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“The Concept of National Identity:
An In-Depth Analysis of Its Nature and Impact on
Consumer Behaviour”

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Elisabeth Fritsch

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Abstract

This diploma thesis investigates the concept of national identity in detail. National identity is put into a nomological network with related constructs such as patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism, and the impact of the four concepts on consumer behaviour is examined. First, an in-depth literature review is given which introduces national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism and clearly distinguishes them from each other. As research on national identity is characterized by a huge inconsistency regarding its conceptualisation and operationalisation, a new definition of the construct is developed seeing national identity as *the extent to which individuals identify with and have a positive feeling of affiliation to their own nation that is subjectively important to their self-concept*. Next, in order to test the relationship between the four constructs and their impact on the evaluation and choice of domestic versus foreign products, a questionnaire is created and administered to a convenience sample of 217 Danish students. The results of this empirical study demonstrate that national identity is an antecedent of patriotism and nationalism but shows no direct relationship with consumer ethnocentrism. Furthermore, a high level of national identity positively influences the evaluation of and willingness to buy domestic products. Finally, managerial implications of these findings are considered and suggestions for future research are given.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Today globalization and international trade are more and more on the rise. Due to this development most consumers are confronted with a variety of products and companies from all over the world which compete against the domestic alternatives. For firms which increasingly operate at an international level it becomes necessary to examine how consumers react to these imported products compared to domestic goods in order to best plan their marketing strategies.

When consumers evaluate goods they do this not always based on objective criteria such as product quality (Moschis 1976). Rather they refer to certain cues, such as the country of origin of the product, which can help them in their decision making. However, if consumers are for some reason extensively biased towards their home country this can strongly influence their evaluation of and willingness to buy goods with a foreign country of origin. Thus, as Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004) point out, *“one of the oldest concerns of international marketers is whether the “foreignness” of a product will make it less preferable to consumers”* (p. 80).

National identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism are concepts which play an important role in this context because they represent different types of this just mentioned home country bias. Not only do they exist in many countries and influence various parts of everyday life but they can also evoke strong feelings and actions as history has shown. All four concepts are centred on an individual's attitudes towards the in-group (the home country) and out-groups (foreign countries) and it is likely that consumers' perceptions of domestic and foreign products are to some extent influenced by them.

Although at first sight the constructs seem to be closely related or even identical, there exist in fact important differences regarding their conceptualisation and their impact on the preference for domestic or foreign products which have not yet been sufficiently investigated. National identity and patriotism are frequently defined as an *“emotional bond with the nation”* (Blank & Schmidt 2003, p. 290) or *“love of country”* (Adorno et al. 1950, p. 107) respectively, thus their conceptualisation involves only in-group

favouritism. Nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism, on the other hand, combine this bias towards the home country with a negative attitude towards foreign nations. It has been shown in the literature that favourable attitudes towards one's own group are not necessarily linked with hostility towards other groups (Brewer 1999). Therefore it can be assumed that concepts which solely involve positive attitudes towards the own nation (i.e. national identity and patriotism) might exert different influences on consumers' product evaluations and choices than constructs which connect these affirmative feelings towards the home country with negative attitudes towards other nations (i.e. nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism).

For marketers it is essential to clearly understand these four socio-psychological traits and their small but important differences because they can provide valuable explanations for consumers' motives for certain product preferences.

1.1 Research Gap

Although various papers have investigated national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism, especially research on the first three concepts is characterized by a vast inconsistency regarding their definitions and scales. National identity, patriotism and nationalism are frequently defined in a similar way or used as synonyms¹ although research has indicated that they actually need to be conceptually and empirically distinguished (e.g. Blank & Schmidt 2003). Moreover, the scales which are applied in order to measure these concepts are often mixed up. For instance, Keillor et al. (1996) have developed a national identity scale which includes consumer ethnocentrism. Blank (2003) has assessed national identity by using items from a patriotism scale and Shimp & Sharma (1987) as well as Sharma et al. (1995), who both claim that patriotism is an antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism, have used a scale that actually measures nationalism to test this assumption.

Thus, the first objective of this paper is to present a detailed literature review on national identity and its related constructs in order to clearly separate them from each

¹ Balabanis et al. (2007) for example refer to patriotism and nationalism as "*national identity constructs*" (p. 328) but, as will be shown in this thesis, national identity is actually a different concept which needs to be clearly separated from patriotism and nationalism.

other and to give a thorough and systematic overview about and evaluation of the various conceptual domains and measurement instruments that exist in the literature.

Another challenge is that hardly any paper can be found which deals with national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism simultaneously. As already mentioned, the few studies that exist are characterized by confusing conceptualisations and operationalisations, and as a consequence the relationship between the constructs has not sufficiently been clarified. However, it is important to understand how the four concepts are related and to which extent national identity, patriotism and nationalism translate into economic preferences because this can considerably influence the success of a firm's marketing actions. For example, Balabanis et al. (2001) have discovered that the reasons for consumers' ethnocentric tendencies vary across nations. In some countries consumer ethnocentrism is influenced by patriotism whereas in others nationalism has a bigger impact. Thus, sometimes individuals seem to prefer domestic products out of pure love for the own nation and sometimes out of a feeling of superiority towards other countries. Companies need to be aware of these differences because they can have important implications for marketing and communication strategies. In line with this the first research question that should be answered within the scope of this paper reads as follows:

Research Question 1: How are national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism related to each other? What is the nature of these relationships (positive or negative)? Which constructs are antecedents and which are consequences of the respective others?

The next task of this thesis is to determine how national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism influence consumer behaviour. While several studies have examined the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on consumers' product choice (e.g. Shimp & Sharma 1987, Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2004), "*it is unlikely that economic concerns are the only motivator of consumer preferences for domestic vs foreign products*" (Verlegh 2007, p. 362). However, the relationship between the other three concepts and consumers' product perceptions has not yet been thoroughly investigated. Although Balabanis et al. (2007) have recently found that patriotism and nationalism have no impact on the willingness to buy foreign goods, it still requires

further examination on how the two constructs influence preferences for domestic products and how national identity affects consumers' product choices.

It is essential for marketers to understand how the four concepts influence consumers' evaluation of and willingness to buy domestic and foreign goods. As has already been noted, national identity and patriotism involve only in-group favouritism while nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism also include negative attitudes towards foreign nations. Thus, a feeling of attachment to the home country is not automatically connected with the rejection of other nations (Brewer 1999) and as a consequence it can be assumed that national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism are likely to have differing effects on consumers' preferences for home-made or imported products. Understanding these possible differences can be of great help for companies when designing their international marketing strategies. Hence, the second research question that should be answered is:

Research Question 2: How do national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism influence consumer behaviour? How are these four concepts related to consumers' evaluations and purchase intentions of domestic and foreign products?

1.2 Structure of the Thesis

Overall the thesis is divided into six chapters. Following this brief introduction chapter 2 presents a thorough literature review which starts with a section about intergroup behaviour in order to provide a basis for understanding the small but important differences between the four main concepts under consideration. Then consumer ethnocentrism, a construct which is very well established among scholars, is introduced. After that the various conceptualisations, measurement approaches and research findings of national identity, patriotism and nationalism are discussed in detail, thereby trying to clearly distinguish between the constructs and to structure and evaluate the various definitions and scales that exist in the field of marketing as well as in political and social science literature.

In chapter 3 the development of the hypotheses is described. Based on the literature review assumptions are generated about how the four concepts are related to each other and how they influence consumers' product evaluations and willingness to buy domestic versus foreign goods and specific research hypotheses are formulated.

Chapter 4 deals with the empirical study aimed at testing the hypotheses and answering the aforementioned research questions. First, the study's methodology is presented. The design of the measurement instrument, a self-administered questionnaire, is outlined and the data collection procedure as well as the characteristics of the final sample are discussed. In the next section the analysis of the data is presented, starting with the data screening process and then continuing with a description of the regression analyses performed in order to explore the relationship between the four constructs and their impact on consumer behaviour.

Chapter 5 provides a summary and the outcomes of the empirical study are presented and discussed in detail. Finally, chapter 6 completes this thesis with a conclusion. Implications for the practical applicability of the results in international marketing, limitations of the present study as well as suggestions for future research are considered. Figure 1 displays the structure of this thesis graphically.

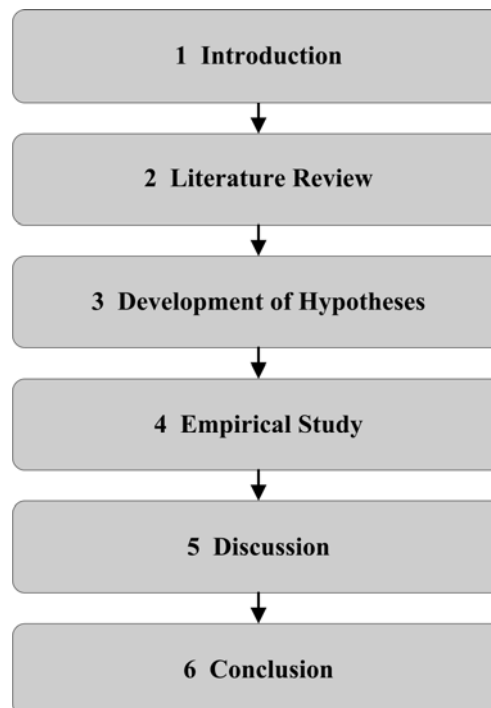


Figure 1: Structure of the Thesis

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

National identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism are all connected with the area of intergroup relations. In order to better understand the small but important differences between the four constructs, it is essential to first have a closer look at reasons for group identification and the mechanisms that underlie the distinction between in-group and out-group. Therefore the literature review starts with an introduction to the general topic of intergroup behaviour, which forms the basis for the central concepts that subsequently will be discussed in this thesis.

2.1 Intergroup Behaviour

Due to their gender, religion, political orientation or nationality people already belong to a variety of groups. However, whether a particular group membership actually leads to intergroup behaviour depends on the degree of identification of the individual with this group (Childers & Rao 1992). Social identity theory (Tajfel 1978, 1982) is one area of social psychology that examines the relationship of the individual with the group and tries to explain when and why people identify with and behave as part of a group.

2.1.1 Social Identity Theory

It is assumed in social identity theory that people's self-image consists of an individual and a group component, i.e. a personal and a so called social identity which is defined as *“that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his [or her] knowledge of his [or her] membership of a social group (or groups)”* (Tajfel 1978, p. 63). According to Ellemers et al. (1999) three related but separate components of social identity can be distinguished: a cognitive, an evaluative and an emotional aspect.

The cognitive aspect refers to the awareness that one belongs to a certain group. By means of social categorization people divide themselves and others into groups in order to organize and simplify the social environment and to determine their own place in

society (Tajfel 1978). The evaluative aspect has to do with the positive or negative value connotations associated with particular groups. Through social comparison people compare themselves with others so as to evaluate and distinguish their own group in a positive sense from other groups. Thereby they tend to emphasize the subjective similarities within and differences between groups longing for a more positive evaluation of their own group. Finally, the emotional aspect denotes a feeling of affective attachment to the group (Tajfel 1982). Thus, as Aberson et al. (2000) summarize, *“individuals define themselves in terms of their group membership and seek to maintain a positive identity through association with positively valued groups and through comparison with other groups”* (p. 157).

2.1.2 Reference Groups

In order to make such social comparisons with others, individuals use reference groups as a point of orientation to evaluate themselves (Moschis 1976). A reference group is *“a group of people that significantly influences an individual’s behavior”* (Bearden & Etzel 1982, p. 184) and can either be a member group, i.e. a group which one is a member of, or an aspiration group, i.e. a group to which one seeks to belong (Escalas & Bettman 2003). Consistent with social identity theory, reference groups can fulfil the following functions so as to influence people’s attitudes, values and behaviour: a normative function, which is the setting and enforcing of standards, and a comparative function, which refers to the above mentioned role of a reference group as an orientation point to compare oneself to others (Cocanougher & Bruce 1971). According to Bearden & Etzel (1982) three types of reference group influences can be distinguished. An informational influence develops when people seek information from assumed experts to make decisions. A value-expressive influence occurs when people act in a way that will improve their self-image and create the impression of attachment to a certain group, and finally a utilitarian influence makes people comply with group norms to obtain rewards or avoid punishment. For marketing purposes it is essential to understand these influences because consumers often choose products without objectively evaluating their pros and cons but rather based on what their reference group thinks about them (Moschis 1976).

According to Escalas & Bettman (2003) products and brands used by reference groups can get connected to an individual's self-concept as consumers create their self-image through selecting those products which signify their social identity and desired group affiliations. Patriotic consumers for example might possibly rather choose to buy domestic products because this is in line with their feeling of love towards the home country. However, people's self-concepts are not only influenced by the products they buy. In their paper Englis & Solomon (1997) explore the influence of negatively valued consumption choices on consumer behaviour. They differentiate between non-choices (products which are simply not bought) and so called anti-choices (products which are actively avoided) and state that these anti-choices are equally important because they define who we do not want to be. For instance, ethnocentric consumers might perhaps actively avoid foreign goods because they feel that this hurts the domestic economy and is not in line with their personal self-concept.

2.1.3 In-Group Love versus Out-Group Hate

As already mentioned above, in order to comprehend the differences between the constructs discussed in this thesis it is important to understand the distinctions between in-groups and out-groups. In-groups are defined as *"those groups with which the individual identifies him or herself"* while out-groups are groups *"with which he or she does not have a sense of belonging and which are considered as antithetical to the in-groups"* (Durvasula et al. 1997, p. 75). In the country context the domestic country is usually seen as the in-group whereas foreign countries represent the out-groups.

In literature it is often assumed that in-group favouritism and out-group discrimination go hand in hand. However, research has shown that favourable attitudes towards one's own group are not necessarily linked to hostility towards other groups (Brewer 1999). Duckitt & Mphuthing (1998) found that a connection between in-group identification and out-group negativity may only occur when intergroup relations involve competition and perceived threat. According to realistic conflict theory, threat and competition lead to negative attitudes towards out-groups which then in turn enhance in-group identification. In other words, individuals may be biased against certain out-groups because they feel that these out-groups threaten their interests or their way of life. In this context Doosje et al. (1995) have examined the effect of relative group status on

intergroup differentiation and argue that members of low status groups may see social comparison on status relevant dimensions as threatening and thus may use intergroup differentiation as a means of protecting their own group's image and hence their social identity.

Another explanation for the occurrence of out-group negativity stems from social identity theory itself. Social identity theory assumes that in-group bias is caused by a desire to see one's own group and thus oneself in a favourable light (Brown 2000). Individuals are motivated to distinguish their own group in a positive way from other groups by evaluating the in-group more positively (Mlicki & Ellemers 1996). Accordingly, intergroup discrimination is rather related to a preferential treatment of in-group members than to increased hostility towards out-group members, or stated differently *"in-group bias rests on the perception that one's own group is better, although the out-group is not necessarily depreciated"* (Brewer 1979, p. 322).

In-group favouritism and out-group prejudice are two phenomena which have to be clearly distinguished. Simple in-group identification or attachment to the in-group is independent of out-group discrimination (Brewer 1999). Furthermore, the occurrence of out-group negativity due to perceived threat or competition from the out-group to the in-group needs to be differentiated from plain in-group bias which is the tendency toward in-group favouring behaviour without the corresponding out-group dislike (Brown et al. 1986). These differentiations are of special importance for this thesis as they are exactly what makes up the small but important differences between consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, patriotism and nationalism.

2.2 Consumer Ethnocentrism

In contrast to national identity, patriotism and nationalism which are, as will be shown in this thesis, mainly characterized by overlapping meanings and a very inconsistent use of their different definitions and measurement scales, the conceptualisation and operationalisation of consumer ethnocentrism, the fourth concept under consideration, are relatively clear and well established among scholars. A closer look at the literature shows that consumer ethnocentrism is one of the most thoroughly investigated and best documented constructs in the field of marketing. A huge number of studies have already dealt with its various aspects (e.g. Netemeyer et al. 1991, Sharma et al. 1995, Supphellen & Rittenburg 2001, etc.) and an in-depth literature review exists (Shankarmahesh 2006). However, given the fact that the construct sometimes misleadingly has been seen as a synonym for consumer patriotism or nationalism or has been mixed up with one of these concepts (see for example Han 1988), it is important for this thesis to first give a short introduction to the theory and main research on consumer ethnocentrism and thereby clearly differentiate the construct from the other three concepts discussed later on.

2.2.1 The Concept of Consumer Ethnocentrism

2.2.1.1 A Definition of Ethnocentrism

The sociologist Sumner (1906) was the first who introduced the general concept of ethnocentrism in his publication ‘Folkways’, which studies the importance of morals, customs, manners and other beliefs among members of a group. He defines ethnocentrism as *“this view of things in which one’s own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it. [...] Each group nourishes its own pride and vanity, boasts itself superior, exalts its own divinities, and looks with contempt on outsiders”* (p. 13). Ethnocentric individuals differentiate between in-groups (groups with which they identify) and out-groups (groups that are dissimilar, weak and inferior). They tend to perceive their own group as better than

others and evaluate everything from their group's point of view. Similar things are blindly accepted while dissimilar items are rejected (Levine & Campbell 1972, Booth 1979). According to Murdock (1931) ethnocentrism is a global phenomenon which can be found in all kinds of social groups, i.e. families, religious groupings or nations. Ethnocentric tendencies among members of a group lead to an increase in group conformity, solidarity and loyalty and can, depending on the kind of social group, develop into family pride, religious prejudice or racial discrimination.

2.2.1.2 A Definition of Consumer Ethnocentrism

Based on this general sociological conceptualisation of ethnocentrism Shimp & Sharma (1987) developed the economic term consumer ethnocentrism as a special concept for the field of marketing. Basically consumer ethnocentrism represents consumers' tendencies to favour domestic over foreign goods and is defined as "*the beliefs held by [...] consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products*" (p. 280).

Just like ethnocentric people highly consumer ethnocentric individuals tend to divide the world into in-groups and out-groups. They differentiate between products from their home country which are favoured and products from foreign countries which are avoided (Shankarmahesh 2006). Ethnocentric consumers feel a moral obligation to buy domestic and are personally prejudiced against imports as this behaviour is seen as appropriate by the in-group. They usually evaluate domestic products more favourably even when there is no rational basis for that, i.e. when the foreign good is of better quality (Sharma et al. 1995). Purchasing imported products is perceived as wrong, inappropriate and immoral because, as they believe, it harms the domestic economy, increases unemployment and is unpatriotic (Shimp & Sharma 1987). It should be noted in this context that, although Shimp & Sharma (1987) have introduced consumer ethnocentrism as a concept that represents consumers' general bias against all imports, later research has shown that its predictive power of whether a consumer will actually buy domestic instead of foreign goods varies across product categories and might therefore be product category specific (Herche 1992, Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2004).

2.2.2 Measuring Consumer Ethnocentrism

The predominant measurement instrument used in the area of marketing to assess consumers' ethnocentric tendencies is the so called CETSCALE. The 17-item 'Consumer Ethnocentric Tendency Scale' (see Appendix A) was developed by Shimp & Sharma (1987) in order to measure consumer ethnocentrism in relation to the purchase of foreign or home-made products.

2.2.2.1 Development of the CETSCALE

The CETSCALE was originally created and validated in the United States. Based on the results of a preliminary study among American consumers, Shimp and Sharma (1987) developed 225 items and 7 dimensions of consumers' orientations toward foreign products.² However, after a judgemental panel screening and two purification studies 6 of the 7 dimensions were deleted because they did not satisfy psychometric requirements and the 17 consumer ethnocentrism items emerged as a uni-dimensional scale. Four separate studies were then used to test the reliability and validity of the final CETSCALE. The 'four-areas study' included respondents from Detroit (N=322), Denver (N=323), Los Angeles (N=315) and North and South Carolina (N=575) who were asked about their attitudes toward foreign-made products, their purchase intention as well as ownership of imported cars and, of course, their consumer ethnocentric tendencies. The 'Carolinas study' consisted of a sub-sample (N=417) of the respondents from North and South Carolina who were interviewed twice. The 'national consumer good study' (N=2,000+) assessed consumers' opinions toward products that have been at risk by foreign competition via telephone surveys followed by a mail questionnaire with psycho- and demographic questions and 10 CETSCALE items. Finally, the 'crafted-with-pride-study' was a test-retest survey conducted among 145 college students who had to fill in a questionnaire including the CETSCALE and, after a TV advertisement from the 'crafted with pride in U.S.A.'-campaign, were again asked about their ethnocentric tendencies and their attitudes and purchase intentions toward domestic versus foreign clothing. The results from all four studies strongly support the

² These 7 dimensions are (1) consumer ethnocentric tendencies, (2) price-value perceptions, (3) self-interest concerns, (4) reciprocity norms, (5) rationalization-of-choice, (6) restrictions-mentality and (7) freedom-of-choice views.

reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha \geq .94$) and validity of the CETSCALE as an accurate measure of consumers' ethnocentric tendencies.

