

A Comparative Study of Patriotism, Protectionism, Social Economic Conservatism between Indian and Vietnamese Consumers: The Effects of these Constructs on Buying Inclinations

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Abstract

The current study's emphasis is intended to provide researchers with a point of departure for understanding specific cultural differences associated with the ethnocentrism scale. Consumer characteristics such as patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism are analyzed. This manuscript empirically compares these three dimensions of the ethnocentrism scale (Shimp, T. A. and Sharma, S. 1987) using data furnished by Vietnamese and Indian consumers. Using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the findings indicate that the three dimensions of the ethnocentrism model are validated in both countries. The study results indicated that there are discernable attitudinal differences between Vietnamese and Indian consumers. The study also explores the relationship between CETSCALE subscales (patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism) of Vietnamese and Indian consumers and the underlying dimensions of ethnocentrism construct with different countries. The results showed that all loadings in the model were significant, leading us to conclude that the relationships between the items and latent factors were confirmed by the two datasets obtained from different countries.

Keywords: Ethnocentrism, Patriotism, Protectionism, Social Economic Conservatism, CETSCALE

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1. Introduction

The digital age has accelerated the globalization process around the world. People have more choices from more sources than ever before. This circumstance means that people are going to all corners of the world to purchase products. One advantage of this situation is the existence of more product options and cheaper prices. While this seems to be a great opportunity for consumers, it also exposes consumers to products from countries and regions that are, in their minds, not acceptable. This has created a dilemma for some consumers because they object to purchasing goods produced in foreign lands. They have an inclination to reject imported goods and elect to consume domestically produced products. This phenomenon is called ethnocentrism. It states that consumers favor goods produced in their home country more than those from foreign countries. A consumer's perception and attitude associated with their "readiness" to accept foreign products is of vital interest to marketers (Nadiri and Tumer 2010). With so many choices from so many locations at such cheap prices, the temptation is enormous, but some people, no matter what the apparent advantages, are negatively inclined to purchase the foreign made product.

Having a better understanding of the factors that motivate consumers to buy products is critical to the success of any international marketing strategy. The question is how to evaluate the inclination towards ethnocentrism and more specifically patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism. Over time this question has confronted a number of scholars. While a great many studies have been conducted that evaluate ethnocentrism, few have emerged that focus on the measurement of ethnocentrism, patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism in two Southeast Asian countries.

Globalization is an important phenomenon today and is expected to continue at an accelerated pace. As such, there is an increased need for comparative studies examining consumer perception of different countries products and services in different countries/cultures scope. Therefore, the objective of this study is to understand the relationship between patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism among Indian and Vietnamese consumers. These two countries are selected for comparisons because we believe it would be intriguing to compare the role of different factors on consumers' ethnocentrism model in two countries with quite similar economic development levels, culture, and social characteristics.

The current research study is intended support the existing literature on the topic by testing the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE in two similar Southeast Asian countries. To understand the complexity of these perceptions and ideas on consumer decision-making, we conducted a study that analyzes this phenomenon. We describe the details of this study in the next section. The objective of this study is to test the validity of ethnocentrism subscales model in two different Asian countries. The present study's emphasis is meant to provide researchers with a point of departure

for understanding specific cultural differences on CETSCALE ethnocentrism scale, consumers characteristics: (1) the ethnocentric characteristics (patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism of Vietnamese and Indian buyers (2) the relationship between CETSCALE subscales (patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism) of Vietnamese and Indian consumers and (3) the underlying dimensions of ethnocentrism construct with different countries.

This manuscript is composed of five sections. The first two sections present an introduction and review of the essence of consumer ethnocentrism, social economic conservatism, protectionism and patriotism. Section three explains the research methodology and section four and five provide a presentation of analysis, discussion and conclusion of the findings.

2. Literature Review on Country of Origin, Ethnocentrism, Patriotism, Protectionism and Social Economic Conservatism

2.1. Country of Origin

By and large one would think that globalization could open a person's mind to the differences of cultures and thinking as it relates to the buying behaviors in a specific culture.

Globalization is thought of as the changing of the world into one large borderless geographic area (Robertson and Lechner, 1985). With deregulation and emergence of border free trade more prevalent, the purchase of goods and foreign products is much easier than ever before.

While globalization seems synonymous to openness, it does not have direct correlation to openness or acceptance of another culture. Some studies such as (Balabanis et al., 2001 and Keillor et al., 2001) found that there was no correlation between globalization and global consumer. This notion would lead one to believe that the globalization process which affect opinions of consumers vary from culture to culture (Suh and Kuwon, 2002).

Global marketers are always seeking marketing opportunities all over the world. With intense competition, marketers analyze ways of entering new markets. To complete this task they need to understand the factors that affect the growth of the markets. Such items as product brands and perceptions of the country where products or services emanate have affected the marketing capabilities of many firms. The country of origin concept (COO) is a major factor associated with product acceptance in the global markets. Consumers purchase intentions are affected by their perceptions of the country where the products were manufactured (Rezvani and Salehi, 2012). In today's contemporary, business environment, people care about where product originate and evaluate them accordingly. Scholars have studied the country-of-origin (COO) concept for over forty years. Now that manufacture of products and marketers of consumer good try to expand their markets everywhere in the world, international marketing research becomes much more important. As such, marketers generally

label this country of origin affect as an extrinsic factor used to evaluate product characteristics. This COO issue regarding consumer intentions has a major impact on marketing strategies (Rezvani and Salehi, 2012).

The country-of-origin (COO) concept underscores the consumers' perception of products on the traditional idea that goods from another country have some type of stigma. The country-of-origin concept carries the perception that products from specific countries are of lesser value. As such, the significance of country-of-origin research is more relevant as the trend toward free trade increases and the high pace of globalization accelerates.

Traditionally, studies have recognized that consumers tend to see products that are made in a specified nation with either positive or negative attitudes (Bilkey and Nes, 1982). These countries of origin COO biases seem to exist equally for all categories of products both individual and industrial buyers (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; and Dzever and Quester, 1999). Moreover, country of origin predispositions are observed in both developed, developing and less developed countries (Nes and Bilkey, 1993). Generally, merchandises from developing and less developed countries are considered to be more precarious, of lower quality and even risky than products manufactured in more developed countries (Laroche, Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Murali, 2005).

