

Consumer Ethnocentrism: A Test of Antecedents and Moderators

Subhash Sharma

Terence A. Shimp

University of South Carolina

Jeongshin Shin

Chunnam National University, Korea

This article identifies theoretical antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism and the effect ethnocentricity has on evaluations toward importing products. Hypotheses pertaining to the relationship between the identified antecedents and consumer ethnocentrism are developed based on an extensive review of the ethnocentrism and country-of-origin literatures. Also identified are factors moderating the effect of ethnocentric tendencies on consumers' attitudes toward importing products. The hypotheses are subjected to an empirical test using data collected in Korea.

Patriotic, ethnocentric, nationalistic, and even xenophobic sentiments wax and wane among Americans and people of other countries. Periodic claims of unfair competition, uneven playing fields, closed markets, and excessive foreign influence cross international boundaries and inflame business people and consumers alike. Consumers are made to feel guilty for purchasing imported products, and patriotic advertisements remind us of our duty to choose domestic-made goods over imports. Consequently, a study of the factors affecting consumers' choice of domestic products vis-à-vis imports would be an important step toward better understanding international exchange relations and domestic marketplace behavior. Numerous country-of-origin studies have touched on consumers' pa-

triotic prejudices against imports—and generally have found that consumers tend to evaluate domestic products unreasonably favorably vis-à-vis imported products (cf. Bannister and Saunders 1978; Bilkey and Nes 1982; Cattin, Jolibert, and Lohnes 1982; Chasin, Holzmuller, and Jaffe 1988; Darling and Kraft 1977; Han 1988; Hung 1989; Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985; Morello 1984; Nagashima 1970; Narayana 1981; Reiersen 1966; Schooler 1965; Wall and Heslop 1986; Wang 1978; White 1979)—but these studies have not examined why and under what conditions these effects exist.

The present research examines the process underlying consumers' attitudes toward products being imported into their domestic economies. With consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma 1987) as the focal construct, this article seeks to accomplish three objectives: first, it explicates the nature and role of ethnocentrism and ties this construct into a framework of related constructs. Next, it specifies the factors that moderate the effect of ethnocentric tendencies on consumers' attitudes toward importing products. Finally, hypotheses are subjected to an empirical test using data collected in Korea.

ETHNOCENTRISM AND CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRICITY

The phenomenon of consumer preference for domestic products, or prejudice against imports, has been termed economic nationalism, cultural bias against imports, or consumer ethnocentrism. All these terms find their origin in the general concept of ethnocentrism.

Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism was introduced to the sociological literature nearly a century ago. Sumner (1906) defined *ethnocentrism* as

the view of things in which one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it. . . . Each group nourishes its own pride and vanity, boasts itself superior, exalts its own divinities and looks with contempt on outsiders. (p. 13)

Ethnocentrism is a universal phenomenon and is rooted deeply in most areas of intergroup relations (Lewis 1976). Murdock (1931) observed that ethnocentrism is confined not only to tribes and nations but reveals itself in all kinds of social groups, developing into family pride, sectionalism, religious prejudice, racial discrimination, and patriotism. Some authors even argue that ethnocentrism is a part of human nature (Lynn 1976; Mihalyi 1984; Rushton 1989).

Ethnocentrism functions by helping to secure the survival of groups and their cultures and by increasing a group's solidarity, conformity, cooperation, loyalty, and effectiveness (Catton 1960; Lynn 1976; Mihalyi 1984; Murdock 1931; Rosenblatt 1964; Sumner 1906). More specific properties of ethnocentrism include the tendency (1) to distinguish various groups; (2) to perceive events in terms of the group's own interests (economical, political, and social); (3) to see one's own group as the center of the universe and to regard its way of life as superior to all others; (4) to be suspicious of and disdain other groups; (5) to view one's own group as superior, strong, and honest; (6) and to see other groups as inferior, weak, and dishonest troublemakers (LeVine and Campbell 1972).

Consumer Ethnocentricity

Consumer ethnocentricity, a uniquely economic form of ethnocentrism, was formulated as a domain-specific concept for the study of consumer behavior with marketing implications (Shimp and Sharma 1987). This article adopts Shimp and Sharma's (1987) definition of *consumer ethnocentricity*: "the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products." (p. 280) Specifically, consumer ethnocentricity has the following characteristics: first, it results from the love and concern for one's own country and the fear of losing control of one's economic interests as the result of the harmful effects that imports may bring to oneself and countrymen. Second, it contains the intention or willingness not to purchase foreign products. For highly ethnocentric consumers, buying foreign products is not only an economic issue but also a moral problem. This involvement of morality causes consumers to purchase domestic products even though, in extreme cases, the quality is below that of imports. Not buying foreign imports is good,

appropriate, desirable, and patriotic; buying them is bad, inappropriate, undesirable, and irresponsible. Third, it refers to a personal level of prejudice against imports, although it may be assumed that the overall level of consumer ethnocentricity in a social system is the aggregation of individual tendencies.

The consequences of consumer ethnocentricity include overestimation of domestic products or underestimation of imports, a moral obligation to buy domestic products, and preference for domestic products. For example, due to World War II hostilities, some older Americans may refuse to buy Japanese- or German-made products and some Japanese and Germans probably eschew American-made goods for the same reason. Even after eliminating extreme cases, ordinary consumers may still want to pay more to buy domestic products that are undifferentiated from imports (Wall and Heslop 1986).