2.2.2.2 Cross-National Validation of the CETSCALE

As already mentioned Shimp & Sharma's (1987) survey is limited to a solely American sample and can therefore give no evidence of the cross-cultural applicability of the CETSCALE. However, since then numerous other studies have replicated Shimp & Sharma's work and the CETSCALE has been extensively used and further validated across various cultures and countries.

Netemeyer et al. (1991), for instance, assessed the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE on a cross-national student sample which included respondents from the United States (N=71), France (N=70), West Germany (N=73) and Japan (N=76). Besides the 17-item CETSCALE the questionnaire also contained a section asking for respondents' attitudes towards their home country, towards purchasing foreign products in general as well as buying products from the other three countries in the study in particular. Their findings strongly support the CETSCALE's uni-dimensional factor structure suggested by Shimp & Sharma (1987) and provide evidence for the scale's reliability and validity across the four countries. Additionally, the CETSCALE so far has been successfully applied in a variety of countries such as Korea (Sharma et al. 1995), Russia (Durvasula et al. 1997), Turkey and the Czech Republic (Balabanis et al. 2001), Poland (Supphellen & Rittenburg 2001) as well as Russia and China (Klein et al. 2006).

2.2.3 Antecedents and Consequences of Consumer Ethnocentrism

A lot of studies have already dealt with a variety of different antecedents and moderators of consumer ethnocentrism because as Sharma et al. (1995) explain "*ethnocentric tendencies in consumers do not develop in isolation but rather are part of a constellation of social-psychological and demographic influences*" (p. 27). In their work they place consumer ethnocentrism in a framework of related constructs such as conservatism, cultural openness and patriotism as well as moderating factors like

perceived economic threat and product necessity. Balabanis et al. (2001) subsequently investigate in detail the impact of nationalism, patriotism and internationalism as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism in their study among Turkish and Czech consumers and show that nationalism and patriotism do not have the same influence on ethnocentric tendencies across the two countries. Shankarmahesh (2006) finally presents a detailed literature review of the ample research results on consumer ethnocentrism's consequences as well as preceding constructs, dividing them into socio-psychological, economic, political and demographic antecedents. Figure 2 shows his classification in detail and at the same time demonstrates the complexity of consumer ethnocentrism research.

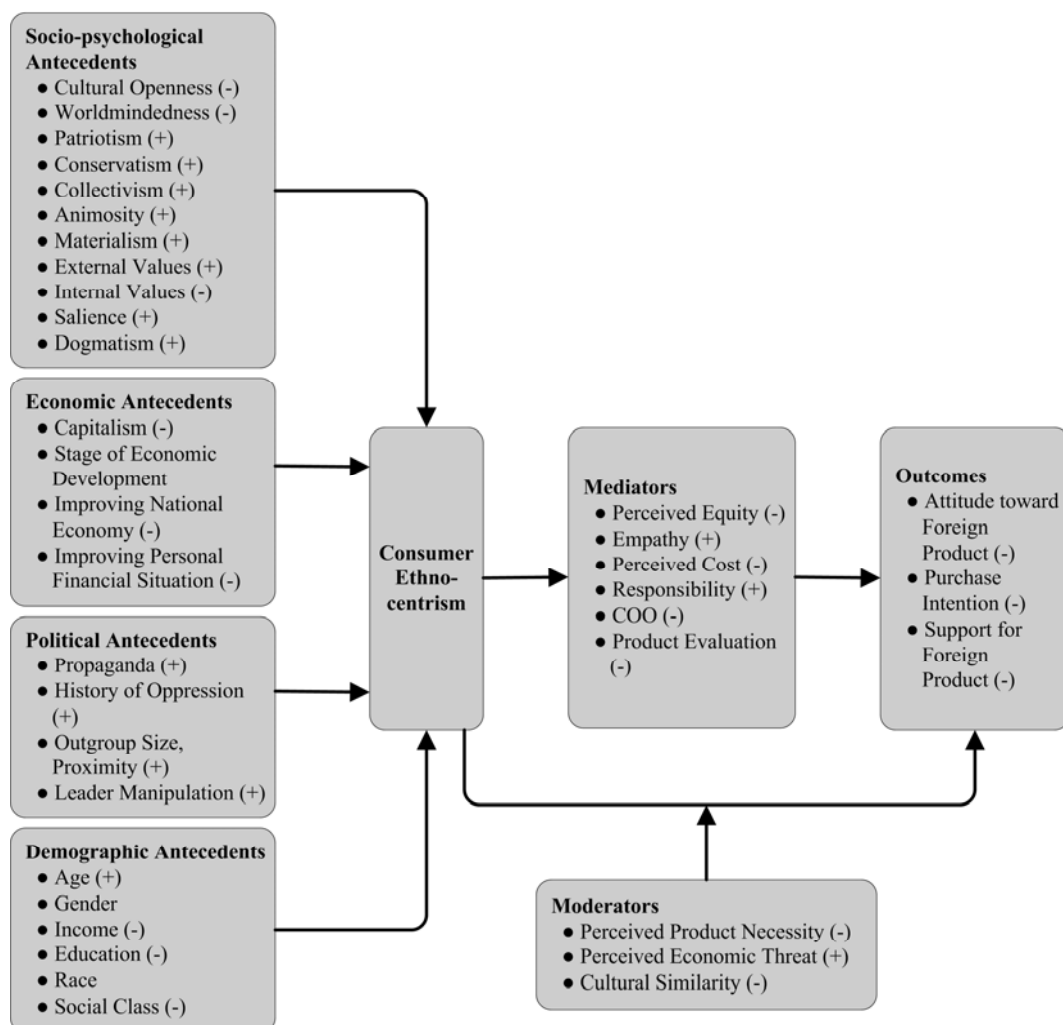


Figure 2: Antecedents and Consequences of Consumer Ethnocentrism
(Shankarmahesh 2006, p. 161)

The impact of patriotism and nationalism as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism is discussed in more detail in chapter 2.4.3. Regarding the consequences of the concept it has been noted in the literature that consumer ethnocentrism is in general positively correlated with attitudes toward domestic products and negatively correlated with attitudes toward foreign-made goods (e.g. Netemeyer et al. 1991, Verlegh 2007). However, it should be mentioned that this relationship was not consistent across all studies. Shimp & Sharma (1987) discovered that the relationship with attitudes towards domestic goods was much stronger than the one with foreign alternatives. This was further confirmed by Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004), who found that consumer ethnocentrism was mostly unrelated with negative preferences for foreign-made products and thus concluded that the construct “*is a more consistent predictor of preferences for domestic products [...] rather than for foreign products*” (p. 88).

Concerning purchase intentions Shimp & Sharma (1987) have demonstrated that consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to purchase intentions of domestic cars and negatively related to purchase intentions of foreign cars. Sharma et al. (1995) have found that the less necessary and the more threatening a product is perceived the greater the impact is that consumer ethnocentrism has on attitudes toward importing it into the country. Thus, the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes toward importing products is moderated by the perceived necessity of the imported item and the perceived degree of personal and economic threat imposed by the foreign good.

Two recent studies address a topic of special interest to the research on consumer ethnocentrism. In Western countries where high-quality domestic alternatives typically are available consumer ethnocentrism proved to be in general positively related to the evaluation of domestic products and negatively related to the evaluation of foreign goods (e.g. Shimp & Sharma 1987, Netemeyer et al. 1991). However, the question emerges whether the construct is equally applicable to a context in which foreign brands are commonly preferred because of their superior quality as it is the case in most developing countries. Supphellen & Rittenburg (2001) examine the dilemma ethnocentric consumers are facing in such a situation. On the one hand they tend to favour domestic products but at the same time they also want to conform to the in-group's preferential treatment of imports. The authors tested the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the evaluations of one domestic and two foreign gas station brands in Poland (N=218), a country where consumers traditionally tend to perceive foreign

products as superior. Their findings suggest that when imported goods are preferred consumer ethnocentrism only leads to a more positive perception of the domestic alternative but has little or no effect on the attitudes towards the foreign brand. Klein et al. (2006) confirmed this outcome in their replication of Supphellen & Rittenburg's (2001) study among respondents from Russia and China. At first sight these results seem to be different from the general effects observed in 'Western' economies. However, at a closer look these outcomes are in line with Balabanis & Diamantopoulos's (2004) findings observed in the U.K. that consumer ethnocentrism is mostly unrelated with preferences for foreign-made products.

2.3 National Identity

As has been explained earlier in this thesis, people divide themselves and others into groups in order to define who they are. One such way to categorise the social environment can be the nationality (Tajfel 1978) and this is where national identity, patriotism and nationalism come into play. All three constructs refer to an individual's attitudes towards the domestic country (the in-group) and foreign countries (out-groups).

Research on national identity is characterized by a huge inconsistency regarding the conceptualisation and operationalisation of the concept. Definitions of national identity are as manifold as the scales used to measure this construct, in political and social science as well as in the field of marketing. Usually authors of one discipline are unfamiliar with or do not take into account findings from another, and so far no known work has examined and compared the various definitions and measurement instruments which exist in the literature.

2.3.1 The Concept of National Identity

2.3.1.1 Definitions of National Identity in Political and Social Science

As noted in the first chapter of this literature review, social identity refers to the group component of an individual's self-image which derives from the awareness of membership in a social group (Tajfel 1978). In case of national identity the relevant social group is the nation. According to Smith (1991) a nation can be described by the following criteria: a common territory, historic myths and memories, a common language and culture, the same legal rights and duties for all citizens and an integrated and powerful economy. Haller (1996) defines the nation simply as a political community with which citizens can identify. The important aspect here which establishes the connection with the concept of national identity is not the formal membership, i.e. the possession of the citizenship, but rather a sense of national

affiliation towards this community, a feeling of common ground and solidarity which ties people together.

National identity is more than just a positive assessment of the country that one formally belongs to. The concept rather involves a feeling of identification with and attachment to this nation which needs to be of central importance to the self-concept of the individual (Blank & Schmidt 2003). This is consistent with social identity theory stating that the nation can simply be seen as a group of people who feel that they are a nation (Tajfel 1978). Holding a certain nationality is not a sufficient precondition for the development of a national identity. What is rather essential is the emotional and evaluative significance assigned to the feeling of belonging to the home country. It is important to have the willingness to internalize the national culture and to identify with and positively value the distinctive features of one's country that are reflected in various aspects of daily life, such as cultural beliefs and symbols or the language (Blank 2003, Blank & Schmidt 2003).

Table 1 provides a summary of definitions of national identity from selected publications of political and social science literature over time.

Authors	Definition of National Identity
Feather (1981)	<i>"...attitudes toward a nation that have emotional significance, that involve some concept of the nation as an entity..."</i> (p. 1017)
Haller (1996)	<i>"...eine bewusste, intellektuell-geistig, wertend und emotional-affektiv begründete Bejahung der Zugehörigkeit zu einem politischen Gemeinwesen."</i> (p. 42) ³
Blank (2003)	<i>"...a general nation-approving behavioral attitude."</i> (p. 263)
Blank & Schmidt (2003)	<i>"...the basically positive subjectively important emotional bond with the nation."</i> (p. 290)

Table 1: Definitions of National Identity in Political and Social Science

All these statements are at first sight different in their wording but on closer inspection more or less similar in their meaning. They all see national identity as being more than just some sort of vaguely described sympathy for the home country but rather as a

³ Translation provided by the author: *"...a conscious, intellectual-mental, evaluating as well as emotionally-affectively justified affirmation of the affiliation to a political community."*

feeling of identification with and affiliation to the own nation which is of personal relevance to the individual.

According to Blank & Schmidt (2003) national identity can occur in a positive as well as in a negative form. It can, so to speak, range from a negative national identity, in the sense of an anti-identification with or denial of the home country, over a value free indifferent middle position, to a positive national identity, which is in line with the above discussed definition of the concept. Whenever the term ‘national identity’ is used in this thesis, it refers to the positive form of national identity.

2.3.1.2 Definitions of National Identity in Marketing

Conceptualisations of national identity specifically designed for the field of marketing are relatively limited. The majority of authors (e.g. Cui & Adams 2002, Phau & Chan 2003) usually refer to a definition given by Keillor et al. (1996), who see national identity as “*the set of meanings owned by a given culture that sets it apart from other cultures*” (p. 58). In line with their research focus on the determination of the specific elements which characterise a certain country, they interpret national identity as a multidimensional construct consisting of a range of social, religious, cultural and historical elements whose individual combination makes a nation unique.

Authors	Definition of National Identity
Keillor et al. (1996)	“...the set of meanings owned by a given culture that sets it apart from other cultures.” (p. 58)
Keillor & Hult (1999)	“...a ‘sense’ of culture. [...] the extent to which a given culture recognizes and identifies with its unique characteristics.” (p. 67)
Cui & Adams (2002)	“...the extent to which a given culture recognises and identifies with a set of focal elements [...] that set it apart from other cultures...” (p. 638)
Thelen & Honeycutt (2004)	“...how societies relate to their own unique characteristics...” (p. 59)
Verlegh (2007)	“...reflects the desire for a positive national identity, created by the need for a positive evaluation of the self.” (p. 367)

Table 2: Definitions of National Identity in Marketing

Table 2 provides an overall summary of definitions of national identity from selected publications in marketing. As can be seen, most definitions are in line with Keillor et al.'s (1996) statement seeing national identity simply as a bunch of features that characterise a country. However, one of these approaches is different. Verlegh (2007) bases his conceptualisation of national identification not on Keillor et al. (1996) but on social identity theory. As noted earlier, social identity refers to the group component of an individual's self-concept which derives from his or her membership in a social group (Tajfel 1978). In case of national identity the own nation represents the corresponding in-group and is connected with a specific social identity. In order to keep that identity positive people tend to evaluate their home country and subsequently its products more favourably. Thus, national identification is rooted in an individual's need to enhance group- and consequently self-esteem and forms a socio-psychological base for home country bias (Verlegh 2001, 2007).

Overall one can say that national identity involves more than just some characteristics that describe a country. Rather it represents identification with the home country that plays an important role for individuals as it is based on a desire for a positive social identity. Thus, in line with Verlegh (2001, 2007) and the definitions found in political and social science literature, national identity is defined in this thesis as

the extent to which individuals identify with and have a positive feeling of affiliation to their own nation that is subjectively important to their self-concept.

2.3.1.3 The Conceptual Domain of National Identity

A large part of research on national identity deals with the issue which elements make up the national identity of a certain country (see Dinnie 2002 for a detailed overview of the countless dimensions of national identity that are proposed by the literature). Haller (1996) for example evaluated the national identity of Austrians (N=1,007) and found that the typical Austrian should possess the Austrian citizenship, respect the Austrian law, speak German and most of all should see oneself as an Austrian, which is in line with the assumptions made above that elements such as language, historical beliefs and myths can be important parts of national identity.

In marketing literature, Keillor et al. (1996) conducted a three country study in the United States, Japan and Sweden and developed a framework with four different dimensions of national identity: (1) belief system, i.e. the importance of religious beliefs in the society, (2) national heritage, i.e. the importance of historic events and figures, (3) cultural homogeneity, i.e. the uniqueness of national heritage, and finally (4) consumer ethnocentrism (see Figure 3).

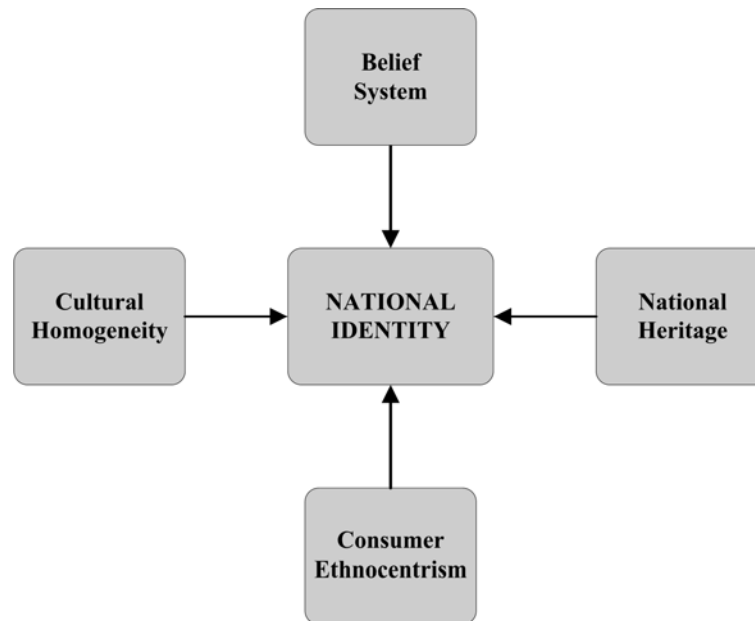


Figure 3: Dimensions of National Identity as defined by Keillor et al. (1996)
(adapted from Keillor & Hult 1999, p. 68)

Although the NATID framework might for example present a quite useful segmentation tool for international marketing, the choice of the four dimensions is somewhat problematic. As noted above, Keillor et al. (1996) see consumer ethnocentrism as one element of national identity. However, research (e.g. Verlegh 2007) has shown that consumer ethnocentrism is not a part of national identity but rather a separate construct influencing consumer behaviour. Consumer ethnocentrism and national identity represent two different reasons for home country bias and need to be conceptually and empirically distinguished.

Verlegh (2001, 2007) argues in this context that national identity represents a socio-psychological motive for home country bias whereas consumer ethnocentrism provides an economic reason for favouring the own nation. In line with social identity theory the author states that countries can be seen as social groups associated with a certain

national identity. Driven by the need for maintaining a positive self-concept individuals tend to evaluate their own nation (i.e. the in-group) more favourably in order to keep that national identity positive. Thus, the home country bias caused by national identification is a result of the desire for a positive social identity and is complementary to the effect of consumer ethnocentrism. As has been explained earlier, consumer ethnocentrism represents the belief that it is inappropriate to buy foreign products because this might hurt the domestic economy (Shimp & Sharma 1987). Hence, consumer ethnocentrism primarily represents an economic motive for favouring the home country based on the desire to protect the own economy whereas national identity stands for the socio-psychological motive for a preferential treatment of the own nation based on the desire to maintain a positive social identity (Verlegh 2001, 2007).

2.3.2 Measuring National Identity

2.3.2.1 National Identity Measures in Political and Social Science

In political and social science literature there appears to be a deep disagreement about which scale should be used in order to best capture a citizen's national identity. Almost every author seems to create his or her own measurement instrument and hardly anyone seems to take into consideration the findings of other scholars. Thus, it is quite difficult to get a general idea about which scales are methodological sound. Feather (1981) for example measures national identification in his study in the newly independent nation of Papua New Guinea by using only one single item, namely "*In general, how much would you say being a Papua New Guinean means to you? How much do you care about being a Papua New Guinean?*" (p. 1020). Billiet et al.'s (2003) national identity scale, on the other hand, includes questions about political entities and state reforms in Belgium and thus goes into a complete different direction in respect of content. Blank (2003) and Blank & Schmidt (2003) even use 3 items from the patriotism scale developed by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989) and thus actually capture patriotism not national identity.

Haller (1996) examines the national identity of Austrians by using data from a survey developed by the International Social Survey Programme, an annual programme of multi-national surveys on important social science topics (ISSP 2006). Their quite

thorough measurement instrument includes general questions about national identification, patriotism and national pride as well as specific questions about immigration and demographics (ISSP 2007) and has also been used in several other studies (e.g. Hjerm 1998, Dowley & Silver 2000, Evans & Kelley 2002). Although the scale is well tested and adapted to a variety of national settings, it is way too long and detailed as that it would be applicable to the present study here.