Even though the COO concept, which is associated with a consumer's purchase intentions, has been studied for a long period of time, differing cultures and business environments can have an impact on the consumer's intentions. The studies of this phenomenon have been conducted in various geographic locations with different results. These results conclude that consumers evaluate products based on their beliefs and cultural norms. They develop both positive and negative reviews by comparing these factors to the products they are offered (Rezvani and Salehi, 2012).

The COO concept becomes an extrinsic signal for people when they judge products. In essence, it is a way of discriminating one product from another (Dagger and Raciti, 2011). Some scholars say that consumers use COO as a measure of product quality (Lee and Lee, 2009). Since this measure of product quality is being used more often than before, it behooves global marketers to understand the characteristics of this metric when consumers use it and to what extent it is used (Lee and Lee, 2009). COO is a multi-dimensional concept, which, in fact, does have an impact on a consumer's desire to purchase products. Some studies have produced different and mixed results. Some have directly associated COO with some consumer behavior towards buying foreign goods. In many studies researchers have found a direct link between COO and ethnocentrism and the purchase of products (Wang and Chen, 2004, and Lee and Ganesh, 1999). The potential influence that ethnocentrism has on consumer behavior is of real importance to international marketers (Altintas and Tokol, 2007). Other studies are contradictory, indicating just the opposite. This could be because of the types or the country where the study was conducted (Chrysochiodis, et al, 2007; Kaynak and Kara, 2002). One of the benefits of studies of consumer ethnocentrism is

that marketers can develop information about consumer ethnocentrism that can be used to develop market strategies (Watson and Wright 2000). Those companies entering foreign or global markets need to know the barriers that their products will confront as they penetrate a market (Nadiri and Tumer, 2010). From this analysis marketers can make inferences regarding the quality of the products attributes. This leads us to a similar topic on consumer purchasing namely ethnocentrism. While COO and ethnocentrism seem to be similar ideas, they are essentially different.

2.2. Ethnocentrism

Booth 1979, Worchel, and Cooper 1979 defined ethnocentrism as a tendency of consumers with regard to their own countries as superior and discard people who are culturally different. The notion of consumer ethnocentrism is employed to indicate a consumer's attitudes about what they believe are correct when purchasing a particular product or service. The ethnocentric consumer's point of view states that purchasing imported products is incorrect because such purchases will eventually negatively impact the domestic economy. It will cause the loss of jobs, which is ultimately unpatriotic (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Consumer ethnocentrism (CE) is a concept that considers whether a purchase behavior is acceptable or unacceptable within the group. Consumer attitude about products is a continuous concern of global marketers. Reviewing the literature one discovers that the attitudes towards foreign products (ethnocentrism) are key antecedents for consumers who buy products from foreign countries Consumer ethnocentrism has an influence on the willingness of consumers to buy foreign products, which ultimately affects their purchasing tendencies in the market place (Shoham and Brencic, 2003). Consumer ethnocentrism is suggested as a factor influencing general products selection process based on personal beliefs and reluctance when making the buying decisions about foreign products (Suh and Kowan, 2002)

The idea of consumer ethnocentrism generally says that consumers' have alternatives when selecting foreign made products. It is a significant factor that assists global marketers to understand international product exchange behaviors. The construct has been classified as an important antecedent to the buying intentions of consumers. It is a major factor when consumers are making consumer-buying decisions (Sharma, Semp, and Shemp 1995). Ethnocentric consumers prefer strong positive attitudes towards their own country rather than products from a foreign (Durvasula et al, 1997). Consumer ethnocentrism gives the impression that it is capable of explaining consumer favoritism towards home products rather than negative bias against them.

The value of understanding consumer ethnocentrism relates to the consumer building an inventory of products that are acceptable and not acceptable for purchase. With this approach it provides the marketer insight into what marketing mix strategies can move the marketer towards attaining his/her marketing goals (Nadiri and Tumer, 2010). Kaynak and Kara verified that the effect of ethnocentrism

in developing countries is associated with other factors such as the levels of socio-economic and technological development of the countries, (Kaynak and Kara 2001).

The contemporary research has indicated that there is no question that consumer ethnocentrism has a major influence on consumers desire to buy foreign products. It does have an impact on buyer decisions (Herche, 1992; Wang and Chen, 2004). A closely related but different factor affecting consumer behavior is patriotism.

2.2.1. Patriotism

The idea of ethnocentrism maintains that a consumer's patriotic emotions will have a direct influence on their buying behavior (Vassella et al 2010). The study of the relationship of consumer ethnocentrism and patriotism appears to exhibit variations from country to country. A linkage between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism was established in Balabanis et al., (2001) and Albarq and Mat (2007) research. Their studies indicated that such relationship depends on a country's culture. Sharma et al., (1995) showed a positive relationship between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism (Han, 1988, Klien et al., 1998).

While there has been a significant amount of research focused on consumer ethnocentrism and COO, there has been limited exploration of consumer data concentrating on the relationship of patriotism, to ethnocentrism and COO products (Shankarmahesch, 2006). Some scholars have completed studies that show no relationship between the construct (Banister and Saunder, 1978). However, Sharma et al, in 1995 did find a relationship. While there is no absolute agreement as to the reason for these divergent findings, one thought could be related to how the ideas of patriotism are conceptualized. Some researchers have defined patriotism as a notion of people not willing to criticize or accept criticism of a nation. Others view patriotism as a means of consumers meeting their need to be loyal or their need for questioning in order to promote positions of change. Madupu, et al (2012), discovered that it is the uncritical patriotism that it is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism. Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) indicate that purchasing internationally vary depending on the perceived idea and image or value of the product.

