

THE EFFECT OF ETHNOCENTRISM LEVEL OF CONSUMERS ON COUNTRY
OF ORIGIN: A STUDY WITH CHINESE HOUSEHOLD APPLIANCES



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PLAGIARISM

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this study.

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ABSTRACT

The effect of consumers' ethnocentrism levels on the country of origin strongly influences their purchasing intentions. Therefore, it is very important for companies engaged in commercial activities with the import method in terms of supplying products and determining from which countries they should buy products and services. The socio-demographic characteristics of potential customers in the target market are important factors affecting the country of origin and consumer ethnocentrism. In addition, these demographic characteristics are closely related to ethnocentrism.

This study aimed to investigate how the ethnocentrism levels of a selected group of Turkish consumers affect their intention to purchase Chinese home appliances. 360 consumers contributed to the implementation phase of the study. The data were analyzed in the light of the information provided by the participants with the help of a questionnaire. Factor analysis was applied for these data obtained with Cetscale and COO scales. In addition, Cronbach's Alpha values of each scale were examined. Afterwards, correlation and simple linear regression analyzes were applied for the hypotheses. Independent groups T-test and ANOVA test were also applied for sociodemographic characteristics. As a result of the study, it was determined that the hypotheses proposed at the beginning of the research were supported by the findings. While it is concluded that it is related to marital status, age and income level; It was found that it was not related to education status.

Keywords: County of Origin, Chinese Household Appliances, Sociodemographic Attributes, Consumer Ethnocentrism.

ÖZET

Tüketicilerin etnosentrizm düzeylerinin menşe ülke üzerine etkisi satın alma niyetlerini güçlü bir şekilde yönlendirmektedir. Bundan dolayı, ithalat yöntemiyle ticari faaliyetlerde bulunan firmaların ürün tedarik etmek ve hangi ülkelerden ürün ve hizmet almaları gerektiğini belirlemeleri açısından oldukça önemlidir. Hedef pazardaki potansiyel müşterilerin sosyo-demografik özellikleri, menşe ülkeyi ve tüketici etnosentrizmini etkileyen önemli unsurlardır. Ayrıca söz konusu demografik özellikler etnosentrizm ile yakından ilişkilidir.

Bu çalışma, seçilmiş bir grup Türk tüketicinin etnosentrizm düzeylerinin Çin menşeli ev aletleri satın alma niyetlerini ne şekilde etkilediğini araştırmayı amaçlamıştır. Çalışmanın uygulama aşamasına, 360 tüketici katkı sağlamıştır. Veriler, anket yardımıyla katılımcıların sağladığı bilgiler ışığında analiz edilmiştir. Cetscale ve COO ölçekleriyle elde edilen bu veriler için faktör analizi uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca her bir ölçeğin Cronbach's Alpha değerleri incelenmiştir. Sonrasında hipotezler için korelasyon ve basit lineer regresyon analizleri uygulanmıştır. Sosyodemografik özellikler için de bağımsız gruplar T-testi ve ANOVA testi uygulanmıştır. Çalışma sonucunda, araştırmanın başlangıç aşamasında önerilen hipotezlerin bulgularla desteklendiği tespit edilmiştir. Yapılan tüm analizler sonucunda, tüketici etnosentrizminin ev aletleri ürün kategorisinde Çin menşeli ürünler için tüketicilerin satın alma kararı doğrultusunda sosyodemografik özelliklerden cinsiyet, medeni durum, yaş ve gelir seviyesi ile ilişkili olduğu sonucuna varılırken; eğitim durumuyla ilişkili olmadığı tespit edilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Menşe Ülke, Çin Menşeli Ev aletleri, Sosyodemografik Faktörler, Tüketici Etnosentrizmi.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CE Consumer Ethnocentrism

CI Consumer Intention

COO Country of Origin



1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, Chinese branded products are highly preferred as they offer price advantage as well as functionality of products in global market. Some group of consumers have an ethnocentric tendency when purchasing any product or services. Many of others pay attention to country of origin in their decision to buying any imported products.

Origin of country has significant role on consumer buying behavior due to the effect of brand awareness, quality perception and purchase intention of potential customers. In addition, it can be said that some sociodemographic characteristics of consumers affect their purchasing decisions considerably.

Correspondingly, consumer ethnocentrism plays important role on consumer purchasing behaviors.

Recent studies (Holtbrügge & Zeier, 2017; Souiden, Landhari, & Chang, 2018) stated that China has been suffering from some country of origins, which cause the country competitive disadvantages for an emerging market. As China has gained significant growth in production, it is rapidly moving to a leading position in the competitive market.

The concept of globalization has been growing around the World for the last few decades, but some people of particular nations still treat the product made in other countries with ethnocentricity approaches. Although China generates the highest gross domestic products in the World, consumer ethnocentrism still exists among the other nations regarding Chinese products including electronic, cars, textiles, or any other services. For example, people often have the perception that Chinese cars or

electronic devices are significantly worse in terms of superiority, functioning, attractiveness than products whose country of origin is Germany or France. (Holtbrügge & Zeier, 2017).

Tsai, Yoo and Lee (2013) explored major impacts of the ethnocentrism levels on the consumer preference and tendencies for the native and overseas products or services. They also focused on two related variables, types of product and their COO with any particular relationship between them. They collected data from three countries (South Korea, China, USA) in regard to their consumer ethnocentrism against the import products produced different country of origin. As a result of the study, they discovered that consumers in the US showed higher levels of ethnocentrism than the consumers in China and South Korea. In addition, South Korean and American products were more positively perceived by consumers when domestic and foreign origin of products were compared.

Socioeconomic status of the consumers also affects their domestic or foreign ethnocentrism (Heydari et al., 2014). Moreover, sociodemographic features including age, economic status, employment, income and education level. For instance, older, female has middle revenue and a lot fewer educated consumers were likely to have higher levels of ethnocentrism (Watson & Wright, 2000).

This research aimed to investigate how consumer ethnocentrism affects the country of origin, regarding the desire of a group of Turkish consumers to purchase Chinese origin home appliances.

Another purpose of the research is to determine whether the level of consumer ethnocentrism and the COO differ according to demographic characteristics. The study was designed as a kind of quantitative research methodology.

implemented through a demographic survey via CETSCALE. The research conducted via internet and data was collected via application of specific online questionnaire. 360 Turkish participants, have already bought Chinese electronics, contributed to the research evaluation. Findings from the research application were confirmed with the hypotheses determined at the beginning of the research.

The following definitions are constructed to identify some miscellaneous concepts of this study needed to clarify for the readers.

Country of Origin (COO): It is such a country where a specific merchandise or service is created, assembled, manufactured, or growth where it originates. It is generally used for trade purposes internationally.

Consumer Intention (CI): A person's level of commitment, plan, decision, or aims to implement an idea or attain an objective (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). It is often used with purchase, planning, goals, decision, choice or objectives.

Consumer Ethnocentrism (CE): Consumer Ethnocentrism basically defines the ethnocentric perspectives of the regular customers in a particular country or a group of individuals towards the products of other countries or other groups (Shimp&Sharma, 1987)

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In the first item of the bibliographic review, the concepts associated with the investigation of customer tendencies defined as basis of theoretical standpoints of research methodology, were utilized. In this item, we have considered elements related to the theme of research in this field of study: decision-making processes of costumers, consumer perceptions for any products are available for purchase, and information processing and consumer attitudes for products imported from any other countries.

In the second part of the review, how of origin affect consumer behaviors and its factors were studied including “definition, form of processing and factors that moderate, that is, make it more or less intense, the COO effect (consumer characteristics in regard to the product type or category). In addition, the elements related to the image of countries were addressed, since the effects derived from knowledge about the COO are mostly shaped by the images of a country. Definitions of image of the countries and the dimensions that make up the concept were also discussed.

Another sub-theme dealt with in this part of the literature, demonstrated that some methods of measuring the COO effect, indicating that there existed direct and indirect options of verifying how consumers rely on information about the products’ COO to build their judgments of quality.

In the third part of this chapter, the development of the concept of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism, studies on consumer ethnocentrism in TURKEY, studies on COO and consumer ethnocentrism, the measurement of consumer ethnocentrism and CETSCALE are discussed.

The theoretical references presented in this chapter can provide some answers to study questions. They also form an important basis for the fulfillment of the objectives proposed by the present study.

2.1. Consumer Behavior and Marketing Concept

Some studies in the literature concerning consumer behaviors are considered theoretical basis of this study. In one of the studies, Kernan (1995) stated that, compared to most academic fields, the study of consumer behavior is relatively recent. Some of the fundamental effects and other factors causing the consumer to action are numerous and complex. Each discipline of Social Sciences proved to be an important element for delivering explanations for consumer behavior (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). As a consequence, the field of study of consumer behavior has been characterized by the diversity of points of view.

According to Demirdjian and Senguder (2004), the marketing area has borrowed many concepts from the social sciences disciplines. In the beginning, marketing was treated from an economic perspective. Traditionally, economics is more concerned with the operation and dynamics of a society's economic system rather than behavior of individual consumers or buyers. The major focus of research is how the system operates in the aggregate, and not to know why the individual consumer behaves in a certain way. Although it failed to provide explanations for less rational consumer behaviors, Economics provided many marketing concepts, such as the relationships among the supply-demand system, pricing principles, efficacy, borderline inquiry, and the role of revenue as an significant factor in purchasing activities (Demirdjian, 2004).

For many years, economic theory permeated marketing thinking and practice, built on such a postulation that consumers generally make logical and useful choices, actively engaged in searching for intelligence, objectively assessing available substitutes, embracing logical and realistic options for their needs in order to boost their benefits. However, while such economic areas provided the foundations for marketing, they were ineffective for the required concepts to recognize the complicated nature of consumer motivation. The emotional side of the consumer was neglected, until marketers began to exploit it, seeking in other social sciences the explanations for consumer behavior, notably in Psychology, Sociology, and Anthropology (Demirdjian, 2004).

The element that gave strength to the research of consumer behavior in marketing was the so-called “concept of marketing”, which puts the consumers at the center of the promoting strategy. The concept of marketing is considered as a significant and well-known concept previously created in the literature of the marketing (Svensson, 2005).

The marketing theories were firstly formulated during the era of 1950s, and it now seems so obvious that one can wonder why marketing professionals and researchers had not thought of it before. Assael (1995) proposed two reasons for this. First, any organizations or institutions were not built until 1950s to acknowledge the marketing idea and theories. Furthermore, advertising and distribution tools were more suitable for the idea of the mass-production and marketing strategies. Implementing the marketing concept would require a variety of tools to promote and distribute products that would meet the needs of the most diverse and smaller market segments. Instead, the emphasis was on measurement of economies in the field of

manufacturing items and marketing. For example, before the 1950s, Coca-Cola was a one-product company, and Chevrolet had only one model.

In the United States, during the Depression, consumers had lower income and purchasing powers to start any types of purchasing behavior. Later, shortage became prevalent after World War II. For example, no competitive circumstances existed to learn about the specifics of the consumer behaviors or to modify available supply for their needs. Simply, manufacturers could sell anything they manufactured, since demand was greater than supply. After the two Great Wars and the American Depression, consumers became more selective in their buying habits, becoming reluctant buyers. For the first time, supply exceeded demand, and inventories grew. Some marketers have reacted by intensifying old strategies: pushing the existing line to consumers, increasing sales efforts, pushing excess stocks to distributors. Others reacted with a better view, recognizing that the right mix of product benefits could influence reluctant consumers to buy. These manufacturers researched the market to identify consumer needs and to develop products to satisfy the potential customers need (Assael, 1995).

Therefore, the theory of science and research on consumer behavior had a momentum after World War II, when production capacity far outstripped demand, and suppliers had no choice but to adopt the concept of marketing (Engel et al., 1995) which led marketers to think in behavioral terms. In this new context, any particular products or service that the customer wishes or requires should be produced or revised to satisfy the consumer requests. The goals of advertising are to communicate with the customers through figures, picture, and icons to demonstrate how a brand could provide the profits, and also build a brand-friendly outlook and stimulate experimentation.

For Svensson (2005), the importance of the marketing concept has been observed in the marketing literature. Such importance refers not only to the concept itself, but also to its influence on marketing practice, literature, and thinking, including description of the marketing compound and the myopia concept in the advertising. Thus, according to Assael (1995), the shift to consumer orientation has changed the nature of marketing operations in many ways, such as: providing impetus for consumer behavior research; creation of a superior consumer-oriented structure aimed at marketing strategies; boosting the assessing the elements that effect the consumers for purchasing a product; emphasis on market segmentation; emphasis on the product positioning to satisfy the customer needs; creation of larger alternatives in publicizing and individual advertising; and media creation and additional product distributors.

However, Brown (2005) believes that, despite the great appeal of the marketing concept, an important weakness lies in its lack of strategic content, since nothing is said about how the company should compete in the market. Despite this, Wilkie and Moore (2003) explain that the emergence of the study on consumer behavior appears to be a natural reaction to their basics for market information, to be used in planning new products, advertising, retail, and other areas of marketing decisions.

To sum up, by accepting the concept of marketing, marketing managers described that major factors for any type of consumer behaviors show a traditional impact on the generations of the new and innovative approaches for marketing. In this way, one can conclude that the content and methodology of the study of consumer behavior are formed with two critical concerns: the issues, which shift a production-based economy to a market-driven economy, and the sophistication status with which

the individual behavior is comprehended especially by psychologists and related behavioral scientists (Engel et al.,1995).

For Assael (1995), a marketer faces the challenge of performing three important activities: identifying new opportunities in the market, evaluating the advantages and disadvantages of current offering by the company, and developing marketing strategies to influence the consumer to buy. To be able to accept these tasks, one must obtain required levels of knowledge regarding the elements that stimulate the consumer behaviors such as preferences, needs, wishes, perceptions, mindsets and plans.

Consequently, understanding how consumers make buying decisions helps marketers at many levels and various means. Successful marketing strategies depends on whether brands are viewed as a means for consumers to meet their needs. Therefore, they buy the brand, and can conclude that it meets their expectations. In addition, knowing the attributes most valued by buyers, can lead to the design of products to meet this criterion, or the elaboration of communications to modify the criterion of consumer decision (Assael, 1995).

In the study of consumer behavior, two major principles were considered fundamental for their understanding (Engel et al., 1995). The first principle was “the consumer is sovereign”; consumer behavior is intentional and objective based. Any products or services are included or excluded as considered relevant to consumer needs and lifestyles. That is related to accepting and modifying the product or the service to ignite the consumer incentive and behavior and this should be done as a necessity for surviving in the competitive markets. Second principle is that “behavior can be influenced”. Consumer autonomy is known as a key issue, however promoting marketing strategies could promote not only customers’ motivations, but also their

behaviors as long as the particular service or product is intentionally created or produced to satisfy the consumers' needs and wishes.

The significance for studying consumer behavior therefore comes from knowing the needs and desires of consumers, with which marketers can stimulate a will or desire for a product or service, trying to induce consumers to buy. It becomes clear that understanding the consumer behavior is significant for the companies to produce the products and services best suited to their needs, and for that, research should be undertaken with them.

2.1.1 Decision-making processes

Some models seek for explanation of decision-making process of the consumers. Their findings stated that consumers often experience a diverse problem process, varying on the kind of the conclusion being made, and the possible variables that can influence the process in its different stages. In making their decisions, consumers follow a process that can be used by marketers in the composition of their offerings, and in communication and sales strategies.