Lilli & Diehl (1999) recognized the measurement chaos in the literature and tried to develop a new measure of national identity more in line with social identity theory. Their final 20-item scale includes five factors representing (1) in-group membership, (2) one's image of the in-group, (3) the view others have of this group, (4) the extent to which being part of the nation contributes to one's self-concept and (5) the comparison to relevant out-groups. The authors tested their scale in two empirical studies whereby factor analyses confirmed the five factor structure and internal consistency reliability was established. At first sight this might sound like quite a good measure of national identity. However, although the authors stated that about 200 German students participated in their two studies, a closer look at the paper revealed that only 96 of all subjects were included in the analysis of the first empirical study. In the second study only 49 questionnaires were used *"because of certain confusing problems with item recordings [the authors] have not resolved until now"* (p. 4). Therefore it is questionable whether the results will hold in further tests with larger samples. Moreover, as some items⁴ in their wording are certainly very close to the concept of nationalism, which quite contrarily to the construct of national identity involves a feeling of out-group dislike, the content validity of the scale can be put into question and further tests regarding the scale's validity might be necessary.

A very interesting measurement instrument which is also based on social identity theory has been developed by Brown et al. (1986). The authors investigated group identification among co-workers in a British paper factory (N=177). For this purpose they developed a 10-item group identification scale (see Appendix B) consisting of five positively and five negatively formulated items which all together represent the three components of social identity mentioned earlier in this literature review: (1) awareness of belonging to the group (item 2 and 5), (2) group evaluation (item 1, 6, 7 and 10) and (3) a feeling of affective attachment to the group (item 3, 4, 8 and 9). This scale has not

⁴ E.g. *"The nation I belong to is superior to other nations in many respects."* (Lilli & Diehl 1999, p. 9)

only been widely used to assess group identification (e.g. Doosje et al. 1995, Duckitt & Mphuthing 1998) but has also been successfully applied as a measure of national identification, for example by Doosje et al. (1998) or by Mlicki & Ellemers (1996), who examined the national and European identification of Polish and Dutch students.

2.3.2.2 National Identity Measures in Marketing

Probably the most widely used national identity measure in the field of marketing is the so called NATID scale. This 17-item scale was developed by Keillor et al. (1996) in order to determine the overall strength as well as the specific components of a country's national identity. By means of personal interviews with international students, academics, business professionals and consumers the researchers created a pool of 97 items which were then through expert screening subsequently reduced to 53 items. Eventually, these questions were together with the 17-item CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma 1987) administered to a student sample (N=167) in the United States. Confirmatory factor analysis revealed an overall set of 17 remaining items representing the aforementioned four distinct dimensions of national identity: belief system (5 items), national heritage (3 items), cultural homogeneity (4 items), and finally consumer ethnocentrism (5 items). Additional tests of the scale with samples from Japan (N=247) and Sweden (N=129) supported and validated the final 17-item version of the NATID scale (Keillor et al. 1996). Keillor & Hult (1999) compared this three country analysis with two more samples, one from Mexico (N=183) and one from Hong Kong (N=234), and Phau & Chan (2003) additionally tested the NATID framework in an Asian context.⁵ Thereby both papers further established the scale's reliability and validity.

However, there also exists some criticism regarding Keillor et al.'s (1996) work. Cui & Adams (2002) for example examined the applicability of the NATID scale to a different cultural setting, to Yemen. Their analysis with 208 respondents revealed that the original measure was not appropriate for the Yemeni data. Therefore they tested two new slightly modified models and the results showed that both had a much better overall fit than the first version. A further test of the NATID framework in Russia (Thelen & Honeycutt 2004) also showed the limited suitability of the scale to different

⁵ Phau & Chan (2003) collected data from 4 Asian countries, i.e. South Korea (N=184), Thailand (N=126), Taiwan (N=124) and Singapore (N=131), and subsequently compared these results with the Japanese and Hong Kong samples from Keillor & Hult (1999).

cultural contexts. Like Cui & Adams (2002) the authors needed to make adaptations in the original scale in order to improve its applicability to the Russian context.

Considering all the modifications which were necessary in order to adjust the NATID framework to specific cultural settings (see Appendix C for an overview) it is questionable whether the measurement instrument is really generally applicable across countries. Moreover, the content validity of the scale should be scrutinized. As has already been discussed earlier in this thesis, Keillor et al. (1996) claim that consumer ethnocentrism is one dimension of national identity but research (e.g. Verlegh 2001, 2007) has shown that consumer ethnocentrism rather is a different concept and not a part of national identity. Consumer ethnocentrism symbolizes an economic reason for favouring the own nation which is rooted in the desire to protect the domestic economy while national identity represents a socio-psychological motivation for home country bias driven by a desire to maintain a positive social identity. Thus, the two constructs need to be clearly differentiated, conceptually as well as empirically.

One objective of this thesis is to put national identity into a framework with related concepts. A very interesting scale which is probably most suitable to achieve this goal can be found in Verlegh (2001), who measures the overall level of national identification among consumers in his two studies on country of origin in the Netherlands by using a short 5-item scale (see Appendix D). This measurement instrument is based on the aforementioned group identification scale by Brown et al. (1986) which has been adapted to the country context. Verlegh (2007) used a 4-item version of this scale in order to assess the impact of national identification on consumers' willingness to buy domestic versus foreign products. His results confirm the suitability of this short multi-item scale as a reliable and valid national identification measure for international marketing.

2.3.3 Antecedents and Consequences of National Identity

Blank (2003) was the first author who put national identity into a framework with related antecedents and consequences, among them also patriotism and nationalism. Based on data from the first wave of a panel study on former East (N=337) and West (N=883) Germans' national identity he tried to understand why individuals identify with

their nation. Figure 4 shows the model which he developed in combination with the relationships he assumed between the concepts.

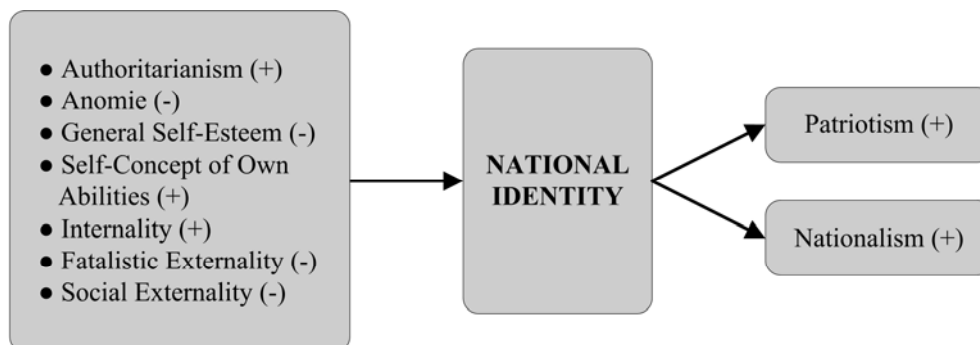


Figure 4: Antecedents and Consequences of National Identity as predicted by Blank (2003)⁶
(adapted from Blank 2003, p. 266)

Blank (2003) discovered that from the various constructs which he investigated especially authoritarianism showed a significant positive relationship with national identification. Anomie, general self-esteem and the self-concept of one's own abilities were only marginally important predictors of the concept. The negative relationship between social externalities and national identity was also confirmed but the other antecedents showed no influence at all on national identity.

Blank (2003) is also one of the few authors who examine national identity in combination with patriotism and nationalism. He assumes that the latter two concepts are consequences of national identity, thus claiming that the development of a national identity foregoes the development of patriotism and nationalism. In his paper national identity is defined as “*a general nation-approving behavioral attitude*” (p. 263) which is important to the self-concept of an individual. Patriotism and nationalism are also seen as such nation-related constructs but according to Blank (2003) they describe more specific attitudes and behaviours towards nations. Nationalism is characterised by a feeling of national superiority and dominance while patriots are more moderate and do not idealize the own country. Hence, “*national identity is the more general concept, whereas nationalism and patriotism describe more specific forms of support of a nation*” (Blank 2003, p. 262 f).

⁶ +/- indicates whether a positive or negative relationship has been expected between the constructs.

Blank's (2003) results support the assumption that patriotism and nationalism are consequences of national identity as both concepts increase with a growing level of national identity, especially in West Germany. Blank & Schmidt (2003) confirm these outcomes and furthermore investigate how national identity, nationalism and patriotism are linked with attitudes towards minorities. Their data from the third wave of a panel study among East (N=175) and West (N=396) Germans show that national identity is linked with tolerance towards others and that identification with the nation does not directly lead to the rejection of foreigners or minorities.

Billiet et al. (2003) analyse bipolar national identity by contrasting citizens who exclusively identify with the Belgian nation with those who exclusively identify with a subnation (either Flemish or Walloon). They use data from the 1995 Belgium general election survey (2,099 Flemings and 1,258 Walloons) and their findings also support the hypothesis that national identity and attitudes towards foreigners are not directly related as no connection between these two variables was found.

Verlegh (2001) examines the influence of national identification on country image and product evaluation in the Netherlands by using four product categories from three countries.⁷ He found that consumers' perceptions of domestic and foreign goods are not only influenced by country of origin effects but also by their level of national identity. An individual's willingness to buy domestic products increases with his or her level of national identity whereas the willingness to buy foreign goods decreases. Furthermore, in case of food products there also exists a positive correlation between national identification and positive attitudes towards domestically manufactured products. This supports the viewpoint of social identity theory stating that home country (in-group) bias is rather a result of in-group favouritism than of out-group rejection.

Verlegh (2007) compares the Dutch results (N=186) to data from a U.S. sample (N=103) where different product categories and countries are used⁸ and perceived quality is added as an additional variable. He shows that national identification is positively related with the perceived quality of as well as with consumers' preference for domestic products but that no significant relationship can be found with perceived

⁷ Verlegh (2001) includes two food (tomatoes, apples) and two technology-based (CD players, refrigerators) product categories from three different countries (The Netherlands, France, Germany) in his analysis.

⁸ In the U.S. sample Verlegh (2007) compares consumers' product perceptions of cars from the United States with perceptions of cars from Japan.

quality of foreign goods. Thus, in line with social identity theory national identity is strongly related to the evaluation of domestic products but shows no relationship with the evaluation of foreign goods.

2.4 Patriotism and Nationalism

Like national identity which has been extensively discussed in the previous chapter patriotism and nationalism are concepts that typically refer to “*one’s general attitudes towards his/her country*” (Balabanis et al. 2001, p. 158). Although these constructs are relatively closely related, hardly any paper can be found that deals with all three concepts simultaneously. As a result national identity, patriotism and nationalism are frequently defined in a similar way or used interchangeably in the literature. For instance, Balabanis et al. (2007) refer to patriotism and nationalism as so called “*national identity constructs*” (p. 328). However, the little research that actually exists has shown that the three constructs need to be conceptually and empirically distinguished (e.g. Blank 2003, Blank & Schmidt 2003). Thus, the purpose of this chapter is now to present a detailed literature review of patriotism and nationalism in order to structure the various definitions and scales proposed by academics and to clearly differentiate the two concepts from national identity.

2.4.1 The Concepts of Patriotism and Nationalism

2.4.1.1 Definitions of Patriotism in Political and Social Science

Patriotism mainly has been under examination in the field of political and social science and therefore almost all definitions appear in this area of study. Explanations of patriotism go a long way back in history. Sumner (1906) for example defines the concept simply as “*loyalty to the civic group to which one belongs by birth or other group bond*” (p. 15). In the 1940s and 1950s as a consequence of World War II patriotism was commonly associated with very negative meanings and was almost always used interchangeably with nationalism (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989).

Probably the most influential work in this context is Adorno et al.’s (1950) study ‘The Authoritarian Personality’, which investigates the rise of Nazi-Germany. Their paper is of special importance for this thesis as it is the first analysis that really takes a multidimensional approach towards explaining and differentiating patriotism and

nationalism. The authors distinguish between what they call ‘healthy patriotism’ which is defined as “*love of country*” (p. 107) and pseudo-patriotism which is close to definitions of nationalism found in the most recent literature. This separation is further confirmed by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989) and Feshbach (1990), who both distinguish between patriotism as a positive affection toward one’s own nation on the one hand and nationalism on the other. Table 3 presents an overview about selected definitions of patriotism which can be found in political and social science literature.

Authors	Definition of Patriotism
Sumner (1906)	“...loyalty to the civic group to which one belongs by birth or other group bond.” (p. 15)
Adorno et al. (1950)	“...love of country.” (p. 107)
Terhune (1964)	“...love of country...” (p. 258)
Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)	“...one’s feelings toward one’s country [...] the degree of love for and pride in one’s nation...” (p. 271)
Feshbach (1990)	“...a positive emotional relationship toward one’s nation...” (p. 191)
Druckman (1994)	“...commitment – a readiness to sacrifice for the nation...” (p. 47 f)
Karasawa (2002)	“...love of the homeland...” (p. 645)

Table 3: Definitions of Patriotism in Political and Social Science

As can be seen patriotism usually refers to a sense of attachment to or love of one’s nation. This at first sight seems to be very close to the definition of national identity given in the previous chapter. However, patriotism is more than just a positive sentiment towards the home country which is of personal relevance to the individual. Patriots do not simply identify with their nation. They rather experience a feeling of “*love for and pride in one’s nation*” (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989, p. 271) and are willing to give everything for it (Druckman 1994). Still, this does not mean that patriots idealize their native country. Patriotism goes hand in hand with critical support for the nation and its democratic principles which can be withdrawn if its objectives or actions become destructive or inhumane. Furthermore, patriots are tolerant towards out-groups and minorities (Blank 2003, Blank & Schmidt 2003).

2.4.1.2 Definitions of Nationalism in Political and Social Science

Nationalism needs to be clearly distinguished from patriotism because “*intense loyalty to one nation does not necessarily have to lead to hostility toward another*” (Druckman 1994, p. 60). As in the case of patriotism most definitions for nationalism can be found in political and social science literature. One of the earliest expressions of this concept was given by Adorno et al. (1950), who characterise the so called ‘pseudo-patriotism’ as “*blind attachment to certain national cultural values, uncritical conformity with the prevailing group ways, and rejection of other nations as outgroups*” (p. 107), thereby clearly separating the term from ‘healthy’ patriotism. Kosterman & Feshbach (1989) as well as Feshbach (1990) describe nationalism (which can be compared to Adorno et al.’s (1950) pseudo-patriotism) as a perception of national superiority and dominance over other countries. In Table 4 a summary of definitions of nationalism from political and social science literature can be found.

Authors	Definition of Nationalism
Adorno et al. (1950)	“... <i>blind attachment to certain national cultural values, uncritical conformity with the prevailing group ways, and rejection of other nations as outgroups.</i> ” (p. 107)
Terhune (1964)	“... <i>a motivation toward gaining or exerting power or potency by one’s nation.</i> ” (p. 257)
Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)	“... <i>a perception of national superiority and an orientation towards national dominance.</i> ” (p. 271)
Feshbach (1990)	“... <i>attitudes of or needs for superiority and power over other national groups.</i> ” (p. 191)
Druckman (1994)	“... <i>commitment plus exclusion of others, a readiness to sacrifice bolstered by hostility towards others.</i> ” (p. 48)
Karasawa (2002)	“... <i>belief in superiority over other nations...</i> ” (p. 645)
Blank (2003)	“... <i>comprises the conviction of one’s own national superiority and the generalized positive judgement of one’s own nation.</i> ” (p. 262)

Table 4: Definitions of Nationalism in Political and Social Science

All these expressions have in common that they contain some sort of comparison with foreign countries. However, in contrast to the more moderate patriotism, nationalism is associated with dominance and power (Terhune 1964). The own country is perceived as better and superior in comparison to foreign nations and is evaluated in a general

positive way. The state and political authorities are uncritically accepted. This idealisation of the nation often goes hand in hand with a refusal to discuss or even a denial of negative aspects of a nation's history and with the degradation of minorities and foreigners (Blank 2003, Blank & Schmidt 2003).

This description of nationalism as a “*perception of national superiority and an orientation towards national dominance*” (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989, p. 271) needs to be clearly separated from patriotism which does not include any considerations of out-groups. As Balabanis et al. (2001) have explained “*favourable attitudes towards one's country are not necessarily associated with negative ones towards other countries*” (p. 160). Patriotism represents a positive feeling of love for and pride in the own nation without a lack of sympathy for other countries, which goes beyond the simple sentiment of identification found in national identity, whereas nationalism combines this love for the home country with a negative view of other nations.

2.4.1.3 Definitions of Patriotism and Nationalism in Marketing

In marketing the definitions from the field of political and social science are usually adopted (e.g. Balabanis et al. 2001, Lee et al. 2003) seeing patriotism as love of country and nationalism as this love of country connected with hostility towards other nations (see Table 5 for an overview).

Authors	Definition of Patriotism	Definition of Nationalism
Sharma et al. (1995)	“...love for or devotion to one's country.” (p. 28)	-
Rawwas et al. (1996)	-	“...a sentiment of supreme consumer loyalty towards a nation-state, having significant effects on attitudes and purchase intentions.” (p. 21)
Balabanis et al. (2001)	“...strong feelings of attachment and loyalty to one's own country without the corresponding hostility towards other nations.” (p. 160)	“...views that one's country is superior and should be dominant...” (p. 160)
Lee et al. (2003)	“...the degree of love for and pride in one's nation...” (p. 492)	“...the perception of national superiority and an orientation towards national dominance...” (p. 492)

Table 5: Definitions of Patriotism and Nationalism in Marketing

Explanations of a specific consumer patriotism or consumer nationalism are hardly ever found in the literature. One of the few authors dealing with the term consumer patriotism is Han (1988), who describes the concept as “*consumers’ emotions toward domestic products and against foreign products*” (p. 26). Consumer nationalism is in general simply defined as a tendency of consumers to prefer domestic over foreign goods (e.g. Rawwas et al. 1996, Karasawa 2002). The problem with these explanation approaches is that they are very close to the concept of consumer ethnocentrism which has already been discussed in chapter 2.2. Rawwas et al. (1996) for example state that nationalistic consumers “*perceive that purchasing imported products is wrong because it hurts the domestic economy, causes loss of jobs and is unpatriotic*” (p. 20), which is more or less literally the definition of consumer ethnocentrism given by Shimp & Sharma (1987).

A comparable construct is the so called economic nationalism which is defined as “*the adoption of an “us first,” in-group versus out-group distinction relating to “our companies,” “our products,” “our jobs,” and “our workers”*” (Baughn & Yaprak 1996, p. 772). It is associated with trade protectionism, restrictions on foreign investment or on the immigration of foreign workers, discrimination against foreign products and firms etc. As the authors explain, economic nationalists use the belief that their own personal well-being is secured through the success of domestic companies as a justification for support of domestic firms and protection against foreign companies (Baughn & Yaprak 1996).

2.4.1.4 The Conceptual Domain of Patriotism and Nationalism

There are two recent studies which differentiate between more national attitudes than simply patriotism and nationalism. Schatz et al. (1999) distinguish between blind patriotism (“*attachment to country characterized by unquestioning positive evaluation, staunch allegiance, and intolerance of criticism*” (p. 151)), constructive patriotism (“*an attachment to country characterized by support for questioning and criticism of current group practices that are intended to result in positive change*” (p. 151)) and nationalism. In two studies the authors explored the theoretical distinction between these concepts by using two samples ($N_1=291$, $N_2=253$) of undergraduate U.S. students. 12 items measuring blind patriotism and 7 items measuring constructive patriotism were administered to the participants, and factor analyses from both studies supported the

hypothesis that blind and constructive patriotism represent two different constructs which can be conceptually and empirically distinguished.

Dekker et al. (2003) on the other hand use a different approach. They have realized that the *“existing nationalism literature is a conceptual labyrinth characterized by questionable instruments, a lack of valid empirical data, and poor explanatory power”* (p. 345). As the aim of their paper is to develop a better terminology of nationalism and to discover its main determinants, they present a range of six different positive national attitudes that form a cumulative hierarchy: (1) national feeling (*“feeling of belonging to one’s own people and country”*), (2) national liking (*“liking one’s people and country”*), (3) national pride (*“being proud of one’s people and country”*), (4) national preference (*“preferring one’s people and country over others”*), (5) national superiority (*“feeling that one’s people and country are superior to others”*) and, finally, (6) nationalism which is defined as *“feeling a sense of belonging to a particular “nation” with a common origin, wanting to keep that “nation” as pure as possible, and desiring to establish and/or maintain a separate and independent state for that particular “nation””* (Dekker et al. 2003, p. 347). The authors tested this framework with samples from the Netherlands (N=849), Slovakia (N=635) and the Basque Autonomous Community of Spain (N=774) and findings from all three countries strongly support the assumption that the six positive national attitudes can be empirically distinguished and form a cumulative hierarchy.