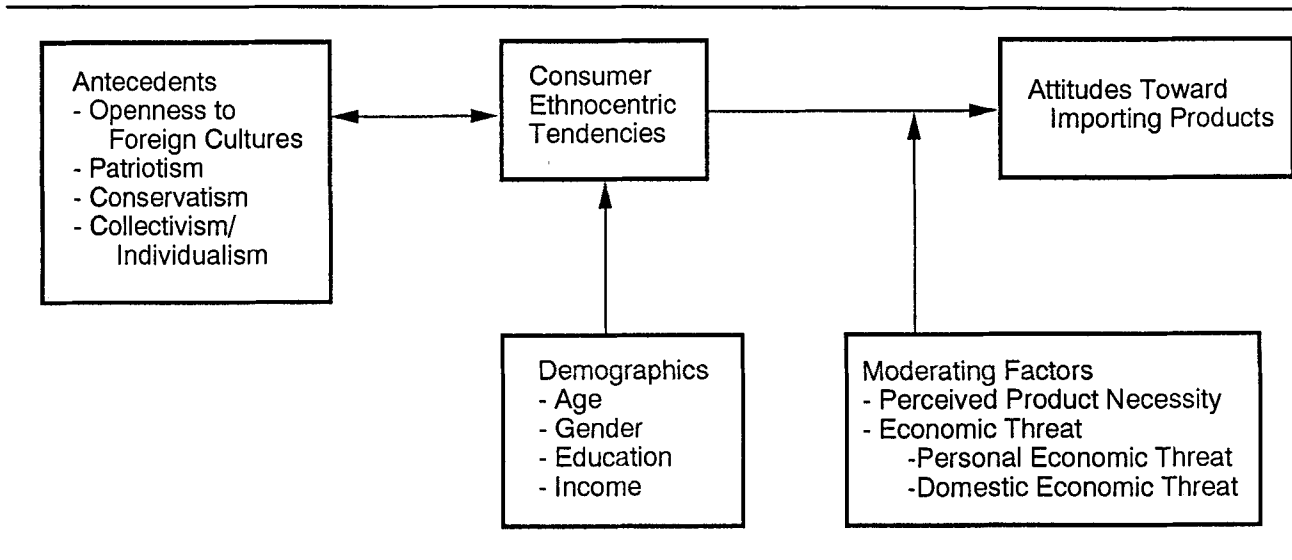
It is important to emphasize that consumer ethnocentrism was conceptualized by Shimp and Sharma (1987) as a trait-like property of individuals' personalities. As such, one's consumer-ethnocentric tendencies may be expected under certain circumstances to influence attitudes and behaviors toward foreign products and, reciprocally, toward competitive domestic products. Hence, in this view, ethnocentric tendencies represent an antecedent to attitudes but certainly are not tantamount to attitudes. This is demonstrated empirically in the Results section.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

Ethnocentric tendencies in consumers do not develop in isolation but rather are part of a constellation of social-psychological and demographic influences. Figure 1 presents consumer ethnocentricity as the focal construct and relates it to demographic variables and, more interestingly, to other social-psychological constructs: openness to foreign cultures, patriotism, collectivism-individualism, and conservatism. Consumer ethnocentricity is shown, in turn, to be causally determinant of consumers' attitudes toward importing foreign products into their domestic economies. This key theoretical linkage is not expected to be uniformly strong, however, and must be qualified by pertinent moderating circumstances.

Two moderating factors are postulated. First, it is expected that consumer ethnocentric tendencies will have an especially strong effect on attitudes toward importing products that are perceived as relatively nonnecessary (versus bare necessities). Second, the strength of the relationship should vary as a function of perceived economic threats: Consumer ethnocentricity is expected to have a strong impact on attitudes toward importing products when consumers perceive that such importation poses threats to their personal welfare and/or the welfare of the domestic economy. The following sections develop the constructs in Figure 1 and present hypotheses.

Figure 1
CONCEPTUAL MODEL



Social-Psychological Factors

Cultural openness. Individuals differ in terms of their experience with and openness toward the people, values, and artifacts of other cultures. The opportunity to interact with other cultures can have the effect of reducing cultural prejudice. Cultural openness may explain why Howard (1989) found that U.S. residents on the West Coast—a region where numerous cultures interact—tend to rate imported products more favorably than domestic products, whereas residents of the Midwest, which is less heterogeneous in its cultural composition, tend to rate imported products much lower in quality. Shimp and Sharma (1987) detected that respondents from Los Angeles were less ethnocentric than were those from Denver, Detroit, and the Carolinas.

H1: A negative correlation is expected between cultural openness and consumer ethnocentrism. That is, consumers who are more familiar with and open to foreign cultures should show less consumer ethnocentric tendencies than those who are less open.

Patriotism. Patriotism represents love for or devotion to one's country. Patriotism is related to ethnocentrism (Adorno et al. 1950; Catton 1960; Sumner 1906) and works as a kind of defense mechanism for the group (Mihalyi 1984). Moore (1989) observed that some non-tariff barriers are more reflective of patriotism than protectionism. Country-of-origin studies have implicated patriotic emotions in the purchase of imported products and country stereotyping (Crawford and Lamb 1981; Han 1988; Hooley, Shipley, and Krieger 1988; Howard 1989; Morello 1984; Wang 1978). Han (1988) showed that consumer patriotism has a significant effect on intentions to purchase domestic versus foreign products. Hence it is

expected that patriotic individuals will show more consumer-ethnocentric tendencies than individuals who are less patriotic.