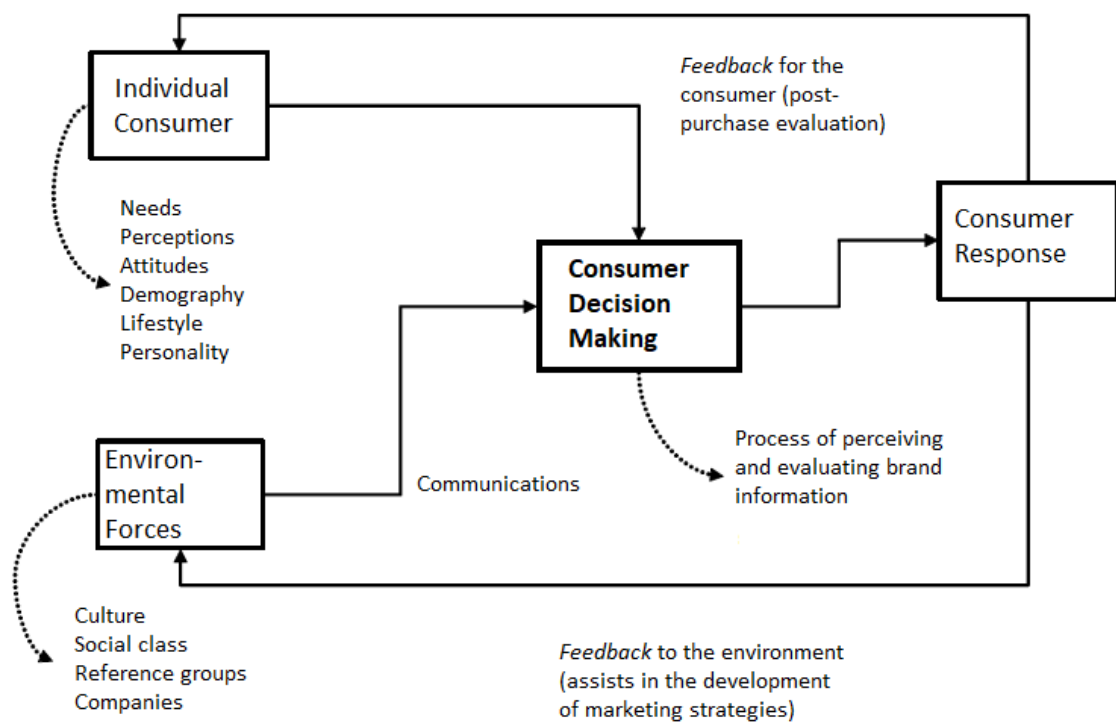
For Licata et al.(1995), the phases of the purchase process are: acquisition phase, when the consumer decides which product to acquire, phase is of great importance for the satisfaction because in it are created expectations as to the performance of the product acquired; phase of consumption, when the consumer uses the product and verifies that their expectations were matched as expected, becoming information for future consumption actions; and disposal phase, when the product is discarded or no longer exists due to physical consumption.

In turn, Assael (1995) developed a simplified model of consumer behavior, the integrations and interactions between the consumer and the marketers were

emphasized (Figure 1). Consumer decision-making is known as the process of discern and evaluates relevant information including brand specifics as well as identifies how brand meet their requirements when deciding on a brand, which makes up the central component of the model.

The models proposed by Mowen (1995) and Assael (1995) are based on the model of Engel, Blackwell and Kollat (1978), later revised by Engel, Blackwell and Miniard (1995), considered an extremely analytical scientific theoretical model that proposes an explanatory structure of consumer choice behavior (Karsaklian, 2004). The Engel-Blackwell-Kollat model is generally used to investigate the consumer behavior inquiry, indicating points of impact for the marketing compound elements on buyer behavior.

Figure 1 *Simplified consumer behavior model*
Simplified consumer behavior model



For Assael (1995), Figure 1 showed that, five main reasons for understanding the steps that lead to buying behavior. First, a model of consumer behavior supports

full and assembled views of such types of attitudes. Second, a template specifies a foundation for developing marketing approaches. Third, it also describes the types of info needed to measure such approaches or strategies. Fourth, it provides the elaborations of the factors. Finally, in the fifth place, a model specifies a basis for segmenting markets.

However, the utility of a consumer behavior model has four limitations:

1. The specifications of any model is not evenly necessary for the categories of the product features;
2. The elements of any model may also not evenly essential in various situations of use;
3. Any kinds of model may differ between persons in the same market;
4. The purchasing verdicts are not all equally complex.

However, any implementations of decision-making models do not necessarily depend on these limitations, since different models can be elaborated according to the level of complexity in decision making (Assael, 1995).

The acknowledgment of any demand occurs once a person perceives the difference between what exactly is perceived by the consumer to be ideal and the actual state of the product. This state of tension causes consumers to search for information that will help them make a decision. External stimuli to consumers can initiate the decision-making process, such as marketing communication or environmental influences. In addition, internal stimuli to consumers, especially their brand needs and assessments, can initiate decision making. These internal stimuli include recognition of poor performance of a product or, more fundamentally, physiological needs such as hunger and thirst.

After recognition of the need, consumers begin to look for intelligence and possible explanations to meet those needs (Blackwell & Miniard, 2005). Such an investigation could be interior rooted, recovering information in the memory. It could also be exterior if information is accumulated from friends, family and the market. Consumers may also passively seek information by becoming fundamentally more receptive to information around them or by actively engaging in information seeking behavior. Normally, products that have a relatively high share of consumer income will be previously and thoroughly researched (Licata et al., 1995).

The next step of decision-making for the consumers refers to the management of the alternatives identified in the search process. Consumers differ in terms of their current knowledge concerning various services, products or brands with the attributes about the most essential and begin browsing field of options prior making purchase decision. The consumer will prefer the brand that is supposed to bring him the highest satisfaction, based on the benefits he seeks. Different consumers can use different evaluation criteria, which are the standards and specifications used in the comparison of different products and brands (Blackwell & Miniard, 2005).

The result of the evaluation of the purchase alternatives is an intention (or not) of purchase. The sequence of purchase behavior involves the purchase of the intended brand, as well as the brand evaluation during the utilization and storage of such information for future purposes, as explained by Assael (1995) and Blackwell and Miniard (2005).

It should be emphasized that there are two factors exogenous to the individual that interfere between the intention to buy something and the act of the purchase itself. The first one is the attitude of other people: family members or close people can influence the buyer and interfere with the purchase decision. In addition, unforeseen

factors may also interfere with the purchase intent, characterizing contingent restrictions on family income, unemployment, recessive environments and raising interest rates (Blackwell & Miniard, 2005).

The next step in consumer decision-making is known as the post-consumer assessment, where customers show feelings of happiness or unhappiness. Happiness will occur if perceived performance confirms expectations. If this is not the case, dissatisfaction appears. If the consumers show high level of satisfaction, subsequent purchase decisions will be simpler and faster, because when evaluating, they realize from their personal experiences and can subsequently modify their buying behavior. In addition, feedback also returns to the environment as the consumers share shopping and purchasing experiences with their friends, colleagues and families (Blackwell & Miniard, 2005).

It is also important to state that in this step there may be so-called cognitive dissonance, also called post-purchase dissonance, which a mental conflict is resulting from two contradictory beliefs. This is because, after making decision, an individual may still feel doubtful, especially when there exist possible social or financial risks in the life. In this way, in conclusion, the cognitive dissonance could emerge due to the undesirable information about the purchased product. The consumer tendency is to reduce dissonance by confirming the purchase. Consumers can do this in a variety of ways: ignoring dissonant information, selectively interpreting received information, reducing expectations, seeking positive information about the brand, and convincing others of the correct choice (Assael, 1995).

The last stage in the steps of consumer decision-making model covers the product disposal. Consumers can dispose of the product completely, recycle it, or resell it (Blackwell & Miniard, 2005).

The entire buying decision of an individual is influenced by social, personal and psychological factors that affect him in a particular way, as well as marketing efforts that are presented to him and which may or may not be perceived. Assael (1995) divides these influences into two groups: the individual and the environment. Regarding the first group, the needs, perceptions and attitudes of the individual consumer influence the preference of the brand. In addition, there is the influence of demographics, lifestyle and personality.

The second group of influences refers to the environment, represented by culture, social class and reference groups, as well as companies that provide any types of products or services to satisfy the consumer needs. Communication from surrounding environment to the consumer is necessary to influence your choice. Such communications are primarily from reference groups and organizations.

In the model presented previously in Figure 1, it can be seen that the culture in which consumers are inserted is accepted as an important factor that affect evaluations and selections of these consumers, related to the consumer items.

An important aspect outlined by Assael (1995) refers to the fact that consumer decision-making process depends on two dimensions: extend of the decision-making and the degree of involvement during the purchasing process. First dimension, according to Assael (1995), characterizes a particular continuum that ranges between regular process and decision-making process. Consumers could make their own decisions with a cognitive process of locating info in the memory and evaluating other alternatives for the specific brand. However, decision making does not take place if a particular brand meets the customer needs or desires and the consumer regularly buy the same product at all times. The second dimension involves a continuum of

purchases from high to low involvement. This typology of decision-making strategy is presented in the Table 1.

Table

1

The Typology of The Decision-Making Process

		HIGH INVOLVEMENT PURCHASE DECISION	LOW INVOLVEMENT PURCHASE DECISION
DECISION MAKING	Search for information, consideration of alternative brands	COMPLEX MAKING (For example: cars, electronics, cameras)	LIMITED DECISION MAKING (For example: morning cereals, salty snacks)
HABIT	Little or no search for information, consideration of only one brand	BRAND LOYALTY (For example: cereals, sports, shoes, breakfast)	INERTIA (For example: paper, towels, soap)

For Assael (1995), purchases with high involvement are critical ones for any purchaser. Involvement with purchase differs from product engagement. The former reflects the perceived relevance of the purchase actions to the person, while the latter reflects the perceived interest of the product group (Quester & Lim, 2003).

Thus, high-involvement products are related to consumer self-image, involving significant risks to the consumer including economical (costly things), social (important products in the reference category), and psychological (worry and anxiety due to the wrongful decisions). In these cases, the consumer considers that it is worthwhile to undertake the time and energy efforts to carefully evaluate the purchase alternatives (Assael, 1995).

Licata, Mowen, and Chakraborty (1995) adds other factors associated with a high involvement condition: the integral aspects of the retail environment in which the

purchasing process is under way. For example, the distance between the various competitors will define the number of stores that will be visited by the potential consumer. The closer the stores are, the greater the number of visitors.

In turn, the purchases in the case of low involvement may not be as important as for the consumer; the economic, social and mental endangers are considered low. In these situations, the consumer may feel that searching and gathering more information and details about the brands do not need the time and effort with considering a large number of substitutes. Thus, low involvement purchase usually leads to limited levels of any decision-making action (Assael, 1995).

According to Assael (1995), low involvement versus high involvement and decision-making process versus routines create four kinds of consumer purchasing processes, as shown in Table 1. The first process, known as complicated decision-making process, happens when high involvement of the consumers and decision-making take place. Buyers actively seek relevant info to assess and search for any types of alternative brands by employing any particular comparison standards. Such information support decision-making (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000), and can be collected in commercial (advertising and publicity) or non-commercial media (reference groups).

However, making complex decisions do not occur every time when purchasing a product or a brand. If the decision is recurring, the consumers acquires more information from the previous purchases and even though experiencing little or no decision, they prefer to buy the product or the same brand and believes it more reasonable. This type of the brand loyalty is generally caused by a series of recurrent satisfaction, and a higher attachment to the specific brand. In this way, the search for

information and brand assessment is limited or unavailable, since the consumer decided to buy the identical brand again (Assael, 1995).

The other types of decision making are limited choice making and inertia if when the consumer is not directly involved with the purchase. Limited decision-making occurs when no experience or little experience with the product by the consumer, and even without being very involved with the purchase, he seeks some information and evaluates some brand alternatives (Assael, 1995). In this type of behavior, the consumer has superficial information and beliefs about existing alternatives capable of meeting their needs, but not enough to allow them to make the purchase decision.

It can be seen in Table 1 that morning cereals appear as examples of any brand that can be considered as brand loyalty status and ineffective decision-making processes. This occurrence eventually proves that decision making process in regard to purchasing a product is specific for the consumer not specific for any brand or product. The degree of involvement and decision-making depend more on the consumer attitudes towards the brand itself rather than characteristics of the product.

The fourth and final decision-making process is called inertia. It could be described as limited involvement with the particular product or service and zero decision making experience. It states that consumer always buys same brand, not owing to his loyalty to that brand, but he believes that it is not worth pursuing for another alternative. Assael (1995) explains that if the brand reaches a minimum level of satisfaction, the consumer will buy it again. This process is also known as spurious loyalty, since repetitive shopping may appear to be loyal to the brand, when in fact such loyalty does not exist.

Karsaklian (2004) indicates that, there are other alternative purchasing processes, such as the impulsive process and the compulsory process. Impulsive buying, or impulse buying, occurs when the consumer feels an urgent need to buy, suddenly, potent and persistent, and may occur occasionally, typically or inevitably. Occasional impulse buying is represented by a purchase made at a time when the consumer perceives something that interests him deeply because it is a novelty (cheaper products).

Compulsive buying differs from impulsive buying, representing the infinite willingness to buy in order to compensate for strong anxiety. Such a purchase is repetitive and chronic, becoming the main behavior observed among consumers living in emotionally difficult situations. The consumer presents a disturbed behavior, psychologically tense at the time of purchase, and then feels guilty for his behavior. Karsaklian (2004) explains that the main difference between impulsive buying and compulsive buying is that the first one concerns the product purchased, and the second refers to the act of buying itself.

2.1.2. The consumer perceptions

Perception is a mental process a person chooses, organizes, determines, and evaluate a stimuli in comprehensible and consistent means (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Karsaklian (2004) defines perception as a dynamic process by which the perceiver attributes meaning to raw materials originating from the environment.

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2000), consumers have an image that is particularly important for the study of their behavior. Products and brands have symbolic values for individuals who evaluate them with their own image. Consumers

try to protect their self-image by purchasing products that are compatible with their self-image and avoiding products that are not.

According to Assael (1995), the perceptual process consists of the following steps: selection, organization and interpretation of stimuli. With regard to selection, consumers need to be exposed to, and pay attention to, marketing stimuli. A stimulus, according to Schiffman and Kanuk (2000), is any information sent to any of the human senses. Acquaintance takes place at the time the consumer senses (vision, hearing, touching, smelling, tasting) are stimulated. The interest and involvement of consumers with a given motivation leads to types of attention devoted to it.

The principles of the organization of stimuli were derived from Gestalt Psychology, which means “total configuration”, and its main elements are closure, grouping and context (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Closure refers to the tendency of the observer to satisfy the absent fundamentals when it is not fully complete.

As for interpretation stage, Assael (1995) indicates that consumers interpret information in two different forms: categorization and inference. Categorization involves the affinity to allocate relevant info in terms of rational perspectives, helping the consumer to process given information rapidly and proficiently, and to categorize the new information. Interpretation, on the other hand, consists of progress of an connection among two motivations.

Schiffman and Kanuk (2000) indicate that there are some elements that can distort the perception of individuals during the interpretation phase. These include physical appearance (tendency to feature the potentials associated with particular people to others that resemble them), stereotypes (individuals have images in their minds concerning the values of several types of stimuli), irrelevant clues when asked

to make a challenging perceptual decision, shoppers may react to any unrelated stimuli), first impressions (which tend to last longer), jumping to conclusions (most consumers jump to conclusions prior to extensively investigating the related factors) and halo effect (when the evaluation of an object or person is based on the evaluation of only one dimension).

Karsaklian (2004) indicates that, due to the succession of the aforementioned phases, the perception has the following characteristics: subjectivity (discrepancy between the stimulus emitted by the environment and that received by the individual), selectivity (consumer ignores many stimuli), (because an individual cannot perceive all the units of information that make up the stimuli received), limitation in time (a perceived information is conserved only for a definite time period, unless during that period is triggered a memorization process), and perception is cumulative (an impression is the sum of several perceptions).