Some studies have indicated that patriotism is the emotional feeling people have about their own country and it does mean they ignore other countries. Other studies have found patriotism to be a good and positive feeling about ones nation and that it's the ability to view across borders can be positive. Emotional feeling about traditional customers, symbols, values and about national attributes can be part of the idea (Morse and Shive, 2011). Patriotism relates to the loyalty to one's country (Kosterman and Feschbach, 1989). The concept of patriotism has been extensively studied in the literature. Ethnocentric patriotism is associated with prejudices towards products from foreign countries (Akhter 2007). Zajonc and Markus (1982) indicate that patriotic reactions to foreign products may affect a consumer's behavioral responses. Issues like ethnocentrism, or emotions of national pride, and personal experience with the global image of products can influence one's point of

view on foreign product. Wall and Heslop's (1986) study of Canadians found that the respondents believed that there was a benefit to buying homemade goods. They believed that these benefits related to improving the employment situations for Canadian citizens, and as a result improving the overall economy. Moreover, they found that the respondents also believed that it preserved their national pride. Previous studies have discovered that through consumers' patriotism, people more favorably evaluate their own country's products than foreign consumers do (Nagashima, 1970; Han, 1988). In one study of consumer patriotism measurement, Hsiu Li-Chen found significant differences in between Taiwan and Indonesia with regard to terms of obligation, industry decline, and job loss. Indonesian consumers displayed noticeably greater consumer patriotism than Taiwan's consumers (Hsiu-Li Chen, 2009). Consumer patriotism has a significant effect on intentions to purchase domestic vs. foreign products country of origin have implicated patriotic emotions in purchase of imported products. Patriotic individuals show more consumer-ethnocentric tendencies than individuals who are less patriotic. There is a positive correlation between patriotism and ethnocentrism (Sharma et al., 1995). The effects of patriotism on consumer ethnocentrism may vary from country to country (Vassella et al., 2010). Balabanis et al., (2001) and Albarq and Mat (2007) found that the relationship between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism is country specific. Thus there is a positive relationship between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism and a relationship(s) vary from culture to culture (Balabanis et al., 2001).

The second construct analyzed in this study relates to protectionism. It is one variable that is clearly linked with the COO, ethnocentrism and patriotism constructs.

2.2.2. Protectionism

Protectionism exists when a government's demands duties or quotas on imported goods in order to protect domestic industries from international competition. These government policies limit or inhibit international trade. While this action is often implemented with the intent of protecting local businesses and jobs from foreign competition it can have unintended consequences such as raising prices of domestic goods. One popular approach to protectionism is to levy import tariffs; quotas. Another mechanism is to provide subsidies or tax cuts to local businesses (Investorwords.com, 2010). This policy approach to control international imports has frequently failed. Even with the reality of globalization, the idea of protectionist as a restraint to trade remains a powerful option for many people (McTeer, 2001). Job creation is the basic economic outcome when we buy and sell goods and services from other countries. With more open trade; it makes the economic conditions better for all countries. More job development is created through international trade and it ultimately causes an increase in a society's willingness and ability to consume goods and services. This eventually raises real incomes, which begins the multiplier of consumption all over again. All of this positive economic activity is all well and good until country A begins to restrict the import of country B's products. This action begins to slow the sending countries productivity (country B) as well reducing the

productivity of country A the receiving country. We encounter a negative multiplier effect where productivity in both countries ultimately affects a decrease in consumption in both countries. While protectionists attempt to protect jobs in one country, they create more job losses in both countries. Additionally, inefficiencies are introduced and price increases become prevalent in many goods. While there appears to be a perception of the protectionist country saving, in reality it begins to produce a lose/lose situation for both countries (Lee, 2001).

The last item of analysis relates to social economic conservatism. This idea connects with the other four constructs because of its conservative attitudes, behavior and relationship to national heritage.

2.2.3. Social Economic Conservatism

There are essentially three factors that comprise the concept of conservatism. These concepts include, a.) Security through order and status; b.) Humanistic and expressive concerns; and c.) Religiosity and personal restraint. In one study, Karasawa (2002) has identified a relationship that exists with conservative attitudes, behaviors and the national heritage. As such, it follows to that consumers' negative attitudes towards foreign products would be influenced by their personal values. Based on Rokeach's (1973) research, a value relates to a specific mode of conduct. It is an end-state of existence, which is personally, or socially preferable state of existence. Hofstede (1980) has introduced several cultural aspects of this phenomenon, which have been very influential in marketing. According to his research he defined values as an inclination to desire certain specific situations to others. This understanding of values establishes belief standards by which individuals determine what is right and what is wrong. From another perspective, Schwartz's (1994) research discovered four essential elements in the development of values. These four elements include, a) openness to change, b) self-transcendence, c) self-enhancement, and d) conservation. All of these have an impact on the construction of social economic conservative tendencies.

To examine these three constructs and how they interact with each other, we constructed a research design based on data collected in India and Vietnam.

3. Research Design

3.1. Sample Structure and Data Collection Execution

The collection of data for this study was self-report questionnaire by using a drop-off/pick up method. Two hundred questionnaires were collected from each country. The sample population was a convenience or non-probabilistic sampling methodology in the region of Ho Chi Minh City and Hanoi in Vietnam and Bombay and New Delhi in India. All these selected cities are developing industrialized and population movement quickly degrading cities. These cities were chosen because they represent the most dynamic commercial centers in Vietnam and India. Another reason of selection to these cities is that because they correspond to very active

commercial centers and participants from these cities are familiar with survey techniques and therefore more persuaded and apt to complete it.

The drop-off/pick-up is a data-gathering approach that combines the benefits of both personal interviews and self-administered surveys (Stover, R. V., and W. J. Stone, 1978; Imperia, G., O'Guinn, T. C. and MacAdams, E. A. 1985). Participants for this study were randomly contacted at work, at their home or on the street. Each prospective respondent was asked to complete the survey at his or her most convenient time.

Procedures were worked out to pick up the completed surveys at a specified time a few days later. Considerable time was used up trying to acquire a cross-section of the population by selecting four major Vietnamese and Indian cities (Ho Chi Minh City, Hanoi, Bombay and New Delhi). Every effort was made to get a cross-section of the population, selecting six different parts of India for the administration of the survey. Therefore, the study's participants consisted of 183 individuals living and working in two major cities in India and 179 in Vietnam. Consequently, the authors found 362 individuals living and working in these four major cities in to take part in the study.

