of consumer ethnocentrism in different parts of the world including both developed and developing (Bilkey & Ness, 1982; Chowdhury 2015; Evanschitzky *et al*, 2008; Javalgi *et al*. 2005), which implies consumers' preference of local brands over foreign brands. Consistent with existing literature, we posit that respondents in all three countries in our study- China, France and the US, would prefer their local brands over foreign brands. Consistent with the findings in the extant literature, we hypothesize:

**H<sub>2</sub>: *There will be no significant differences with respect to the preference for local brands among the respondents from the three countries.***

Separated by two oceans from the rest of the world, the American people have always viewed their country as special. The idea of American exceptionalism remains to this day a deeply ingrained conviction among many Americans. Alternating between periods of isolationism and expansionism, American history is replete with actions rooted in that exalted self-image. From the nineteenth century foreign military adventures justified in the name of Manifest Destiny to the twenty first century wars, America has leveraged its hard power to reshape the world in its own image, albeit with mixed results. For the most part of history, the US Economy was quite insular and self-reliant. After the end of the Second World War, with the European economies in tatters, American companies enjoyed significant advantage over foreign producers and the US emerged as an economic, as well as political and military superpower.

Despite being a country of immigrants, the US has often showed distrust toward foreigners and many US administrations pursued policies that were unilateral at best and isolationist at worst (e.g., Founding Fathers' reluctance to commit to permanent alliance, the US refusal to join the League of Nations, the US withdrawal from the Kyoto Agreement and the Paris Agreement on Climate Control, etc.). Even though the current phase of globalization has largely been made possible by US policies and institutions that were developed and nurtured by the US, such as the United Nations, World Bank, International Monetary Fund, the World Trade Organization, there has always been a deep current of scepticism or even hostility the US populace toward such global institutions. Time and again, the American electorate has not hesitated to repudiate their country's international commitments and display protectionism, a tendency that was imbedded in the populism reflected in the results of the 2016 US Presidential elections. To be sure, populism, defined as a belief in the right of the common people to wrest power from a cosmopolitan political and economic elite, is not new in US history. However, its recent ascendancy and triumph at the ballot box has demonstrated the enduring power of protectionism in this age of globalization.

The contrast between China and the United States is stark. Although China has catapulted its economy to become the second largest in the world, thanks to double digit annual growth rates, China is still considered a developing country. As noted earlier, research has suggested that consumer ethnocentrism is higher in developing countries compared to developed nations (Lindquist *et al.*, 2001; Sharma, Shrimp & Shin, 1995 in Javalgi *et al.* 2005). However, the rapid changes in China over the last decades may have resulted in the adoption of less ethnocentric attitudes (Javalgi *et al.*, 2005; Parker, Haytko & Hermans, 2011). In particular, as the country becomes more industrialized and urban, income level increase and people gain access to higher levels of education, ethnocentrism may decrease.

France has been called a “country of paradoxes” (Javalgi *et al.*, 2005). Although the French harbor a fierce pride in all that France has produced, from the arts to its leading corporations (Javalgi *et al.*, 2005; Yapp & Syrett in Javalgi *et al.*, 2005), they also have a long tradition of exchange with outsiders. France had colonies all over the world and had exposure to different cultures for many centuries. Although French people often displays a nationalistic streak and resort to protectionist measures with respect to foreign investment and immigration, the country, not unlike other European countries, has always been open to foreign products. Part of this may be attributed to the fact that historically many European countries were not self-sufficient in food production and had to rely on imports (Morrissey, 1982)

Based on the above discussion, we argue that Chinese and French consumers are more accepting of foreign products as compared to their US counterparts. Hence, we hypothesize:

**H<sub>3</sub>:    *US respondents would score higher for the normative thinking aspect of ethnocentrism than French and Chinese consumers.***

Outsourcing production to other countries, although a very common practice across the world today, has a longer history in the United States than in France. Perhaps due to less rigid regulation, a more competitive market or weaker trade unions, many American companies were able to embrace the practice in their efforts to remain competitive. US consumers, who are value-conscious and used to a highly transparent and competitive domestic market, seem to attach more weight to the brand than to the actual location of manufacture. Perhaps the long history of brands and branding and more generally the sophistication of marketing practices in the US, has contributed to the emergence of discerning consumers. Even though they prefer their own products to foreign products, US consumers connect more to the brand than to where a product was made. For them, Nike, Apple, IBM, etc., remain essentially American goods, even when produced abroad.