H2: A positive correlation is expected between patriotism and consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

Conservatism. It is generally understood that conservative persons show a tendency to cherish traditions and social institutions that have survived the test of time, and to introduce changes only occasionally, reluctantly, and gradually. The extreme conservative has the following characteristics: religious fundamentalism, pro-establishment orientation, insistence on strict rules and punishments, preference for the conventional, and an antihedonic outlook (Wilson and Patterson 1968). Country-of-origin researchers (Anderson and Cunningham 1972; Wang 1978) have found an inverse relationship between conservatism and attitudes toward foreign products; that is, conservative people tend to evaluate imports negatively and domestic products positively.

H3: A positive correlation is expected between conservatism and consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

Collectivism-Individualism. This cross-culturally validated construct is regarded as one of the most promising dimensions of cultural variation (Triandis, Bontempo, and Villarel 1988). Essential attributes of collectivist cultures are (1) that individuals have the tendency to subordinate their personal goals to the goals of the group, (2) that the self is subordinated to the group, and (3) that the group works as a source of one's identity. In contrast, people in individualistic cultures tend to behave as if society is only a means to their ends (Hui and Triandis 1986).

Collectivistic persons are likely to evince strong consumer-ethnocentric tendencies because they tend to consider the effect of their behavior on society, feel responsible for others, and are more susceptible to social influence against imports (cf. Triandis, Brislin, and Hui 1988); individualistic persons will have less consumer-ethnocentric tendencies because they act primarily for their own benefit.

H4: The correlation between collectivism and consumer ethnocentrism is expected to be positive; that is, people with collectivistic goals will reveal more intensive ethnocentric tendencies than those with individualistic goals.

Demographic Variables

Consumer ethnocentricity is expected to covary with age, gender, educational level, and income based on the rationales that follow. It is noteworthy that these demographic characteristics are not conceptually independent of the social-psychological constructs just discussed. For example, older individuals are, on average, more conservative. It nonetheless is important to study these demographic variables due to their greater implications for actionable marketing practice.

Age. Older people are generally more conservative, more patriotic (Han 1988), and more likely to have experienced conflicts with foreign countries. Some researchers have found that attitudes toward domestic products generally become more favorable with increasing age (Bannister and Saunders 1978; Schooler 1971; Tongberg 1972) and have implied that the younger generation may be more cosmopolitan in their preferences and attitudes and consequently more favorably inclined toward imports (Bannister and Saunders 1978). Rose (1985) suggested that elderly people who have known the ravages of military defeat and occupation, such as those in Japan, France, and Germany, may feel more pride toward their country. However, some research has reported the conflicting finding that older people tend to evaluate foreign products more favorably than domestic goods (Han 1988; Schooler 1971; Tongberg 1972). But overall, there seems to be more support for the idea that older people show more consumer-ethnocentric tendencies than younger people.

H5: Age and consumer-ethnocentric tendencies are expected to be positively correlated.

Gender. Females are more conservative, more conformist (Eagly 1978), more patriotic (Han 1988), more concerned about preserving social harmony and promoting positive feelings among group members, and less individualistic (Triandis et al. 1985). Wall and Heslop (1986) reported that Canadian women are more positive than men toward the quality of Canadian-made products, whereas Howard (1989) observed that American women rated domestic products more favorably than did men. Thus,

H6: Women are expected to exhibit greater consumer-ethnocentric tendencies than men.

Education. More educated people tend to be less conservative (Ray 1990). They are less likely to have ethnic prejudices (Watson and Johnson 1972) and to have pride in their country (Rose 1985), and are more likely to favorably evaluate imports and to unfavorably evaluate domestic products (Anderson and Cunningham 1972; Wall and Heslop 1986; Wang 1978).

H7: The correlation between the level of educational achievement and consumer ethnocentrism is expected to be negative.

Income. Country-of-origin studies have found that high-income consumers tend to evaluate foreign products more favorably (Wall and Heslop 1986; Wang 1978). In general, as one's income increases, one may tend to travel abroad and try more products, which may result in more cosmopolitan views and greater openness to foreign products.

H8: The correlation between income level and consumer-ethnocentric tendencies is expected to be negative.

Moderating Factors

Perceived product necessity. Consumers perceive products differently in terms of whether those products are necessary to them personally or to the domestic economy. When a product is *perceived* as a necessity, consumer ethnocentricity should play a relatively minor role in affecting attitudes toward importing that product. On the other hand, for items perceived as dispensable, consumer ethnocentricity should have a more substantial impact on attitudes. On logical grounds we expect that personal preferences and desires (or, as constituted here, product necessity) counteract the more altruistic and non-self-centered motives contained in the ethnocentric ideal.

H9: The impact that consumer-ethnocentric tendencies have on attitudes toward importing products is expected to be moderated by the perceived necessity of the imported item. Specifically, the effect of consumer ethnocentricity on attitudes should be relatively stronger for products perceived as *unnecessary*.