3.2. Research Instrument and Measurement Development

The first section of the survey contained questions relating to the consumer ethnocentrism scale (CETSCALE), which was initially developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). It consists of 17 items scored on a seven-point Likert-type format and represents an accepted means of measuring consumer ethnocentrism across cultures/nations. According to Marcoux et al, 1997, the ethnocentrism scale is divided into three dimensions: protectionism, socio economic conservatism, and patriotism. In the second section of the survey, asked for demographic and socio-economic information about the respondents.

For the surveys in Vietnam and India, three types of cross-cultural equivalence were confirmed: normative, semantic, and measurement equivalence (Cannon et al, 2010; Mullen, 1995). In order to ensure normative equivalence, faculty and researchers from Vietnamese and Indian universities were asked whether the concepts and questions used "are acceptable across cultures. In Vietnam and India, the survey was translated to Vietnamese and Indian and back translated to English in order to check any discrepancy in addition to potential translation errors. With this process semantic equivalence of the research is maintained and made sure that the meanings of the words and sentences did not change across cultures (Craig and Douglas, 2009). Measuring equivalence of the research is discussed under Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of CETSCALE for each country.

3.3. Research Model

Conceptually, the ethnocentrism scale takes into consideration three dimensions: protectionism, socio economic conservatism, and patriotism. According to Marcoux at al. (1997) these variables are relevant to measure consumer ethnocentrism

because the meaning of consumer ethnocentrism consists of an understanding of what purchase is acceptable or not for the consumer in relation to his reference group. The COO idea rests on the relation of four major perceptions: protectionism, socio economic conservatism, patriotism and the product perception of foreign products. All of these consumer ethnocentrism dimensions eventually influence the product’s evaluation. Figure 1 outlines the flow of thought in this study. The factors located on the left side of the Figure 1 (protectionism, socio economic conservatism, and patriotism) are the predictors of the consumer ethnocentrism while the right-sided factor (Foreign product perception) is the consequence. The hypothesized relationships between the latent constructs are represented with lines. Although in reality there may exist some more relations between the factors, the most important ones are considered in our study.

The ethnocentrism model consists of the above-mentioned constructs, which are based on well-established theory of consumer ethnocentrism and approaches in country of origin behavior. The constructs of the ethnocentrism-foreign product perception model are unobservable (latent) variables indirectly described by a block of observable variables, which are called manifest variables or indicators. The constructs and their observable items are given in Table 1. The use of multiple questions for each construct increases the precision of the estimate, compared to an approach of using a single question (Turkyilmaz and Ozkan 2007).

Table 1: Survey Instrument and Measurements

Protectionism	Patriotism	Social Economic Conservatism
2. Only those products that are unavailable in Vietnam/India should be imported 12. Curbs should be put on all imports 14. Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets 15. Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Vietnam/India 16. We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country	1. Vietnamese/Indian should always buy Vietnam/India made products instead of imports 7. A real Vietnamese/Indian should always buy Vietnam/Indian made products 9. It is always best to purchase Vietnam /India products 10. There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity 4. Vietnam/India products, first, last, and foremost 5. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Vietnamese/un-Indian	6. It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Vietnamese /Indian out of jobs. 8. We should purchase products manufactured in Vietnam/India of letting other countries get rich on us. 11. Vietnamese/Indian should not buy foreign products because this hurts Vietnam/India business and causes unemployment 13. It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Vietnam/India products 17. Vietnamese/Indian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Vietnamese/Indian out of work. 3. Buy Vietnam/India-made products. Keep Vietnam/India working