Consumers tend to image any particular brand, goods, or business, that depend on deductions they make of marketing stimuli in addition to the environment. An appearance is the perception of an object, which buyers form through the information processing period over time (Assael, 1995). Because perception is a key component of consumer information processing, this topic is addressed below.

2.1.3. Processing information

Although perception is essential in information processing, it is necessary for consumers to go beyond the selection, organization and interpretation of information, to additionally recall any information in the memory and recover it in case it is necessary. In addition, before processing the information, consumers must acquire it. According to Assael (1995), there are three different processes that lead to the

acquisition of information: continuous search (when the consumer has lasting involvement with the product), specific search of the purchase (information gathering for decision making) and passive acquisition of information (typical for poorly involved consumers).

Consumers will seek more information in the following purchase situations: high consumer involvement, high perceived risk, poor product knowledge and experience, little time pressure, high product price and many brand differences. However, one must consider the monetary and non-monetary costs associated with the search for information. If the costs are too high, consumers will avoid seeking information, even in the presence of the conditions mentioned. Consumers therefore weigh the costs and benefits involved in the search for information (Assael, 1995). In addition, Schiffman and Kanuk (2000) indicated that the consumer experience has positively great impact on the customer capacity to utilize any specific information about it.

After acquiring any information, consumers need to process it. Since the information establishes the information the consumers remember, types of information used in the brand assessment process, and information used by the consumers, they are involved in its development. For Assael (1995), how the information will be processed depends on the involvement levels of consumer to the purchase or the brand. In situations of high involvement, as seen previously, consumers enthusiastically seek for any information and analyze in evaluating brands. Nevertheless, in situations of low involvement, consumers receive the information more passively.

Information processing in cases of low or high levels of involvement differ regarding the extent and effect process in the brand evaluation. In situations of high

involvement, processing begins with the acquisition of information, which is perceived and receives the attention of the consumer to be later organized and interpreted. The next step is to decide what information will be kept in memory to be retrieved in the branding process. In this regard, the consumer first processes the information in short-term memory that performs as a filter to decide what info being stored and which will be ignored. Only the most important and relevant info being stored as long-term memory (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

For Assael (1995), the consumer will retrieve the information in long-term memory during the brand evaluation process, in which consumers assess the degree of any risk that occurs in the purchasing period. It encourages purchaser to seek additional information before making a decision. Following the purchase and the product is used, consumer learns from the purchase experience and the product usage, information stored in the long-term memory to be used if and when necessary. Long-term memory, unlike short-term memory (information continues short moments), retains information for relatively longer periods of time (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

From the above information, we can conclude that, based on information processed, the consumer builds their opinions and preferences regarding products and brands. For Blackwell and Miniard (2005), consumers will prefer the brand they believe will provide the highest satisfaction, based on the benefits sought. The authors point out that there are two ways of evaluating the alternatives: the compensatory method, in which consumers evaluate each brand in relation to all the criteria considered, and the non-compensatory method, in which consumers evaluate the brands in each criterion individually.

Consumers will likely use a compensatory evaluation way in complex decision making because it ensures that all brands will be evaluated against all the most

substantial criteria. On the other hand, consumers will likely use a non-compensatory method for less involving decisions that require less time and effort (Blackwell & Miniard, 2005).

The beliefs and preferences formed in the evaluating process of the alternatives define consumer attitudes towards a brand that, in turn, influence their purchasing decision. The next item of this work addresses the concepts related to consumer attitudes.

2.1.4. Consumer attitudes

In a regard to the consumer behaviors, there is an attitude gained tendency to act in a regularly constructive or opposed manners regarding a particular product or service (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). The product or service could include a category, brand, deal, ownership, an artifact, individuals, nations, subjects, advertisements, value, broadcasting or vendor.

The fact that the attitude is a learned predisposition means that it is produced as the consequence of direct shopping or using experiences thru the product, the information gained from other people or experience the advertisements. In addition, brand outlooks provide a motivational attribute, which they impel the consumer for one behavior or move it away from another. Karsaklian (2004) stated that attitudes have four basic functions:

a) An instrumental adjustment function: the attitude is formed around the reward that the individual can obtain and the way in which he can reduce the dissatisfaction;

b) Ego-defensive function: the attitude protects the individual, distorting reality if this is inconsistent with his self-image and values;

c) Function of state of values: the individual expresses manners appropriate to their personal values and their self-concept;

d) Knowledge function: allows to construct the universe in an organized way, reorganizing or modifying elements that are perceived as inconsistent or incomplete.

The other feature of attitudes could be described as being relatively consistent with the reflected behavior. But notwithstanding this consistency, any mindsets could not necessarily be long-lasting but changing over time (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Thus, it is important to consider the possible situational influences on consumer attitudes and behavior. Situational influences include events or circumstances that, at a specific moment, effect any relationships between the behaviors and attitudes. In this regard, a particular condition may make the consumers to perform in a manner not consistent with them.

Because of such a dynamic nature of attitudes, one must consider the fact that favorable attitudes toward a product, if neglected, can gradually deteriorate into a less favorable state. Both positive and negative attitudes can become more neutral simply over time (Blackwell & Miniard, 2005).

To comprehend any relationship between the consumer behavior and attitudes, models were elaborated that capture the dimensions underlying an attitude, in order to better explain or predict consumer behavior (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). An important model of attitude is the so-called three-component attitude model. According to this model, such attitudes include three main components, which were cognitive, affective component, and conative components.

Cognitive component contains the individual's cognitions, that is, the knowledge and opinions are obtained by combining any direct experience with the

attitude objective with the information of different sources. The knowledge and the resultant perceptions could affect the belief systems, specifically, the consumer likely believe that the attitude offers several attributes (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

According to McDaniel and Gates (1996), the scaling of attitudes is based on several operational definitions created to measure the attitude construct. Often the attitude is measured at the nominal or ordinal level, but there are more sophisticated scales that allow the researcher to measure the attitude at the interval level or even at the reason level.

The increasing sophistication and education of the global consumer has made international competition among products increasingly intense, both in the domestic market and in the international market. International trade has been becoming a globally dominant for the world economy, resulting in a greater need to evaluate consumer attitudes on the domestic and foreign products (Lichtenstein et al.,1997). In this way, many governments, trade associations, companies and public organizations have shown an interest in consumer attitudes for the foreign manufactured products and difficulties in the international competition.

2.2. The Country of Origin Impact

It commonly refers to the impact of the COO information upon the consumer attitude and behavior towards a product. The COO effect could be described as an intangible obstacle to entering foreign markets, in the shape of the negative biases that consumers got regarding imported products (Agbonifoh & Elimimian, 1999).

The main emphasis of research on COO certainly shifted from investigative / narrative perspectives towards more implementations of its principles. Observation or confirmation of the existence of the COO effect and determining the countries with

more favorable COO were main attentions for the researchers in 1965. However, today, researchers' interests shifted to understanding why it appears, noting the instances in which more obvious occurrences, and examining its function that information of the home country play important roles in attitude formation and purchasing decisions (Ayrosa, 2000).

Some researchers supported the idea that perception of quality and purchasing intentions should be explored independently in COO research for two reasons (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995). First, a buying intent suggests higher levels of individual's personal commitment than showing perceptual behaviors. In that case, the main consequence of any information about the COO could be limited. Second, any occupations or jobs that are needed to evaluate any types of purchasing intention attitudes are more likely susceptible to any influence from characteristics in the empirical studies than from perceptions of quality and reliability.

In addition, other studies (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995) revealed that magnitudes of the COO effect also always disturbs perception of quality more than any levels of COO effect on the purchasing intention status.

Although recent studies Usunier (2006); Pharr (2005) found out that the product COO could affect determinations of the customer towards the products, other studies stated recent alternative considerations about the significance of product origin in the global markets Pharr (2005). Usunier (2006) claimed that producing any product or offering any service was gradually becoming globally challenging, with differentiated bases of production, merged in the same final destination. In this perspective, the researchers stated that any info regarding the product COO could be frequently disregarded by the shoppers. Also, it plays an significant role concentrated in the assessments of the purchasing intentions.

In view of the above, Usunier (2006) summarized that there existed some circumstances in which the effect of COO would be present:

1. When consumers should consider any types of the product COO that affect during their selection process when purchasing a product.
2. When consumers need to be sufficiently determined for research and comparison of the COO for the alternative products. That generally takes place in case the perceived risk is high for the intended purchase.
3. When any kinds of purchase intention require any preferences for the services of products manufactured in their own country, which are related to consumer nationalism acts, ethnocentric attitudes, foreign product preference, and favoriting their own domestic goods with desired qualities;
4. When the product information and related features are more significant than other specifics of the product including its reputation, possible risks, and its price;
5. Finally, when the necessary information about the product or service are apparent or easily provide by the seller or manufacturer.

Balabanis et al., (2002) supported the idea that, with regard to how consumers use information concerning the COO of a product, it may act as a sign to infer the product quality or as a feature of the product providing important benefits based on particular situation and of the consumer perspectives. Any types of information about COO could still be managed consistent with the halo effect.

2.2.1. The country of origin as extrinsic attribute

Country of origin plays as a criterion for evaluating the product (Engel et al., 1995). A typical principle is known as dimensions/ attributes used in judging

alternatives to a specific purchase by the consumers. The evaluation criteria can come in many forms, such as security, COO, reliability, price, trademark, guarantee, more hedonic norms, such as the feelings that derive from ownership of the product.

The evaluation criteria often differ in their influences on the selection of products by the consumer since some criteria have more impact than others for the same consumer. Likewise, consumers may differ in the importance assigned to each evaluation criterion (Engel et al., 1995). The importance of each attribute is considered as the most probable affect that dimensions separately could apply in the product comparison. The salient attributes that really influence the evaluation process are called determining attributes. Engel et al., (1995) cite the following influencing factors that affect the saliency of attributes in the process of evaluating product alternatives:

a) Situational influence: situational factors (e.g., occasion of product use, consumer time pressure) usually exert a great influence on the importance of the evaluation criterion.

b) Similarity of alternatives: decisions involving non-comparable alternatives may require the consumer to use more abstract evaluation criteria, such as need, fun, status.

c) Motivation: the presence of hedonic or utilitarian motivation will determine the type of evaluation criteria likely to be used by the consumer.

d) Involvement: a greater number of evaluation criteria are probably employed for the process of decision-making as consumer's involvement with the purchase or product increases.

e) Knowledge: well informed consumers will have information about the dimensions stored in memory that will be useful in comparing alternatives. This information is less likely to exist in the memory of novice consumers. Consequently, beginners will be much more susceptible to outside influences that try to influence their evaluation criteria.

Many researchers investigated any possible influence of the tips at the customer ratings on the evaluation and feedbacks regarding the quality of the product quality and intentions for the purchase (Forsythe et al., 1999). In terms of the COO effect, this works like a “tip” or extrinsic product attribute, as well as brands, value, and guarantee (Ayrosa, 2000).

As an extrinsic attribute, the country of origin is opposed to intrinsic attributes such as power, weight, composition, temperature, durability, and so on. It is verified, therefore, that the intrinsic attributes relate to the product characteristics. Thus, a change with these attributes means a substantial, even physical, change in the product. (Zhang, 1997).

2.2.2. The country of origin as summary of product characteristics

Johansson (1989) studied some guidelines model to emphasize that people utilize info from the COO in two different approaches: a salient attribute or as a summary clue. As a summary clue, detailed info regarding the COO is considered as an alternative and explaining other reports on typical characteristics already discovered or anticipated.

The conceptual framework developed by Nebenzahl, Jaffe and Shlomo (1997) proposes that the effects “abstracts” stem from the overview of predetermined ideas about the products or services produced in a certain country for the qualities of other

goods manufactured there. Therefore, for the necessity for the process of the foreign product evaluation, in a situation with little information available, consumers use related info on the other goods manufactured on the same country to create their images about it, which on the other hand affect perspectives towards it (Jaffe & Nebenzhal, 2001).

2.2.3. The country of origin as a halo effect

Fishbein (1975) proposed that alternative view regarding the COO effects for the product assessment fits into Fishbein model. Specifically, certain beliefs about the features of any product lead and affect consumer attitudes toward it. Consistent with the model, the country image straightforwardly affects opinions about any characteristics of any product. Also, they affect the general opinions for the product. Consequently, Ayrosa (2000) stated that the COO also changes consumers' mindsets via viewpoints, which is a natural occurrence usually defined as the halo effect.

Some studies (Nebenzhal et al., 1997; Jaffe & Nebenzhal, 2001) considered halo effect develops in the case of consumers having slight data for any product made in a state, and associated attitudes toward the same product attributes built within the same country depend on various information pertaining to the insights about the country, involving its perspectives of administrative, financial, and social development. Other researchers furthermore proposed other ideas such that if an individual's image towards a country is encouraging, it creates a halo effect for any service or product manufactured in that country. However, if the image is bad, there is a "black cloud" effect (Balabanis et al., 2002).

2.2.4. Main elements affecting of information processing for the country of origin

In conditions regarding the low familiarity, the country's image functions as a halo effect, implicitly affecting positions toward a brand through viewpoints about its characteristics. Instead, in terms of high experience, the attitudes towards a brand is directly affected by the image of country, performing as the paradigm-summary. With knowledge of the features of a product, a consumer manages information with "pieces" or constructs-summaries, failing to evaluate the attributes one by one, but searching in memory for all-purpose estimate for any substitute (Han, 1989).

Consequently, such types of information provide the tools for reorganization of the information processing. Consumers can later generalize information from one product to multiple brands from the same COO in such that the image of any brands produce analogous characteristics. It turns out that consumers make abstractions of information regarding any product for the images of a country, in contrast to the halo effect presented earlier.

Like fundamental brand information, related knowledge of the COO is typically captured by the consumers to lower the complicated properties of the task used in information processing regarding purchasing other alternative products. As consumer starts gaining assurance for a product made in a particular country, it could be disposed to depend on the COO being a guide for understanding information for the individual qualities for the alternative products, thus decreasing any needs to seek for the information correlated with the characteristics (Han & Terpstra, 1988).

Any levels of experience with any product too causes shoppers to utilize any information about the COO in various means. Such a product involvement emerges if

it: (1) is essential for the consumer because of the link among the consumer's self-images and particular product of a brand; (2) is of the consumer main interest; (3) involve important risks, such as economic, technical or public risks; (4) presents emotional charm for the consumers; (5) is recognized as having high standards for the target group (Assael, 1995). Therefore, product involvement shows the level of the individual importance as well as importance created by an incentive within a particular situation, an image of concrete interest in shape of the apparent personal strong connections with the service or products, creating any types of measurement including a high and low mark points (Engel et al., 1995).

The image of COO, under conditions of low involvement, is considered as a stereotype (Maheswaran, 1994), as a halo effect (Han, 1989), in addition to any weak experience condition as discussed in the previous section. Within such situations, image of country becomes significant and necessary if conditions for the attitude formation since the prolonged search for information is unlikely in the case of products of low involvement. In addition, extensive information on product attributes is usually not readily available at the point of sale (Schaefer, 1997).

Instead, for the cases of higher levels of involvement, the information in regard to the COO could be seen as an element according to some previous studies (Maheswaran, 1994; Johansson, 1989; Han, 1989)

2.2.5. Regulating factors for the country of origin effect

Although a consensus has been established that the COO having an influence on the assessment of products, there existed an ongoing debate concerning the scale of influence (specifically on various fundamental or extrinsic data of a product) as well as at any cultural or environmental issues, which possibly increases trust towards the

country of origin. Such factors moderating the COO effect, namely, that influence the significance of this info for any consumer, are presented below.

The characteristics of any consumer behaviors that may upset the COO effect include the status of education, gender, dogmatism, age, language expertise of the COO, other cues of products, necessity on behalf of reasoning, stimulus, involvement levels, acquaintance with brand's cultural features. Martin and Eroglu (1993) emphasized that the COO effect could change based on the sample, particular products, country of origin of the product.