Furthermore Dekker et al. (2003) explain that national attitudes can also occur in a negative form. Negative national attitudes are just like the positive ones ordered hierarchically and range from national alienation (*“not feeling comfortable being among one’s people in general and not feeling at home in one’s country”*) over national shame (*“being ashamed of one’s people and country”*) and national disgust (*“being disgusted with one’s people and country”*) to national hate (*“hating one’s people and country”*) (p. 347). Additionally, the authors state that their cumulative hierarchy cannot only be applied to a certain nation but can also be extended to regional and international attitudes, for example to the European Union. However, as this thesis exclusively focuses on positive attitudes towards nations the various other attitudinal differentiations proposed by Dekker et al. (2003) will not be further discussed here.

Although Dekker et al.’s (2003) hierarchy seems to be quite different from the terms that Schatz et al. (1999) use in their study, they are in fact quite similar and comparable.

Schatz et al.'s constructive patriotism can be seen as a synonym for Dekker et al.'s national feeling, liking and pride. Blind patriotism can be compared to national preference and Schatz et al.'s explanation of nationalism is similar to Dekker et al.'s description of national superiority and nationalism (Dekker et al. 2003). In addition, similarities between these two frameworks and the definitions of national identity, patriotism and nationalism given in the present study can be found (see Figure 5).

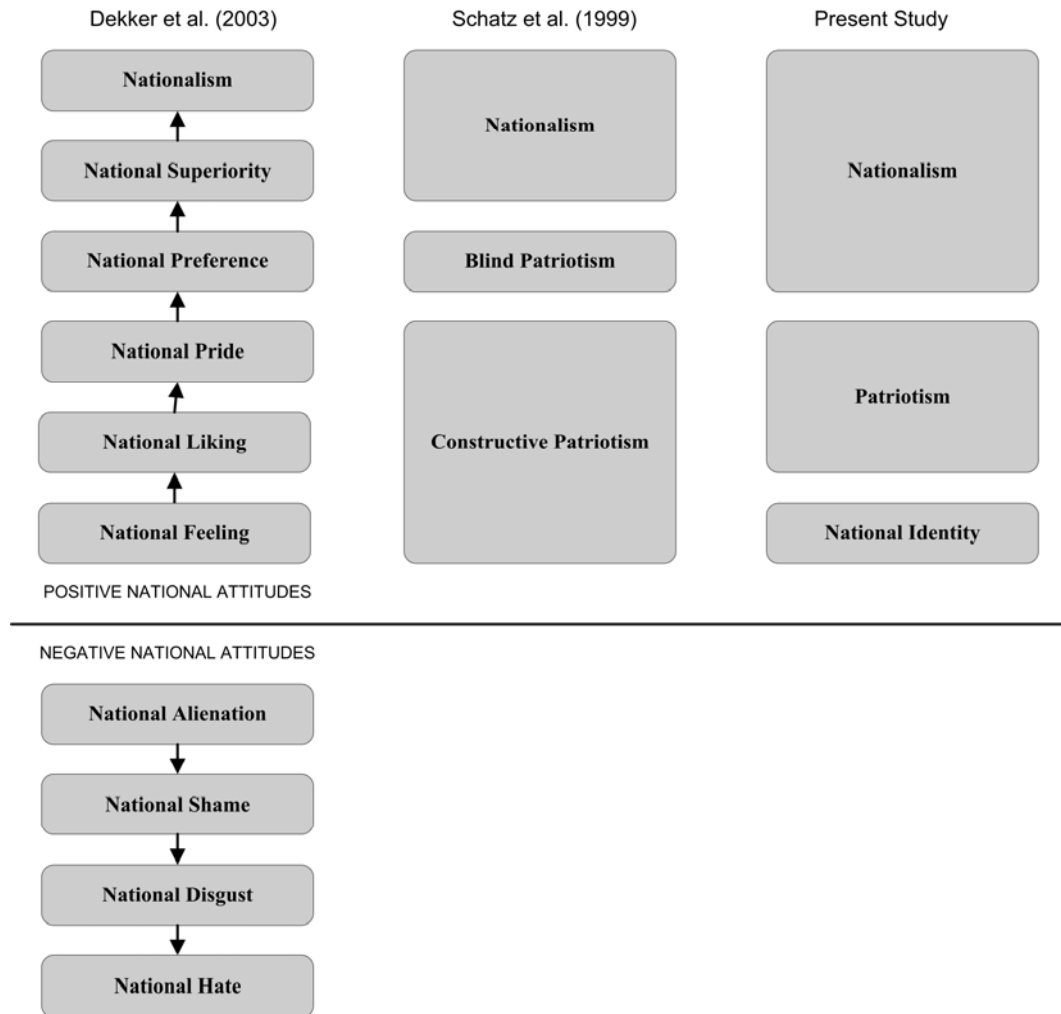


Figure 5: Comparison of the National Attitude Frameworks proposed by Dekker et al. (2003), Schatz et al. (1999) and the Present Study

In this thesis national identity is defined as the extent to which individuals identify with and have a positive feeling of affiliation to their own nation. This is probably most closely related to the concept of national feeling proposed by Dekker et al. (2003) as both constructs involve a basic feeling of attachment to the home country. Patriotism on the other hand, which represents “*love for and pride in one’s nation*” (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989, p. 271), is comparable to Dekker et al.’s (2003) national liking and

national pride as well as to Schatz et al.'s (1999) constructive patriotism. All these concepts refer to positive sentiments toward the own nation which go beyond a simple sense of belonging to the domestic country. Finally, nationalism can be put on a level with Dekker et al.'s (2003) national preference, national superiority and nationalism because all these constructs involve comparison with out-groups and some feeling of superiority towards other nations. Furthermore, Schatz et al.'s (1999) blind patriotism can also be compared to the definition of nationalism given in the present study as both concepts include unquestioning support for the own country combined with intolerance of criticism.

2.4.2 Measuring Patriotism and Nationalism

As in the case of national identity, scholars who investigate patriotism and nationalism do not exactly agree on the best instrument to measure these two concepts. Some researchers use for example intergroup differentiations while others refer to national pride as indicators for patriotic or nationalistic sentiments, and this leads to various differing and often confusing operationalisations in political and social science literature as well as in the field of marketing.

2.4.2.1 Measures of Patriotism and Nationalism in Political and Social Science

One of the earliest measures of nationalism which can be found in political and social science literature is the so called 'patriotism scale' by Adorno et al. (1950). Although at first sight this may sound irritating, the 10-item scale has originally been developed to measure pseudo-patriotism, a concept which is very close to modern definitions of nationalism (see chapter 2.4.1.2). However, the fact that the authors have labelled their scale 'patriotism scale' leads to a lot of confusion in the literature and as a consequence the scale has often been used wrongly to measure patriotism. Thus, the careful distinction Adorno et al. (1950) made between healthy patriotism and pseudo-patriotism was lost in their measurement procedure as well as in the subsequent use of their scale.

Blank (2003) and Blank & Schmidt (2003) measure patriotism and nationalism by using items which represent pride in specific national aspects such as democratic institutions, the nation's history or its success in sports. However, it is to some extent questionable in how far national pride can really be seen as a synonym for patriotism and nationalism rather than as a different national orientation. Simply because people are proud of their country and for example its success in sporting events they do not necessarily need to be nationalistic.

The most widely used measurement instruments for patriotism and nationalism are probably the two scales developed by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989) which can be found in full length in Appendix E and F. The authors wanted to highlight the multidimensionality of patriotic and nationalistic attitudes and developed a set of 120 items which were subsequently administered together with an 18-item nuclear policy questionnaire to participants (N=239) from three different U.S. population groups.⁹ Factor analyses revealed six distinct and independent factors representing patriotism (12 items), nationalism (8 items), internationalism, civil liberties, world government and smugness, and thus confirmed the authors' multidimensional approach towards explaining patriotic and nationalistic sentiments. Furthermore, the scales' validity was tested through assessing how well they would predict scores on the nuclear policy questionnaire and internal consistency reliability was established.

As Kosterman & Feshbach's (1989) study is limited to a purely American sample it can of course give no evidence of the cross-cultural applicability of their measurement instruments. However, the two scales so far have been successfully applied in various other countries and cultural contexts, such as in Turkey and the Czech Republic (Balabanis et al. 2001), in Japan (Karasawa 2002) or in Hungary, Slovakia, the Czech Republic, Poland and Austria (Weiss 2003), and this further supports the reliability and validity of these measures.

2.4.2.2 Patriotism and Nationalism Measures in Marketing

In marketing usually the scales from political and social science are adopted. Shimp & Sharma (1987) and Sharma et al. (1995) for instance used Adorno et al.'s

⁹ The sample used by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989) consisted of 194 college students, 24 high school students and 21 building contractors, all citizens of the United States.

(1950) patriotism scale to investigate whether patriotism was an antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism. However, as noted above these items have originally been created to measure pseudo-patriotism, so the authors actually assessed nationalism not patriotism as they intended.

Han (1988) is one of the few authors who have tried to develop a patriotism measure specifically designed for the field of marketing. His 4-item consumer patriotism questionnaire includes statements such as “*Foreign imports are and will be hurting U.S. industry.*” (p. 27). Although Han (1988) argues that the scale is “*intended to capture the dimensions of patriotism which are specifically related to the choice between domestic and foreign products, not broad concepts of political patriotism*” (p. 27), his items are certainly very closely related to Shimp & Sharma’s (1987) CETSCALE¹⁰ and therefore it is questionable whether they really examine patriotism and not rather consumer ethnocentrism.

Rawwas et al. (1996) on the other hand have created a 27-item nationalism scale in order to check the construct’s influence on consumers’ evaluations of domestic and foreign products. However, although the authors claim that their measurement instrument is based on Kosterman & Feshbach’s (1989) scale, again most items seem to correspond to items from Shimp & Sharma’s (1987) CETSCALE¹¹ which puts the scale’s content validity into question.

Finally, Baughn & Yaprak (1996) generated a 16-item economic nationalism scale in an attempt to distinguish the concept from the more general political nationalism. In their study they tested their measure together with adapted versions of Kosterman & Feshbach’s (1989) patriotism and nationalism scales with two U.S. student samples and the results confirm that economic nationalism can be seen as a distinct construct which can be clearly separated from political nationalism. However, the problem with this scale is once more that the authors took parts of their items from Shimp & Sharma’s (1987) CETSCALE, thus mixing the construct of economic nationalism with consumer ethnocentrism.

¹⁰ The fact that Han’s (1988) paper was published only one year after Shimp & Sharma’s (1987) study can probably explain why he did not take into account the similarities between the two scales.

¹¹ Examples for items that seem to be taken from Shimp & Sharma’s (1987) CETSCALE which can be found in Appendix A are: “*Only those products unavailable in Austria should be imported.*” or “*Austrian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Austrians out of work.*” (Rawwas et al. 1996, p. 26).

In this way, although all three authors have tried to develop a suitable scale for marketing or economics respectively, their confusing operationalisations question whether these scales really do measure patriotism or nationalism and not consumer ethnocentrism as the use of the various CETSCALE items might suggest.

The measurement instruments by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989) are also very often used in marketing literature. Their scales for patriotism and nationalism have successfully been applied for example by Balabanis et al. (2001) or Lee et al. (2003), who both examine the influence of these two concepts on consumers' ethnocentric tendencies in Turkey and the Czech Republic as well as in the United States, respectively. Hence, as these two measures have proved to be reliable and valid in a political and social science context as well as in the field of marketing they seem to be most suitable for the present empirical study.

2.4.3 Antecedents and Consequences of Patriotism and Nationalism

The relationship between national identity, patriotism and nationalism has already been discussed in the previous chapter. Beside national identity Blank (2003) also tested authoritarianism as an antecedent of the two other constructs and discovered that especially nationalism increased with higher authoritarianism whereas patriotism was not substantially explained by this concept. Blank & Schmidt (2003) evaluated the relationship with attitudes towards out-groups and minorities. Their results show that discrimination of out-groups and minorities is a result of nationalism whereas patriotism rather leads to tolerance towards out-groups. Weiss (2003) supports this finding for nationalism in a five country study in Central and Eastern Europe showing a strong negative correlation between nationalism and tolerance towards others.

Consumer ethnocentrism is also often considered as a consequence of patriotism and nationalism. According to Balabanis et al. (2001) the nationalistic feeling of superiority towards other nations and the patriotic sentiment of love for the own country can both translate into preferences for home-made products aimed at protecting the domestic economy. Shimp & Sharma (1987) and Sharma et al. (1995) found that patriotism was positively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism. However, as has already been discussed above, the authors measured patriotism with Adorno et al.'s (1950) patriotism

scale which actually examines pseudo-patriotism, a construct closer to nationalism. So in fact they compared nationalism and not patriotism to consumer ethnocentrism.

Balabanis et al. (2001) were the first authors who investigated the impact of both patriotism and nationalism on consumer ethnocentrism in Turkey and the Czech Republic. Their findings indicate that the impact of patriotism and nationalism is not consistent across countries. Consumer ethnocentrism in Turkey is influenced by patriotism whereas in the Czech Republic nationalism has a bigger effect. Lee et al. (2003) replicated the study in the USA and partly supported the results. They discovered a positive relationship between nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism but found no support for the same postulated correlation between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism. Thus, nationalism was found to be a statistically significant antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism while patriotism was not.

The various different results indicate that the influence of patriotism and nationalism on consumer ethnocentrism may vary across countries as *“neither patriotism nor nationalism has a consistent influence on consumer ethnocentrism”* (Balabanis et al. 2001, p. 169). In some nations consumers have ethnocentric tendencies because they love their country whereas in other countries they show ethnocentrism out of a feeling of national dominance and superiority.

Balabanis et al. (2007) recently explored the impact of patriotism and nationalism on country of origin image and purchase intention in their study among Czech (N=303) and Turkish (N=480) consumers. In Turkey foreign country of origin image was only to a very limited extent affected by the two constructs. In the Czech sample nationalism even showed no effect at all on foreign country of origin image while patriotism was found to have a slightly positive influence. Thus, the hypothesized positive effect of patriotism and the negative effect of nationalism on foreign country of origin image were only partly supported. Furthermore, the results showed no significant influence of patriotism and nationalism on consumers' likelihood to buy foreign products.

2.5 Managerial Implications

As has been shown in the literature review, a positive bias towards the home country can be driven by several distinct motives such as national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism. These motives can have differing effects on consumers' product evaluations and choices because a positive feeling of attachment to the own nation is not necessarily linked with hostility towards other countries (Brewer 1999). Concepts which only involve affirmative attitudes towards the home country (i.e. national identity and patriotism) can exert different influences on consumption behaviour than constructs which combine these positive feelings towards the own nation with negative attitudes towards foreign countries (i.e. nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism). For marketers it is important to clearly understand these differences as they can provide useful insights into how consumers feel about buying domestic versus foreign products and can help to discover opportunities and challenges on international markets.

As a segmentation tool national identity and patriotism can be used by internationally operating companies to detect population segments which although they might have some sort of positive bias towards the home country nevertheless do not depreciate foreign countries and their products. On the other hand, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism can assist in identifying consumer groups which are negatively biased against foreign goods. Research has shown that ethnocentric consumers are in general less educated, older and have a lower income (Lee et al. 2003) and that women exhibit stronger ethnocentric tendencies than men (Sharma et al. 1995). Hence, a foreign company can choose to focus on younger, better educated consumers with higher income because they tend to be more open to imported products.

Communication strategies might also need to be adapted to the respective levels of the four concepts. If consumers are for example found to be highly ethnocentric, a foreign company's communication strategy should deemphasize the product's country of origin and rather focus on certain product features or try to persuade local consumers that the good is not harmful to their economy. Domestic firms on the other hand can take advantage of a high level of consumer ethnocentrism, for instance through highlighting the domestic origin of their products in their advertising.

If national identity or patriotism is the predominant sentiment in a country then a foreign company in general faces no hostility because these concepts do not involve out-group negativity. However, an international firm can nevertheless change the symbols of its products to national symbols or can try to communicate to local consumers that it respects and shares the beliefs and values of the respective target market. Domestic companies can take advantage of a high level of national identity or patriotism by focusing on the local origin of their products or by evoking a feeling of pride in the home country through their advertising. In contrast, if consumers in a certain country are found to be very nationalistic, a foreign company's communication strategy should be carefully designed in order not to affront potential customers by doubting their nation's superiority. For domestic marketers this typical nationalistic feeling of dominance can be an advantage, for example if they use advertising messages which enhance this perception of national supremacy.

It should be noted in this context that the strength of consumers' national identity or patriotism may be temporarily influenced by specific situational variables. Many people experience a boost in their national identity or patriotism when they watch for example a soccer match of their national team during a large tournament such as the soccer world championship. Advertising and sports sponsoring can take advantage of this increased national identity or patriotism through connecting a company's products or brands with national symbols or colours (Verlegh 2007).

For governments home country bias offers the opportunity to launch general buy domestic campaigns which *"attempt to persuade purchasers to choose products that originate in their own country"* (Granzin & Painter 2001, p. 74). Buy domestic campaigns have been successfully applied in various countries such as the United States, Canada, Japan, France or Mexico and very often use emotional appeals, such as showing domestic workers who have lost their jobs because of imports (Granzin & Painter 2001).

However, in order to ensure the success of these campaigns governments need to consider carefully which constructs actually evoke an individual's bias towards the home country. For instance, if consumer ethnocentrism is the underlying concept then economic arguments such as the protection of domestic jobs or companies which are threatened by foreign competition might be a useful approach (Granzin & Painter 2001).

In case of nationalism a buy domestic campaign can focus on the superiority of domestic products compared to foreign goods.

On the other hand, if national identity or patriotism is the underlying concept then a downward comparison of other nations and their products might not be the best idea for a buy domestic campaign because both constructs only involve in-group favouritism. Rather the promotion should focus on national symbols or values. Moreover, buy domestic campaigns can be used in order to arouse general feelings of pride in home-made products, for example through associating local brands and products with international marketing success, allowing consumers to be proud of the achievements of their domestic country (Verlegh 2007).

3 DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

Now that the differences between consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, patriotism and nationalism have been highlighted, the next step is to develop hypotheses about how the four concepts are related and how they influence consumer behaviour. Appendix G presents a clearly structured summary of the various studies which have been discussed in this thesis up to now, and compares the respective research focus, measurement instruments and reliability as well as validity assessments provided by the authors. As has been shown in the literature review, quite a few studies have dealt with one or two of the constructs under consideration in this thesis, but so far no known work has investigated all four concepts simultaneously. Furthermore, no clear consensus has been reached among scholars with regard to the influence of the four constructs on consumers' product evaluations and willingness to buy domestic versus foreign goods. In line with this the following research questions have been formulated at the beginning of this thesis:

Research Question 1: How are national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism related to each other? What is the nature of these relationships (positive or negative)? Which constructs are antecedents and which are consequences of the respective others?

Research Question 2: How do national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism influence consumer behaviour? How are these four concepts related to consumers' evaluations and purchase intentions of domestic and foreign products?

As has been explained earlier, the conceptualisation of national identity and patriotism only involves in-group favouritism. Nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism, on the other hand, combine this bias towards the home country with a negative attitude towards foreign nations. Since favourable attitudes towards one's own group are not necessarily linked with hostility towards other groups (Brewer 1999), it can be assumed that concepts which solely involve positive sentiments towards the own nation exert different influences on consumers' evaluation and choice of domestic versus foreign

products than constructs which connect these affirmative feelings towards the home country with negative attitudes towards other nations. These assumptions are in line with the findings from the literature review, which suggest that the impact of the four constructs varies depending on whether domestic or foreign products are considered (e.g. Verlegh 2001, Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2004). Hence, two different theoretical frameworks for hypotheses can be developed, one for domestic products and one for foreign goods, which are displayed in Figure 6 and 7.