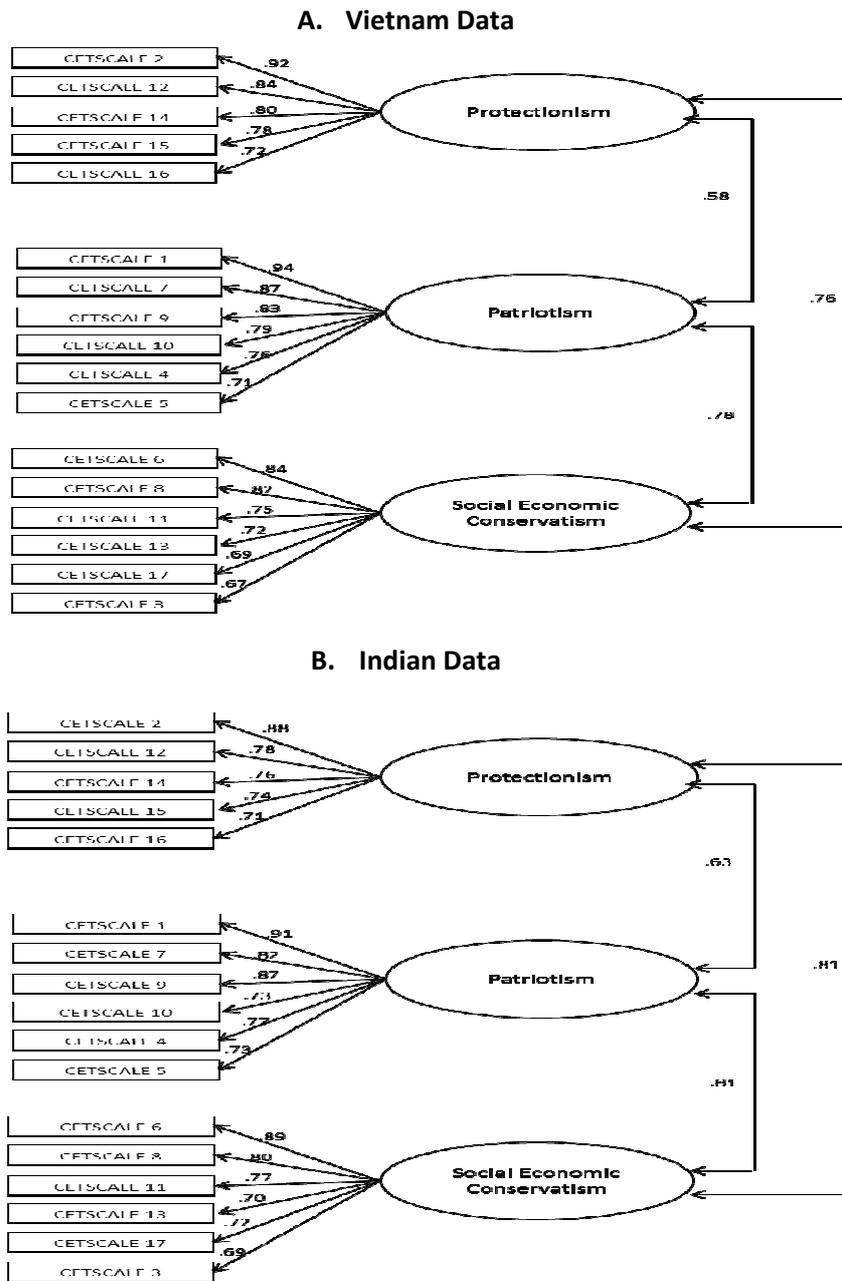


Figure 1: First Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis of CETSCALE Ethnocentrism Model

4. Research Findings and Analysis

The data analysis for this research was carried out in four steps:

- a. First was a comparison on Vietnamese and Indian consumers' ethnocentrism scale;
- b. Secondly, we did a pre-test scale of items and investigated the principal factor structure of consumer ethnocentrism subscales performing exploratory factor analysis (EFA)
- c. Third, we executed the unidimensionality verification of the constructs;
- d. Finally, we completed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for the model constructs to ascertain definitely if both countries offered a good fit to the data.

4.1. Specification of Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

The findings on demographic characteristics of the study group are as follows; of 362 respondents in the sample, 179 (49.4%) respondents were Vietnamese and 183 (50.6%) were Indian. Of this total, approximately 53.0% were male and 47.0% were female, and it was distributed between the two countries in a dissimilar fashion, as the Vietnam proportion was 45.8/54.2 and the Indian proportion 60.1/39.9. The reason for a high proportion of male respondents in Indian samples may be attributable to the fact that, in the general population, the ratio of males in India is higher than that of Vietnamese population (CIA, 2012).

Table 2: Specification of Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

	Vietnam		India		Total	Total
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
	(179)	49.4	(183)	50.6	362	100
Gender						
• Male	82	45.8	110	60.1	192	53.0
• Female	97	54.2	73	39.9	170	47.0
Age						
• Under 18	24	13.4	8	4.5	32	8.8
• 18-29	43	24.0	47	26.3	90	24.8
• 30-39	60	33.5	57	31.8	117	32.3
• 40-49	26	14.5	47	26.3	73	20.2
• 50-59	23	12.8	17	9.5	40	11.1
• Above 60	3	1.7	6	3.9	10	2.7
Education						
• Primary & Middle	68	38.0	69	37.7	137	37.8
• High School	66	36.9	96	52.5	162	44.8
• Some College	28	15.6	8	4.4	36	9.9
• College	17	9.5	10	2.8	27	7.5
Income						
• Low	88	49.1	101	55.2	189	52.2
• Medium	57	31.8	58	31.6	115	31.7
• High	34	18.9	24	13.1	58	16.0

As detailed in Table 2 age group of respondents is distributed in a similar fashion in both countries; a significant portion of the respondents (57.1%) were in the 18 to 39 age group, 8.8% were under 18 years old, 20.2% were between 40-49, 11.1% were between 50-59, and the remaining 2.7% was above 60 years of age. From educational point of view, Table 2 showed that most of the respondents were in the range of high school education (44.8%) while the remaining majority of the respondents had primary-middle school education (37.8%). Generally, as the results indicate, only 17.1% of the respondents had education level of college or some college. A substantial portion of the survey respondents (52.2%) was in the lower income range. In the survey, proportionately speaking, the Indian sample consisted of more respondents from the low-income group compared to Vietnamese (55.2% vs. 49.1%). It can be concluded that the majority of the respondents had higher educational attainments in the Vietnam than Indian sample.

4.2. CETSCALE Findings for Vietnamese and Indian Consumers

Previous studies generally have presented scores on the CETSCALE as the sum of the item responses. Respondents were required to assign a score for the CETSCALE ranges using a seven point scale one being representing strongly disagree and seven being represented as strongly agree. To understand the differences and similarities between Vietnamese and Indian consumers' we report mean scores for the CETSCALE. Table 3 shows the average score on the CETSCALE for each of the two samples along with average attitudes and beliefs concerning ethnocentrism. As can be seen, CETSCALE scores are significantly lower in Vietnam than in India. In fact, the level of consumer ethnocentrism for both Vietnamese and Indian samples is below those typically found among consumers in developed economies.

T-tests were performed on respondents' ethnocentrism level to seventeen statements of CETSCALE related to the research model. Table 3 shows that there are several statistically significant differences between Vietnamese and Indian consumers at $p \leq 0.05$ level. The study results indicate that there are discernable attitudinal differences between Vietnamese and Indian consumers. The major differences in ethnocentrism between the two countries are shown in Table 3: In general compared to Vietnamese, a.) Indians believe more that they should always buy India made product instead of import, b.) only those products that are unavailable in Vietnam/India should be imported, c.) buying India-made products India working, purchasing foreign-made products is un-Indian, d.) it is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Indians out of jobs, they should purchase products manufactured in India instead of letting other countries get rich on us, e.) there should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity, f.) curbs should be put on all imports, foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on Indian markets, foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into India and g.) Indians should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within India.