In general, age-related studies (Good & Huddleston, 1995) have shown important findings for young, open, and interested consumers regarding various foreign products.

Consumer gender was found another factor that influences consumer perceptions for the image of "made in" (Johansson et al., 1989); nonetheless the consequences of the research were conflicting. On the one hand, the study by Balabanis, Mueller and Melewar (2002) showed that women are likely to have a bias opinion against any types of products manufactured in another country and feel more positive to the products made in their own country. However, Good and Huddleston (1995) found out that some women prefer imported products more than men.

The results of another study (Lawrence et al., 1992) showed that New Zealand women had a considerable extent more favorable opinion of Japanese and Italian automobiles compared to men. Therefore, it is worth emphasizing that some of the research findings are not easily generalized for different countries that have completely different cultural issues and could have higher biased opinions for the foreign products or services.

Another element of influence is the person's expertise on the language of the COO since it is extensively connected with any information the consumer has about the product and its COO (Balabanis et al., 2002). That issue may cause more objective assessments regarding the specific country with presenting multiple opportunities for other types of informational sources in addition to the country of consumer, and by enabling straight communication. Any important information about a COO that is disseminated by another country may be biased with philosophy, opinions, objectives, and reflect stereotypes prevailing over the population in that country. Therefore, straight contacts such as travels, or visits create chances to know the country more objectively. More direct contact with a country generally results in more objective views for the consumer about its specific (Balabanis et al., 2002).

Studies (Chao & Rajendran, 1993), that were conducted on the evidence (or indications) about any manufactures or services such as effectiveness, the COO, other influential evaluation factors for them, showed that the consumer frequency for the product access could be diminished. Such a result could only decrease the COO effects, but not able to disappear them completely. Another research demonstrated that consumers could depend on their brands or products due to their COO effects and that could change product evaluations irrespective as if they were essentially mass-produced in their country where the brand or the product are intensely related (Chao & Rajendran, 1993).

On the other hand, Zhang (1997) pointed out that there is still a chance that the COO effect might still be affected by other important and essential disparities among the consumers such as motivation and willingness to elaborate the product information. Petty and Cacioppo (1986) also argued that consumers' individual and personal variations in their cognitive process could influence the COO effect.

Consumers' desires and motivations to make use of processing information by their cognitive abilities may influence their needs for cognition. Such a process requires elevated efforts from the consumers.

Any person not cognitively motivated for the assessments of the product attributes and assess home country's related evidence for any effects for the product evaluation. Instead, levels of the argumentation quality may be converted into a essential factors that provide necessary information for the consumers who need a higher level of cognitive abilities (Zhang, 1997). On the other hand, if an individual do not need as much cognition as for the others, the COO is considered as the most significant factor of their attitudes towards the product or service qualities.

Consumer motivation, accepted as another factor, also affects the information use regarding the COO. Most consumers generally follow complex persuasive message processing including focused and concentrated examination for arguments of the message if they have high levels of motivation.

Any significant COO information could be easily detailed and processed only as a product attribute not general foundation for building a judgment. If any consumers utilize their country for the fundamental of the judgement formation with low motivated situations, or objectives of the cognitive processing are used to evaluate the COO, they draw attention to information about the product COO. Instead, according to the previous study (Gurhan et al., 2000) if consumers do not adhere to COO under high motivation, or the purpose of the processing distributes the COO information, they are less likely to use the detailed information regarding the COO.

It should be added that if consumers feel threatened by a family brand, they most likely make evaluations of the product quickly, with less effort in the quest for

information, as they are accustomed to the brand qualities (Brucks, 1985). In these cases, another study (Schaefer, 1997) specified that it is not necessary to search and process the product information. Accordingly, it is rational to consider consumers' familiarity with a specific brand could disregard the COO information and various attribute in assessment process.

For Verlegh et al.,(1999), if the shoppers get acquainted with X product in Y country, they may have developed certain insights about its quality. Beliefs such as "German cars are reliable" and "French wines have a good taste" show that the COO is associated with the performances of any product by some consumers.

Some of these associations, such as Swiss watches, French wines and Russian vodka, have historical and cultural roots. Others may have been learned in past experiences, such as the use, experimentation, advertisement, and word-of-mouth of the product. However, the authors indicate that these associations make it obvious that stereotypes are used to infer product attributes. Therefore, the relationship between product ratings and country stereotypes is expected to decrease as consumers become familiar with product X manufactured in country Y.

Some researchers (Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993) supported the idea that certain types of related in regard to categories of features of any product play important role in the case of COO for purchase decisions for the alternative products. In addition, levels of consumer involvement in the agricultural produce is less than that manufactured industrial goods. This leads to an important effect of the COO in the evaluation of agricultural yields by the consumers. For Heslop and Papadopoulos (1993), different factors are also in effect in regard to the COO when purchasing behaviors as follows:

- (a) The level of development of the COO;
- b) Historic connection between the COO and particular products (for example, in Italy historical associations in the products of fashion and food exist);
- c) The relationship power between the COO images and their products, and it specifies the COO images would probably have more “validity” for the cases of certain situations.

Marketers should thus carefully weigh the history of product class associations with the COO prior to using it to increase the product awareness. When there is any historical negative relation between the COO and category of any product, it may be detrimental to utilize the country of origin for certain brand program. Professionals should also plan country-of-origin programs on the long view as the COO is not as important as consumers becoming familiar with the products.

The forms of processing information about the COO were presented: as an extrinsic attribute of the product, as instant track and as a halo effect. The moderating factors of the COO effect were similarly addressed, highlighting such conditions in which the influence is more or less intense. It was also verified that the COO can be operationalized with several ways, that a large number of variables related to the company, consumers, strategy, product past and history, affects its implementation. Accordingly, the COO use varies in terms of different aspects, and its implementations change against the contextual responses to them.

2.2.6. The dimensions of the country of image

COO explains the effect of COO info on the consumer purchasing approaches for the particular product or service from that country, views about the product qualities, and behaviors associated with the product purchase. Thus, Ayrosa (2000)

stated that any impacts from the COO information are straightforwardly disturbed by the image of the country.

In addition to be a reasoning sign for the product quality, the COO describes feelings, personality, satisfaction and autobiographical memoirs (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). Those representative and sensitive implications transform the COO into an image quality, proven to be a substantial determinant of consumer preferences and a critical information source for the value of a brand.

Some stereotypes in a country involve a set of opinions about its countryside, ethnicity, and financial and economic status (Verlegh et al.,1999). Such examples include “Sunshine Greece”, “Liberal France”, “Well-organized German”. Altogether, those perspectives create complicated cognitive configuration that permits the consumers to be able to elaborate their attitudes and information about a product or build nice initial appearances of their implementation. Therefore, the researchers theorize the country’s typical characteristics based the 3 scopes including socioeconomic structure, ethnicity, topography.

Socio-economic features could be described as outlines of the intercorrelation in terms of a society’s feature of the societal scheme. It was also defined as a structure of factors including progress, prosperity, diplomatic supremacy, development, and status by some sociologists (Verlegh et al.,1999). The perceptions of weather, countryside and ecological features build the geographic dimension. Also, the dimension of the culture signifies particular habits in which the citizens differ from other nationalities.

Previous researchers have constructed a multidimensional framework to determine the type of domestic stereotypes or labels. The concepts of morality and competence make up two important dimensions in that sense. Morality indicates such

traits such as welcoming and understanding, as competence points to traits such as innovative and intellectual (Verlegh et al.,1999).

On behalf of other researchers (Papadopoulos, 1993), the phrase “image of a country” explains a country image and views shaped by these images in consumers’ intellectual minds. Similarly, other researchers stated that it describes intellectual illustrations about a group of people, products, culture and general characters of the specific nation or country (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). Other authors indicated that country images shared their national stereotypes that persevere even if the consumers truly experience any goods manufactured in a country.

As can be seen that most definitions for the image of a country include certain general assessments that buyer possesses features of any product produced in the specific country. Researchers expressed that the consumer perception regarding a particular country includes a system in which such consumer chooses, systematizes, and deduces the incentives connected to the country in an intelligible illustration (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

By similarity with the meaning of the image of a brand presented by researchers (Engel et al., 1995), it could be safe to state that the image of country contains a set of relations existing between the nation and other evidence deposited in memory. Consumer-made descriptions of a country depend on the interpretations from the marketing stimuli and the environmental setting. In the same token, the image of a country was described as being conceptual demonstrations that people hold of the country (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001).

The consumers make some inferences for a country, which relates to the opinions that they hold with regard to the country, produced by their previous

experiences with the country. Such implications could also be built on the symbols and representations related with any country. The country's image is, therefore, overall sense of a country that consumers form by managing information at various sources in the past.

Other researchers (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001) also described that a country's appearance is affected by people's insight of their citizens, level of financial growth, merchandise quality. Following is argument of the magnitudes of the country image, and of existing measures to identify this conception.

Although several studies used distinctive variables and methodology to evaluate the country image, they all discovered four significant element: design, advance, reputation, and finalizing (Roth & Romeo, 1992). Design could be described as look, style, diversity, color. Advance promotes any levels of addition of the original knowledges and techs, and manufacturing developments for the product. Reputation contemplates the exclusiveness, prestige, and brand status. Lastly, finalizing includes the levels of reliability, strength and engineering superiority. These four elements also related to the certain aspects in the regard to the products of the country, not other features of the concerned.

Roth and Romeo (1992) suggested a measurement tool for the COO as an example. The study by Han (1990) proposed another measurement scale for the image of country through five elements including methodological progress, reputation, finishing of products, durability, and value. It should be noted, therefore, that one-dimensional concept for the image of COO was suggested by Roth and Romeo (1992) and Han (1990), indicating the aspects of a product, not multidimensional, including additional components.

Nevertheless, Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001) claimed that the COO concept consists of multi-dimensional structure. In this regards, Ayrosa (1998) stated that the country image of the country could be treated with a multidimensional perspectives that specifically emphasize such condition being transmitted from the product towards related country. Moreover, some mix-ups for the image of a country study are as follows: independent status of a country's image as the image of products and as a statis experience (Jaffe& Nebenzahl, 2001). The researchers also supported the idea that the image of the products are influenced by the of effects of a country and the changes in the image of the country is caused by the experience with the products.

Another research presented the three fundamental dimensions as financial, political and technological in regard to multidimensional aspect of a country image (Martin & Eroglu, 1993). In addition, dimension four, social attractiveness, was emphasized, but study results did not entirely identify it. Martin and Eroglu (1993) proposed a three-dimensional inventory, which were more geared for the outline and actions of the government of that country. Such items including “open market or centrally scheduled scheme, low or high costs of the labor and importer or exporter for the agricultural produces” might have a solid evaluative structure of the participants as for Russians, however the participants from other countries as Turkey could interpret it.

Furthermore, studies also suggested other measuring inventories including three separate subsections with their own dimensions to assess and determine the levels of the country image (Pisharodi &Parameswaran, 1992). General Country Attributes (GCA) is the first subsection of this scale that, targets typical and general perspective and of for the respondents carry in regard to a particular country. General Product Attributes (GPA), second subsection, aims to measure the individuals' beliefs and

behaviors regarding the product's overall characteristics of any particular product, involving its marketing and delivery qualities. The last subsection of the inventory, Specific Product Attributes (SPA), was designed to determine any particular trend and behaviors towards a country's specific product features with the items. Table 2 presents the scale dimensions (Pisharodi & Parameswaran, 1992).

Table 2

The Country of Origin (COO) Dimensions

Main dimensions	Sub-dimensions	Detailing
General attributes of the country (GCA)	General attributes of the country and its people (GCA 1)	Very polite Worker Reached high standards of development Increasing standards of living
	Similarity to respondent's country (GCA 2)	Technical abilities Similar political views Economically similar Culturally similar
General Product Attributes (GPA)	All negative attributes of products (GPA 1)	Expensive without reason Imitations Unattractive Frequent repairs Cheap mounting
	Aspects of distribution and promotion(GPA 2)	Sold in many countries Intensely announced Informative advertisement Easily found
	Image of products from the considered country (GPA 3)	They last a lot Good value Products of prestige
Product Specific Attributes (SPA)	Reviews on a specific product (example: car)	Good fuel economy Good workmanship Easy to use Low maintenance Made to last Very comfortable

Ayrosa (2002) proposed a scale to evaluate the COO in his works with the use of the findings by the Pisharodi and Parameswaran (1992). However, Ayrosa's scale differs from previous scale in terms of some aspects:

- a) Respondents provided the view on a whole sentences, not on separate terms;
- b) Dimensional structure in the Pisharodi and Parameswaran scale (1992) was not observed in Ayrosa's work (1998, 2002), causing modifications of few concepts;
- c) The items included in the inventory to recognize facets not characteristic of industrialized states or directly associated with the advanced technology;
- d) The items were included to assess the affective response for the characteristics of the countries.

In regard to the same inventory, other studies (Ayrosa, 1998, 2002) discovered different set of dimensions. Ayrosa (1998) contrarily presented four subsections and dimensions. They included certain views of the individuals and the country products, sensitive behaviors and attitudes against the country, perspectives towards the arts in the country, and finally beliefs and views regarding marketing efforts of the product. Moreover, the researcher recognized a fifth dimensions for the scale on the COO. The additional dimension was named as Importance in The Global Community.

The names of some dimensions found in Ayrosa (2002) have been altered in order to be consistent with the theory of attitudes. For example, the dimension termed "attitudes towards the country's goods and services" has been renamed to "beliefs about the country's goods and services" because this dimension only considers the cognitive aspects of attitude.

The previous scale attempts (Pisharodi & Parameswaran, 1992) laid theoretical and empirical framework for the Ayrosa's (2002) scale. However, compared with the previous measurement tools, it was entirely original. Ayrosa (2002) showed that its scale consisted of strong framework regarding internal validity and factor analysis. The researcher cautioned the researchers that more elaboration and different groups of participants (consumers) were needed for higher validation of the inventories and especially configuring 15 particular items in different types of country settings.

For further elaborations of the Ayrosa's scale, later studies (Giraldi, 2005) were conducted with different to present a comparison between the country images dimensions found by the cited authors, Table 3 was elaborated, discussed below.

Table 3*The COO Dimensions*

Dimensions	Questions
Beliefs about products and services in the country	This country has technical skills Products from this country last a long time The products of this country represent good quality for what you pay Products from this country are reliable Products from this country are technically advanced
Affection for the country	Companies in this country are reliable I like this country I have sympathy for this country I admire this country
Beliefs about the arts	People in this country are proficient in the arts This country is important in the international art scene
Beliefs about communication and distribution	Products from this country are heavily advertised Products from this country are readily available
Importance in the global community	This country is important on the international political scene This country is important to the world economy

In turn, another scale was developed by Nebenzahl and colleagues (2003) for evaluating image of a country in terms of consumer's reference frame, not researcher's, with a method so-called 'personification approach'. Specifically, the researchers directed a specific question to the consumers, "...an individual buying a household product (made in Germany) product is ...". This question could include different names of country instead of Germany stated in this example. By asking respondents to describe the person who buys a product manufactured in a particular country, rather than describing the product itself, the response is associated with the buyer's attitudinal, behavioral, social, and personality concepts. Thus, the

methodology used facilitates the identification of perceptual dimensions that are used by consumers when evaluating products (Nebenzahl et al., 2003).

Table 4

Comparison between The COO Image Dimensions Identified in the Literature

Authors	Dimensions
Han (1990)	Technical advance
	Prestige value
	Finishing products
	Price
	Durability
Roth and Romeo (1992)	Innovation
	Design
	Prestige
Martin and Eroğlu (1993)	Finishing
	Policy
	Economy
	Technology
Pisharodi and Parameswaran (1992)	General attributes of the country and its people
	Similarity with respondent's country
	All negative attributes of products
	Aspects of distribution and promotion
	Image of products from the considered country
	Reviews about a specific product
Ayrosa (2002)	Beliefs about the people and products of the country
	Emotional response to the country
	Beliefs about the arts
	Beliefs about communication and distribution
	Importance in the global community

The scale developed by Nebenzahl, Jaffe, and Usunier (2003) consists of three stages. In the first step, consumers should define the type of person who can buy electronic products manufactured outside their own country. The aim is to know the dimensions for consumers' country assessment and to create a list of questions for country image research.