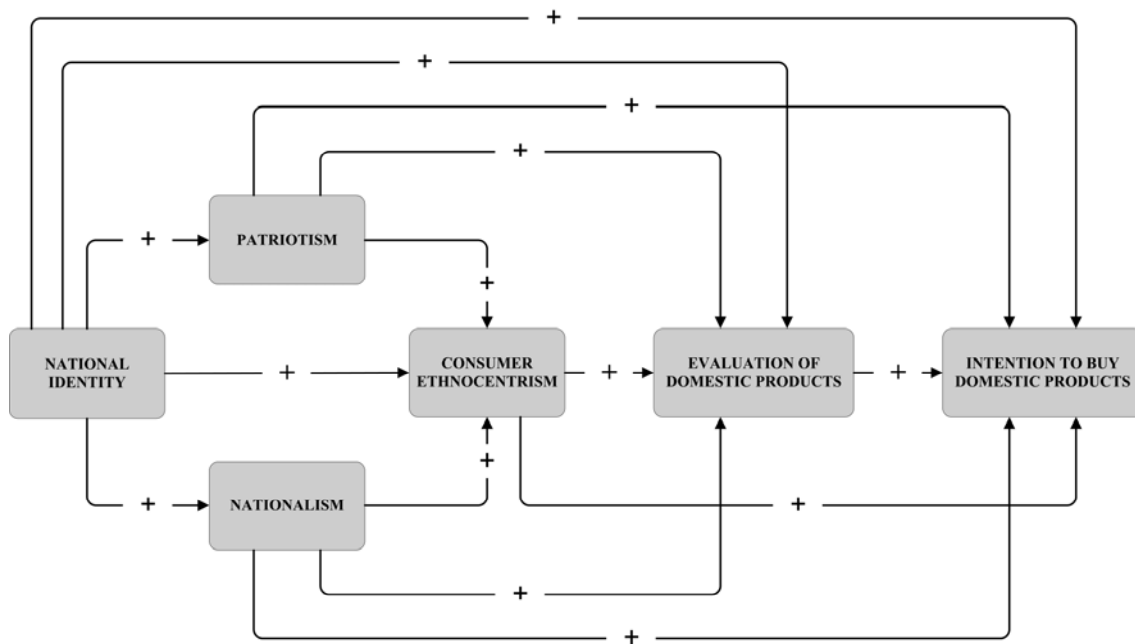


Figure 6: Theoretical Framework Focusing on Domestic Products

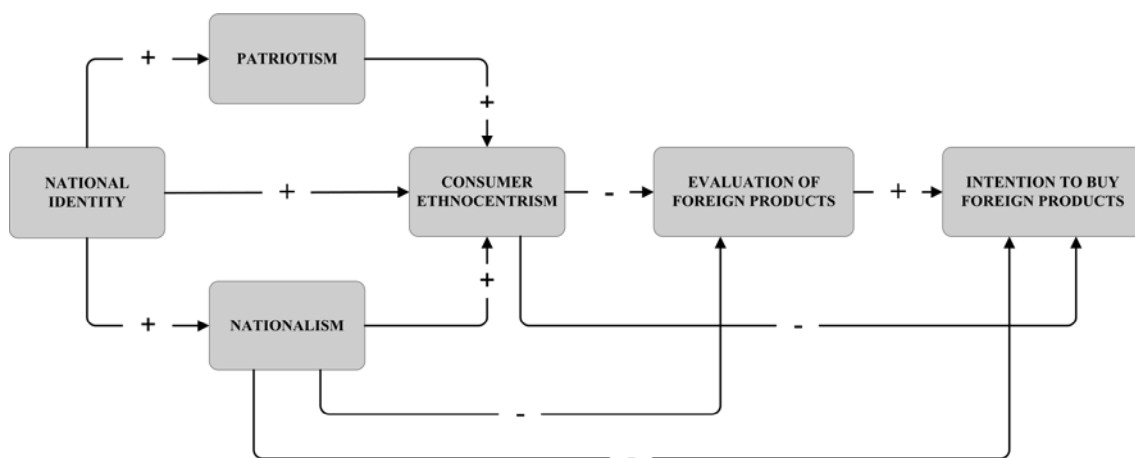


Figure 7: Theoretical Framework Focusing on Foreign Products

In order to investigate the research questions and to test these two frameworks, specific hypotheses are now formulated about how the four concepts are related and how they influence consumers' evaluations and purchase intentions of domestic versus foreign products.

3.1 The Relationship between National Identity, Patriotism, Nationalism and Consumer Ethnocentrism

As has been discussed earlier, national identity represents the extent to which an individual identifies with and has a positive feeling of affiliation towards his or her home country. Patriotism, on the other hand, goes beyond the basic feeling of attachment towards the nation found in national identity. Patriots do not only identify with their home country. They rather experience a feeling of love for and pride in their own nation (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989) and are willing to give everything for it (Druckman 1994). Hence, patriotism refers to a much stronger positive sentiment towards the home country than national identity. The same applies to the concept of nationalism. Nationalism also refers to a feeling of love for the own nation but at the same time involves a comparison with out-groups. Nationalists perceive their home country as dominant and superior in comparison to foreign nations (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989). They idealize the own country and uncritically support its political authorities (Blank 2003). Thus, nationalism also represents a stronger positive national sentiment than national identity.

Following these conceptualisations, national identity can be interpreted as the more general construct whereas patriotism and nationalism represent stronger and more specific national attitudes which can follow from national identity. These assumptions have been empirically supported by Blank (2003) and Blank & Schmidt (2003), who both found that the development of a national identity precedes the development of patriotism and nationalism. Their analyses have shown that patriotism as well as nationalism increase with a growing level of national identity. Thus, the first two hypotheses read as follows:

Hypothesis 1: National identity and patriotism are positively related. The higher the level of national identity, the higher is the level of patriotism.

Hypothesis 2: National identity and nationalism are positively related. The higher the level of national identity, the higher is the level of nationalism.

The relationship between national identity and consumer ethnocentrism has hardly been examined in the literature. One of the few authors who have investigated both concepts simultaneously is Verlegh (2001, 2007). He states that national identity, which represents a socio-psychological motive for home country bias based on the desire to maintain a positive social identity, contributes to the overall strength of consumer ethnocentrism, which symbolizes an economic motive for favouring the own nation driven by the wish to protect the domestic economy (Verlegh 2001).

In general, national identity is seen as a concept which only involves in-group favouritism and does not take into account any consideration of out-groups (i.e. foreign countries). However, a connection between in-group identification and out-group negativity can occur under certain circumstances such as competition or perceived threat (Duckitt & Mphuthing 1998), both of which are conditions captured by constructs like consumer ethnocentrism. As has been noted in the literature review, consumer ethnocentrism represents the belief that purchasing foreign products is immoral and inappropriate because it harms the domestic economy and causes a loss of jobs (Shimp & Sharma 1987). Thus, although the concept of national identity does not automatically involve any hostility towards other nations, it might be possible that people want to save their own economy from the perceived threat posed by foreign competition. In other words, it can be the case that people who identify with and have a positive feeling of affiliation to their home country might also want to protect it economically. Hence, the next hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 3: National identity and consumer ethnocentrism are positively related. The higher the level of national identity, the higher is the level of consumer ethnocentrism.

Patriotism and nationalism have also been considered as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism. Although patriotism, just like national identity, solely involves a feeling

of in-group favouritism and is usually associated with tolerance towards out-groups and minorities (Blank & Schmidt 2003), it might nonetheless lead to consumer ethnocentrism because of the very same reasons just mentioned with regard to national identity, i.e. a connection between in-group identification and out-group rejection because of competition or perceived threat (Duckitt & Mphuthing 1998). Patriots who love their home country and are proud of its achievements (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989) might, just like people with a high level of national identification, also want to protect their economy against foreign competitors and, hence, develop consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

Nationalism can also translate into economic preferences, but due to other motives. Nationalists perceive their home country as better and superior in comparison to other nations (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989). They usually evaluate their own country in a general positive way and dislike minorities and foreigners (Blank 2003, Blank & Schmidt 2003). Thus, it is quite likely that they prefer domestic products because of their feeling of national dominance and out-group rejection.

Several studies have supported these assumptions empirically. For example, Balabanis et al. (2001) and Lee et al. (2003) both examined the impact of patriotism and nationalism on consumers' ethnocentric tendencies. Their results show that consumer ethnocentrism is influenced by patriotism in one country and by nationalism in another, which indicates that the impact of patriotism and nationalism is not consistent across nations. Shimp & Sharma (1987) and Sharma et al. (1995) investigated the impact of patriotism on consumer ethnocentrism. However, as has already been mentioned before, the authors used Adorno et al.'s (1950) pseudo-patriotism scale. Thus, they actually examined nationalism and found that the concept was positively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism. All these findings indicate that patriotic as well as nationalistic consumers might tend to favour domestic products. Consequently, the relationship between patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism is expected to be as follows:

Hypothesis 4: Patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism are positively related. The higher the level of patriotism, the higher is the level of consumer ethnocentrism.

Hypothesis 5: Nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism are positively related. The higher the level of nationalism, the higher is the level of consumer ethnocentrism.

Figure 8 illustrates the type and direction of the hypothesized relationships between the four concepts which subsequently will be tested in the empirical part of this thesis.

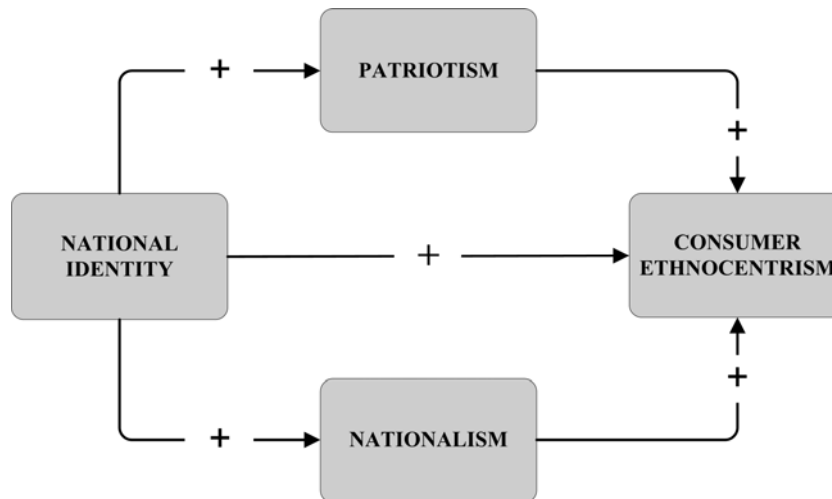


Figure 8: Hypothesized Relationship between National Identity, Patriotism, Nationalism and Consumer Ethnocentrism

3.2 The Influence of National Identity, Patriotism, Nationalism and Consumer Ethnocentrism on Consumer Behaviour

As has already been mentioned earlier, national identity is rooted in social identity theory which assumes that group membership provides an individual with a social identity that is part of his or her self-concept (Tajfel 1978). In case of national identity the own nation is seen as the in-group and, accordingly, is associated with a specific social identity. In order to keep that social identity positive people tend to be favourably biased towards their home country (Verlegh 2007). Furthermore, the view of the own nation as the in-group implies that domestic products are seen as products of this in-group. Given that people are motivated to enhance group- and consequently their self-image, they might not only be biased towards their home country itself but also towards

its members, products and achievements. Thus, it is likely that the attachment to the own nation subsequently leads to a positive bias in the evaluation of and willingness to buy domestic products. Moreover, as the in-group bias associated with national identity rather is a result of increased in-group enhancement and not out-group rejection (Brewer 1999), it can be expected that the concept has no negative influence on the evaluation of and willingness to buy foreign goods.

Only a few authors have investigated the influence of national identity on consumers' attitudes towards domestic and foreign products. Verlegh (2001) for example has found that an individual's willingness to buy domestic goods increases with his or her level of national identity. Furthermore, in case of food products there is also a positive correlation between national identification and positive attitudes towards domestically manufactured products. Verlegh (2007) has discovered that national identity is positively related to the perceived quality of and preference for domestic goods but has no effect on the evaluation of foreign products. Thus, in this thesis it is assumed that consumers with a high level of national identity will be biased towards domestic products but do not show any rejection of foreign goods. In line with this, the hypotheses regarding the influence of national identity on consumer behaviour are the following:

Hypothesis 6: National identity and consumers' evaluation of domestic products are positively related. A high level of national identity leads to a more positive evaluation of domestic products.

Hypothesis 7: National identity and consumers' intentions to buy domestic products are positively related. A high level of national identity leads to a higher intention to buy domestic products.

Figure 9 displays the relationship between national identity and consumers' evaluation and purchase intentions of domestic versus foreign products graphically.

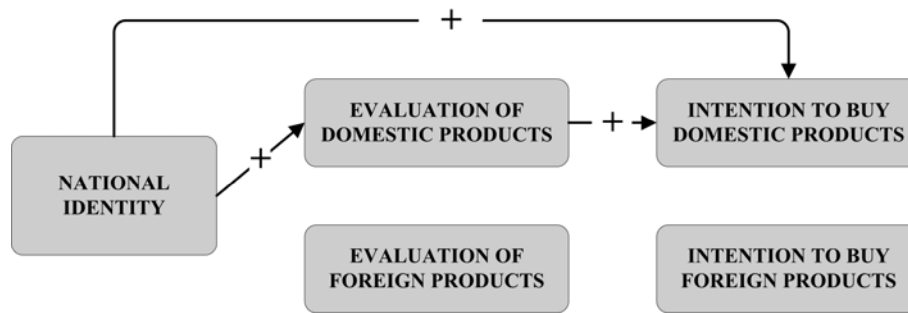


Figure 9: Hypothesized Relationship between National Identity and Consumer Behaviour

Findings from the literature about the influence of patriotism and nationalism on consumer behaviour are relatively limited. Although several authors such as Han (1988) or Rawwas et al. (1996) claim that patriotism and nationalism respectively have a considerable impact on the evaluation of and intention to buy domestic versus foreign products, the universal validity of their results is questionable as they both operationalize the concepts by using items very close to the construct of consumer ethnocentrism (see chapter 2.4.2.2). Balabanis et al. (2007) have recently found that patriotism and nationalism have no impact on the willingness to buy foreign goods. However, so far no known work has examined how the two constructs influence preferences for domestic products.

Nevertheless, the relationship between patriotism, nationalism and consumer behaviour can partly be inferred from the definitions of the two concepts. As has been discussed above, patriots are characterised by showing a strong feeling of love for the home country. They are proud of their own nation and its achievements (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989) and are willing to give everything for it (Druckman 1994). According to social identity theory in-group favouritism is driven by a desire to see the own group and hence oneself in a favourable light (Brown 2000). Individuals are motivated to differentiate their own group in a positive way from other groups by rating the in-group more favourably (Mlicki & Ellemers 1996). Thus, it is likely that patriots might evaluate their home country and its achievements, such as for example domestic products, better so as to boost the status of their group and consequently themselves. Additionally, it can be assumed that patriotism, because of the feeling of pride in home-made goods, might also lead to a higher intention to buy domestic in order to further support the home country and its achievements.

With regard to foreign products it should be noted that patriotism is, just like national identity, associated with tolerance towards out-groups (Blank & Schmidt 2003). This implies that patriotic in-group bias is rather related to a preferential treatment of the own country than to increased hostility towards other nations. Hence, in line with these theoretical considerations and the findings from Balabanis et al. (2007), patriotism can be expected to have no negative impact on the evaluation of and intention to buy foreign products.

These assumptions lead to the following hypotheses concerning the relationship between patriotism and consumer behaviour, which are illustrated in Figure 10:

Hypothesis 8: Patriotism and consumers' evaluation of domestic products are positively related. A high level of patriotism leads to a more positive evaluation of domestic products.

Hypothesis 9: Patriotism and consumers' intentions to buy domestic products are positively related. A high level of patriotism leads to a higher intention to buy domestic products.

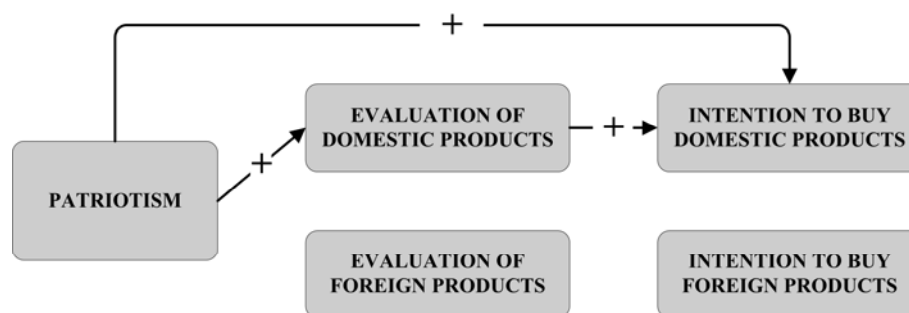


Figure 10: Hypothesized Relationship between Patriotism and Consumer Behaviour

In contrast to patriotism, nationalism is associated with dominance and power and typically involves a downward comparison of foreign countries. Nationalists perceive their own nation as better and superior and all other countries are seen as inferior (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989). They idealize their home country and evaluate it in a generally positive way whereas out-groups, such as minorities or foreigners, are depreciated (Blank 2003, Blank & Schmidt 2003). It can be assumed that this uncritical idealisation of the own nation also extends to other nation related aspects. Thus,

nationalists might not only evaluate their home country more favourably but also its members or achievements, such as for example domestic goods. Additionally, it is likely that they show a higher intention to buy home-made products because of their feeling of national superiority and dominance. Furthermore, as nationalism combines love and pride for the own nation with a negative view of other countries, it can be expected that this dislike of out-groups refers, just like the positive bias, not only to other nation states but also to their products. As a consequence foreign goods might be seen as inferior, and nationalists are likely to evaluate them less favourably and moreover to be less willing to buy imported products.

Hence, it is expected in this thesis that nationalism leads to a positive evaluation of and preference for domestic products whereas foreign goods are depreciated and rejected. The corresponding hypotheses read as follows:

Hypothesis 10: Nationalism and consumers' evaluation of domestic products are positively related. A high level of nationalism leads to a more positive evaluation of domestic products.

Hypothesis 11: Nationalism and consumers' evaluation of foreign products are negatively related. A high level of nationalism leads to a more negative evaluation of foreign products.

Hypothesis 12: Nationalism and consumers' intentions to buy domestic products are positively related. A high level of nationalism leads to a higher intention to buy domestic products.

Hypothesis 13: Nationalism and consumers' intentions to buy foreign products are negatively related. A high level of nationalism leads to a lower intention to buy foreign products.

Figure 11 displays the relationship between nationalism and consumers' evaluation and purchase intentions of domestic versus foreign products graphically.

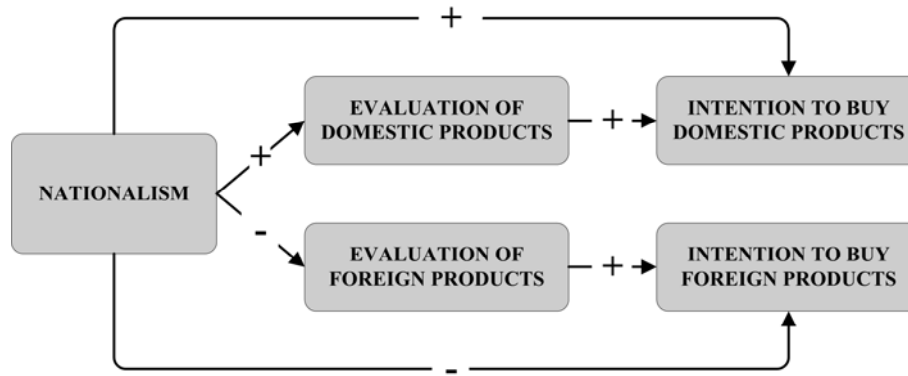


Figure 11: Hypothesized Relationship between Nationalism and Consumer Behaviour

Like nationalism, consumer ethnocentrism combines preference for the home country with negative attitudes towards foreign nations. Ethnocentric consumers differentiate between products from their own country which are favoured and products from foreign countries which are avoided (Shankarmahesh 2006). They evaluate home-made goods more favourably even when there is no rational basis for that, i.e. when the foreign product is of better quality (Sharma et al. 1995). In addition, they feel a moral obligation to buy domestic and are personally prejudiced against imports as this behaviour is seen as appropriate by the in-group. Purchasing imported goods is perceived as wrong, immoral and inappropriate because, as they believe, it harms the domestic economy and is unpatriotic (Shimp & Sharma 1987).