In France, on the other hand, the private sector has had to adjust and adapt to the limitations of a mixed economy. Until very recently, the state exerted considerable power and influence in shaping economic decisions by corporations. Although in the face of global competition, the country has tried to move toward greater liberalization of its economy, these attempts face fierce opposition, in particular from powerful trade unions. Culturally the French are more collectivistic than Americans and expect the state to intervene to ensure social justice. Reflecting many constituents’ feelings, the late French president Mitterrand referred to foreign imports from developing countries as “social dumping”, noting that employers in these countries did not have to provide the same

social benefits to their workers that the French welfare state mandates. Under these circumstances and with this cultural mindset, it is expected that French consumers take a less sanguine view toward outsourcing and be more critical and unforgiving toward their country's corporations who engage in this practice. Prior to economic reforms initiated by China's leader Deng Xiao Ping in the late 1970's, Chinese brands did not exist. In the 1980's, as demand for goods increased rapidly, branding was still not a priority for Chinese corporations. In the 1990's, branding became important, as foreign goods and foreign brands vied for the Chinese consumer's Yuans. Associating these brands with higher quality, the Chinese consumers exhibited a highly brand conscious behavior. Faced with foreign competition, Chinese producers invested in the creation and development of domestic brands. These brands are starting to become more recognized (Parker, Haytko & Hermans, 2011). Some studies indicate the rising popularity of domestic brands (Ewing, Napoli, Pitt & Watts, 2002 in Parker, Haytko & Hermans, 2011) and even the emergence of "brand nationalism" among the Chinese (Crocker & Tay, 2004). As wages increase and the cost of production rises in China, Chinese manufacturers are bound to turn to outsourcing some components of their products to other countries. In the process, these producers may gain in terms of cost efficiency, but they risk to devalue the image of their products in the eyes of the Chinese consumers. The aforementioned "brand nationalism" is likely to be inextricably linked with the product being manufactured in China. Western branded products manufactured in a developing country will still carry the image of a high quality good, in the eyes of the Chinese consumers, thanks to the power of the brand. However, a Chinese product, having so recently overcome the association with poor quality manufacturing, and carrying a relatively newly established brand is unlikely to find favor among Chinese consumers if it is manufactured in a poor and less developed country.

Although Chinese consumers are known to have preference for foreign brands originating from developed countries over local brands (Zhou & Belk, 2004), Lee, Phau, and Roy (1993) show that Chinese products are now perceived to be on par with Western products if it is supported by a strong local brand. Chinese brands who are now moving their productions offshore to reduce cost obviously would go to countries which are less developed than China. Chinese consumers may not have positive country attitude about such countries. Moon and Jain (2002) demonstrated that country attitude of consumers influences their preference for local brands over foreign brands. It is thus likely that Chinese consumers, while preferring established foreign brands from Western countries over local brands, may not like their local brands because of their unfavorable country attitude toward countries that are less developed than China. Moreover, Kwok, Uncles and Huang (2006) show that although Chinese consumers are increasingly displaying greater preference for local brands, such preference is not reflected in their purchase behavior- they continue to prefer foreign brands from developed countries.

Based on above discussion, we argue that while US consumers are willing to buy local brands, their French and Chinese counterparts may not show similar enthusiasm toward their local brands. Formally, we hypothesize that:

**H<sub>4</sub>:     *US respondents would exhibit higher preference for local brands than Chinese and French respondents.***

## Methodology during the second phase of the study

During the second stage of our study, we collected data in each country using a snow-ball sampling method. We initially contacted a few people in each of the focus countries whom we knew. We sent them an anonymous online survey and requested them to fill it out and also to forward our request to their friends and colleagues. We set an arbitrary cut-off date for our data collection. Our efforts yielded 49 usable responses from China, 65 usable responses from France and 50 usable responses from the US. Similar to the first stage, the participation in the second stage was also completely anonymous and voluntary and no incentive was given to the respondents for their participation.