Perceived economic threat. Another moderating factor relates to consumers' concerns about the threat that foreign competitors pose to them personally and/or to the domestic economy. When any country considers itself under attack or threatened by competition from outsiders, "foreignness" takes on negative meanings (Polhemus 1988) and nationalism and ethnocentrism increase (Rosenblatt 1964). The fear of losing jobs (either one's own or a related person's) may influence consumers' reactions to imports.

Sherif et al. (1961) found that when two groups compete against each other, between-group hostility increased. However, ingroup solidarity and cooperativeness also in-

creased when the two groups were competing, and were highest when intergroup hostility was at its peak. In research more directly related to the marketplace, it has been detected that people who are involved in threatened industries, such as automobiles or textiles, show higher consumer-ethnocentric tendencies (Daser and Meriz 1987; Shimp and Sharma 1987).

Based on this evidence, we propose that consumer ethnocentricity will have a particularly strong impact on attitudes toward importing products when consumers feel either personally threatened or that the domestic economy is threatened even though they may not be threatened personally.

H10: The impact that consumer-ethnocentric tendencies have on attitudes toward importing products is moderated by the perceived threat of foreign competition. Consumer ethnocentricity should strongly influence attitudes primarily for products perceived to personally threaten the individual or the domestic economy.

METHOD

The framework in Figure 1 and the corresponding hypotheses were investigated by studying Korean consumers. Two data collection procedures were employed: one involved mailing questionnaires to randomly selected households, and the other entailed distributing questionnaires through schoolchildren to their parents (specifics follow). Respondents were asked to reveal their attitudes concerning whether a variety of different products should or should not be imported into Korea, to respond to the multiple items that operationalized the constructs contained in Figure 1, and to provide demographic information.

Products Investigated

It was essential to select product categories that varied in perceived necessity to the lives of Korean consumers. Toward this end, in-depth discussions were undertaken in the United States with 42 Korean students and their spouses. The objective was to identify various products consumed in Korea that differ in perceived necessity for day-to-day living. Ten products differing in their level of necessity were identified. Four of these were considered most necessary (medicine, beef, personal computers, and kitchenware), whereas six were considered relatively unnecessary (golf clubs, liquor, bananas, insurance, large refrigerators, and jewelry). In the questionnaire distributed in Korea, the 10 products identified as varying with respect to daily-living necessity were measured on 5-point scales (1 = *definitely necessary*, 5 = *definitely unnecessary*). Consumers' attitudes toward importing each of the 10 products, the dependent variable, were measured on 5-point scales (1 = *definitely should import*, 5 = *definitely should not import*).

Measures of Social-Psychological Constructs

Previously used scales for measuring collectivism-individualism, conservatism, consumer-ethnocentric tendencies, and patriotism were identified. Items for each scale first were analyzed for cultural compatibility, and, where appropriate, were deleted or modified. All items were measured on 7-point Likert-type scales.

The scale for collectivism-individualism was proposed and validated both in America and in Hong Kong by Hui (1988). The original scale contains six subscales that individually measure collectivism toward one's spouse, parents, relatives, neighbors, friends, and coworkers. For this research, two subscales were adopted that have been shown to be rather distant on a social-closeness continuum: collectivism toward parents (6 items) and toward coworkers (5 items). Illustrative items measuring parental-based collectivism/individualism include, "Young people should take into consideration their parents' advice when making education/career plans" and "It is reasonable for a son to continue his father's business." Similar illustrative items for the coworker measure include, "One needs to return a favor if a colleague lends a helping hand" and "There is everything to gain and nothing to lose for classmates to group themselves for study and discussion."

Ray's (1983) conservatism measure was used in assessing American public opinion. Illustrative items from the 7-item scale include "Erotic and obscene literature should be prohibited from public sale" and "The government should make sure that our armed forces are stronger than those of North Korea at all times."

The patriotism scale was taken partially from Adorno et al.'s (1950) scale, which was adapted to be compatible with Korean society. Two illustrative items from the 8-item scale are "Devoting oneself for one's country is worthwhile" and "Patriotism and loyalty are the first and most important requirements of a good citizen."

The consumer-ethnocentric tendency scale (CETSCALE), proposed and validated in the United States by Shimp and Sharma (1987), operationalized this construct. The scale has been further validated in West Germany, France, and Japan by Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein (1991). The CETSCALE consists of 17 items, including "Korean people should always buy Korean-made products instead of imports"; "Only those products that are unavailable in Korea should be imported"; and "Korean products, first, last, and foremost."

The unavailability of a scale to measure cultural openness necessitated developing an ad hoc, 7-item Likert-type scale. Illustrative items include "I would like to have opportunities to meet people from different countries" and "I am very interested in trying food from different countries."

An original scale also had to be constructed to measure the moderating factor, perceived economic threat. This 7-item ad hoc measure consisted of the following illustrative items: "The present recession is due to the extensive amount of foreign competition"; "The security of my job/business is heavily influenced by foreign competi-

tors”; and “Economic problems are mainly due to excessive foreign competitors.”

Questionnaire

Translation and back translation. The questionnaire was translated into Korean by a Korean doctoral student fluent in English, and back translated into English by another Korean doctoral student who was majoring in English. The back-translated questionnaire was then judged by four Ph.D. students (three Americans and a Korean) for meaning compatibility. This process of translation, back translation and judging for meaning compatibility was repeated until all judges considered the Korean questionnaire to adequately represent the English version on which it was based.