Table 3: Differences and Similarities between Vietnamese and Indian Consumers' Ethnocentrism

CETSCALE Ethnocentrism Statements	Mean Vietnam	Mean India	t-value	Sig.*
Vietnamese/Indian people should always buy Vietnam/India made products instead of imports.	4.28	4.78	-2.383	.018*
Only those products that are unavailable in Vietnam/India should be imported.	2.92	3.86	-4.780	.000*
Buy Vietnam/India-made products. Keep Vietnam/India working.	4.00	4.61	-3.423	.001*
Vietnam/India products, first, last, and foremost.	4.28	4.26	-0.116	.908
Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Vietnamese/Indian	3.95	4.61	-3.351	.001*
It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Vietnamese/Indians out of jobs.	4.30	4.69	-2.014	.045*
A real Vietnamese/Indian should always buy Vietnam/India made products	4.23	4.58	-1.816	.070
We should purchase products manufactured in Vietnam /India instead of letting other countries get rich on us.	3.78	4.46	-3.603	.000*
It is always best to purchase Vietnam/India products	4.12	4.42	-1.491	.137
There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity	4.00	4.46	-2.421	.016*
Vietnamese/Indian should not buy foreign products because this hurts Vietnam/India business and causes unemployment	4.35	4.49	-0.574	.567
Curbs should be put on all imports	3.28	3.75	-2.429	.016*
It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Vietnam/ India products	4.14	4.42	-1.463	.144
Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	3.00	3.73	-3.796	.000*
Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Vietnam/India	3.66	4.17	-2.667	.008
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country	2.85	3.44	-3.300	.001*
Vietnam/India consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Vietnamese/Indians out of work	4.22	4.56	-1.741	.083

(*) Significant for 0.05 level.

4.3. Exploratory Factor Analysis for Consumer Ethnocentrism Subscales

With the intention to examine CETSCALE items for Vietnamese and Indian data and explore the principal factor construction of consumer ethnocentrism subscales, we used principal axis factoring in an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). Principle axis factor analysis was used and the solution was rotated using an orthogonal varimax rotation because theoretically, factors were proposed to be unrelated and varimax rotation will excerpt uncorrelated orthogonal factors (Washington, 2009). Varimax

rotation constructs the utmost of high relationships and minimizes lesser ones, allows for maximum factor and variable correlations, compete greater data explanation, and finally varimax rotation make the most of variance (Ferketich, 1991). We used the rules of a minimum eigenvalue of 1.0 and at least two loadings (60/40 loadings) per factor. It is judged statements items with loadings of greater than .40 to be "considerable" (Floyd, 1995).

We examined the internal consistency for the entire CETSCALE and its subscales with reliability of each of the composite constructs by using Cronbach's alpha. All constructs have Cronbach alpha Cronbach alpha values. All off the Cronbach's alpha values ranging from .827 to .914 for the subscales and .833 for Vietnamese and .884 for Indian for the total scale were greater than 0.60 which indicate acceptable internal consistency and reliability; Cronbach's alpha analysis granted the identification of 17 sub-constructs that were examined for reliability and validity by means of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. These are represented in the last column of Table 4. Furthermore, all constructs were tested to verify their validity. The Varimax factor analysis of the CETSCALE yielded a Bartlett's test of sphericity that was significant for both countries, $X^2_{\text{Vietnam}}=1516.52$, $df=136$, $p=.000$, and $X^2_{\text{India}}=2264.09$, $df=136$, $p=.000$ indicating that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic was 0.736 (Vietnam) and .861 (India), which is close to extremely high level, 0.90. suggested that a factor analysis would account for a substantial amount of variance according to Kaiser's criteria (Kaiser, 1974). The KMO Bartlett's test of sphericity displays significance for both Vietnam and India at a level of 0.000. The result confirms validity and reliability of model constructs.

This analysis resulted in a 17-item, three-factor solution, which accounted for 65.41% and 64.93% of the total variance for Vietnam and Indian data. In addition, the 17-item CETSCALE recommended 10-participants-per-item ratio suggested for instrument analysis (DeVellis, 2003; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The three factors were labeled as follows: Social Economic Conservatism, Patriotism and Protectionism.

4.4. Verification of Unidimensionality of the Constructs

When the experimental variables are associated to their latent variables in a reflective way it is suggested that a unidimensionality check is required (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). Therefore, the third step of our analysis is emphasized on checking the unidimensionality of the constructs used in the research. Prior to analyzing the path model, the projected model was checked for unidimensionality of each construct. Cronbach's-a and Dillon-Goldstein's-r values of each block are greater than 0.80. From principal component analysis, first eigenvalue is observed greater than 1 and second Eigen value is less than 1 for each block.

Table 4: Exploratory Factor Analysis for Measurement Model for Vietnam and India

	Factor loadings		% Variance explained		Cronbach alpha	
	Vietnam	India	Vietnam	India	Vietnam	India
			64.93	66.30	.833	.884
Social Economic Conservatism			23.33	21.95	.892	.877
6. It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Vietnamese/Indian out of jobs.	.895	.862				
17. Vietnamese/Indian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Vietnamese/Indian out of work.	.836	.833				
11. Vietnamese/Indian should not buy foreign products because this hurts Vietnam/India business and causes unemployment	.806	.670				
13. It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Vietnam/India products	.802	.791				
3. Buy Vietnam/India-made products. Keep Vietnam/India working	.731	.514				
8. We should purchase products manufactured in Vietnam /India of letting other countries get rich on us.	.706	.742				
Patriotism			22.47	25.51	.871	.914
1. Vietnamese/Indian should always buy Vietnam /India made products instead of imports	.946	.926				
9. It is always best to purchase Vietnam/India products	.800	.853				
7. A real Vietnamese/Indian should always buy Vietnam/Indian made products	.772	.881				
5. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Vietnamese/un-Indian	.756	.849				
4. Vietnam/India products, first, last, and foremost	.686	.588				
10. There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity	.648	.817				
Protectionism			19.11	18.83	.827	.835
2. Only those products that are unavailable in Vietnam/India should be imported	.920	.913				
14. Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets	.916	.813				
12. Curbs should be put on all imports	.711	.868				
16. We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	.600	.479				
15. Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Vietnam/India	.576	.639				

These outcomes lead us to recognize the unidimensionality of constructs, since a construct block is essentially one-dimensional, if the first Eigen value of the correlation matrix of the block observed variables is larger than 1 and the second one smaller than 1, or at least very far from the first one. A block is also assumed as unidimensional when Cronbach's- α and Dillon-Goldstein's- r values are larger than 0.7 (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). The latent variables and their associated observable variables used in the structural model of the ethnocentrism subscale model are displayed in Figure 1.