Several authors have already investigated the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer behaviour. In general it can be said that the impact is not consistent across studies. Verlegh (2007) has shown that consumer ethnocentrism is in a significant way positively related with perceived quality of domestic goods and significantly negatively related with perceived quality of foreign products. Shimp & Sharma (1987) and Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004) discovered that the relationship with attitudes towards domestic goods was much stronger than the one with foreign alternatives. Thus, it can be assumed that consumer ethnocentrism will have a positive influence on the evaluation and purchase intention of domestic products and a negative impact on the evaluation of and willingness to buy foreign goods. However, in line with Shimp & Sharma (1987) and Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004), this relationship might be stronger for domestic products than for foreign goods. This leads to the following hypotheses, which are displayed graphically in Figure 12:

Hypothesis 14: Consumer ethnocentrism and consumers' evaluation of domestic products are positively related. A high level of consumer ethnocentrism leads to a more positive evaluation of domestic products.

Hypothesis 15: Consumer ethnocentrism and consumers' evaluation of foreign products are negatively related. A high level of consumer ethnocentrism leads to a more negative evaluation of foreign products.

Hypothesis 16: Consumer ethnocentrism and consumers' intentions to buy domestic products are positively related. A high level of consumer ethnocentrism leads to a higher intention to buy domestic products.

Hypothesis 17: Consumer ethnocentrism and consumers' intentions to buy foreign products are negatively related. A high level of consumer ethnocentrism leads to a lower intention to buy foreign products.

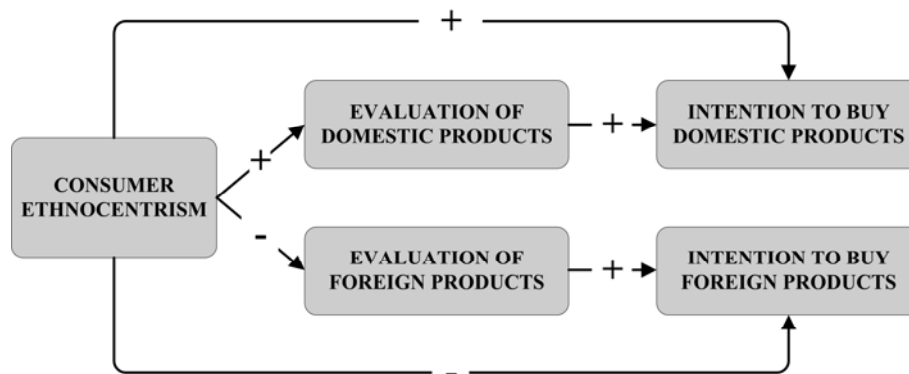


Figure 12: Hypothesized Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Consumer Behaviour

In the following these hypotheses will be tested by using a Danish student sample to gain further insight into the relationship between national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism and to explore their impact on consumer behaviour.

4 EMPIRICAL STUDY

This chapter now focuses on the empirical study which has been conducted in order to test the above created hypotheses and to answer the research questions proposed at the beginning of this thesis. First, the study's methodology is presented and the composition of the measurement instrument, the data collection procedure as well as the description of the final sample is outlined. Next, the analysis of the data follows, starting with the data screening process and then continuing with a description of the regression analyses performed in order to examine the relationship between the four constructs and their impact on consumer behaviour.

4.1 Methodology

In the following the development of the measurement instrument, a self-completion questionnaire, the sampling approach and the composition of the final sample, a convenience sample of 217 Danish students, are illustrated in detail.

4.1.1 Questionnaire Development

For data collection a self-administered questionnaire was developed. This research method has the advantage that it is relatively easy to use and less expensive and time consuming than for example personal interviews. However, due to the fact that no interviewer is involved who can assist respondents in clarifying potential misunderstandings, the survey form must be able to clearly communicate to the participants what the research is all about and provide an easily understandable and straightforward way to respond (Wilson 2003).

In order to be able to test the aforementioned hypotheses the questionnaire needs to contain at least the following subscales: national identity, patriotism, nationalism, consumer ethnocentrism and of course consumer behaviour. As has been extensively discussed in the literature review part, a large variety of scales are available which

intend to measure these concepts. However, bearing in mind all the conceptual and methodological differences it needs to be carefully considered which scales actually best capture the definitions of the constructs established above and thus suit the needs and objectives of the present empirical study.

Concerning the order of the individual scales it is important that the questions' sequence appears interesting and logical to the respondents. Items dealing with a similar topic should be grouped together and sensitive questions should be placed at the nearer end of the survey because then respondents might feel more obliged to answer them as they have already taken time and effort to answer the earlier items. Furthermore, the first question needs to be considered with special importance. It should be as interesting as possible but at the same time easy to understand because this item is very likely to determine whether the questionnaire *“is destined for the mailbox or the garbage”* (Dillman 2000, p. 92).

With regards to response format and number of categories it has been decided to use non-forced scales with an odd number of response categories allowing respondents to choose a neutral middle option rather than forcing them to select a positive or negative answer category. If a respondent has a neutral attitude or does not know the correct response to a question, then forcing him or her to take a positive or negative view can result in falsified data. The majority of surveys typically use between five and nine categories (Wilson 2003). In this empirical study the happy medium is chosen and thus seven answer categories are used. Furthermore, concerning item formulation it has been decided to use only positively worded items and to turn round negative ones. Although negatively worded items are often included into scales in order to avoid 'yes-saying' and acquiescence bias, they can be quite confusing to respondents (Netemeyer et al. 2003). In addition, research has shown that when it comes to analysis, reverse coded items can produce artificial response factors because once respondents establish a pattern of answering a survey they might fail to pay attention to the change in positive and negative wording of the items. Hence, negatively worded items may be a source of method bias (Podsakoff et al. 2003).

As the survey has been conducted with a Danish student sample, the questionnaire has been designed in English because all participants can be expected to have a good command of this language. First, in general the level of English is very high in Denmark as it is normal for pupils there to start studying English very early in their education

process (Danish Ministry of Education 2007). Furthermore, all participants are currently studying or have been studying at Danish universities where English is in many instances the language of instruction. Thus, the foreign language should pose no problems to participants.

Concerning consumer behaviour it has been decided to assess product evaluation and purchase intention in this study by using three different product categories from Denmark, Germany and the United States. The product categories toys, furniture and beer have been chosen because most consumers are expected to be familiar with them and are likely to buy them on a more or less regular basis. Furthermore, it has to be made sure that there actually exist products from the three countries under consideration in each category. With regard to the choice of the countries, Denmark is of course the domestic country and therefore compulsory. The two foreign nations, i.e. Germany and the United States, have been selected because both countries and their products are well known and should thus be familiar to Danish people. Furthermore, Germany is Denmark's most important trading partner whereas the United States are the largest non-European trading partner (U.S. Department of State 2007), which ensures that German and U.S. products are available in the country.

4.1.1.1 Product Evaluation

The questionnaire starts with the evaluation of products with different countries of origin because these items appear to be most interesting and straightforward. First, respondents are asked to evaluate toys and furniture from Denmark (the home country), Germany and the United States (the foreign countries) on four dimensions taken from Roth & Romeo (1992). In an attempt to better define and operationalize country image the authors reviewed marketing literature and came up with a set of four dimensions consistent across the majority of studies: (1) innovativeness (use of new technology and engineering advances), (2) design (appearance, style, colours and variety), (3) prestige (exclusivity, status and brand name reputation) and (4) workmanship (reliability, durability, craftsmanship and manufacturing quality). Based on these four dimensions they have created a 4-item scale which measures the evaluation of products originating from a certain country of origin, whereby each item reflects one dimension, and have tested it successfully with convenience student samples from Ireland (N=99), Mexico

(N=130) and the United States (N=139). Cronbach's alpha for the three samples is above .81, confirming the scale's internal consistency reliability.

Just like in the Roth & Romeo (1992) study a 7-point semantic differential response format is chosen for the 4 items. In semantic differential scales participants are asked to rate a product or a concept on a set of two bipolar adjectives (e.g. 1 = not innovative, 7 = very innovative) or phrases. An unfinished sentence is combined with a pair of words or phrases representing the answer categories as opposite ends of a continuum (Wilson 2003). Overall, the questionnaire is structured in such a way that respondents rate all stimuli (i.e. the two product categories from the three countries) on the basis of one dimension and then proceed to the next dimension.

For the third product category, beer, the framework by Roth & Romeo (1992) is obviously not suitable as it might be a little difficult for respondents to rate beer based on its innovativeness or manufacturing qualities. Instead this category is evaluated on six items adapted from Nagashima (1970) and van Ittersum et al. (2003). Respondents are asked to assess the quality, taste, naturalness, price, brand name and exclusivity of beer from Denmark, Germany and the United States. Again a 7-point semantic differential response format is chosen (e.g. 1 = low quality, 7 = high quality). The items concerning quality, taste, naturalness and price are adapted from van Ittersum et al. (2003) whereas the questions about brand name and exclusivity are taken from Nagashima (1970).

4.1.1.2 Purchase Intention

The next section of the questionnaire deals with consumers' purchase intentions of domestic and foreign goods whereby the same three product categories and countries are applied as for the product evaluation part. In order to determine Danish willingness to buy toys, furniture and beer from Denmark, Germany and the United States five items are taken from Putrevu & Lord (1994) and Dodds et al. (1991).

Answers are captured by using a 7-point Likert response format (1 = I strongly disagree, 7 = I strongly agree). In Likert scales respondents are asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with a certain declarative sentence and usually there is a balance between positive and negative attitudes towards the concept or product under

consideration. Likert-type statements are one of the most widely used scale format in marketing research (Wilson 2003).

4.1.1.3 Patriotism and Nationalism

The third part of the questionnaire involves questions dealing with respondents' overall attitudes towards their home country. Thus, it contains subscales referring to consumer ethnocentrism, national identity and of course patriotism and nationalism, which will be discussed in the following.

The definitions of patriotism and nationalism that have been established in the literature review part are based on the empirical work of Kosterman & Feshbach (1989). Besides providing a conceptualisation of the concepts, the authors also developed two scales of patriotism and nationalism which are specifically designed to be in line with their definitions. Both measurement instruments are well established in the literature and have been widely used in political and social science as well as in the field of marketing. Hence, it has been decided to investigate into patriotism and nationalism in this empirical study by using the scales from Kosterman & Feshbach (1989).

As has already been explained in the literature review, Kosterman & Feshbach (1989) looked into the multidimensionality of patriotism and nationalism and for this purpose created a 120-item questionnaire which was administered to 239 respondents from three different populations (college students, high school students and building contractors) in the United States. Factor analyses revealed that both patriotism and nationalism were distinct concepts and a 12-item patriotism as well as an 8-item nationalism scale emerged. Cronbach's alpha for the scales was .866 and .798 respectively, demonstrating a quite high level of internal consistency reliability. Furthermore, the discriminant validity of the scales was established by examining how well they predicted scores on a Nuclear Policy Questionnaire.

These measurement instruments have since then been successfully applied in various other studies. Baughn & Yaprak (1996) for example tested their newly developed concept of economic nationalism together with five patriotism and six nationalism items from Kosterman & Feshbach (1989) with U.S. student samples (N=225), whereas Karasawa (2002) assessed patriotism and nationalism in Japan (N=971). Schatz et al. (1999) examined the distinction between nationalism, blind and constructive patriotism

in the United States (N=291) and Weiss (2003) compared nationalism across Austria (N=1,774), the Czech Republic (N=978), Slovakia (N=1,117), Hungary (N=1,048) and Poland (N=1,057). All these papers further supported the scales' reliability (Cronbach's alpha for patriotism $\geq .78$ and for nationalism $\geq .64$) as well as its external and discriminant validity.

In marketing literature Balabanis et al. (2001), Lee et al. (2003) and Balabanis et al. (2007) have all used Kosterman & Feshbach's (1989) scales when examining the impact of patriotism and nationalism on consumer ethnocentrism and consumer behaviour in Turkey (N=303), the Czech Republic (N=480) and the United States (N=583). Again a satisfying level of Cronbach's alpha was found for patriotism ($\alpha \geq .816$) and nationalism ($\alpha \geq .639$) across all studies.

It has to be mentioned in this context that the original scales by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989) have been developed for use in the United States. Thus, some items needed to be adapted to the specific situation of Denmark.¹² Of course a strong focus was placed on not changing the meaning of the items.

As the majority of subscales included in this questionnaire use a 7-point Likert response format it has been decided to change the answering format of the patriotism/nationalism part in order to diminish potential measurement error caused by common method bias, that is "*variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the construct the measures represent*" (Podsakoff et al. 2003, p. 879), and to increase the validity of the findings. Instead of being asked to tick the number between 1 and 7 which corresponds most to their personal opinion, the respondents are asked to insert the corresponding number from 1 to 7 into a box in front of the statement. Using the same scale format throughout the questionnaire might make it easier for respondents to complete the survey because it provides a standardized approach and therefore requires less cognitive processing. On the other hand, it may also increase the possibility that some of the covariation observed among the constructs examined may be the result of the consistency in the scale properties rather than the content of the items (Podsakoff et al. 2003).

¹² For example, the reversed nationalism item "*It bothers me to see children made to pledge allegiance to the flag or sing the national anthem or otherwise induced to adopt such strong patriotic attitudes.*" (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989, p. 264) was changed into "*I like it when children sing the national anthem or otherwise express patriotic attitudes.*" because the pledge of allegiance is a specific characteristic of the United States and not common in Denmark.

4.1.1.4 National Identity

As has been already noted in the literature review, there are several national identity scales available in the literature but most of them are not suitable for the present research objectives. The probably most widely used measurement instrument in marketing, i.e. the 17-item NATID scale by Keillor et al. (1996), has been criticized quite a lot in recent publications. Cui & Adams (2002) and Thelen & Honeycutt (2004) both found that the original NATID framework was not appropriate for the respective cultural settings of their studies (Yemen and Russia) and therefore it is questionable whether the measure is really generally applicable across countries. Furthermore, as Keillor et al.'s (1996) scale focuses on identifying the specific components which characterise a nation, it won't be appropriate for the present empirical study whose aim is not to assess the composition of a certain country's identity but rather to test a framework with related concepts.

National identity has been defined above as a feeling of identification with and affiliation to the own nation which is of personal relevance to the individual's self-concept. The measurement instrument that is most in line with this statement and the research objectives at hand and which thus will be used in the empirical study is an adapted version of the positive items from Brown et al.'s (1986) group identification scale which has been originally developed in social identity literature but has also successfully been used in a marketing context.

Brown et al. (1986) investigated intergroup relations among workers in a British paper factory (N=177) by analysing their level of intergroup differentiation, perceived intergroup conflict and strength of workgroup identification. In order to measure the latter concept the authors developed a new scale for group identification based on social identity theory. Their 10-item measurement instrument consists of five positively and five negatively formulated items which all together represent the three components of social identity mentioned earlier in the literature review: (1) awareness of belonging to the group, (2) group evaluation and (3) a feeling of affective attachment to the group. The scale was pretested on a sample of 137 department store employees and reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .71$) as well as validity checks are reported.

The measurement instrument was also used by Duckitt & Mphuthing (1998) when examining ethnic group identification and intergroup attitudes among Black African

students in South Africa (N=101). Both, reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha \geq .75$) and construct validity were found to be satisfactory. Furthermore, shorter versions of the scale have been applied in several studies. Doosje et al. (1995) for example have investigated how perceived intra-group variability is affected by relative group status as well as group identification and used a 4-item version of Brown et al.'s (1986) measurement instrument, whereas Doosje et al. (1998) examined the impact of one's group's history on feelings of collective guilt with 8 items. Both papers confirmed their respective scale's reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha \geq .83$). Finally, Mlicki & Ellemers (1996) have assessed how national stereotypes are related to different levels of national and European identification by using a 5-item national identity questionnaire similar to Brown et al.'s (1986) group identification scale. By testing it with several samples of Polish and Dutch students¹³ the national as well as the European version of the scale showed quite high levels of Cronbach's $\alpha (\geq .74)$.

In marketing literature a modified version of this measurement instrument is used by Verlegh (2001) in order to determine the level of national identification among Dutch consumers in two studies on country of origin. His 5-item scale shows a satisfying level of internal consistency reliability (composite reliabilities $\geq .82$) and discriminant as well as internal and external validity throughout the first (N=186) and second study (N=406). Verlegh (2007) tested a 4-item version of the scale with a U.S. student sample (N=103) and further supported its internal consistency reliability (composite reliability = .83) as well as discriminant validity.

Thus, an adapted 5-item version of the original positive group identification items by Brown et al. (1986) is included in the questionnaire at hand to measure national identity with a 7-point Likert response format. The term 'group' used in the original items is simply replaced by the word 'nation'.

4.1.1.5 Consumer Ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism is assessed by a 10-item version of the CETSCALE choosing again a 7-point Likert response format. As has already been mentioned in the literature review, the original 17-item CETSCALE was created by Shimp & Sharma

¹³ Mlicki & Ellemers (1996) collected data from four samples but included the national and European identity scales only in study 2 (N=160), study 3 (N=161) and study 4 (N=40).

(1987) in order to measure consumer ethnocentric tendencies, i.e. consumers' tendency to prefer domestic over foreign-made products. The scale was originally developed in the United States and yielded a Cronbach's alpha between .94 and .96, which confirms its internal consistency reliability. Furthermore, its convergent, discriminant and nomological validity were confirmed by the authors. Several other papers also tested the CETSCALE with samples from South Korea (Sharma et al. 1995), Russia (Durvasula et al. 1997), Turkey and the Czech Republic (Balabanis et al. 2001), Poland (Supphellen & Rittenburg 2001) as well as Russia and China (Klein et al. 2006). To sum up, a huge number of studies have used the CETSCALE showing its reliability and validity across different cultural settings and contexts. Thus, the scale is very well established and can be seen as the standard measurement instrument for consumer ethnocentrism.

The 10-item version of the CETSCALE used in the empirical study at hand has already been successfully applied by Shimp & Sharma (1987) in their 'national consumer good study' (N=2000+) which assessed consumers' opinions toward products that have been at risk by foreign competition and by Netemeyer et al. (1991), who investigated the cross-national validity and reliability of the scale. The latter authors tested the 10-item CETSCALE with four student samples from the United States (N=71), West Germany (N=73), France (N=70) and Japan (N=76) and came up with satisfying internal consistency reliabilities with Cronbach's alpha ranging from .87 to .92 and furthermore supported its discriminant and nomological validity across countries.

4.1.1.6 Social Desirability Response Bias

In addition to the above mentioned items which measure the central concepts under consideration in this thesis, some supplementary questions that can help to detect problems with the data should be incorporated in the questionnaire, as well. It might be for example the case that participants give certain answers not because they really are of this opinion but rather because they think a specific response is expected or approved. Especially the self-report questionnaire at hand with the potentially sensitive questions about national attitudes and consumer behaviour is likely to be subject to this kind of bias. Thus, in order to check for that influence a so called social desirability scale is included in the questionnaire.

Social desirability response bias is “*the tendency of subjects to respond to test items in such a way as to present themselves in socially acceptable terms in order to gain the approval of others*” (King & Bruner 2000, p. 81). Items which strongly correlate with the social desirability measure indicate a respondent’s desire to answer in a way that puts him or her in a favourable light instead of showing his or her true opinion. Thus these items should be monitored carefully when it comes to analysis because such a bias can lead to falsified correlations and the suppression or moderation of relationships between the constructs under consideration. On the other hand, if the correlation is low or inexistent it is evident that the scale is relatively free of any social desirability bias (King & Bruner 2000).

The most widely accepted social desirability bias scale was developed by Crowne & Marlowe (1960). It contains 33 items and uses a true/false response format but in order not to add too much to the already considerable length of the questionnaire it has been decided to use a shorter version more suitable for marketing purposes by Netemeyer et al. (1995) which contains only 10 items of the original scale with a 7-point Likert response format. The scale was tested with a student (N=145) and a non-student sample (N=277) from the United States and showed a satisfying level of internal consistency reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha \geq .72$).

The social desirability scale is placed at the end of the questionnaire, followed only by demographics, because the items are perceived as being a little problematic. In the literature it is recommended to put sensitive and difficult items in the later parts of questionnaires (Wilson 2003). At the time reaching the sensitive questions people have already invested time and effort in filling in the questionnaire and therefore are more likely and willing to complete it.