Pretest. The final questionnaire, in Korean, was pretested by administering it in the United States to a sample of Korean students and their spouses. Respondents were asked to designate any ambiguities or awkwardness in question wording. Fifty-three questionnaires were collected. Based on the pretest results, several items were refined or deleted due to ambiguities and/or possible cultural incompatibility.

Sampling Methods in Korea

As noted, two sampling methods were used in order to obtain representative coverage of Korean consumers. One method (the mail sample) was a stratified sample of 1,500 names and addresses purchased from a mailing list company's database of 5 million economically diverse households. Questionnaires with an introduction letter and a postage-paid return envelope (bearing the return address of a local contact person) were mailed by the mailing list company to the 1,500 members of the sample.

The second method (the school sample) involved distributing 700 questionnaires to students at two elementary schools, three middle schools, and a high school in the Seoul metropolitan area and in a southern city. Students with an odd-ending class number were instructed to ask their father to complete the questionnaire, whereas those with an even-ending number were to ask their mother to complete the questionnaire. This procedure ensured about an equal representation of male and female respondents.

For the mail sample, 125 questionnaires were completed and 127 questionnaires were returned as undeliverable. This gives an effective response rate of slightly more than 9 percent. For the school sample, 542 questionnaires were completed, giving a response rate of about 77 percent. The low response rate for the mail sample was expected due to the nature of the study, length of the questionnaire, and the absence of a follow-up mailing due to budget constraints. The response-rate differential between the mail and school samples is not problematic, however, because analyses revealed that the two samples are not

TABLE 1
Sample Characteristics

Variable	Total sample
Demographics	
Age	<i>M</i> = 42.49
Gender ^a	
Male	56.9%
Female	43.1%
Income	<i>M</i> = \$35,194
Education (years)	<i>M</i> = 13.24
Constructs	
Collectivism	
Coworker ^b	<i>M</i> = 16.15
Parents ^c	<i>M</i> = 14.90
Economic threat	
Personal ^d	<i>M</i> = 11.60
Domestic ^e	<i>M</i> = 13.12
Openness ^f	<i>M</i> = 35.47
Patriotism ^g	<i>M</i> = 36.90
Conservatism ^h	<i>M</i> = 22.57
CETSCALE ⁱ	<i>M</i> = 85.07

a. Percent of males and females in the sample.

b. Range = 3-21; higher scores ⇒ greater coworker-based collectivism.

c. Range = 3-21; higher scores ⇒ greater parental-based collectivism.

d. Range = 3-21; higher scores ⇒ higher personal threat.

e. Range = 3-21; higher scores ⇒ higher domestic economic threat.

f. Range = 7-49; higher scores ⇒ greater cultural openness.

g. Range = 7-49; higher scores ⇒ greater patriotism.

h. Range = 4-28; higher scores ⇒ greater conservatism.

i. Range = 17-119; higher scores ⇒ greater ethnocentric tendencies.

significantly different with respect to demographic variables or in their response to the dependent variables. Accordingly, the two samples have been pooled for testing proposed relationships.

RESULTS

Table 1 presents demographic characteristics and mean responses to the key measures for the pooled sample of 667 Korean respondents. Two of the averages are particularly noteworthy. First, the mean CETSCALE score of 85.07 is considerably higher (about one scale point per item) than scores obtained by Shimp and Sharma (1987) in the United States, which ranged from a high of 68.58 in Detroit to a low of 56.62 in Los Angeles. Korean consumers either are more ethnocentric than their American counterparts or respond to scales differently. Second, the average income of the sample is considerably higher than the average income of Korean households. This occurred because about 10 percent of the mail sample had extremely high incomes. To assess the effect of including high-income respondents in the sample, all the analyses were repeated by excluding the high-income respondents. Because there were no appreciable differences in the results, findings reported hereafter are based on all 667 respondents.

Measurement Properties

The sample was randomly split into analysis ($n = 334$) and holdout ($n = 333$) samples. An exploratory factor analysis on the analysis sample first assessed dimensionality of the constructs and identified unreliable items. Next, confirmatory factor analysis on the holdout sample assessed measurement properties of the various scales.

Exploratory factor analysis. Based on the eigenvalue-greater-than-one rule and the scree plot, the exploratory factor analyses resulted, as expected, in one factor for the CETSCALE, conservatism, patriotism, and openness scales, and two factors for the collectivism scale (i.e., collectivism toward parents and coworkers) and two factors for the economic threat scale (i.e., personal and domestic economic threat). Several items were deleted as either having low loadings or weak correlations with other statements. Deleted items included two for collectivism toward coworkers, three for collectivism toward parents, three for conservatism, one for patriotism, and one for domestic economic threat.

Confirmatory factor analysis. Using the holdout sample, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed with all the constructs included in the model and correlated among themselves. This approach is one of the many approaches suggested for assessing scale measurement properties (cf. Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Kumar, Stern, and Achrol 1992). The underlying rationale is that measurement properties should be assessed in the context of the theoretical model in which concepts are embedded. The analysis on the holdout sample was repeated for the total sample. Because there are no substantial differences in the results between the holdout and total samples, subsequent results are for the total sample only.