The design of this study was identified by two sets of linear relations: the outer model stating the relationships between the latent and the observed variables, and the inner model identifying interactions between the latent variables (patriotic tendencies, protectionist tendencies, social economic conservative tendencies and the country of respondents). Explanation as such is alike to standardized regression coefficients (Fornell and Cha, 1994; Kroonenberg, 1990; Lohmöller, 1989).

4.5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of CETSCALE Model for Vietnam and India

The fourth step consisted of constructing and testing the measurement model for testing the hypotheses. To test our model we conducted structural equation modeling (SEM), a statistical method that can be used to address cultural invariance. SEM is an inclusive method to testing hypotheses about relationships among items being measured. It takes a confirmatory approach to the multivariate analysis. SEM method applies the instrument to capture the norm of complex constructs, such as those being evaluated in this research. The problem being questioned is whether members of the two groups attribute the same meaning to the scale items being evaluated. If they do not, then between-group comparisons become an issue. (Rensvold and Cheung, 1998). As we discussed earlier normative and semantic equivalence were confirmed to resolve this problem.

The measurement model for CETSCALE (Shimp and Sharma, 1987) is examined simultaneously in both Vietnamese (N = 179) and Indian (N = 193) samples. As it can be followed from Table 1, all latent factors of hypothesis model to analyze CFA model have minimum of five indicators which reduce the risk of estimation difficulty (Marsh and Hau, 1999). Likewise, all standardized loadings for both groups were larger than .60 (see Figure 1), which indicated that most of these items had rational psychometric features. The three factors analyzed were patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism as can be seen at Figure 1. Five indicators (Only those products that are unavailable in, Vietnam/India should be imported, foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets, curbs should be put on all imports, we should buy from foreign countries only those, products that we cannot obtain within our own country and foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Vietnam/India loaded on protectionism, six indicators (Vietnamese/Indian should always buy Vietnam /India made products instead of

imports, it is always best to purchase Vietnam /India products, a real Vietnamese/Indian should always buy Vietnam/Indian made products, purchasing foreign-made products is un-Vietnamese/un-Indian, Vietnam/India products, first, last, and, foremost and , there should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity) loaded on patriotism, and six indicator (it is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Vietnamese/Indian out of jobs, Vietnamese/Indian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Vietnamese/Indian out of work, Vietnamese/Indian should not buy foreign products because this hurts Vietnam/India business and causes unemployment, it may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Vietnam/India products, buy Vietnam/India-made products, keep Vietnam/India working and we should purchase products manufactured in Vietnam/India of letting other countries get rich on us.) loaded on social economic conservative tendencies.

A sequence of nested models was verified for configural invariance, factor loadings invariance, and invariance of factor loadings and intercepts of the observed variables in Vietnamese and Indian data. Their stages include testing the measurement structure in each group separately; testing the measurement structure in both data set concurrently without any restraints, testing the measurement structure in both data set simultaneously with constraints on the loadings, testing the measurement structure in both groups simultaneously with constraints on the loadings and the means of the indicators and examining the measurement structure in both groups simultaneously with constraints on the loadings, the means of the indicators, and the residual variances of the indicators following the procedures suggested by Widaman and Reise (1997). Table 5 presents the result of the invariance tests.

Table 5: Assessment of Measurement Invariance and Latent Mean Difference

in Vietnam and India Model Specification	X-SQ.	df	ΔX^2	CFI	RMSEA	TLI	X-SQ/df
Configural Invariance	499.12	272	-	.967	.068	.929	1.835
Full Metric Invariance	502.78	274	3.66	.913	.072	.912	1.834
Partial Scalar Invariance	509.85	278	10.73	.904	.075	.931	1.834

As it is recommended by Mullen (1995), we examined the metric invariance of the measurement instruments, this process accomplished in our research in a stepwise technique (Brown, 2006). Since the purpose of the present research is to test the cultural differences of CETSCALE ethnocentric behavior, the construct measures have to exhibit at least partial scalar invariance across data (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1998). Without evidence of at least partial scalar invariance, comparing construct or factor means across countries is meaningless (Wang and Waller, 2006). As shown in Table 5, RMSEA for the configural invariance model (the first level of measurement invariance) across the countries was 0.068, indicating a good fit. The two incremental fit indices were also above the commonly recommend 0.9 level (TLI=0:929,

CFI=0.967). The normed chi-square (χ^2/df) was 1.835, below the recommended cut-off point of 3. These outcomes, tied with the fact that all factor loadings were highly significant in both countries, suggest that the construct measures exhibited adequate configurable invariance across the countries (Table.4). Also, it should be noted that the χ^2 value for the configurable invariance model is the sum of the χ^2 values obtained for the two sub-samples (Vietnam and India). After the configural invariance model was established, a test was conducted for the full metric invariance model in which the factor loadings were set to be invariant across countries. The results showed that there was a significant increase in chi-square between the configural invariance model and the full metric invariance model ($\Delta\chi^2=3.66, p<0.05$). The final test was to compare the configural invariance model and the partial scalar invariance model. The chi-square difference test was not significant ($\Delta\chi^2=10.73, p>0.05$) and the other fit indices were either close or slightly better. Therefore, we can agree that partial scalar invariance has been established across the Vietnamese and Indian samples.

The chi square variation in model fit was considered for each additional set of equality constraints. Measurement invariance for CETSCALE ethnocentrism model (the theory of planned behavior structural model predicting intentions) was compared for Vietnamese and Indian samples, with the fit indices for these analyses reported in Table 6. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) procedures were performed to examine the conceptualization of CETSCALE ethnocentrism model and accordingly factor constructs and the fit of the hypothesized model in both the Vietnamese and Indian consumers independently. An analysis using single, confirmatory factors was then performed using the variables in order to validate each group of indicators in regard to reliability and validity. In order to detect possible identification problems of the structural model, first, the significance of the factorial regression coefficients for each indicator and their respective latent variables (factors) through the statistical value of t -statistic ($t > 2.58; p =0.01$) is considered (Steenkamp and Trijp, 1991). Second, the significance of the standard factorial loads were checked (> 0.05), and third, each item's makes a contribution in explaining the construct, at least $R^2 > 0.3$ was confirmed (Bravo, Fraj and Martinez, 2007).