4.1.1.7 Demographics

Finally, the demographics part includes questions about respondents’ gender, age, highest level of education attained, current occupation and nationality. Furthermore, those participants whose nationality is not Danish are asked to indicate how long they have been living in Denmark.

4.1.2 Pretests

Two pretests were conducted in May 2007 so as to identify and correct problematic items as well as possible weaknesses in the questionnaire's design. The main purpose of the pretests is to assure that all items and instructions are clearly understandable, concise and as specific as possible and that the order of the questions and the length of the questionnaire are appropriate. It is extremely important that participants understand the directions and items correctly and that they are willing to fill in all the items. If the survey is too long respondents might lose interest and will not complete the questionnaire or start marking the same answer alternative no matter what the question is (Converse & Presser 1986).

4.1.2.1 Pretest 1

The first pretest was conducted among friends and family members by using a convenience sampling approach. The survey was either handed out to the 20 participants personally or sent to them via e-mail. They were asked to fill in the questionnaire and comment on it as well as give recommendations for possible changes and improvements. More precisely, respondents should indicate how long it took them to fill in everything and whether the length of the questionnaire was appropriate, whether they understood all instructions and items correctly, and finally how they liked the design and layout as well as the order of the questions.

Overall, participants needed between 5 and 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The average time it took to fill in the survey was about 15 minutes, which was at an acceptable level and thus the length of the questionnaire seemed to be appropriate (Converse & Presser 1986). The majority of respondents stated that the instructions and items were clearly worded and understandable and that the order of the questions was logical and comprehensible. Some people complained that it was wearisome to answer the questionnaire because several items, especially in the purchase intention and consumer ethnocentrism part, were perceived to be more or less the same and thus dispensable. This issue was not surprising but as all scales used in the empirical study at hand are adopted from and well established in the literature the way they are, nothing was changed in this regard. In general, the questionnaire was perceived as logical and fine concerning its comprehensibility, layout and structure. However, some items were

marked by respondents as a little unclear and confusing. Thus, the wording of these items was changed a little bit in order to make them more straightforward and understandable.¹⁴ Of course, a strong focus was placed on not changing the meaning of the items. Furthermore, as respondents indicated that it would lead to confusion, the headline of part 4 was changed from ‘Questions on your social background’ to ‘Questions on your social attitudes’ as this was more in line with respondents’ expectations about the social desirability scale following this heading.

4.1.2.2 Pretest 2

The second pretest was conducted with a convenience sample of 10 Danish students so that the survey was also tested with respondents that resembled the target population of the main study (Converse & Presser 1986). The revised questionnaire was handed out to respondents personally and they were again asked to complete the questionnaire and make suggestions for possible changes and improvements. This time special focus was placed on the suitability of the three product categories toys, furniture and beer from the three countries Denmark, Germany and the United States used to assess product evaluation and purchase intention.

It took participants again about 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire which was perceived as appropriate. Furthermore, it was reported that all items and instructions were now phrased comprehensibly and thus clearly understood and that the product categories and countries chosen were no problem for the Danish respondents. Thus, it has been decided to administer this version of the questionnaire to the final Danish student sample.

Figure 13 illustrates the structure of the final questionnaire which can be found in full length in Appendix H. As can be seen, it contains subscales dealing with (1) product evaluation, (2) purchase intention, (3) patriotism, (4) nationalism, (5) national identity, (6) consumer ethnocentrism and (7) social desirability bias. Finally, demographic details such as gender, age and education are included at the end.

¹⁴ The item “I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive or forget.” from the social desirability scale was for example changed to “I sometimes try to take revenge rather than forgive or forget.” to make its meaning more straightforward to respondents.

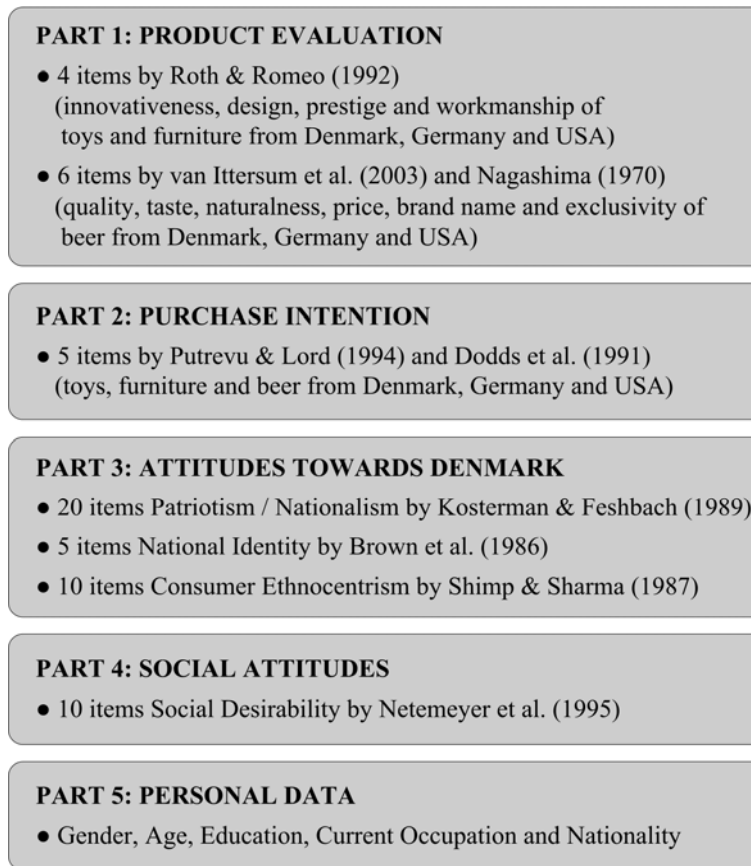


Figure 13: Structure of the Final Questionnaire

4.1.3 Description of the Final Sample

After having developed the final version of the questionnaire the next step is to outline the sampling approach and sample description of the main study. It has been decided to use a convenience student sample because convenience sampling involves selecting respondents who are readily available and provides a quick and cost efficient possibility to achieve sufficiently high number of responses (Craig & Douglas 2000). Although convenience student samples are not strictly representative of the total population they have been successfully used in a variety of marketing studies (e.g. Lee et al. 2003, Verlegh 2007) and can in the present context give useful insights into the relationship between the four concepts under consideration in this study and their impact on consumer behaviour.

Data was collected in June 2007 on the campus of a major Danish university and in student homes around Aarhus, the second largest city of Denmark. It has been decided to use Denmark as the target country for data collection because Danes are known for

showing a very strong attachment to their home country. For instance, *“about 90% of the Danish population believe that traditions are part of the national cultural heritage and many feel that the traditions must be safeguarded against external influences”* (Denmark.dk 2006). Furthermore, the national flag, the ‘Dannebrog’, is typically hoisted on public holidays or on the birthdays of members of the royal family, and festive occasions, such as weddings or birthdays, are also traditionally marked with the national flag (Denmark.dk 2007).

The questionnaire was either handed out to potential respondents personally or sent to them by e-mail. In total 561 potential participants were approached and 218 questionnaires were returned. The response rate was approximately 38.8%. One questionnaire had to be excluded because it was not filled in properly which leads to a total final sample of N=217 completed questionnaires for further analysis.

From the 217 respondents included in the main study 124 (57.1%) are female and 93 (42.9%) are male. The participants’ age ranges from 18 to 45 years with a mean age of 24.55 and a median age of 24 years. Concerning highest education attained 147 (67.7%) of the respondents have completed their upper secondary education and 68 (31.3%) have already earned a university degree. 2 participants marked in the survey that they only had finished their compulsory education. However, given the fact that both respondents are in their twenties and stated their profession as being students it can be assumed that they rather somehow misinterpreted the instructions and that in fact both respondents have at least completed their upper secondary education. The majority of participants (93.5%) denounced to be students. Other occupations mentioned by the sample are for example teacher, theatre producer, human resources consultant or communications assistant. All respondents have the Danish citizenship.

4.2 Data Analysis

To analyse the data obtained from the final sample of 217 Danish respondents the statistical analysis software SPSS 11.5 is used.

4.2.1 Data Screening

Before discussing the regression analyses performed in order to examine the relationship between the four concepts under consideration and their impact on consumer behaviour, first of all the data screening procedure and its results are described. Besides basics such as checking for wrong or missing values and correct coding, this process also involves descriptive statistics, testing the scales' reliability and controlling for social desirability bias.

4.2.1.1 Descriptive Statistics

In order to get a first idea about the distribution of the data, histograms, i.e. graphs that show the frequency with which each value occurs, have been plotted (Field 2005). Overall, the data seem to be quite normally distributed and symmetrical. However, especially the items regarding the evaluation of and intention to buy Danish toys, furniture and beer are rather positively skewed (see Figure 14 for selected examples), which confirms the expected strong attachment of Danish citizens to their home country and domestic products.

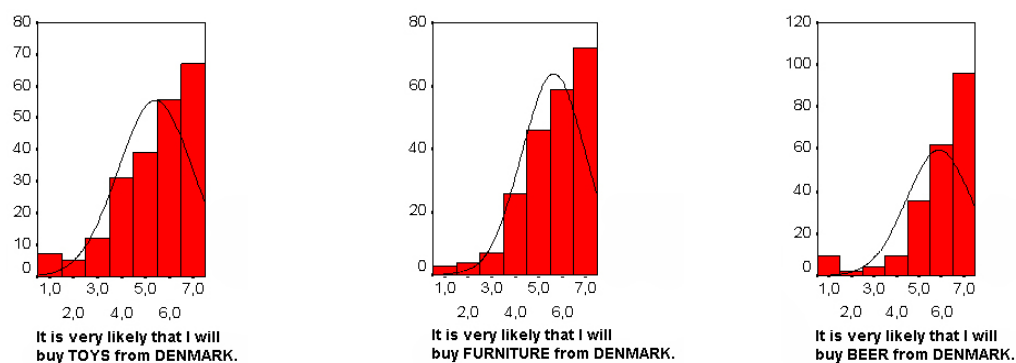


Figure 14: Selected Histograms for Intention to Buy Products from Denmark

In addition, the mean, the variance and the range of the responses have been checked. In general, a mean close to the centre of the range of possible response scores is desirable. If the mean is near one of the extremes then the respective item might fail to detect certain values of the underlying construct (DeVellis 2003). Thus, in the present study in which seven answer categories have been used an item mean around 4 would be ideal. The means of most items range between 2.60 and 5.53 and are hence regarded as fine. However, in line with the impressions received from the histograms the items dealing with the evaluation of and intention to buy toys, furniture and beer from Denmark show a little bit higher mean values, between 4.01 and 5.92, which are nevertheless still close enough to the ideal value of 4 to be accepted as adequate.

The range of almost all answers goes from 1 to 7. Exceptions are two items about the evaluation of toys from Denmark¹⁵ and Germany¹⁶ which only range from 2 to 7. Furthermore, one item dealing with the evaluation of beer from the United States¹⁷ as well as one item concerning the intention to buy furniture from the United States¹⁸ only range from 1 to 6. However, as these are only minor deviations all items are considered appropriate for further analysis.

Next, the variance of the items has been considered. At large, a relatively high variance is preferred, because this indicates an item's ability to distinguish between individuals with different levels of the concept being measured. It is absolutely essential that a scale discriminates between the differences which respondents have regarding the underlying construct. If all respondents answer a certain item identically then the variance is zero (DeVellis 2003). In the present study, items display a variance between 1.361 and 3.687, which is considered fine.

4.2.1.2 Factor Analyses

In order to test the uni-dimensionality of the various scales used in the questionnaire exploratory factor analyses have been conducted. A measure's dimensionality refers to the homogeneity of the items comprising the scale. A set of

¹⁵ How do you perceive the DESIGN of TOYS from DENMARK, when design refers to the appearance, style, color, and variety of a product?

¹⁶ How do you perceive the WORKMANSHIP of TOYS from GERMANY, when workmanship refers to the reliability, durability, craftsmanship and manufacturing quality of a product?

¹⁷ How do you evaluate the TASTE of BEER from the UNITED STATES?

¹⁸ I will purchase FURNITURE from the UNITED STATES the next time I need furniture.

items is said to be uni-dimensional if the correlations among them can be accounted for by one single underlying construct or factor (Netemeyer et al. 2003). It has been decided to perform principal component analyses with oblique rotation. Principal component analysis estimates the factors in such a way as to present the variances among the items in the scale as economically as possible with the fewest number of meaningful components as possible. Oblique rotation (direct oblimin) has been chosen because this method allows factors to be correlated. It is most appropriate when the underlying concepts are believed to correlate to some extent, which is the case in the present study, and will hence reveal in many cases the more meaningful theoretical factors (DeVellis 2003).

First, a look has been taken at the correlation matrix to check the inter-item correlations of the individual scales. In order to successfully perform factor analyses all items measuring the same construct need to correlate fairly well but not too perfectly (Field 2005). In the present study all inter-item correlations are high and significant and, hence, considered fine. Furthermore, the determinants of the correlation matrixes all exceed the recommended value of .00001 and therefore multicollinearity is no problem for the present data (Field 2005).

The KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) statistic, which represents the ratio of the squared correlations between variables to the squared partial correlations between variables, yields results between .816 and .892 for most scales, which can be regarded as a great value. The scales dealing with evaluation of toys from Denmark, Germany and the United States show values between .7 and .8 which are classified as good values and the patriotism, national identity and consumer ethnocentrism scales even have a KMO value above .9, which is considered as superb (Field 2005).

Bartlett's test of sphericity tests the assumption that the original correlation matrix is an identity matrix, which means that the variables correlate only with themselves while all other correlation coefficients are close to zero (Field 2005). For the present data, Bartlett's test is highly significant ($p < .001$) for all scales, which indicates that the correlation matrixes do not resemble identity matrixes and thus factor analyses are appropriate.

Finally, the principal component analyses reveal that all scales are uni-dimensional as each item of the respective scales under examination loads highly only on one single factor. Factor loadings are between .325 and .948

4.2.1.3 Reliability

Next, each scale's reliability has been tested by checking Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha. Internal consistency reliability, which is typically equated with Cronbach's alpha, refers to the homogeneity of the items within a scale. A measure is internally consistent if its items are highly intercorrelated because high inter-item correlations suggest that all items are assessing the same underlying concept (Netemeyer et al. 2003). Computing alpha divides the total variance among the items into two components: the portion of total variation that is attributable to true differences in respondents' opinions, which equals alpha, and the error variance, which is $1 - \alpha$ (DeVellis 2003). The range of possible values for Cronbach's alpha goes from 0 to 1. Nunally (1978) suggests a value of at least .70 as essential. In the present empirical study Cronbach's alpha lies above .80 for all scales (see Appendix I for exact figures) which, according to DeVellis (2003), represents a very good value.

Finally, corrected item-total correlations which represent the correlations between each item and the total score from the scale are all above the crucial threshold of .3 suggested by Field (2005). Hence, all scales are reliable.

4.2.1.4 Social Desirability Response Bias

As has already been mentioned in the methodology part, a social desirability response bias scale has been included in the questionnaire in order to detect problems with respondents answering in a way that presents them in a more favourable light and is socially approved. Items which correlate highly with the social desirability scale should be considered as candidates for exclusion and should be monitored carefully when it comes to analysis (DeVellis 2003).

In order to test for social desirability response bias, the correlations between the various scales and the social desirability scale have been tested. The results indicate that social desirability bias seems to pose no problem in the present study. The correlations

between the average social desirability score and the averages of the individual scales used in the questionnaire are in most cases smaller than $\pm .1$ and not significant. The exceptions hereby are the scales regarding evaluation of furniture from Denmark, intention to buy toys from Denmark and patriotism which show significant positive correlations of .160 ($p < .05$), .183 ($p < .01$) and .134 ($p < .05$) with the social desirability scale. However, according to Field (2005) these values represent only small effects and thus it can be assumed that no social desirability bias is given in the present empirical study (King & Bruner 2000).

After the data screening process has shown that all scales are uni-dimensional and reliable and that no items need to be removed due to social desirability response bias, the next step is now to test the hypotheses developed in chapter 3. Therefore the scales have been reduced to mean values, that is, averages across the items have been calculated for each construct.

4.2.2 Testing the Relationship between National Identity, Patriotism, Nationalism and Consumer Ethnocentrism

First, focus is placed on the relationship between national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism. In order to explore this relationship bivariate correlations and simple linear regression analyses have been performed for the respective pairs of constructs.

4.2.2.1 Correlation Analyses

A bivariate correlation measures the linear relationship between two variables. A correlation coefficient of +1 indicates that the variables are perfectly positively correlated whereas a correlation coefficient of -1 represents a perfect negative relationship. It has been decided to choose Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient which is the default setting in SPSS. Furthermore, one-tailed tests have been selected because directional hypotheses about the relationship of the variables are given. Two-tailed tests should only be used when the nature of the relationship cannot be predicted (Field 2005).

The correlation coefficient between the national identity and the patriotism scale is statistically highly significant ($p < .001$) and amounts to $r = .816$, a value which can be according to Field (2005) classified as a large effect. Thus, the two variables show a strong positive relationship. These results support hypothesis 1 which states that national identity and patriotism are positively related. Furthermore, as anticipated national identity is significantly positively related to nationalism ($r = .448$, $p < .001$). Thus, hypothesis 2, which assumes a positive relationship between these two constructs, is also confirmed by the data.

Concerning national identity and consumer ethnocentrism a very low negative correlation coefficient ($r = -.114$) has been found. Although this small relationship is statistically significant ($p < .05$) it goes in the wrong the direction. In contrast to hypothesis 3, which predicts a positive correlation between these two concepts, the results indicate that national identity and consumer ethnocentrism are negatively related. Hence, hypothesis 3 needs to be rejected.

The correlation coefficient between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism ($r = .029$) is statistically not significant. Thus, hypothesis 4 is not confirmed by the data as no significant positive relationship between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism has been found. However, there exists a significant positive correlation between nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism ($r = .307$, $p < .001$). This finding which according to Field (2005) represents a medium effect is in line with hypothesis 5 expecting a positive relationship between the two variables.

Variables	Expected Relationship	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
National Identity – Patriotism	+	$r = .816$	$p < .001$	Hyp 1: ✓
National Identity – Nationalism	+	$r = .448$	$p < .001$	Hyp 2: ✓
National Identity – Consumer Ethnocentrism	+	$r = -.114$	$p < .05$	Hyp 3: x
Patriotism – Consumer Ethnocentrism	+	$r = .029$	not sig.	Hyp 4: x
Nationalism – Consumer Ethnocentrism	+	$r = .307$	$p < .001$	Hyp 5: ✓

Table 6: Results from the Correlation Analyses Concerning the Relationship between National Identity, Patriotism, Nationalism and Consumer Ethnocentrism

Table 6 summarizes the results from the correlation analyses. As can be seen hypotheses 1, 2 and 5 are confirmed by the data whereas hypotheses 3 and 4 are rejected. The results indicate that national identity is strongly positively related to patriotism and nationalism and shows a small negative correlation with consumer ethnocentrism. Patriotism on the other hand has no significant relationship at all with consumer ethnocentrism whereas nationalism and the latter construct are positively related.

However, it has to be noted in this context that correlation coefficients give no indication of the direction of causality. This means that although it can be said that two variables are positively or negatively related, nothing can be inferred about which variable causes the other to change. Thus, so as to be able to fully answer the hypotheses developed in chapter 3 further analyses need to be performed in order to examine whether the predictions about causality between the variables are correct. For this purpose simple linear regression analyses have been carried out which seek to predict an outcome variable from one single predictor variable (Field 2005).

4.2.2.2 Simple Linear Regression Analyses

First, the regression model predicting the relationship between national identity and patriotism has been examined. To test hypothesis 1 national identity has been entered as the independent or predictor variable whereas patriotism represents the dependent variable. The results show that national identity can account for 66.6% of the variation in patriotism ($R^2 = .666$). Generalized to the total population the percentage remains quite constant (adjusted $R^2 = .664$). The standardized β coefficient ($\beta = .816$) is significant ($p < .001$) and positive and the F-ratio is large enough to assure a good model which overall predicts patriotism significantly well ($p < .001$). Thus, hypothesis 1 is confirmed by the data. National identity and patriotism are not only positively related. Moreover national identity can predict patriotism and hence is an antecedent of the construct.