To reveal the consumer's frame of reference, open-ended questions and third-person projective technique were used. The initial study included 2347 valid questionnaires applied in the United States, France, and Israel, and resulted in 64 items. It should be emphasized that most of the items identified by Nebenzahl, Jaffe and Usunier (2003) had not been used in studies on the image of countries carried out by other authors.

To ensure the reliability and validity of the 30-item scale, it was applied on administered questionnaires in Canada, France and Israel (third stage of the study). As a result, four significant dimensions were obtained, representing different personality profiles related to people who buy products from other countries: "Quality and Satisfaction", "Loser", "Search for Economic Value" and "Chauvinist". In this case, the "Chauvinist" dimension represents consumers who prefer products manufactured in their countries of origin. However, the "Chauvinist" dimension was not considered reliable and valid since the word has different meanings in Canada, France and Israel and is not included in the final scale.

As a matter of fact, the scale developed by Nebenzahl, Jaffe, and Usunier (2003) is a reliable scale with values above 0.9. The scale consists of 27 items. According to the authors, it can be applied to evaluate and compare images from different countries. Since the scale identifies a person purchasing products made in a particular country, and the only information provided to respondents is the country of origin, all characteristics are reflected in products manufactured in that country. In this way, the scale captures not only the evaluative dimensions, but also the social and emotional dimensions that consumers attribute to these products.

2.2.7. Assessment of the country of origin effect

COO effects, as already explained, relates to how information of the COO influence the consumer attitudes and behavior in terms of products produced in a selected country. There existed some evaluation tools or questionnaires to investigate for the presence of COO and determine factors related to this effect. The COO and its significance could be measured directly through respondents' statements for the question of "When you purchase a brand, how essential to identify the country of production?" (D'Astous & Ahmed, 1999).

Some explanations are provided for this apparent inconsistency between the observed influence of the COO on the purchasers' assessments as well as their opinion regarding the importance they attach to this aspect. Firstly, it may be difficult for the consumers to identify how the COO is important when making purchasing decisions. Next, as asked about significance of the COO, some individuals might approach as logical and rational. Such purchasers generally base their purchasing decisions on product's intrinsic indicators (flavor, structure, functioning) rather than on extrinsic indicators (COO). Thirdly, any significance attributed to the COO might be closely related to controlling elements, as previously noted in this study.

Nebenzahl, Jaffe, and Usunier (2003) developed an inventory for assessing country image, previously presented, could additionally be considered for measurement of the effect of COO because of its related factors of social, evaluative, sense extents (dimension) that the consumers' aspects of the products manufactured in other countries. Thus, the assessments of some individuals who purchase certain products manufactured in a specific country. The COO effect is characterized by the different opinions observed among the valuations of the specific countries.

Han (1990) proposed another methodology to indirectly evaluate the effects of COO. The approach includes verification any relationship existed among the consumer attitudes toward a foreign product and the image of that country. For the author, there exists a great degree of association between the consumer's attributes of the product and the country image in case consumer does not possess any knowledge or familiarity with the country or the related products.

This reasoning derives from the hypothesis of the halo effect, presented previously in this study. According to the theory of this effect, consumers can assess the specific attributes of a product manufactured in a foreign country based on the product's views manufactured in that country, which is considered by the researcher (Han, 1990) to be the country image attributes.

2.3. Consumer Ethnocentrism and Development of the Concept of Consumer Ethnocentrism

The concept of ethnocentrism was first coined by William Graham Sumner in 1906. Ethnocentrism could be defined as an integrated branch of social sciences and anthropology. It focuses on tendencies of how individuals behave in other cultures in regard to their beliefs, values, and cultural perspectives. Other related variables include language, religion, behavior, and customer of the country.

There have been studies (Bizumic, 2018; Balabanis & Siamagka, 2017; Kock et al., 2019; Andrews et al., 2018) conducted to investigate above variables related to ethnocentrism.

In our world, which is globalizing day by day, customers come across products pertaining to their own countries and other countries in the market. Consumers must make a selection between local and foreign products. The negative

attitude of consumers towards foreign products is expressed as consumer ethnocentrism and is the most basic concept in explaining these behaviors.

Consumers give credence to that buying products from other countries is wrong and immoral. They believe that the products of their cultural group are superior (Shimp & Sharma 1987). In another expression, consumer ethnocentrism can be defined as “consumers' prejudice against foreign products or their preference for domestic products” (Küçükemiroğlu, 1999; Huddleston et al., 2001).

While consumer ethnocentrism acts as a barrier for some product groups and the COO, it has no effect for other product groups and country of origin. As an example, (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004), in a study conducted with British consumers, found that while consumer ethnocentrism is a barrier for British consumers against food products of Italian origin, it does not influence furniture products originating in Germany. Concepts with which consumer ethnocentrism is closely related.

Country of origin: We see that the effect of country of origin is an important factor when consumers evaluate products. (Ha, 1998), non-ethnocentric consumers did not find it important to know where the foreign products were produced and formed the basis of the COO effect - consumer ethnocentrism relationship. Consumer ethnocentrism is based on the judgment that one should use the products of one's own country and is preconceived opinion. The COO effect creates prejudice in the perceptions of individuals and enables them to be preconceived opinion consumers who are susceptible about the COO of the products they buy do not have to be ethnocentric; On the other hand, ethnocentric consumers have to be ultra-sensitive about the country of origin of the products they buy (Ha, 1998). Although the effect

of consumer ethnocentrism on the COO effect is variable, studies show that consumers with high ethnocentrism tendencies prefer domestic products.

Nationalism: Nationalism; It is the belief that the country to which one belongs is superior to other countries and the rejection of other countries and their members (Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989).

(Baughn & Yaprak, 1996) revealed that there is a positive relationship between nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism.

The positive relationship between nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism has been supported by many studies in the literature (Han, 1988; Sharma et al., 1995; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Balabanis et al., 2001; Javalgi et al., 2005; Tsai et al., 2013).

Xenophobia: Xenophobia is defined as “antipathy towards a country for economic, political and diplomatic reasons, experienced or ongoing” (Klein et al. 1998). The hostility felt to a country affects the purchase intention towards that country's products (Klein et al., 1998). Consumer hostility is the negative thoughts and feelings of the consumer towards the products of a group or country that they are not satisfied with (Rose et al., 2009). (Klein et al. 1998) stated that there is a relationship between consumer hostility and consumer ethnocentrism. In their study in China, they found that Chinese consumers have negative purchase intentions for Japanese products, regardless of product quality and similar characteristics. It has been stated that the war between Japan and China in the past caused an enmity of the Chinese against Japanese products.

2.3.1. Studies on consumer ethnocentrism in TURKEY

Consumer ethnocentrism negatively affects consumer attitudes and product purchase intentions, especially in relation to foreign products (Renko et al. 2012).

The findings of Aysuna and Altuna (2008) research on ethnocentrism in terms of demographic characteristics of consumers in Turkey and KKTC indicate that demographic levels of societies affect ethnocentrism levels differently.

Toksarı and Senir (2015) research on the role of consumer ethnocentrism on the purchasing behavior of consumers examine that ethnocentrism differs by culture and demographic characteristics.

As a result of their studies (Akin et al., 2017), they found that ethnocentrism had a positive effect on the intention to purchase local clothing products, and that cosmopolitanism had a negative effect on CE.

According to the findings of Acikdilli et al. (2018) Consumer Ethnocentrism in Turkey: Ours are Better than Theirs; They concluded that Turkish consumers do not differ in important products and prefer local products of the same quality to imported products.

According to the data obtained from the study and another research result, it was concluded that there is a significant relationship between the ethnic origins of the consumers and their ethnocentric tendencies. There is also a positive relationship between the ethnocentric tendencies of the consumers and their intention to purchase domestic products (Özden & Eser, 2019). It is indeed a common result.

According to the results of the research, there are factors that affect consumer ethnocentrism. We can summarize these factors as demographic characteristics, development levels of countries, culture, time, product category, historical, political,

economic events, local alternative, close environment and price.

2.3.2. Studies over country of origin and consumer ethnocentrism

It has been a long phenomenon “the foreignness of the products” in the literature while a consumer decides to purchase. Schooler (1965,1971) forwards that the foreignness of product will make consumers less likely to prefer to purchase/consume it. The COO of a product is a determinant factor for a consumer in determining the bias of her against the product. (Baughn &Yaprak 1993)

However, the COO of a product is also important when comparing the countries. Different countries show different patterns in terms of the behaviour of consumers in purchasing a product. Therefore, we can say that consumers exhibit different loyalties or change their behavior according to the country of origin when making a decision to purchase a product.Balanabis and Diamantopolous(2004) states with an multidimensional unfolding approach that “consumer ethnocentrism capability in explaining consumer bias in favour of domestic products is dependent both on specific COO and particular product category” in UK. So, both the type of product is important as COO of that product.

Of course, consumers make their decisions by considering different aspects about the product they would like to purchase. Another study focusing on ethnocentrism and behavior of consumers is Pecotich and Rosenthal (2001). The authors’ findings forwards that the main effects strew from the quality of the product rather than the COO, however, the COO was the main driver when it comes to strong national brand on that product and when consumers were highly patriotic attendants.

So, this study let us question the way how the consumers think about a product that they would like to purchase together with their given characteristics.

While the Chinese products are everywhere in the world, one cannot stop wondering about the ethnocentrism in China. Wong et al. (2008) studies the ethnocentrism tendencies among Chinese consumers in China. They apply an experimental study with two products within 272 respondents of Chinese students. Their findings are the following. COO of products did not affect the decision of Chinese consumers in purchase of a product neither in decision of assessing the quality of products. However, ethnocentrism behaviors of them and their quality assessments were affected in only one of the products under examination. So, they forward the following explanation that young Chinese consider hybrid products are a norm.

Another interesting study is Brunning(1997) who studies the ethnocentrism of Canadian passengers in an airport in purchase of tickets in 1994. He finds that the national affiliation is the next factor following the price of airline tickets in decision to choose between airline companies.

Moreover, the COO matters when it comes to counterfeit products. Chakraborty et al. (1996) studies the perception of U.S. consumers' attitudes and risk towards counterfeit products in U.S. In counterfeit products, they find that the COO is a main driver for the consumers in determination of attitude and risk toward products under consideration to purchase. So, consumers use the cue of COO to assess the quality of the counterfeit product.

A meta-analysis conducted by Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999). The authors suggest the following. They state that the country-of-origin impact is determinant in

the perceived quality of a product but not in the decision to purchase that product. While these effects are not the same for all countries, economic development also plays a key role in the attitudes of consumers.

2.3.3. Measurement of consumer ethnocentrism and CETSCALE

The California e-scale was first developed by Adorno et al (1950). Later, ethnocentrism scales were improved by Warr, Faust and Harrison (1967), and Chang and Ritter (1976), respectively, and none of them focused on consumer behavior and marketing.

Shimp and Sharma improved a scale called CETSCALE (Consumer Ethnocentric Tendency Scale: Consumer Ethnocentrism Tendency Scale) to measure consumer ethnocentrism. Sharma and Shimp (1987) examined the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers to purchase American or foreign products. The scale is a measure of disposition rather than attitude (Eroğlu & Sarı, 2011). The CETSCALE likert type was arranged, and the number of propositions, which was 25 after the pre-test and research, was reduced to 17 with the final regulations.

The validity of the CETSCALE scale has been tested in many countries such as Germany, France, Japan (Netemeyer et al., 1991), America and Russia (Durvasula et al., 1997), Turkey and the Czech Republic (Balabanis et al., 2002; Altıntaş & Tokol, 2007).

Although many years have passed since the scale was developed, the scale is still up to date (Balıkçioğlu et al., 2019) and is used in the field of consumer behavior. There are studies showing that the CETSCALE scale is one-dimensional (Netemeyer et al., 1991; Sharma et al., 1995; Durvasula et al., 1997; Kaynak & Kara, 2002). However, there are also studies in the literature showing that the scale is two-

dimensional (Hsu & Nien, 2008; Douglas & Nijssen, 2003), three-dimensional (Marcoux et al., 1997; Bawa, 2004) and four-dimensional (Khan & Rivzi, 2008).



3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

To conclude the chapter of the literature review, it is important to highlight the main themes discussed and problems observed in the research on consumer behavior, COO effect and on aspects of ethnocentrism. First, it has been observed that consumer preferences for products and services are changing continuously. To understand this uninterrupted flow and to develop a marketing mix appropriate to the target market, marketers must have a thorough must have a comprehensive understanding of consumer behavior. The study of consumer behavior also includes the analysis of the factors influencing the purchasing decisions and the use of the product and, therefore, the basis for the study of the COO effect. Regarding this concept, it was reported that the COO effect creates any effect for the country image and origin of the products on behaviors and attitudes towards that product.

However, the definition of the term “country image” is not clear in the literature. Many authors confuse the image concepts of a specific country and image, or even attitude, of the products originated in that country. Thus, a deeper discussion of the theoretical definition of a country’s image would be necessary, so that studies of the COO effect actually measure the influence of the country’s image on the evaluations of the products originated in that country, not the influence of another construct.

With regard to the magnitude of the country-of-origin effect, there has been a continuing debate on this aspect. Such discussions particularly involved intrinsic or extrinsic information about the product and ecological or traditional issues facilitating or inhibiting confidence in the product COO. The other factor investigated in this study is the ethnocentrism of the consumer.

As mentioned in the literature, the negative attitudes of consumers towards foreign products are expressed as consumer ethnocentrism and it is the most basic concept in explaining these behaviors.

The relationship between the concepts of country of origin and consumer ethnocentrism has been examined in the literature. In this direction, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on products originating in China has been explained in this study. In this direction, this research aimed to investigate how consumer ethnocentrism affects the country of origin, regarding the desire of a group of Turkish consumers to purchase Chinese origin home appliances. Another aim of the research is to determine whether the level of consumer ethnocentrism and the country of origin differ according to demographic characteristics.

Finally, it should be noted that there are few academic studies on the impact of ethnocentrism and aspects of the COO impact, and there is space for further study on the topic as suggested in this thesis.

In order to verify how the ethnocentrism of consumers influence the COO effect, a field study is carried out, in the following chapters, in order to reach the objectives of the present research. The field study begins in Chapter 4, with a discussion of its methodological aspects.

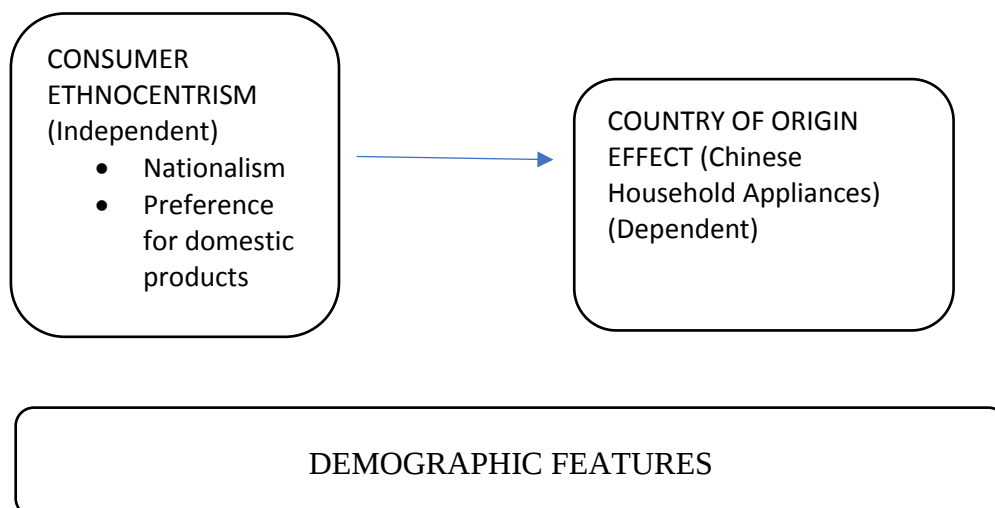
4-RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Research Model

There are two main constructs examined in this study, consumer ethnocentrism and COO effect. Specifically, this research aims to confirm whether there are differences in the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the COO effect, depending on the demographic characteristics of consumers such as gender and age. Figure 2 shows the variables investigated, the relationship between them, and the conceptual model proposed to test the hypotheses.