## Results of the Second Stage of the Study

Our respondents across the three countries were very similar except for age. In China, 86% of our respondents were female, and 14% were males. 36% of our respondents had obtained graduate degrees and another 29% had bachelor's degrees. 86% of our Chinese respondents were between the 18-24 years age range. In France, 62% of our respondents were female and the remaining 38% were male. 25% of our French respondents had graduate degrees and another 40% had bachelor's degrees, and the remaining 35% had high school degrees. 94% of our French respondents were between the 18-24 years age range. In the US, 69% of our respondents were female and 31% of them were male. 28% of our US respondents had graduate degrees, 31% bachelor's degree; and the remaining 41% of our US respondents had some college/associate degrees. 86% of our US respondents categorized themselves as white. Our US respondents were evenly distributed between the different age brackets between 18-64 yrs.

In the second stage of our study, all three data sets from the three countries ( $n_{USA}=50$ ,  $n_{FRANCE}=65$ ,  $n_{CHINA}=49$ ) were combined to run Independent sample t tests for the ethnocentric scores in order to examine our hypotheses. First, in case of preference for the local brand, there were no significant differences between the US and the Chinese respondents (4.58 vs. 4.24,  $t(df=97) = 1.20, p > .2$ ), the US and the French respondents (4.58 vs. 4.38,  $t(df=113) < 1, p > .4$ ), and the Chinese and the French respondents (4.24 vs. 4.38,  $t(df=112) < 1, p > .5$ ). This lends support to H2. Second, US respondents exhibited significantly higher ethnocentric scores for the normative thinking aspect of ethnocentrism compared to the Chinese (3.88 vs. 2.79,  $t(df=97) = 3.89, p < .001$ ) and the French (3.88 vs. 2.87,  $t(df=113) = 3.59, p = .001$ ), thus supporting H3. The Chinese and the French had equivalent normative thinking scores ( $t(df=112) < 1, p > .6$ ). Third, supporting H4, the US respondents had significantly higher ethnocentric scores for local brand preference compared to the Chinese (4.15 vs. 3.38,  $t(df=97) = 3.63, p < .001$ ) and the French (4.15 vs. 3.09,  $t(df=113) = 5.36, p < .001$ ). The Chinese and the French had equivalent local brand preference scores (3.38 vs. 3.09,  $t(df=112) = 1.46, p = .15$ ). Therefore, we found significant statistical support for all our hypotheses.

## DISCUSSION

Consumer ethnocentrism is a complex and dynamic phenomenon that requires a nuanced understanding of the construct's different components. To gain this understanding, we conducted two-stage study that was reported in this paper. Our research allowed us to delineate three distinct dimensions of the consumer ethnocentrism construct- normative thinking, preference for local

brands, and preference for local brands- and explain how they shape consumer perceptions and purchase intentions. We administered this revised and expanded scale in three countries located in three continents who are culturally very different from each other. Our analysis support the three hypotheses we tested in the second phase of the study, showing that consumers in different countries do indeed exhibit varying levels of ethnocentrism about different facets of consumer ethnocentrism. This calls for paying more attention as to how marketers should Taylor their message to different groups of consumers. This is discussed in greater detail in the next section.

Our research makes three major contributions to the existing literature. First, the articulation of a conceptual framework for assessing an expanded view of ethnocentrism encompassing normative thinking as well as preference for local and local brands as opposed to foreign brands contributes to building a sound theoretical foundation for research in this area. Second, the development and validation of a multidimensional scale to capture the expanded reach of ethnocentrism provides researchers with a tool to initiate new inquiries and make more meaningful recommendations to marketers about different types of products. Third and finally, our findings showing how ethnocentrism can manifest itself in varying degrees and dimensions in different countries would encourage researchers to conduct new research in the area of brand messaging that should yield better recommendations for practitioners.

### **Managerial Implications**

The findings of this research have significant implications for marketers. Our results indicate that even in this age of globalization, consumer ethnocentrism manifests itself in different ways and consumers of a given country may exhibit varying degrees of preference for the same good depending on the country of manufacture and under which brand it is manufactured. Marketing messages that judiciously align with the multilayered and country-specific consumer ethnocentrism characteristics can reinforce desirable product perceptions or modify undesirable associations. The empirical support for our first hypothesis confirmed the complexity of the mental processes that are associated with the expanded consumer ethnocentrism construct. The challenge for business is to effectively meet the challenge represented by this complexity by matching it with an informed and sophisticated marketing approach that recognizes country-by-country differences and similarities.