The conservatism and patriotism scales are highly correlated ($\phi = .98$). A chi-square difference test indicates that this correlation is not significantly different from one suggesting that, although the two constructs are theoretically different, they cannot be empirically separated. For example, the following statement from the conservatism scale—"People who show disrespect for their country's flag should be punished for it"—clearly shows why the two constructs are highly correlated at the empirical level. Consequently, the conservatism and patriotism scales are combined into one scale and labeled PATCON.

Table 2 gives the confirmatory factor analysis results along with the goodness-of-fit indices and the reliability coefficients computed by employing the formula suggested by Jöreskog (1971). The model does not statistically fit the data as indicated by the chi-square statistic. However, because the chi-square statistic is sensitive to sample size, researchers have traditionally discounted this test as the sole indicator of model fit and have resorted to other goodness-of-fit statistics such as Jöreskog and Sörbom's (1986) GFI, the rescaled noncentrality parameter (NCP) and the rescaled noncentrality index (RNI) of McDonald and Marsh (1990), and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). McDonald and Marsh (1990) recommend the use of the

TABLE 2
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Construct (Scale)	Number of Indicators	Reliability
Collectivism		
Coworkers	3	.39
Parents	3	.56
Economic Threat		
Personal	3	.67
Domestic	3	.53
Openness	7	.74
PATCON	11	.71
CETSCALE	17	.91

NOTE: Chi-square = 2271.03, $df = 1013$, $p = .000$; GFI = .834, NCP = 2.378, RNI = .817, TLI = .805.

NCP, RNI, and TLI because, according to the results of simulation studies, only these indices are unbiased in finite samples. Although there are no established cutoff values for these indices, the values of the fit indices reported in Table 2 are in line with those obtained by other researchers for models with large numbers of indicators (e.g., Kohli, Jaworski, and Kumar 1993). Also, an examination of the histogram for the residuals and the Q plot indicate that the distribution of the residuals is approximately normal. These goodness-of-fit statistics suggest a reasonable fit of the model to the data, thereby demonstrating reliable and unidimensional measures.

The convergent validity of the scales was assessed by examining the loadings' t values—all of which are significant at an alpha of 0.05 or lower—thereby establishing measurement convergence (Bagozzi 1981). Discriminant validity was assessed by constraining the correlation of each pair of constructs to one and examining the decrease in fit via chi-square difference tests. The difference tests for all pairwise analyses are statistically significant, which indicates that the pairwise correlations of constructs are statistically different from one; furthermore, the shared variance between any two constructs is less than 0.50, thus establishing discriminant validity for all constructs.

The reliabilities of the scales range from .39 to .91. The CETSCALE's reliability of .91 (see Table 2) is comparable to the reliabilities reported in Shimp and Sharma's (1987) study of Americans and Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein's (1991) study of French, Germans, and Japanese. The remaining reliabilities for the various scales are: cultural openness (.74), PATCON (.71), personal economic threat (.67), collectivism toward parents (.56), domestic national economic threat (.53), and collectivism toward coworkers (.39). Some of these reliabilities are obviously lower than desirable; however, the effect of these measurement deficiencies renders conservative the subsequent hypothesis tests, inasmuch as unreliable measurement attenuates observed relations between constructs (Cote and Buckley 1987, 1988).

Also assessed was the conceptual difference between the measure of consumer ethnocentrism (CETSCALE) and attitudes toward importing specific products. An ex-

TABLE 3
Correlations with CETSCALE

Factors	r	p level
Social-psychological factors		
Openness	-.205	.000
PATCON	.526	.000
Collectivism		
Parents	.182	.000
Coworkers	.227	.000
Demographic factors		
Age	-.033	.209
Gender	.172	.000
Education	-.246	.000
Income	-.146	.000

ploratory factor analysis (with varimax rotation) on the 17 CETSCALE items and the 10 attitude items revealed that when the solution was constrained to just two factors, the 17 CETSCALE items loaded on the first factor and 9 of the 10 product-specific attitude items loaded on the second factor. (The tenth attitude item loaded on neither factor.) A confirmatory factor analysis suggests that the correlation between the two constructs ($r = .568$) is significantly different from one, thereby establishing discriminant validity between consumer ethnocentricity and attitudes toward importing products.

Hypothesis Tests

Social-psychological factors. Table 3 gives the correlations between the CETSCALE and the four social-psychological antecedents postulated in Figure 1. In support of hypothesis H1, the correlation between cultural openness and consumer ethnocentricity is predictably negative ($r = -.205$, $p = .000$), which indicates that individuals who are open to other cultures are less ethnocentric. The correlation between the combined patriotism/conservatism scale (PATCON) and CETSCALE is significantly positive ($r = .526$, $p = .000$), which supports the expectations presented in hypotheses H2 and H3. Finally, the positive coefficients for the two collectivism subscales (i.e., parents: $r = .182$, $p = .000$ and coworkers: $r = .227$, $p = .000$) provide support for hypothesis H4.

Demographic factors. Table 3 also gives the correlations between the CETSCALE and the various demographic factors. As can be seen, all hypotheses, except the one pertaining to age (i.e., H5) are supported. Specifically, the correlation between gender and consumer ethnocentrism is significantly positive ($r = .172$, $p = .000$) in support of hypothesis H6, which predicted that women (coded 1) would exhibit greater consumer-ethnocentric tendencies than men (coded 0). Hypotheses H7 and H8 are supported by the negative coefficients between consumer ethnocentrism and education and income, respectively; as postulated, consumer-ethnocentric tendencies decrease with greater levels of educational achievement ($r = -.246$, $p = .000$) and with increasing income ($r = -.146$, $p = .000$).