The analysis of the data started with normality test. When the results of the normality test were evaluated, parametric methods were used as research methods. Parametric analysis included mean, standard deviation, T-test and ANOVA, correlations coefficient, and regression test (p-value).

Figure 2
Proposed Conceptual Model



4.2. Research Hypotheses

As observed in previous studies, it was found that consumer ethnocentrism has a significant effect on different dimensions of the country of origin effect. In the light of the literature, the ethnocentrism level of consumers was chosen as the independent variable, and in this study, the consumer's COO level was chosen as the dependent variable. The research hypotheses are as follows:

H1: There is a significant effect of consumer ethnocentrism level on country-of-origin level.

H1_a: There is a significant effect of Nationalism on COO level

H1_b: There is a significant effect of Preference of domestic product on COO level

H2: Consumer Ethnocentrism significantly differs between gender groups.

H3: Consumer Ethnocentrism significantly differs between marital status groups.

H4: Country of Origin significantly differs between age groups.

H5: Consumer Ethnocentrism significantly differs between income level groups.

4.3. Population and Sampling

All of the consumers in Turkey formed the universe of this study. For data collection, a questionnaire, which is a data collection tool, was used and the questions necessary for the measurement of the variables in the model were answered by the

participants. Descriptive research type was used as research method. Convenience sampling from nonprobability sampling methods was used.

4.4. Measurement

This thesis study has been utilized the quantitative research methodology approach. With this respect, a survey was used as the data collection tool. Researchers intend to measure any objective data and evidence related to the research variables. Validity and the reliability of the data collection tools has crucial role for the quantitative research approaches. Quantitative research methodology requires the independent and dependent variables, and its associated statistical analysis. (Neuman et al., 2013). The data collection tool consists of three separated parts.

Five items related to the sociodemographic characteristics of the participants were included in the first part of the survey.

Second part of the questionnaire included questions about the participants' perspectives regarding ethnocentrism. The questions in this part were adapted from a scale tool called CETSCALE initially developed and tested by Shimp and Sharma (1987). It measures the levels of ethnocentrism for individuals. It contains 17 items. Each item is answered with a 5-Scale Likert response option. The scores obtained from the questionnaire range between 17 and 45. The score ranges include between 60-85 (High Ethnocentrism), 43-59 (Medium Ethnocentrism), and 17-42 (Low Ethnocentrism).

The COO effect was measured with the COO Effect Scale (Giraldi, Ikeda & Campomar, 2013) in the next section. It includes a total of 27 items regarding the COO effect. The scale includes questions about consumer perception of Chinese electronic appliances. The study questions were divided into two groups to be

answered as “.... Chinese electronic household product or service is ...” and “A consumer who purchases Chinese electronic household product ...”.

In this field study, data was collected via an electronic (online) form. The study data collected with the data collection tools were analyzed to test proposed hypotheses with the use of a statistical program, IBM SPSS v.25. In data analysis process, frequency charts, statistical values were utilized to investigate the study purposes.

A 5-point Likert type scale was preferred for all indicators, except for demographic characteristics.

4.5. Data Collection

All the consumers in Turkey comprised the universe for this study. Data was collected via Google Forms. Data collection process took place with a data collection tool, a survey, collected from a total of 378 consumers, but only 360 participants responses for the questions in the survey were valid and included in the data analysis.

5.FINDINGS

5.1. Demographic Characteristics Analysis

In this chapter, sociodemographic characteristic of the consumers including gender, economic status, marital status, age, education and income levels participated in the research were analyzed accordingly.

Table 5 shows the distribution of the participants by gender. It shows that out of 360 consumers who responded to the items on the questionnaire, 121 (33,6%) were male and 239 (66,4%) were female.

Table 5
Frequency and Percentages of the Participants According to Gender

Gender	f	%	Cumulative (%)
Female	239	66,4	66,4
Male	121	33,6	100
Total	360	100	

The frequency and percentage distributions of the participants according to their marital status information are shown below at Table 6, it shows that 305 (84,7%) of the participants were single and 55 (15,3%) were married at the time of data collection.

Table 6
Frequency and Percentages of the Participants According to Marital Status

Marital Status	f	%	Cumulative (%)
Single	305	84,7	84,7
Married	55	15,3	100
Total	360	100	

The table 7 below presents the number and percentages of participants based on their age group. It shows that 269 (74,7%) of the consumers were between the ages of 26 and below; 72 participants of remaining consumers, had 20,0% rate, were between the ages of 27 and 35; 19 of consumers had 5,3% rate were the ages of above 36 years and above.

Table 7

Frequency and Percentages of the Participants According to Age

Age	f	%	Cumulative (%)
26 and below	269	74,7	74,7
27-35	72	20,0	94,7
36 and above	19	5,3	100
Total	360	100	

Below Table 8 illustrates number and percentages of the participants regarding their monthly financial income. Based on the data on the Table 8, 86 participant had 24,8% rate, gained a monthly income between “2000 – 3500” TL; 103 of consumers had 29,7% rate ,gained between “3501 – 5000 TL”; 48 of consumers had 13,8% rate, gained between 5001-6500 TL; only 42 of consumers had 12,1% rate, had monthly salary between “6501 – 8000 TL”; last part of the participants (N=68, 19,6%) gained monthly income between “8.001 and higher”.

Table 8

Frequency and Percentages of the Participants According to the Monthly Income Groups

Income Status (TL)	f	%	Cumulative (%)
2000-3500	86	24,8	24,8
3501-5000	103	29,7	54,5
5001-6500	48	13,8	68,3
6501-8000	42	12,1	80,4
8001 and higher	68	19,6	100
Total	347	100	

Below table shows the number of the participants according to their level of education. Table 9. illustrates that 360 of the sample volunteered to participate on the survey. According to the findings, 46 (12,8%) graduated from high school or lower educational institution. 258 of participant (71,7%) had undergraduate and 56 of them (15,5%) had graduate degree.

Table 9
Frequency and Percentages of the Participants According to Education Levels

Education Status	f	%	Cumulative (%)
High school and below	46	12,8	12,8
Undergraduate	258	71,7	84,5
Graduate	56	15,5	100
Total	360	100	

5.2. Statistical Analysis of the CETSCALE

The participants' responses regarding the CETSCALE were statistically analyzed. The statistical analysis included average scores, frequencies, and standard deviations. The results from the questionnaire were examined. Initially, the responses for the items on the CETSCALE were assessed based on some statistical variables including average scores, percentages, and standard deviations as shown at Table 10.

Table 10
Statistical Results of the CETSCALE

No	Statement	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Mea n	SD
1	Turkish people should always buy Turkey-made products instead of imports.	8,3	19,7	20,6	35,8	15,6	3,30	1,19
2	Only those products that are unavailable in Turkey should be imported.	13,6	26,9	11,4	26,7	21,4	3,15	1,38

3	Buy Turkey-made products, keep Turkish working.	6,4	8,1	14,4	44,4	26,7	3,76	1,12
4	Turkish products, first, last and foremost.	12,5	30,8	18,6	22,2	15,8	2,98	1,29
5	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Turkish.	62,5	25,0	7,8	2,2	2,5	1,57	,914
6	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it outs Turkish out of jobs.	26,7	37,8	19,7	11,7	4,2	2,28	1,10
7	A real Turkish should always buy Turkey-made products.	51,9	30	8,3	6,1	3,6	1,79	1,06
8	We should purchase products manufactured in Turkey instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	20,3	22,5	20,8	25,3	11,1	2,84	1,30
9	It is always best to purchase American products.	34,2	28,9	18,6	12,2	6,1	2,27	1,22
10	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.	15,0	19,2	18,9	30,8	16,1	3,13	1,31
11	Turks should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Turkish business and causes unemployment.	26,1	30,0	22,8	11,9	9,2	2,48	1,25
12	Curbs should be put on all imports.	25,8	29,7	19,7	17,5	7,2	2,50	1,24
13	It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Turkish products.	27,8	32,8	20,6	13,6	5,3	2,35	1,17
14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	39,4	36,7	13,3	5,8	4,7	1,99	1,09
15	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Turkey.	35,8	32,2	13,6	10,6	7,8	2,22	1,25
16	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	17,8	21,9	21,1	23,9	15,3	2,96	1,33
17	Turkish consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Turks out of work.	47,2	31,4	13,3	5,0	3,1	1,85	1,03
Total								2,55 1,19

The CETSCALE inventory contains 17 items, which are responded by the participants on a 5-point Likert Scale, with the degrees of “5=Strongly Agree; 4=Agree; 3=Neutral; 2=Disagree; 1=Strongly Disagree”.

As illustrated in the Table 10, if the average score of the items on the CETSCALE is around 3 (Neutral), then the person has medium ethnocentricity. Our results showed that the average score was 2,55. it can be said that the participants were moderately ethnocentric.

Table 10 also showed that the highest average score of the items on the CETSCALE constructed with the responses to the statement “purchase in Turkey products, retain Turkish working”, was calculated 3,76. The average mean for the statement “Turkish people should always buy Turkey-made products instead of imports.” was 3,30 and for “Only those products that are unavailable in Turkey should be imported.” was 3,15. These findings from the data analysis supported the idea that most of the participants believed Turkish products being the first choice to let Turkish workers to keep their jobs, and they stated that only products needed and couldn’t be manufactured in the country should be imported.

Furthermore, the lowest mean score was 1,57 for the item “Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Turkish.”; 1,79 for the item “A real Turkish should always buy Turkey-made products.” and 1,85 for the item “Turkish consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Turks out of work.”. Those results supported the idea that the participated consumers did not believe in the nationalist views during the purchase of the products.

Table 11 shows the participants’ level of ethnocentrism according to the responses to CETSCALE. As seen in the table, most of them (N=176, 48,9%) were found in the low ethnocentrism level, 135 of them (37,5%) were in medium ethnocentrism level and 49 of them (13,6%) were in high ethnocentrism level. These findings provided the idea that, most participants participating in this study were found to be low ethnocentric.

Table 11

The Levels of Ethnocentrism of the Participants Based on the Responses to the Statements on the CETSCALE

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Low Ethnocentrism (1-2)	176	48,9	48,9
Medium Ethnocentrism(3)	135	37,5	86,4
High Ethnocentrism(4-5)	49	13,6	100
Total	360	100	

5.3. Statistical Analysis of the COO

The participants' responses regarding the COO were statistically analyzed. The statistical analysis included average scores, frequencies, and standard deviations. The results from the questionnaire were examined. Initially, the responses for the items on the COO were assessed based on some statistical variables including average scores, percentages, and standard deviations as shown at Table 12.

Table 12
Statistical Analysis of the Responses on COO Effect and Perceptions of Products Quality

No	Statement	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)	Mean	SD
1	Is a lower-class person	44,4	36,7	10,0	7,8	1,1	1,84	0,97
2	Is stupid, foolish	60	32,5	4,2	2,2	1,1	1,52	0,78
3	Is a poor person	47,5	31,1	10,0	9,4	1,9	1,87	1,06
4	Is unthinking, rash, naive	52,8	31,9	5,8	7,8	1,7	1,74	0,99
5	Is mistaken in choosing the product	39,7	28,1	11,4	17,8	3,1	2,16	1,21
6	Will be dissatisfied	31,4	20,8	26,7	16,1	5,0	2,43	1,22
7	Is not knowledgeable about the product	35,0	25,6	21,7	13,6	4,2	2,26	1,19
8	Is stingy	50,6	33,3	10,0	4,2	1,9	1,74	0,94
9	Is getting ripped off	36,4	36,1	19,7	5,8	1,9	2,01	0,99
10	Does not care about quality	21,4	24,4	31,4	16,9	5,8	2,61	1,17
11	Is getting a good deal	19,4	22,2	43,9	10,3	4,2	2,58	1,04
12	Is correct in choosing the product	21,1	20,8	45,8	9,2	3,1	2,52	1,02
13	Will be satisfied	15,0	20,3	53,1	10,3	1,4	2,63	0,91
14	Products my friends would not buy	26,4	39,2	20,0	11,7	2,8	2,25	1,06
15	Is making the best choice	24,7	30,6	38,9	4,2	1,7	2,28	0,94
16	High quality products	17,5	31,7	45,0	4,4	1,4	2,41	0,87
17	Is knowledgeable about the product	18,6	17,5	43,6	16,9	3,3	2,69	1,06
18	Cares about quality	22,2	27,8	41,1	6,4	2,5	2,39	0,98
19	Products I like	15,0	25,0	41,1	16,1	2,8	2,67	1,01
20	Expensive products	25,3	44,4	28,6	1,1	0,6	2,07	0,79
21	Is buying a good but expensive product	23,9	44,4	28,3	2,5	0,8	2,12	0,83
22	Inexpensive products	8,9	10,0	26,7	44,2	10,3	3,37	1,08
23	Is paying top price for top quality	40,6	33,3	21,7	2,8	1,7	1,92	0,94
24	Demands high quality	29,2	31,7	30,3	6,4	2,5	2,21	1,02
25	Looks for established brand names	27,5	22,2	33,9	12,8	3,3	2,43	1,13
26	Products I will be proud to show my friends	16,4	22,5	46,1	10,0	5,0	2,65	1,03
27	Is a gambler	53,1	26,1	14,2	5,0	1,7	1,76	0,98
Total							2,16	1,01

The questionnaire on the COO effect and perception of products quality contains 27 items. It was designed on a 5-point Likert scale with “5=Strongly Agree; 4=Agree; 3=Neutral; 2=Disagree; 1=Strongly Disagree”. Table 12 shows that average scores of the items on the questionnaire were found higher than “2=Disagree”. Specifically, it was found 2,16, between “2=Disagree” and “3=Neutral”.

Table 12 showed that the highest average score was found for the inventory item “Chinese household products are inexpensive products”, which was 3,37 and “A person who buys Chinese household products is knowledgeable about the product.” with 2,69.

Moreover, the lowest means are “A person who buys Chinese household products is stupid, foolish.” with 0,78 and “A person who buys Chinese household products is buying a good but expensive product.” with 0,83.

5.4. Normality Test

Normality test was applied to determine the normal distribution of the data. If the group size is less than 50, Shapiro-Wilk test results should be interpreted, if it is larger, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test results should be interpreted (Büyüköztürk, 2019). Since the group size was 360 in this study, the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were interpreted.

As a result of hypothesis testing for the distribution to be considered normal, $p > 0.05$ must be present. However, considering that the measurements in social sciences are made with Likert scales in the range of "strongly disagree"- "strongly agree", it will be seen that it is quite difficult to accept the H_0 hypothesis according to

the results of the normality test. Therefore, in order to examine the normality Kurtosis-skewness coefficients should be checked (Büyüköztürk, 2019).

For the use of parametric tests, it is also examined whether the data are normally distributed. Providing a 95% confidence interval in social science studies shows the normal distribution. Therefore, it is required that the kurtosis and skewness ratios are between +1,5 and -1,5 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). In this context, the research data were also analyzed, and it was seen that the kurtosis and skewness values are within the specified range. All these preconditions were evaluated, and it was decided to use parametric tests for analysis.