Table 6: Structural Model Fit Indices for Vietnam and India

	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	TLI	NFI	X-SQ.	df	X-SQ/df
Vietnam	.933	.967	.902	.056	.845	.903	289.76	136	2.13
India	.921	.932	.928	.069	.867	.897	197.89	136	1.45

A significant chi-square value indicates poor model fit. This test assessed the magnitude of the discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices. A significant test would indicate a poor fit; however, when sample size is large or multivariate normality assumption is violated, a small discrepancy from the model would lead the chi-square test to reject the model, even though the model may fit the data well. Hence, scholars are likely to come to an agreement the chi-square statistic was utilized only as a source of evaluation with the other fit indices since it is

extremely sensitive to sample size. It is not recommended to rely only on fit index to assess the model fit (Wang and Sun, 2010). The overall fit of the model was evaluated using the following indices; the maximum likelihood chi-square value, chi-square value/degree of freedom ratio, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), the normed fit index (NFI), the Tucker-Lewis non-normed fit index (TLI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the comparative fit index (CFI).

Acceptable value for fit indices (GFI, AGFI, CFI, TLI, and NFI) is that .95 rate or greater specify excellent correlation between the hypothetical model and the observed data, and values between .85 and .90 indicate equitable model fit (Browne and Cudeck, 1993). Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA); is a measure of discrepancy between the observed and model implied covariance matrices per degree of freedom (Steiger, 1990). Kline recommended that values of RMSEA of .06 or less indicate a good fit, values around .08 or less shows satisfactory fit and values approximating .10 specify poor fit (Marsh, Balla and MacDonald, 1988; Kline, 2010). The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) ranges from 0 (poor fit) to 1.00 (perfect fit) and is derived from the comparison of a restricted model (i.e., one in which structure is imposed on the data) with a null model (one in which each observed variable represents a factor). The CFI provides a measure of complete covariation in the data; a value larger than .90 indicates an acceptable fit to the data.

The structural model was corresponded to the pooled data of Vietnamese and Indian respondents. As Table 6 reveals, the research design had a very good fit. The GFI, AGFI, and CFI revealed also very decent fit with the Vietnamese and Indian data. Because of the chi-square test's sensitivity to sample size we focused on incremental fit measures, including normed fit index (NFI) = 0.903 and 0.897. In addition, the Chi-square/df ratio was below the recommended level of 5.0 (Bollen, 1989), representing a suitable model fit. Lastly, all of the cross-construct correlations were found considerably different from 1.0 (via a Chi-square test with one degree of freedom when constraining the path to 1.0, rather than allowing free estimation), supporting indication of discriminate validity.

The results showed that all loadings in the model were significant, leading us to conclude that the relationships between the items and latent factors were confirmed by the two datasets obtained from different countries.

5. Discussion of Findings

Consumers are always making decisions on the likes and dislikes of products. This consumer decision-making has been verified over and over again through the years. In this study about ethnocentrism, we find clear evidence about two Asian countries having significant differences in their perceptions of products and how they react to them. The ethnocentric attributes: patriotism, protectionism, and social conservatism do, in fact, have a strong impact on the way Indian and Vietnam consumers perceive

products. The mean score differences on the CETSCALE questions are strong reveal strong beliefs and inclinations towards their attributes. Out of the seventeen CETSCALE items studied in this research project, ten items demonstrated significant differences. This finding is important because it provides insights for marketers when they develop marketing strategies for marketing and selling products in these countries. Both India and Vietnam are steeped in cultural traditions that affect the living patterns and buying habits of its citizens. Their religious inclinations or their political views will substantially influence the consumer's buying behavior. While globalization has allowed many more products to be offered in these countries, the traditions and deep-seated patriotism, protectionism and social ideals are difficult to change. Jobs are important to each of these countries because of their growing populations and as a result they are always struggling to find ways to expand job opportunities for its citizens. Producing products in their home country can contribute to the retention and expansion of employment opportunities for each countries citizen. People know that they have to produce home grown jobs in order to create jobs at home. Similarly, citizens of these countries believe in their country and pledge allegiance to its way of life according to his/her political ideology. So to accept goods from other countries without first buying their own homegrown goods is unpatriotic and detrimental to the society. Finally, the religious beliefs that are contained in the social conservative construct may explain why they reject or ignore products that are offered in the world markets.

6. Conclusions and Limitations of the Study

The purpose of this study was to test the validity of ethnocentrism subscales model in Vietnam and India. Our goal was to corroborate and the current literature by testing the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE in both India and Vietnam. The perspective provides researchers with a starting point for understanding specific cultural differences on CETSCALE ethnocentrism scale and, consumers characteristics. Within this context we have furnished a comprehensive analysis of three major dimensions of consumer behavior. They are as follow: (1) analysis of the ethnocentric characteristics (patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism of Vietnamese and Indian buyers (2) analysis of the relationship between CETSCALE subscales (patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism) of Vietnamese and Indian consumers and (3) an analysis to determine the underlying dimensions of ethnocentrism construct with different countries. In all three cases, we have found significant results that not only validate the scales and the methodology but also expand and extend the discussion of these consumer attitudes and dimensions. We have given a focused answer to the question of how to evaluate the inclination towards ethnocentrism and more specifically patriotism, protectionism and social economic conservatism

Cultures and economies in the region are overall very similar. Hence, we could suggest that the findings in this study have some generalization to countries in the

region. Further research using the same methodologies in consumer behavior analysis should be conducted in neighboring countries to verify or refute the findings found in this study.

Marketers who want to penetrate these Asian markets need to know what a country's ethnocentric tendencies. Their marketing strategy depends on knowing which attributes will have a positive and a negative impact on the consumer's purchasing decisions. Awareness and sensitiveness to ethnocentric tendencies can be critical information that determines an effective or ineffective marketing strategy in India or Vietnam.

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