The confirmation of our second hypothesis indicates that at a very basic level, the three countries are indeed similar when it comes to consumer ethnocentrism: consumers in all three countries tend to prefer local brand to foreign brands. The owners of local brands are thus well advised to highlight their brand's home origin, while foreign brand owners need to educate consumers about their product contribution to the local economy. An example is provided by Toyota's advertising campaign showing the number of jobs created by the company in the US.

This kind of marketing campaign is especially crucial in the US market, in light of the confirmation of our third hypothesis which indicates that US consumers harbor deeper normative feelings of ethnocentrism than their counterparts in the other two countries. To the extent that Americans feel that buying foreign goods is unpatriotic or at the least inappropriate, and yet their purchase behavior may be swayed by other considerations (price, quality, etc.) a cognitive dissonance is created that imperils the position of foreign goods. Astute marketers can contribute to mitigate this

dissonance through their marketing messages. The focus on the commitment of the foreign brand to the local communities and job creations and highlighting benefits enjoyed by local employees may be effective communication approaches. A firm may also maximize the benefits afforded by ambiguity and consumer confusion about brands (Samiee, 2005). In the retail business, while Carrefour cannot hide its foreign origins, it is reasonable to assume that very few shoppers at Stop and Shop are aware that the supermarket chain is owned by Ahold of the Netherlands.

Finally, the confirmation of our fourth hypothesis indicates that American consumers consider their local products (American brand products produced overseas) more positively than their counterparts in the other two countries view theirs (French or Chinese brands produced outside their home country).

The findings underscore the need for marketers to educate their consumers about the desirability of local brands and how such brands actually help save a company by allowing it to lower its costs by manufacturing abroad and consequently remaining competitive with foreign rivals. If consumers understand that local brands actually save a firm and add jobs to the local economy, they may exhibit lower antipathy toward globalization and openness.

To sum up, Chinese and French consumers may be less ethnocentric than their American counterparts along the normative dimension of the construct. For them, the presence or success of foreign made goods is not associated with societal ills. In this sense, those consumers are more pragmatic than their American counterparts. However, the French and Chinese are much less sanguine and much more unforgiving when it comes to local-branded goods made abroad, complicating the task of companies the need to outsource operations to remain competitive in the global market. Consequently, brand messages for local products should be couched in local cultural terms and reinforce local connections.

### **Limitations and Future Research**

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study ever to integrate the key aspect of globalization, specifically, the proliferation of local brands in the context of three countries across three continents. Although the findings of our study contribute significantly in advancing the extant literature on ethnocentrism by relating CE with current market realities, similar to any scientific research endeavor, our study also suffers from certain limitations. We did not examine if demographic factors have any impact on the ethnocentric scores of the respondents. Future researchers should examine if there is any difference in the ethnocentric scores of people from different genders, age groups, educational background, and income. We did not examine the socio-cultural background of our respondents. Examining if the socio-cultural backgrounds of the respondents affect their ethnocentrism and purchase intentions may provide new insights for marketers.

CE may vary across type of products as well as lifestyle of consumers. Future researchers should thus consider examining the relationship between product type and level of consumer awareness and lifestyle to their level of CE. As ethnocentrism is closely related to country-of-origin (COO) effect as well as to consumer animosity (Harmeling, Magnusson & Singh, 2015; Hamin, Baumann & Tung, 2013, Moon & Jain, 2002), future researchers should also examine the impact of COO

and consumer animosity on various facets of consumer ethnocentrism and how they affect their purchase decision.

Given that the service sector is becoming increasingly globalized, future researchers should also examine if consumers have different ethnocentric perceptions about services compared to physical products. As marketers increasingly serve culturally diverse consumers in almost every corner of the world, future researchers should also replicate this study in other countries, and especially in countries that receive a large number of immigrants every year such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the UK. Such replications would add external validity to our scale and framework. This study should also be replicated among migrants who, although not naturalized, have lived in their host countries for an extended period of time (e.g., South Asian or Filipino migrant workers in the Middle-East; undocumented migrants in the US; refugees stranded in different countries; expatriates on long-term assignments, etc.).