Table 13
Analysis of Normality for the COO Inventory and Cetscale nventory

	N	Mean	SD	P	Kolmogorov Smirnov(p)	Kurtosis	Skewness	Min	Max
Total COO	360	2,16	0,46	0,00	p<0,05	0,735	-0,44	1	3,74
Total CETSCALE	360	2,56	0,86	0,02	p<0,05	0,504	0,03	1	5

5.5. Factor and Reliability Analysis of the Questionnaires

For validity of data collection tools, factor analysis was conducted via questionnaires. Moreover, reliability test conducted in order to calculate the scales' reliability which are used in this study.

5.5.1. The factor analysis and reliability for the CETSCALE

Factor analysis was applied to show that the ethnocentrism scale measures the relevant variables. For this purpose, KMO and Bartlett Test were used for validity.

Table 14
KMO Value Interpretation

KMO measure	Interpretation
$KMO \geq 0,90$	Marvelous
$0,80 \leq KMO < 0,90$	Meritorious
$0,70 \leq KMO < 0,80$	Average
$0,60 \leq KMO < 0,70$	Mediocre
$0,50 \leq KMO < 0,60$	Terrible
$KMO < 0,50$	Unacceptable

The value of the KMO was calculated 0,944, higher than 0,70. This shows that, according to Table 14, the suitability of the ethnocentrism variable to factor analysis is at a marvelous level. In addition, the result of the Bartlett's Test being significant ($p < 0.05$) indicates that the scale is suitable for factor analysis (Durmuş, 2018). There are 2 factors emerged after factor analysis conducted for validity of Cetscale (Table 15). It would be appropriate to name the first of these factors as "nationalism" and the second as "preference for domestic products". These factors are listed as follow.

- Factor 1: Nationalism (Item 17, 5, 14, 7, 15, 11, 9, 6, 12 and 13)
- Factor 2: Preference for Domestic Products (Item 3, 1, 2, 4, 10, 8 and 16)

Among these factors, the variance explained by the nationalism factor on the Cetscale scale is 52.478%, and the variance explained by the preference for domestic products factor on the Cetscale scale is 10.414%. Together with these two factors, the total explained variance in the Cetscale scale is 62.892%. This shows that the total variances of the factors explain most of the variance of the scale. When conducted factor analysis for the study data, we calculated the scores of the reliability for the

included factors. Table 15 presents the levels and values of reliability for each factor. They were found high enough.

Table 15

The Factor and Reliability Analysis Results for the CETSCALE

Item No	Items	FACTORS		α
		Nationalism	Preference for Domestic Products	
E17	Turkish consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Turks out of work.	0,905		
E5	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Turkish.	0,900		
E 14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	0,866		
E 7	A real Turkish should always buy Turkey-made products.	0,864		
E 15	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Turkey.	0,674		0,927
E 11	Turks should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Turkish business and causes unemployment.	0,664		
E 9	It is always best to purchase American products.	0,649		
E 6	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it outs Turkish out of jobs.	0,614		
E 12	Curbs should be put on all imports.	0,579		
E13	It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Turkish products.	0,573		
E 3	Buy Turkey-made products, keep Turkish working.		0,919	
E1	Turkish people should always buy Turkey-made products instead of imports.		0,865	
E 2	Only those products that are unavailable in Turkey should be imported.		0,761	0,896
E 4	Turkish products, first, last and foremost.		0,715	
E 10	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.		0,693	
E 8	We should purchase products manufactured in Turkey instead of letting other countries get rich off us.		0,586	
E 16	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.		0,572	
	Explained Variance (%)	52,478	10,414	
	Total Variance(%)		62,892	

5.5.2. The factor analysis and reliability for the COO

Factor analysis was applied to show that the COO scale measures the relevant variables. For this purpose, KMO and Bartlett Test were used for validity.

The value of the KMO was found 0,857, higher than the significant value (0,70). This shows that, according to Table 14, the suitability of the ethnocentrism variable to factor analysis is at a meritorious level. In addition, the result of the Bartlett's Test being significant ($p < 0.05$) indicates that the scale is suitable for factor analysis (Durmuş, 2018). There are 4 factors emerged after factor analysis conducted for validity of COO. These factors are listed as follow (Table 16).

- Factor 1: Item 20,19,9,10,12,15,17,11,27 and 14
- Factor 2: Item 2,3,1,4,8,18,5 and 13
- Factor 3: Item 24,25,22 and 23
- Factor 4: Item 26,6,7,21 and 18

Among these factors, the variance explained by the FACTOR 1 on the COO scale is 26,006%, the variance explained by the FACTOR 2 on the COO scale is 23,560%, the variance explained by the FACTOR 3 on the COO scale is 6,468% and the variance explained by the FACTOR 4 on the COO scale is 4,800%. Together with these four factors, the total explained variance in the COO scale is 60,834%. This shows that the total variances of the factors explain most of the variance of the scale. When conducted factor analysis for the study data, we calculated the scores of the reliability for the included factors. Table 16 presents the levels and values of reliability for each factor. They were found high enough.

Table 16
The Factor and Reliability Analysis Results for the COO

Item No	Items	FACTORS				α
		FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	
C20	Is correct in choosing the product	0,808				0,882
C19	Is getting a good deal	0,783				
C9	Is knowledgeable about the product	0,736				
C10	Cares about quality	0,722				
C12	Will be satisfied	0,670				
C15	Demands high quality	0,639				
C17	Looks for established brand names	0,636				
C11	Is making the best choice	0,627				
C27	Products I will be proud to show my friends	0,484				
C14	Is paying top price for top quality	0,340				
C2	Is stupid, foolish		0,833			0,893
C3	Is a poor person		0,820			
C1	Is a low class person		0,818			
C4	Is unthinking, rash, naive		0,783			
C8	Is stingy		0,704			
C18	Is a gambler		0,600			
C5	Is mistaken in choosing the product		0,584			
C13	Is getting ripped off		0,466			
C24	Expensive products			0,818		
C25	Is buying a good but expensive			0,818		0,820

product				
C22	High quality products		0,656	
C23	Products I like		0,561	
C26	Inexpensive products			0,741
C6	Is mistaken in choosing the product			0,670
C7	Will be dissatisfied			0,611
C21	Products my friends would not buy			0,563
C18	Does not care about quality			0,531
	Explained Variance (%)	26,006	23,560	6,468
	Total Variance(%)		60,834	4,800

5.6. Findings Regarding the Relationships Between the Variables

Correlation analysis was used to define the relationships between variables. In the analysis, the correlation coefficient is shown with the letter "r". The r value takes a value between -1 and +1 and the strength of the relationship decreases as it approaches 0.

r value;

- Being between 0 – 0.50 is weak among the variables,
- Between 0.50 – 0.70, it is moderate among the variables,
- A score between 0.70 – 1 indicates a strong relationship between the variables.

shows. The same is true for negative values (Durmuş et al., 2019).

In order to perform correlation analysis, the following rules must be followed.

- The relationship is linear
- More than 30 samples
- Paying attention to outliers in the sample (Durmuş et al., 2019)

All of the correlation analyzes were made by taking these rules into consideration.

When the relationship of COO with other variables is examined (Table 17);

- The relationship between COO and Cetscale is positive, significant and weak.
- The relationship between COO and Nationalism is positive, significant and weak.
- The relationship between COO and PDP is positive, significant and weak.

Table 17
The Relationship between Variables and Factors

		COO	CET	CET_NAT	CET_PDP
COO	Pearson Correlation	1			
CET	Pearson Correlation	,236**	1		
CET_NAT	Pearson Correlation	,226**	,940**	1	
CET_PDP	Pearson Correlation	,209**	,903**	,701**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

5.7. Results of Regression Tests

Simple linear regression analysis was applied to the variables to detect direct effects and all relationships were found significant.

As seen in Table 18; when the effect of Cetscale on COO was examined, it was determined that it had a significant effect of 0.132 ($\beta=0.132$, $p<0.05$).

Table
Simple Linear Regression Results between CET and COO

18

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t	p
CET	COO	0,132	0,056	4,605	0,000

As seen in Table 19; when the effect of Nationalism on COO was examined, it was determined that it had a significant effect of 0.123 ($\beta=0.123$, $p<0.05$).

Table
Simple Linear Regression Results Relationship between Nationalism and COO

19

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t	p
Nationalism	COO	0,123	0,051	4,384	0,000

As seen in Table 20; when the effect of PDP on COO was examined, it was determined that it had a significant effect of 0.101 ($\beta=0.101$, $p<0.05$).

Table
Simple Linear Regression Results between Preference for Domestic Product and COO

20

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Beta	R ²	t	p
Preference for domestic product	COO	0,101	0,044	4,046	0,000

In the direct regression analysis, the effects were found to be significant. When the R² values in Table 18 were examined, it was seen that the COO, Cetscale explained 5,6%. When the R² values in Table 19 were examined, it was seen that the COO, Nationalism scale explained 5,1%. When the R² values in Table 20 were

examined, it was seen that the COO, Preference for Domestic Product scale explained 4,4%.

5.8. Differentiation of Variables Depending on Sociodemographic Characters

Participants were grouped according to gender, marital status, age, income and educational status. It was examined whether these groups differed significantly the Country of Origin (COO) and Consumers' Ethnocentrism Level (CETSCALE) variables.

Some sociodemographic factors (age, income, education) were analyzed by ANOVA. Independent t-test was applied for other sociodemographic factors (gender, marital status).

5.8.1. Differentiation of variables according to gender

Since the number of groups was two (female, male), Independent Sample T-Test was applied.

As a result of the Levene test, the assumption that the variances are equal for the CET variable was accepted ($p > 0.05$). For this reason, the values in the 1st line, which refer to the assumption that the variances are equal, are interpreted. According to this interpretation, it was determined that there was a significant difference between the mean CET levels of the female and male groups. According to this difference, female participants have higher ethnocentrism levels than male participants. (Meanfemale=2,63, Meanmale=2,42; $p < 0.05$).

According to the Levene test result, the assumption that the variances are equal for the COO variable was accepted ($p > 0.05$). For this reason, the values in the 1st line, which refer to the assumption that the variances are equal, are interpreted.

According to this interpretation, when the COO levels were examined between the female and male groups no significant difference was found.

Table 21
Hypothesis -2 Independent Sample T-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
CET	Equal variances assumed	,480	,489	2,139	358	,033	,20516	,09591	,01655	,39377
	Equal variances not assumed			2,107	231,443	,036	,20516	,09738	,01330	,39702
COO	Equal variances assumed	,010	,921	-,759	358	,448	-,04098	,05399	-,14716	,06520
	Equal variances not assumed			-,726	214,487	,469	-,04098	,05643	-,15221	,07025

Table 22
Descriptive Values for Gender Groups

	Gender	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean
CET	Female	239	2,6281	0,84591	0,05472
	Male	121	2,4229	0,88608	0,08055
COO	Female	239	2,2498	0,46054	0,02979
	Male	121	2,2908	0,52721	0,04793

5.8.2. Differentiation of variables according to marital status

The distribution of the participants according to their marital status was examined with the difference between the cetscale and coo variables. Since the

number of groups was two (single, married), Independent Sample T- Test was applied.

As a result of Levene test, the assumption that the variances are equal for the CET variable was accepted ($p>0.05$). For this reason, the values in the 1st line, which refer to the assumption that the variances are equal, are interpreted. According to this interpretation, it was determined that there was a significant difference between the mean CET levels of the married and single groups. According to this difference, married participants have higher ethnocentrism levels than single participants. (Mean_{single}=2.51, Mean_{married}=2.80; $p<0.05$).

According to the Levene test result, the assumption that the variances are equal for the COO variable was rejected ($p<0.05$). For this reason, the values in the 2nd line, which refer to the assumption that the variances are not equal, are interpreted. According to this interpretation, when the COO levels were examined between the married and single groups no significant difference was found.

Table 23
Hypothesis -3 Independent Sample T-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)	Mean Differenc e	Std.Error Differenc e	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Low er	Upper
CET	Equal variance s assumed	1,43 0	0,23 3	- 2,29 0	358	0,023	-,28807	0,12581	- ,5354 9	- ,0406 5
	Equal variance s not assumed			- 2,04 4	68,73 4	,045	-,28807	,14096	- ,5693 0	- ,0068 4
CO O	Equal variance s assumed	4,14 9	,042	-,735	358	,463	-,05213	,07089	- ,1915 5	,0872 9
	Equal variance s not assumed				64,11 6	0,563	-,05213	,08973	- ,2313 7	,1271 2

Table 24
Descriptive Values for Marital Status Groups

	Marital Status	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean
CET	Single	305	2,5151	0,83470	0,04780
	Married	55	2,8032	0,98347	0,13261
COO	Single	305	2,2556	0,45129	0,02584
	Married	55	2,3077	0,63724	0,08593

5.8.3. Differentiation of variables according to age range

As it can be seen in Table 25, when the participants were grouped according to their age range, it was determined that the COO levels of the groups differed ($p=0.041$; $p<0.05$).

Table 25
Hypothesis-4 ANOVA Test of Age Groups

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Mean			Total n=360
							26 and below n=269	27-35 n=72	36 and above n=19	
CET	Between Groups	1,288	2	0,644	0,863	0,423	2,53	2,60	2,78	2,56
	Within Groups	266,615	357	0,747						
	Total	267,903	359							
COO	Between Groups	1,491	2	0,745	3,226	0,041	2,25	2,24	2,54	2,26
	Within Groups	82,478	357	0,231						
	Total	83,969	359							

Tukey post hoc analysis was used to found out the reason for the difference by age range in terms of country of origin factor. As a result of Tukey post hoc analysis results Table 26, the age groups of 26 and below and 36 and above differ significantly according to the country of origin.

Table 26
Hypothesis-4 Tukey Post Hoc Test of Age Group

Dependent Variable	I	J	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CET	1,00	2,00	-0,07031	0,11467	0,813	-0,3402	0,1996
		3,00	-0,25146	0,20514	0,439	-0,7343	0,2313
	2,00	1,00	0,07031	0,11467	0,813	-0,1996	0,3402
		3,00	-0,18116	0,22289	0,695	-0,7057	0,3434
	3,00	1,00	0,25146	0,20514	0,439	-0,2313	0,7343
		2,00	0,18116	0,22289	0,695	-0,3434	0,7057
COO	1,00	2,00	0,00514	0,06378	0,996	-0,1450	0,1552
		3,00	-,28658*	0,11410	0,033	-0,5551	-0,0180
	2,00	1,00	-0,00514	0,06378	0,996	-0,1552	0,1450
		3,00	-0,29172	0,12397	0,050	-0,5835	0,0000
	3,00	1,00	,28658*	0,11410	0,033	0,0180	0,5551
		2,00	0,29172	0,12397	0,050	0,0000	0,5835

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

5.8.4. Differentiation of variables according to income level

As it can be seen in Table 27, when the participants were grouped according to their income levels, it was determined that the CET levels of the groups differed ($p=0.029$; $p<0.05$).

Table 27

Hypothesis-5 ANOVA Test of Income Level

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	2000 - 3500 TL n=86	3501- 5000 TL n=103	5001 - 6500 TL n=48	6501 - 8000 TL n=42	8001 and higher n=68	Total n=347
CET	Between Groups	8,041	4	2,010	2,723	0,029	2,68	2,69	2,56	2,54	2,29	2,58
	Within Groups	252,473	342	0,738								
	Total	260,514	346									
COO	Between Groups	0,98009	4	0,245	1,043	0,385	2,26	2,34	2,2	2,3	2,21	2,27
	Within Groups	80,3628	342	0,235								
	Total	81,3429	346									

Tukey post hoc analysis was used to understand the reason for the difference according to income levels in terms of ethnocentrism (CET) factor. As a result of Tukey post hoc analysis results in Table 28, those with 2000-3500 and 8001 and higher income levels and those with 3501-5000 and 8001 and higher income levels differ significantly according to the CET factor.