TABLE 4
Means and Standard Deviations for Product Necessity Scores

Product	Mean ^a	SD
Medicine	1.94	0.99
Kitchenware	2.71	1.34
Beef	2.83	1.10
PC	2.87	1.23
Jewelry	3.39	1.22
Large fridge	3.46	1.34
Liquor	3.46	1.21
Bananas	3.88	1.10
Insurance	4.12	1.04
Golf clubs	4.31	1.06

a. Smaller numbers indicate greater perceived product necessity.

TABLE 5
Moderator Regression Results for Product Necessity^a

Product	Necessity (N)	CET (C)	N × C	R ²
Medicine	.202 ^b	.098	.247	.234
	.000 ^c	.002	.000	
Kitchenware	.057	.291	.208	.225
	.025	.000	.000	
Beef	.052	.151	.134	.073
	.041	.000	.000	
PC	.225	.085	.224	.220
	.000	.007	.000	
Jewelry	.028	.215	.126	.088
	.233	.000	.000	
Large fridge	.277	.044	.246	.269
	.000	.165	.000	
Liquor	.073	.283	.200	.217
	.003	.000	.000	
Bananas	.035	.299	.206	.210
	.152	.000	.000	
Insurance	.193	.131	.246	.224
	.000	.000	.000	
Golf clubs	-.012	.364	.143	.188
	.575	.000	.000	

a. The dependent variable is attitudes toward importing each product into Korea.

b. Standardized regression parameter.

c. p level.

Moderating factors. Moderated regression analysis (Sharma, Durand, and Gur-Arie 1981) was used to test hypotheses H9 and H10. These hypotheses posited that the impact of consumer-ethnocentric tendencies on attitudes toward importing products into Korea would be moderated by the perceived necessity of the imported item (H9) and the perceived degree of personal and economic threat imposed by the imported item (H10). Latent root regression rather than ordinary least squares regression was used for identifying moderator variables because the inclusion of an interaction term creates multicollinearity, which could suppress the identification of moderator variables (Morris, Sherman, and Mansfield 1986).

TABLE 6
Moderator Regression Results for
Personal and Domestic Economic Threat^a

	<i>Threat (T)</i>	<i>CET(C)</i>	<i>T × C</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Personal economic threat	-.149 ^b	.491	.140	.314
	.000 ^c	.000	.000	
Domestic economic threat	-.207	.543	.145	.325
	.000	.000	.000	

a. The dependent variable is a combined willingness to import 10 different products into Korea.

b. Standardized regression parameter.

c. *p* level.

Table 4 provides means and standard deviations for the 10 products that respondents evaluated in terms of whether each should or should not be imported into Korea. The 10 products had been selected from a pretest as products that varied considerably with respect to how necessary each is for Korean daily life. The table orders these products from most to least necessary for maintaining Korean daily life.

Table 5 gives the regression results testing the moderating effect of product necessity. Separate regression analyses were conducted for all 10 products by including three terms in the moderated latent root regressions: product necessity, consumer-ethnocentric tendencies, and the interaction between these variables. Attitude toward importing a given product into Korea is the dependent variable in all analyses. Moderation is indicated when the interaction term between consumer ethnocentrism and perceived necessity is statistically significant. As can be seen, the standardized regression parameters for all 10 interaction terms are large and statistically significant, thereby supporting hypothesis H9: the more a product is perceived as unnecessary, the greater the impact ethnocentric tendencies have on attitudes toward importing the product into Korea.¹

To test the moderating effect of perceived threat, an overall measure of perceived willingness to import products was formed by summing the willingness-to-import responses for the 10 individual products.² Table 6 presents moderated-regression results for the separate threat measures: personal economic threat and domestic economic threat. Both interaction terms are significant, which indicates that as consumers perceive imports to be more threatening to their personal or domestic economic welfare, ethnocentric tendencies have increased impact on consumers' resistance to importing products into Korea. That is, ethnocentric consumers are more willing to import if the imported item is perceived as less threatening to their personal welfare or to the domestic economy. These results offer strong support for hypothesis H10.

DISCUSSION

This article examines antecedents of consumer-ethnocentric tendencies and the impact these tendencies have on attitudes toward importing products. Regarding antecedent relationships, the CETSCALE is shown to be

positively correlated with collectivist tendencies and with patriotic/conservative attitudes but negatively correlated with cultural openness, education, and income. The relationship between ethnocentric tendencies and attitudes toward imports is moderated by product necessity and the extent of threat these products are perceived as having on the consumer personally and on the domestic economy more generally.

Implications for Marketing Theory

This research and the theoretical base on which it is conducted hold valuable implications for the growing literature on consumer-ethnocentric tendencies, which itself is an important individual-level construct for the better understanding of country-of-origin dynamics. Testing hypotheses developed from an American vantage point in a culturally dissimilar country (i.e., Korea) is a positive response to the recommendation that theory development in marketing be universalized beyond a parochial American perspective (Dholakia, Firat, and Bagozzi 1980).