### CONCLUSION

Despite some limitations, this paper makes significant contributions to the consumer ethnocentrism literature and opens new directions for reflection for both academics and practitioners. This study is just the first step towards a better understanding of the broadened scope of consumer ethnocentrism in a constantly evolving business environment. The more we understand this complex and dynamic phenomenon, the better marketing decisions we will be able to make. It is hoped that this paper would generate further interest among researchers to replicate and extend this study with larger samples and in different parts of the world. New research is likely to clarify further the causes and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism and enable researchers to recommend better marketing strategies to serve consumers with different preferences for different types of brands.

### REFERENCES

- Acharya, C., & Elliott, G. (2003). Consumer ethnocentrism, perceived product quality and choice – an empirical investigation. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 15(4), 87-115.
- Baker, M. J., & Michie, J. (1995). Product country images: Perceptions of Asian cars. *University of Strathclyde, Department of Marketing, Working Paper Series No. 95/3*.
- Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., Mueller, R. D., & Melewar, T. C. (2001). The impact of nationalism, patriotism and internationalism on consumer ethnocentric tendencies. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(1), 157-175.
- Baughn, C., & Yaprak, A. (1993). Mapping country-of-origin research: Recent developments and emerging avenues. In Papadopoulos, N. And Heslop, L. (Eds.). *Product-Country Images. Impact and Role in International Marketing* (pp. 89- 115). Binghamton, New York: International Business Press.
- Bilkey, W., & Ness, E. (1982). Country-of-Origin effects on product evaluation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 13(1), 89-99.

- Chao, P. (1993). Partitioning country of origin effects: Consumer evaluations of a hybrid product. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24(2), 291-306.
- Chowdhury, T. A. (2015). The prevalence of ethnocentric tendencies in Bangladesh. *Journal of Asia Business Studies*, 9(1), 1-16.
- Crocker, G., & Yi-Chung, T. (2004). What it takes to create a successful brand? *China Business Review*, 31(4), 10-15.
- Durvasula, S., Andrews, J. C., & Netemeyer, R. G. (1997). A cross-cultural comparison of consumer ethnocentrism in the United States and Russia. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 9(4), 73-93.
- Douglas, S. P., & Nijssen, E.J. (2003). On the use of "borrowed" scales in cross-national research: a cautionary note. *International Marketing Review*, 20(6), 621-42.
- Durvasula, S., & Lysonski, S. 2016. Finding cross-national consistency: Use of G-Theory to validate acculturation to global consumer culture measure. *Journal of Global Marketing*, 29(2), 57-70.
- Edsall, T. B. (2017). How fear of falling explains the love of Trump. *New York Times*, July 17.
- Evanschitzky, H., Wangenheim, F. V., Woisetschläger, D., & Blut, M. (2008). Consumer ethnocentrism in the German market. *International Marketing Review*, 25(1), 7-32.
- Ewing, M., Napoli, J., Pitt, L.F., Watts, A. (2002). On the renaissance of Chinese brands. *International Journal of Advertising*, 21(2), 197-216.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Gummesson, E. (2014). The theory/practice gap in B2B marketing: Reflections and search for solutions. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 29(7/8), 619-625.
- Gummesson, E. (2002). Relationship marketing and a new economy: It's time for de-programming. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 16(7), 585-589.
- Gurhan-Canli, Z., & Maheswaran, D. (2000). Cultural variations in country of origin effects. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37(4), 309-317.
- Hamin, H., Baumann, C., & Tung, R. (2013). Attenuating double jeopardy of negative country-of-origin effects and latecomer brand: An Application of ethnocentrism in emerging markets. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 26(1), 54-77.
- Harmeling, C. M., Magnusson, P., & Singh, N. (2015) Beyond anger: A deeper look at consumer animosity. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 46(6), 676-693.