Table 28*Hypothesis-5 Tukey Post Hoc Test of Income Level*

Dependent Variable	I	J	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CET	2000-3500	3501-5000	-0,01012	0,12550	1,000	-0,3543	0,3341
		5001-6500	0,11890	0,15480	0,940	-0,3056	0,5434
		6501-8000	0,14061	0,16174	0,908	-0,3030	0,5842
		8001 and higher	,39370*	0,13943	0,040	0,0113	0,7761
	3501-5000	2000-3500	0,01012	0,12550	1,000	-0,3341	0,3543
		5001-6500	0,12902	0,15016	0,911	-0,2828	0,5408
		6501-8000	0,15073	0,15730	0,874	-0,2807	0,5821
		8001 and higher	,40382*	0,13425	0,023	0,0356	0,7720
	5001-6500	2000-3500	-0,11890	0,15480	0,940	-0,5434	0,3056
		3501-5000	-0,12902	0,15016	0,911	-0,5408	0,2828
		6501-8000	0,02171	0,18154	1,000	-0,4761	0,5196
		8001 and higher	0,27480	0,16198	0,437	-0,1694	0,7190
	6501-8000	2000-3500	-0,14061	0,16174	0,908	-0,5842	0,3030
		3501-5000	-0,15073	0,15730	0,874	-0,5821	0,2807
		5001-6500	-0,02171	0,18154	1,000	-0,5196	0,4761
		8001 and higher	0,25309	0,16862	0,563	-0,2093	0,7155
	8001 and higher	2000-3500	-,39370*	0,13943	0,040	-0,7761	-0,0113
		3501-5000	-,40382*	0,13425	0,023	-0,7720	-0,0356
		5001-6500	-0,27480	0,16198	0,437	-0,7190	0,1694
		6501-8000	-0,25309	0,16862	0,563	-0,7155	0,2093
	COO	2000-3500	-0,07430	0,07081	0,832	-0,2685	0,1199
		5001-6500	0,06397	0,08734	0,949	-0,1755	0,3035
		6501-8000	-0,03402	0,09125	0,996	-0,2843	0,2162
		8001 and higher	0,05203	0,07866	0,964	-0,1637	0,2678

3501-5000	2000-3500	0,07430	0,07081	0,832	-0,1199	0,2685
	5001-6500	0,13827	0,08472	0,478	-0,0941	0,3706
	6501-8000	0,04027	0,08875	0,991	-0,2031	0,2837
	8001 and higher	0,12633	0,07574	0,455	-0,0814	0,3340
5001-6500	2000-3500	-0,06397	0,08734	0,949	-0,3035	0,1755
	3501-5000	-0,13827	0,08472	0,478	-0,3706	0,0941
	6501-8000	-0,09799	0,10242	0,874	-0,3789	0,1829
	8001 and higher	-0,01194	0,09138	1,000	-0,2625	0,2387
6501-8000	2000-3500	0,03402	0,09125	0,996	-0,2162	0,2843
	3501-5000	-0,04027	0,08875	0,991	-0,2837	0,2031
	5001-6500	0,09799	0,10242	0,874	-0,1829	0,3789
	8001 and higher	0,08606	0,09513	0,895	-0,1748	0,3469
8001 and higher	2000-3500	-0,05203	0,07866	0,964	-0,2678	0,1637
	3501-5000	-0,12633	0,07574	0,455	-0,3340	0,0814
	5001-6500	0,01194	0,09138	1,000	-0,2387	0,2625
	6501-8000	-0,08606	0,09513	0,895	-0,3469	0,1748

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

5.8.5. Differentiation of variables according to education level

As a result of the ANOVA test, it was seen that there was no significant difference between the education level variable and the CE and COO factor. CE factor and COO do not differ according to education level.

Table 29*ANOVA Test of Education Level*

		Mean								
		Sum of Square s	df	Mean Squar e	F	Sig.	Highscho ol or below n=46	Undergradu ate n=258	Gradua te n=56	Total n=360
CE T	Between	3,437	2	1,719	2,32	0,1	2,8	2,53	2,45	2,55
	Groups									
	Within	264,466	357	0,741						
	Groups									
	Total	267,903	359							
CO O	Between	0,396	2	0,198	0,846	0,43	2,34	2,26	2,21	2,26
	Groups									
	Within	83,573	357	0,234						
	Groups									
	Total	83,969	359							

6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The effect of homogenization with the globalizing world is increasing day by day, and businesses that want to stand out by being different in the market need to be aware of the factors that influence consumers' purchasing judgment and develop strategies for them. The two main elements of this study, CE and the COO effect, are the factors that affect the purchasing decisions and behaviors of consumers. As seen in the literature, research has been conducted to reveal the effect of consumer ethnocentrism and country of origin in purchasing behavior (Lumb & Kuperman, 2012; Acharya & Elliott, 2003; Evanschitzky et al. 2006). It is the most typical example of the COO effect that there are statements that it is of good quality for German products and poor quality for products of Chinese origin. While consumers with high ethnocentrism level use country of origin knowledge more at the purchasing stage, consumers with weak ethnocentrism level use COO information less at the purchasing stage (Fischer & Zeugner-Roth, 2017). Consumer ethnocentrism and COO effect is a significant strategy for companies. For this reason, with this study, it is expected that companies will contribute to reach larger markets and sales volumes. This thesis study aims to measure the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and country of origin effect. It was also conducted to determine the role of consumer ethnocentrism and country of origin effect on consumer purchasing decision. This study was conducted to analyze whether the effect of CE and COO, which are the factors affecting consumers' purchasing decisions, show a statistically significant difference, and to measure the effect of these two factors on the participants' preferences for Chinese home appliances. As a result of the research, the following conclusions were reached:

All evidence in the study emerged as a outcome of the analysis of questionnaires gathered from 360 participants. The validity and reliability results of each scale used in the survey were quite high. This shows that the results of the analyzes are reliable.

Ethnocentric consumers support the purchase of domestic products and question the correctness of buying foreign products. According to ethnocentric consumers, imported (foreign) products it is incorrect to buy, because it harms the country's economy, creates unemployment, and distracts from nationalist thought. Non-ethnocentric consumers, on the other hand, appraise alien products without paying attention to where they are made. In accordance with other studies in the literature, the degree of consumer ethnocentrism increases, the propensity of consumers to prefer domestic products to alien products will also increase (Lantz et al.,1996). The country of origin effect, otherwise, shows the difference between consumers' behavior towards different countries. The reason why the person prone to consumer ethnocentrism looks at the origin of the product; It is not to learn in which country that product is produced, but to learn if the product is a local product or alien product. When the effect of ethnocentrism on COO was investigated, it was defined that it had a important effect. This conclusion is also supported in the literature. Consumers who are delicate about the COO of the products they buy do not have to be ethnocentric; conversely, ethnocentric consumers must be highly delicate about the COO of the products purchased (Arı, 2007). When the demographic analyzes of these two variables are examined, some important results have been reached.

One of them has been found that female participants are more ethnocentric than male ones. Women act with more nationalistic feelings when buying products. This result was expected since it was aligned with the previous research findings (Nebe,

2010; Pentz, Terblanche, & Boshoff, 2013). Another result married people were found more ethnocentric than single people. Such result was also expected since married people are influenced from each other in terms of ethnocentric views and beliefs regarding imported products. The partner with more ethnocentrism apparently dominated the other partner. Such findings also correlate with the previous studies (Neese & Davis, 2017).

When age groups are examined, it has been determined that consumers aged 36 and over more care to the origin of the products in their purchasing processes. In this context, it can be speculated that one of the important reasons for this situation is that internet use and access to technology may be better for those aged 36 and under, and that this may reduce prejudices by accessing global information. Another reason is that while older participants tend to prefer domestic products, younger participants evaluate the products of another country more positively (Morello, 1984). Encouraging further studies on this subject is one of the results of my research.

It has been observed that consumers with an income range of 2000-3500 TL according to their income levels behave more ethnocentrically in their purchasing processes than other income groups. In this context, it can be interpreted that the level of ethnocentrism increases as the monthly income decreases. In the literature, significant differences were found between (Ari, 2007) and (Ari & Madran, 2011) for monthly income. In addition, this situation is thought to be caused by the high prices of imported products.

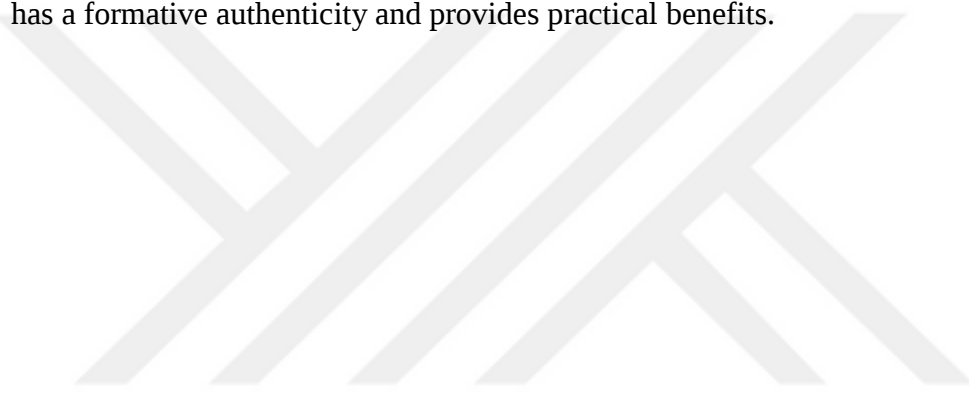
7. LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS ON FUTURE RESEARCH

Consumer ethnocentrism and the COO effect are important factors that consumers care about in evaluating products. Investigating how consumer ethnocentrism influences the COO is the subject of this study. Research on the subject in Turkey is limited. The results of the study show parallelism with the literature. It can be said that the study is a guide for researchers who want to work on the same subject in terms of subject and method. Research recommendations are given below to guide future research.

In the study, the data were collected by collecting data over the internet and by convenience sampling method. Research on a larger sample mass, which will be obtained by more random methods, will be more efficient in terms of generalizing the results. In the future, by using a method involving more than one country on the subject, comparable results can be obtained and conduce to the enrichment of the literature. Since the subjects of COO and ethnocentrism are closely related to culture, different cultures can be included in the research in different studies, thus adding a different dimension to the study.

The main aim of this thesis is to reveal the intercourse between consumers' ethnocentrism tendencies and COO. In addition, CE and COO effect and socio-demographic characteristics of consumers were also examined. In this context, as a result, it has been revealed that ethnocentrism and COO characteristics differ according to the socio-demographic characteristics of consumers. For this reason, it is very important to determine the degree of consumers' ethnocentrism and country of origin tendencies and to determine their relationship with demographic characteristics. While foreign companies interested in this issue refrain the unfavorable effects of consumer ethnocentrism, domestic companies can reach wider markets and sales

capacity by taking benefit of this concept. When foreign companies have an idea about the level of ethnocentrism in the field in which they operate, various marketing strategies can be produced. For example, positioning the product's origin inconspicuously on the product or marketing it in environments such as the internet. Consumers prefer domestic products for reasons such as nationalism, patriotism, national loyalty, and consumer ethnocentrism. Domestic companies, on the other hand, can develop campaigns that will rise the sales of domestic products by taking advantage of these weaknesses. From this perspective, it is understood that the study has a formative authenticity and provides practical benefits.



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APPENDIX – A. Survey Form

ANKET

Değerli katılımcı,

Bu anket, “*TÜKETİCİLERİN ETNOSENTRİZM DÜZEYİNİN MENŞE ÜLKE ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ: ÇİN EV ALETLERİ İLE BİR ARAŞTIRMA*” isimli yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında araştırmacı tarafından veri toplamak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Yanıtlarınız sadece bilimsel amaçla kullanılacak ve hiçbir kurum ile paylaşılmayacaktır. Sadece beş dakika ayırıp cevaplarsanız çok seviniriz.

Şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Demografik Özellikler

Cinsiyetiniz

☐ Kadın ☐ Erkek

Medeni Durumunuz

☐ Bekâr ☐ Evli

Yaşınız

.....

Ailenizin Gelir Durumu

☐ Yok ☐ 2000 TL- 3500 TL ☐ 3501 TL- 5000 TL

☐ 5001 TL- 6500 TL ☐ 6501 TL- 8000 TL ☐ 8001 TL ve üzeri

Eğitim Durumunuz

☐ Lise ve altı ☐ Lisans ☐ Yüksek Lisans ☐ Doktora

Lütfen aşağıdaki cümlelere ne oranda katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

No	Sorular	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1	Türk insanı, ithal mallar yerine Türk malı ürünler kullanmalıdır					
2	Bir ürün ülkemizde üretilmiyorsa ancak o zaman ithalatına izin verilmelidir					
3	Ülkemizde üretimin ve ekonominin sağlıklı bir şekilde devam etmesi için Türk malı ürünler satın almalıyız					
4	Her zaman, öncelikle ve mutlaka Türk malı ürünler satın almalıyız					
5	Yabancı ülkelerde üretilen ürünleri satın almak Türklüğe yakışmaz					
6	Yabancı ülkelerde üretilen ürünleri satın almak doğru değildir çünkü bu durumda Türk işçiler işlerini					
7	Gerçek bir Türk her zaman Türk malı ürünler almalıdır					
8	Yabancı ülkeleri zengin etmek yerine Türkiye’de üretilen ürünleri satın almalıyız					
9	Her zaman en iyi Türk malı ürünler satın almaktır.					
10	Gerekmedikçe diğer ülkelerden mal satın alınmaması					
11	Türkler ithal mal satın almamalı çünkü bu Türklerin işlerini kaybetmelerine yol açıyor ve işsizliğe neden oluyor.					
12	Tüm ithalatlar frenlenmelidir.					
13	Maliyetli olsa da Türk malı ürünler satın alınmalıdır.					
14	Yabancıların ürünlerini pazarlarımıza koymalarına izin verilmemelidir.					
15	Yabancı ürünler Türkiye’ye girişlerini azaltmak için ağır bir şekilde vergilendirilmelidir.					
16	Yabancı ülkelere sadece kendi ülkemizde üretemeyeceğimiz ürünleri satın almalıyız.					
17	Diğer ülkelerin ürünlerini satın alan Türk tüketiciler, Türk arkadaşlarının işlerini kaybetmelerinden sorumlular.					

N o	Sorular	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Çin ev aletleri satın alan kişi....						
1	Alt sınıftan bir insandır					
2	Aptaldır					
3	Fakir bir kişidir					
4	Düşüncesiz, aceleci ve saftır					
5	Ürün seçiminde yanılgıya düşer					
6	Memnun olmayacaktır					
7	Ürün hakkında bilgisi yoktur					
8	Cimridir					
9	Ürün hakkında bilgi sahibidir					
10	Kaliteyi önemser					
11	En iyi seçimi yapıyordur					
12	Memnun olacaktır					
13	Dolandırılıyordur					
14	En kaliteli ürüne en yüksek fiyatı ödüyordur					
15	Yüksek kalite talep ediyordur					
16	Riske giriyordur					
17	Kurumsallaşmış markalara bakıyordur					
18	Kaliteyi önemsemediyordur					
19	İyi bir anlaşma yapıyordur					
20	Ürün seçimini doğru yapıyordur					
Çin ev aletleri...						
21	Arkadaşlarımla almayacağı ürünlerdir					
22	Yüksek kaliteli ürünlerdir.					
23	Sevdiğim ürünlerdir					
24	Pahalı ürünlerdir					
25	İyi fakat pahalı ürünlerdir.					
26	Ucuz ürünlerdir					
27	Arkadaşıma gururla gösterebileceğim ürünlerdir					