The research contributes substantively by fleshing out the specific theoretical meaning and role that consumer ethnocentrism plays. Prior research has established the psychometric properties of the CETSCALE in the United States (Shimp and Sharma 1987) and in France, Germany, and Japan (Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein 1991); however, studies have not examined in detail the antecedents of consumer ethnocentricity or the moderating factors that determine the effect of this construct on attitudes toward importing particular products. Our research establishes that consumer-ethnocentric tendencies play an increasingly influential role under two circumstances: (1) when products are perceived as relatively unnecessary, and (2) when consumers perceive themselves and/or the domestic economy to be threatened by the importation of a particular product

These findings support the contextualist argument (McGuire 1983), which holds that theoretical relationships generally are not true under all circumstances but depend on the specifics of the situation. In this case, we have shown that the impact of consumer ethnocentricity on attitudes toward importing products varies in amplitude depending on perceived product necessity and threat. Hence there are instances in which consumers' attitudes and purchase behaviors can be expected to be influenced by their ethnocentric tendencies, but there are perhaps even more instances where they will not be affected.

Managerial Implications

This study holds several implications for marketing practice. First, consumer ethnocentrism provides marketing managers with a useful concept for understanding consumers' reasons for buying domestic versus imported products, and especially why certain segments of consumers prefer domestic goods whereas others do not care about the distinction between domestic and imported products. Second, it provides useful information for both importers

and exporters in selecting target markets and formulating appropriate marketing strategies. The prejudice against imported products is a barrier for multinational marketers to overcome, but it is also a favorable edge for domestic manufacturers to take advantage of.

The segmenting variable, consumer-ethnocentric tendencies, can be easily measured by the well-developed and cross-culturally validated CETSCALE (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, and Durvasula 1991; Shimp and Sharma 1987). The segments of interest are identifiable because they possess distinctive and durable traits of conservatism, patriotism, cultural openness, and collectivism, and such differences in demographic profiles as gender, income, and education. Although the size of the consumer-ethnocentric segment is unknown, there are hints of a substantial segment in the United States. For example, an opinion survey by *Purchasing World* ("Reader Survey Shows" 1990) revealed that 17 percent of respondents personally avoid imports and another 33 percent prefer domestic products. Seventeen percent indicated that their company has a "Buy American" policy, whereas 82 percent favor buying domestic products, all things being equal. These results do not directly bear on the population at large, but they do suggest that the consumer-ethnocentric segment for at least some products (cf. Herche 1992) may be far too big to be disregarded.

Third, international trade policymakers may gain some insights from this study regarding consumer prejudices against foreign goods. One problem encountered by policymakers in Congress with regard to trade with Japan is that, in spite of few explicit trade barriers and government efforts to promote foreign products, Japan imports much less than it should. One explanation for this phenomenon is that Japanese consumers simply prefer Japanese products ("Fear of Foreigners," 1989).

Limitations

The antecedent constructs included in this study are not exhaustive; other variables such as allocentrism and dogmatism may be related to consumer ethnocentrism. According to Tongberg (1972), products made in countries perceived to be culturally similar to the United States are more acceptable to the highly dogmatic person and thus she or he is likely to be more willing to purchase products from such countries.

Also, there may be other factors besides product necessity and perceived threat that moderate the effect of consumer-ethnocentric tendencies on attitudes toward foreign products.³ For instance, cultural similarity, historical associations between countries, and present political-economic relations between countries may moderate the effect of consumer-ethnocentric tendencies. This differential sensitiveness suggests that citizens of a country may regard certain countries as ingroup (e.g., England and Canada for the United States) while regarding other countries as outgroup (e.g., Japan for the United States). If highly ethnocentric consumers do indeed distinguish be-

tween ingroup and outgroup countries, they may evaluate ingroup countries' products highly and prefer them, showing wider variation in their evaluation of the imported products by country.

Finally, the reliability of several of the scales was less than desirable. It should be noted, however, that all the constructs were conceptualized mostly from U.S. studies, and measures were adapted from scales developed in the United States with appropriate modifications to make them relevant for Korea. Indeed, it is somewhat remarkable that scale reliability in such a culturally disparate country is as high as detected. Furthermore, the major purpose of this article was not to develop psychometrically rigorous cross-cultural scales but to test the proposed hypotheses. In the final analysis, any problems with scale reliability merely render conservative the strength of the observed effects.

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NOTES

1. Most of the moderation effects across the 10 products are quasi-, rather than pure-moderator effects (cf. Sharma et al. 1981).
2. Although no construct relating to overall willingness to import was hypothesized, the reliability of the 10 items is .788.
3. We conceptualized perceived product importance as another moderating variable, but improper measurement prevents us from reporting the results of this analysis.

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ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Subhash Sharma is a professor of marketing and Distinguished Foundation Fellow at the University of South Carolina. He has published in *Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Marketing Research*, *Marketing Science*, *Management Science*, and elsewhere.

Terence A. Shimp is a professor of marketing and Distinguished Foundation Fellow at the University of South Carolina. He has published in *Journal of Consumer Research*, *Journal of Marketing Research*, *Journal of Marketing*, and elsewhere.

Jeongshin Shin is a lecturer of marketing at Chunnam National University, Korea. He received his Ph.D. in marketing from the University of South Carolina.