- Hassan, S. S., & Katsanis, L. P. (1991). Identification of global consumer segments: A behavioral framework. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 3(2), 11-28.
- Javalgi, R., Khare, V.P., Gross, A.C., & Scherer, R. F. (2005). An Application of the consumer ethnocentrism model to French consumers. *International Business Review*, 14(3), 325-344.
- Kenny, D. A. (1994). *Interpersonal Perception: A Social Relations Analysis (Distinguished Contributions in Psychology)*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Kim S., & Arthur, L. B. (2003). Asian-American consumers in Hawai'i: The effects of ethnic identification on attitudes toward and ownership of ethnic apparel, importance of product and store-display attributes, and purchase intention. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 21(1), 8-18.
- Klein, J. G, Ettenson, R., & Krishnan, B. C. (2006). Extending the construct of consumer ethnocentrism: When foreign products are preferred. *International Marketing Review*, 23(3), 304-321.
- Klein, J. G. (2002). Us versus them, or us versus everyone? Delineating consumer aversion to foreign goods. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 33(2), 345-363.
- Köksal, Y., & Tatar, A. (2014). Foreign product perception in Albanian market: An analysis of country origin image, ethnocentrism and the position of Turkish products/Arnavutluk Pazarında Yabancı Ürün Algisi, Mensei Ülke Etkisi ve Türk Ürünlerinin Pazardaki Yeri Üzerine Bir İnceleme. *Ege Akademik Bakis*, 14(4), 571.
- Kwok, S. Uncles, M., & Huang, Y. (2006). Brand preferences and brand choices among urban Chinese consumers: An investigation of country-of-origin effects. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 18(3), 163-172.
- Lindquist, J. D., Vida, I., Plank R. E., & Fairjurst, A. (2001). The Modified CETSCALE: Validity tests in Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland. *International Business Review*, 10(5), 505-516.
- Lee, W. J., Phau, I., & Roy, R. (2013). “Bonds” or “Calvin Klein’ Down Under” Consumer Ethnocentric and brand country origin effects toward men’s underwear. *Journal of Fashion Marketing & Management*, 17(1), 65-84.
- Lee, R., & Mazodier, M. (2015). The roles of ethnocentrism, animosity, and cosmopolitanism in sponsorship effects: A latent growth modeling approach. *European Journal of Marketing*, 49(5/6), 919-942.
- Lumb, R., & Kuperman, J. C. (2012). Ethnocentrism in the U.S.: An examination of CETSCALE stability from 1994 to 2008. *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 16(1), 99-110.

- Mavondo, F. T., & Tan, A. (1999). Reconceptualizing the CETSCALE. *Proceedings of Australia-New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference 1999: Marketing in The Third Millennium*. University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia.
- McDonald, M. (1983). International marketing planning: the gap between theory and practice. *International Marketing Review*, 1(1), 42-58.
- Moon, B. J., & Jain, S. C. (2002). Consumer processing of foreign advertisements: roles of country-of-origin perceptions, consumer ethnocentrism, and country attitude. *International Business Review*, 11(2), 117-138.
- Morrissey, M. (1982). Agricultural self-sufficiency: The recent history of an idea. *Studies In Comparative International Development*, 17(1), 73-95.
- Netemeyer, R. G., Durvasula, S., & Lichtenstein, D. R. (1991). A cross-national assessment of the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28(3), 320-327.
- Nunnally, J. C. 1978. *Psychometric theory*, New York, NY: McGraw Hill.
- Parker, S. R., Haytko, D. L., & Hermans, C. M. (2011). Ethnocentrism and Its Effect on the Chinese Consumers: A Threat to Foreign Goods? *Journal of Global Marketing*, 24(1), 4-17.
- Samiee, S., Shimp, T. A., & Sharma, S. (2005). *Brand origin recognition accuracy: Its antecedents and consumers' cognitive limitations*, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 36(4), 379-397.
- Sharma, P. (2015). Consumer ethnocentrism: Reconceptualization and cross-cultural validation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 46(3), 381–389.
- Sharma S., Shimp, T., & Shin, J. (1995): Consumer Ethnocentrism: A test of Antecedents and Moderators. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Sciences*, 23(1), 26-37.
- Shimp, T., & Sharma, S. (1987). Consumer ethnocentrism: Construction and validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24(3), 280-289.
- Shoham, A., & Brencic, M. (2003). Consumer ethnocentrism, attitudes, and purchase behavior: An Israeli study. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 15(4), 67-86.
- Siamagka, N., & Balabanis, G. (2015). Revisiting consumer ethnocentrism: Review, reconceptualization, and empirical testing. *Journal of International Marketing*, 23(3), 66-86.
- Sumner, W. G. (1906). *Folkways: A study of the sociological importance of usages, manners, customs, mores, and morals*. Boston, MA: Ginn and Co.

- Verlegh, P. W. J. (2007). Home country bias in product evaluation: the complementary roles of economic and socio-psychological motives. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38(3), 361-373.
- Vida, I., Dmitrovic, T., & Obadia, C. (2008). The role of ethnic affiliation in consumer ethnocentrism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(3/4), 327-344.
- Watson, J. J., & Wright, K. (2000). Consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes toward domestic and foreign products. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(9/10), 1149-1166.
- World Bank. (2016, January 30). *World Bank*. Retrieved from [http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NE.CON.PRVT.CD?year\\_high\\_desc=true](http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NE.CON.PRVT.CD?year_high_desc=true)
- Yapp, N., & Syrett, M. (1996). *Xenophobe's Guide to the French*. Ravette Books.
- Yaprak, A., & Baughn, C. (1991). The country of origin effects in cross-national consumer behaviour: emerging research avenues. In *Proceedings of the Fifth Bi-Annual World Marketing Congress of the Academy of Marketing Science* (pp. 263-269).
- Zeugner-Roth, K. P., Žabkar, V., & Diamantopoulos A. (2015). Consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, and consumer cosmopolitanism as drivers of consumer behavior: A social identity theory perspective. *Journal of International Marketing*, 23(1), 25-54.
- Zhou, N., & Belk, R. W. (2004). *Chinese consumer readings of global and local advertising appeal*. *Journal of Advertising*, 33(3), 63-76.

## APPENDIX 1

### Original Instrument used in the First Stage of the study for Measuring the Model

#### **Dimension 1 – American “pure” brands**

American people should always buy American brands made in the U.S. instead of those made in a foreign country.

Buy American brands made in the U.S. Keep America working.

American brands made in the U.S., first, last, and foremost.

A real American should always buy American brands made in the U.S.

It is always best to purchase American brands made in the U.S.

Americans should not buy American brands made in a foreign country, because this may cause unemployment.

It may cost me in the long-run, but I prefer to support American brands made in the U.S.

American consumers who purchase American brands made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans out of work.

#### **Dimension 2 – American “hybrid” brands**

American people should always buy American brands irrespective of where the product is manufactured.

Purchasing American brands that are made in another country is un-American.

A real American should always buy American brands even when the product is manufactured in another country.

It is always best to purchase American brands, even when they are manufactured in foreign countries.

Purchasing American brands made in another country helps both the local and the foreign business.

#### **Dimension 3 – Normative thinking**

Only those products that are unavailable in the U.S. should be imported.

It is not right to purchase foreign-made products, because it puts Americans out of jobs.

We should purchase products manufactured in America instead of letting other countries get rich off us.

There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity. Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.

Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into the U.S.

We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.

## APPENDIX 2

### Final Instrument Used During the Second Stage of the Study

**Dimension 1 – American “pure” brands [alpha=.82]**

X1: American people should always buy American brands made in the U.S. instead of in a foreign country.

X2: Buy American brands made in the U.S. Keep America working.

X3: American brands made in the U.S., first, last, and foremost.

X4: It is always best to purchase American brands made in the U.S.

X5: It may cost me in the long-run, but I prefer to support American brands made in the U.S. American consumers who purchase American brands made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans out of work.

**Dimension 2 – American “hybrid” brands [alpha=.77]**

X6: American people should always buy American brands irrespective of where the product is manufactured.

X7: A real American should always buy American brands even when the product is manufactured in another country.

X8: It is always best to purchase American brands, even when they are manufactured in foreign countries.

**Dimension 3 – Normative thinking [alpha=.84]**

X9: Only those products that are unavailable in the U.S. should be imported.

X10: It is not right to purchase foreign-made products, because it puts Americans out of jobs.

X11: Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.

X12: We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.

**Note:** The word “American” was replaced by “French” when the instrument was administered in France and by “Chinese” when administered in China. Similarly, “U.S.” was replaced by “France” and “China” respectively.

---

# QRBD

## QUARTERLY REVIEW OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

---

November 2017

Volume 4  
Number 3



A JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES  
SPONSORED BY UNIVERSITY OF NORTH FLORIDA  
ISSN 2334-0169 (print)  
ISSN 2329-5163 (online)