The next regression analysis has been performed to test the relationship between national identity and nationalism. The R^2 value is with .201 smaller than for patriotism. Thus, national identity can account for 20.1% of the variation in nationalism. Again, the β coefficient ($\beta = .448$) is positive and significant ($p < .001$). The ANOVA yields significant results ($p < .001$) and the F-ratio is large enough and thus indicates a good fit

of the model. Accordingly, hypothesis 2 can be supported. National identity and nationalism are positively related and the level of national identity can predict the level of nationalism. The higher the level of national identity, the higher is the level of nationalism.

As proposed in hypothesis 3 national identity should also have a positive influence on consumer ethnocentrism. However, based on the regression model no empirical relationship can be inferred. The R^2 value reveals that national identity can account for only 1.3% of the variation in consumer ethnocentrism. Generalizing for the total population this percentage decreases even more to 0.8% (adjusted $R^2 = .008$). Furthermore, the ANOVA with a very low F-ratio is not significant. The b-value and the standardized β coefficient ($\beta = -.114$) are also not significant. These results indicate that national identity does not explain the dependent variable consumer ethnocentrism. Thus, it can be assumed that national identity is no direct antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism, and hypothesis 3 which assumes just this relationship needs to be rejected.

The regression model predicting the relationship between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism reveals no significant correlation between these two variables. The standardized β coefficient ($\beta = .029$) is very small and not significant. The F-ratio is even smaller than the suggested minimal threshold of 1 (Field 2005) and also statistically not significant. Furthermore, patriotism can account for only 0.1% of the variation in consumer ethnocentrism ($R^2 = .001$). Thus, hypothesis 4 cannot be confirmed by the data. In the present study, patriotism is no antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism.

Finally, the simple linear regression analysis testing the relationship between nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism yields quite satisfying results. Although the R^2 value is with .094 rather low, it remains constant when generalized to the total population (adjusted $R^2 = .090$). The ANOVA is statistically significant ($p < .001$) and the F-ratio is large enough to assure a good model fit. The b-value and the standardized β coefficient ($\beta = .307$) are positive and significant at a .001 level. Hence, hypothesis 5 can be accepted. Nationalism can predict the level of consumer ethnocentrism. The higher the level of nationalism, the higher is the level of consumer ethnocentrism.

The findings from the regression analyses are summarized in Table 7. In detail, the R^2 and adjusted R^2 values, the assessment of the models' fit for the data (ANOVA) as well as the b-values, their standard errors and β coefficients are displayed.

Hypotheses	R^2	adjust. R^2	ANOVA		Coefficients					Hypothesis confirmed
			F-ratio	Sig.		b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	
National Identity → Patriotism (+)	.666	.664	428.693	$p < .001$	Constant	1.106	.185		$p < .001$	Hyp 1: ✓
					National Identity	.734	.035	.816	$p < .001$	
National Identity → Nationalism (+)	.201	.197	54.024	$p < .001$	Constant	1.629	.261		$p < .001$	Hyp 2: ✓
					National Identity	.368	.050	.448	$p < .001$	
National Identity → Consumer Ethnocentrism (+)	.013	.008	2.806	not sig.	Constant	3.542	.293		$p < .001$	Hyp 3: x
					National Identity	-.094	.056	-.114	not sig.	
Patriotism → Consumer Ethnocentrism (+)	.001	-.004	.185	not sig.	Constant	2.941	.312		$p < .001$	Hyp 4: x
					Patriotism	.027	.063	.029	not sig.	
Nationalism → Consumer Ethnocentrism (+)	.094	.090	22.380	$p < .001$	Constant	1.994	.241		$p < .001$	Hyp 5: ✓
					Nationalism	.310	.066	.307	$p < .001$	

Table 7: Results from the Regression Analyses Concerning the Relationship between National Identity, Patriotism, Nationalism and Consumer Ethnocentrism

4.2.2.3 Summary of the Results

To sum up, these results provide only partial support for the theoretical assumptions developed in chapter 3 about the relationship between national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism. Based on the findings from the literature review it has been expected that national identity is an antecedent of patriotism and nationalism. The correlation analyses reveal strong positive relationships between national identity and both patriotism and nationalism. In addition, the results from the regression analyses confirm the direction of causality between these concepts. Thus, hypotheses 1 and 2 are supported by the data. Patriotism and nationalism are consequences of national identity. These findings are in line with the results from Blank (2003) and Blank & Schmidt (2003), who found that both patriotism and nationalism increase with a growing level of national identity and, hence, concluded that national

identity represents the more general construct whereas patriotism and nationalism refer to stronger and more specific national attitudes.

However, hypothesis 3 which states that national identity is also positively related to consumer ethnocentrism is not confirmed. The results from the regression analysis are not significant, which indicates that national identity has no positive influence on consumer ethnocentrism and, thus, is no direct antecedent of the construct. This outcome is contrary to the findings from Verlegh (2001), who states that national identity, which is seen as a socio-psychological motive for home country bias based on the desire to maintain a positive social identity, contributes to the overall strength of consumer ethnocentrism, which represents an economic motive for preferring the own nation.

The correlation and regression analysis testing the relationship between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism also both yield non-significant results. These findings demonstrate that patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism are not related in Denmark. Therefore, hypothesis 4 needs to be rejected. Finally, as expected, nationalism proved to be an antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism. The correlation analysis shows a medium positive relationship between the two concepts and the statistically significant results from the regression confirm the expected direction of causality. Hence, hypothesis 5 is supported by the data. Although the expected positive relationship between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism is not confirmed by the data, these findings are nevertheless in line with the outcomes of several other studies such as Balabanis et al. (2001) or Lee et al. (2003), who both found that the impact of patriotism and nationalism on consumer ethnocentrism is not consistent across countries.

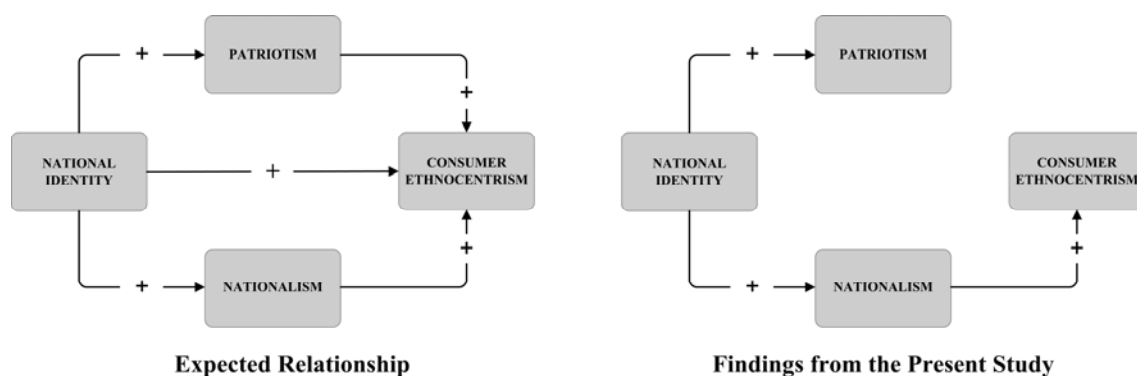


Figure 15: Comparison of the Expected Relationship between the Four Concepts with the Actual Findings from the Present Empirical Study

Figure 15 contrasts the hypotheses developed in chapter 3 with the actual findings from the present empirical study. The expected relationships between the four constructs based on the literature review are displayed in the left graph whereas the relationships confirmed by the correlation and regression analyses are shown on the right hand side.

4.2.3 Testing the Influence of National Identity, Patriotism, Nationalism and Consumer Ethnocentrism on Consumer Behaviour

Next, the impact of national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism on consumers' evaluations and choice of domestic versus foreign products is explored. Again bivariate correlations have been performed to take a first look at the relationship between the variables.

4.2.3.1 Correlation Analyses

The correlation coefficient between national identity and the evaluation of products from Denmark, which is the domestic country in the present study, is statistically highly significant ($p < .001$) and amounts to $r = .645$. At the individual product level the correlations are also significant ($p < .001$) for all three product categories, i.e. toys, furniture and beer from Denmark, with Pearson's correlation coefficients ranging from $r = .567$ to $r = .576$. Thus, hypothesis 6 stating that national identity and consumers' evaluation of domestic products are positively related is supported by the data. Furthermore, as expected, national identity is also positively related to the intention to buy domestic products ($r = .620$, $p < .001$). Again, the same holds true for the individual product level. Hence, hypothesis 7 which indicates a positive relationship between these two variables is confirmed as well.

The results of the correlations between national identity and the evaluation of and intention to buy domestic products in general are displayed in Table 8. The exact figures for the individual product levels are presented in Appendix J.

Variables	Expected Relationship	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
National Identity – Domestic Product Evaluation (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .645$	$p < .001$	Hyp 6: ✓
National Identity – Intention to Buy Domestic (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .620$	$p < .001$	Hyp 7: ✓

Table 8: Results from the Correlation Analyses between National Identity and Consumer Behaviour

Between patriotism and domestic product evaluation a statistically significant positive correlation has been found ($r = .661$, $p < .001$). These results, which have also been replicated at the individual product level, are in line with hypothesis 8 which expects that the two variables are positively related. In addition, patriotism shows a significant ($p < .001$) positive correlation with the willingness to buy domestic products in general ($r = .617$) and the willingness to buy toys ($r = .605$), furniture ($r = .632$) or beer ($r = .406$) from Denmark. Thus, hypothesis 9 is also confirmed by the data. Patriotism and the intention to buy domestic products are positively related. The results of the correlation analyses between patriotism and consumer behaviour are shown in Table 9. Again, the exact values for the individual product levels can be found in Appendix K.

Variables	Expected Relationship	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Patriotism – Domestic Product Evaluation (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .661$	$p < .001$	Hyp 8: ✓
Patriotism – Intention to Buy Domestic (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .617$	$p < .001$	Hyp 9: ✓

Table 9: Results from the Correlation Analyses between Patriotism and Consumer Behaviour

The correlation coefficient between nationalism and evaluation of domestic products is also highly significant ($p < .001$) and amounts to $r = .266$, a value which, according to Field (2005), represents a medium effect. This relationship also holds for the individual product level and thus hypothesis 10 assuming that nationalism is positively related to the evaluation of domestic products is confirmed. Regarding the evaluation of foreign products a negative correlation with nationalism has been expected. However, when looking at the results for the evaluation of products from Germany the correlation coefficient is very close to zero ($r = -.018$) and in addition not significant. For the evaluation of products from the United States the correlation coefficient is small but

positive ($r = .141$, $p < .05$) and hence contrary to the theoretical expectations. On the individual product category level most correlation coefficients are around zero and non-significant (see Appendix L for more details). Thus, no statistically significant negative relationship has been found between nationalism and the evaluation of foreign products and as a consequence hypothesis 11 is rejected.

As anticipated a positive relationship has been discovered between nationalism and the intention to buy domestic products in general ($r = .196$, $p < .01$) as well as between nationalism and the intention to buy toys ($r = .135$, $p < .05$), furniture ($r = .198$, $p < .01$) and beer ($r = .185$, $p < .01$) from Denmark. Hence, hypothesis 12 is supported by the data. Hypothesis 13, however, which assumes a negative relationship between nationalism and consumers' intention to buy foreign products is not confirmed by the empirical results. Between nationalism and the willingness to buy products from Germany a small positive correlation has been found ($r = .162$, $p < .01$), which is against theoretical expectations. In addition, the correlation coefficient for willingness to buy products from the United States is statistically not significant. On the individual product category level the correlations are also either slightly positive or not significant. Thus, hypothesis 13 is not supported. The main results for the relationship between nationalism and consumer behaviour are summarized in Table 10. Detailed correlation coefficients per country and product category can be found in Appendix L.

Variables	Expected Relationship	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Nationalism – Domestic Product Evaluation (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .266$	$p < .001$	Hyp 10: ✓
Nationalism – Foreign Product Evaluation (Products from Germany)	-	$r = -.018$	not sig.	Hyp 11: x
Nationalism – Foreign Product Evaluation (Products from the United States)	-	$r = .141$	$p < .05$	Hyp 11: x
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Domestic (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .196$	$p < .01$	Hyp 12: ✓
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Products from Germany)	-	$r = .162$	$p < .01$	Hyp 13: x
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Products from the United States)	-	$r = .108$	not sig.	Hyp 13: x

Table 10: Results from the Correlation Analyses between Nationalism and Consumer Behaviour

Concerning consumer ethnocentrism and consumers' evaluations of domestic products a positive relationship has been expected between these two constructs. However, the correlation analysis reveals a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and the overall evaluation of Danish products ($r = -.188$, $p < .01$), and thus hypothesis 14 needs to be rejected. Furthermore, the correlation coefficients between consumer ethnocentrism and evaluation of foreign products from Germany ($r = -.019$) and the United States ($r = -.032$) are statistically not significant. However, when looking at the individual product category level consumer ethnocentrism is significantly negatively related to the evaluation of toys from the United States ($r = -.116$, $p < .05$) and beer from Germany ($r = -.165$, $p < .01$). Thus, hypothesis 15 can only partly be confirmed because no significant negative relationship has been found between consumer ethnocentrism and the evaluation of foreign products. In fact, the hypothesis is only supported for certain product categories from specific foreign countries.

Variables	Expected Relationship	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Domestic Product Evaluation (<i>Products from Denmark</i>)	+	$r = -.188$	$p < .01$	Hyp 14: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Foreign Product Evaluation (<i>Products from Germany</i>)	-	$r = -.019$	not sig.	Hyp 15: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Foreign Product Evaluation (<i>Products from the United States</i>)	-	$r = -.032$	not sig.	Hyp 15: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Domestic (<i>Products from Denmark</i>)	+	$r = -.226$	$p < .001$	Hyp 16: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (<i>Products from Germany</i>)	-	$r = .087$	not sig.	Hyp 17: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (<i>Products from the United States</i>)	-	$r = .071$	not sig.	Hyp 17: x

Table 11: Results from the Correlation Analyses between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Consumer Behaviour

Between consumer ethnocentrism and the intention to buy domestic products a negative correlation ($r = -.226$) has been found. Although this relationship is statistically significant ($p < .001$) it goes in the wrong direction. In contrast to hypothesis 16 which assumes a positive correlation between these two concepts, the empirical findings show that consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy domestic products are negatively related in the present study. Thus, hypothesis 16 is not supported. The correlation coefficients between consumer ethnocentrism and intention to buy foreign products from Germany or the United States are statistically not significant. Hence, hypothesis

17 predicting a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy foreign products needs to be rejected. The main results of the correlation analyses for consumer ethnocentrism can be found in Table 11 above. Detailed figures per country and product category are presented in Appendix M.

As has already been explained above, correlation analyses give no indication of the direction of causality. Thus, in order to be able to test which of the four constructs is a significant predictor of consumers' product evaluations and purchase intentions multiple regression analyses have been performed. In contrast to simple regression, multiple regression analysis seeks to predict an outcome variable from several predictors. For predictor selection the forced entry method has been chosen. In this method all independent variables are forced into the model simultaneously. Thereby their selection relies on good theoretical reasons but the experimenter makes no decision about the order in which variables are entered (Field 2005).

4.2.3.2 Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting the Evaluation of Domestic Products

First, the regression model investigating the relationship between the four concepts and the evaluation of domestic products has been examined. As suggested by the hypotheses developed in chapter 3, national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism have been included as the independent or predictor variables whereas domestic product evaluation represents the outcome variable.

The results indicate that no multicollinearity¹⁹ exists within the data as none of the correlations between the predictors and the outcome variable are above .9. In addition, the VIF values are all well below 10 and the tolerance statistics well above .2, which further supports this assumption. Furthermore, the Durbin-Watson statistic is close to 2, which suggests that the assumption of independent error²⁰ is met, as well (Field 2005). The F-value is quite large and significant ($p < .001$) thus indicating a good model fit. R^2 amounts to .499. Hence, the predictors can account for almost 50% of the variation in the model. Keeping in mind the correlation coefficients presented earlier, patriotism

¹⁹ Multicollinearity refers to a situation in which two or more variables are very closely linearly related (Field 2005).

²⁰ The assumption of independent error supposes that for any two observations the residual terms should be uncorrelated (Field 2005).

shows the highest relationship with domestic product evaluation ($r = .661$, $p < .001$) and as a consequence it is likely that this variable will best predict the outcome. The regression equation's b-values, their standard errors and standardized β coefficients are reported in Table 12 below.

The b-values of the multiple regression analysis indicate the degree to which each predictor contributes to the outcome when the effects of all other independent variables are held constant (Field 2005). According to the results, the evaluation of domestic products is positively affected by national identity and patriotism whilst negatively affected by consumer ethnocentrism. The b-value for nationalism is very small and not significant and hence this variable appears to make no significant contribution to the model. The standardized β coefficients are directly comparable because they are measured in standard deviation units, and therefore they provide a better insight into the importance of each independent variable in the model (Field 2005). National identity has a significant ($p < .01$) standardized β coefficient of .249. The β representing the effect of patriotism is even larger ($\beta = .475$, $p < .001$), which indicates that patriotism is the best predictor of the evaluation of domestic products in the model.

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.126	.224		$p < .001$	
National Identity	.167	.059	.249	$p < .01$	Hyp 6: ✓
Patriotism	.354	.065	.475	$p < .001$	Hyp 8: ✓
Nationalism	-.020	.049	-.025	not sig.	Hyp 10: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.134	.044	-.166	$p < .01$	Hyp 14: x

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Products from Denmark, $R^2 = .499$

Table 12: Coefficient Table of the Multiple Regression Analysis on Evaluation of Domestic Products

From these results it can be inferred that only national identity and patriotism have a substantially positive influence on the outcome variable. Nationalism has no significant influence on the evaluation of domestic products in general and the coefficients for consumer ethnocentrism go in the wrong direction. Thus, hypotheses 6 and 8 which assume that national identity and patriotism respectively positively influence the

evaluation of domestic products are both confirmed. In contrast, hypothesis 10 which predicts the same impact for nationalism is not supported by the data. Although the correlation analysis has shown a positive correlation between nationalism and the evaluation of domestic products ($r = .266$, $p < .001$) the findings from the regression reveal that nationalism does not predict the outcome variable. Furthermore, consumer ethnocentrism has a negative influence on the evaluation of domestic products, and thus hypothesis 14 predicting a positive impact needs to be rejected, as well.

On the individual product category level, i.e. toys, furniture and beer from Denmark, these findings are on the whole confirmed (see Appendix N). However, concerning nationalism the multiple regression analysis predicting the evaluation of beer from Denmark has revealed a statistically significant ($p < .05$) positive b-value ($b = .125$) and β coefficient ($\beta = .143$). Thus, hypothesis 10 can partly be supported as nationalism appears to have a positive influence on the evaluation of Danish beer.

4.2.3.3 Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting the Evaluation of Foreign Products

Next, the regression analyses predicting the evaluation of foreign products from Germany and the United States have been examined. Based on the findings from the literature review nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism are expected to negatively influence the evaluation of products from these two countries whereas national identity and patriotism are not included in the regression models as both concepts only involve in-group favouritism without any consideration of foreign nations and are hence expected to have no negative influence on the evaluation of foreign products.

First, the regression analysis for the evaluation of products from Germany has been considered. The Durbin-Watson test confirms the assumption of independent error and multicollinearity seems to pose no problem because all correlations are smaller than .9, tolerance statistics are above .2 and VIF values are smaller than 10. However, the R^2 value is almost zero ($R^2 = .001$) and hence indicates that the independent variables nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism can account for only 0.1% of the variance in the model. Furthermore, the ANOVA is statistically not significant with an F-ratio even smaller than the suggested minimal threshold of 1 (Field 2005). The obtained b-values, their standard errors and the standardized β coefficients are displayed in Table 13.

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	4.506	.202		$p < .001$	
Nationalism	-.010	.050	-.014	not sig.	Hyp 11: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.011	.050	-.015	not sig.	Hyp 15: x

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Products from Germany, $R^2 = .001$

Table 13: Coefficient Table of the Multiple Regression Analysis on Evaluation of Products from Germany

As can be seen, the b-values and the standardized β coefficients for nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism are all very small and not significant. As a consequence hypotheses 11 and 15, which state that a high level of nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism respectively leads to a more negative evaluation of foreign products, need to be rejected. For the individual product categories, i.e. toys, furniture and beer from Germany, these findings are largely supported (see Appendix O). The exception hereby are the coefficients between consumer ethnocentrism and evaluation of furniture from Germany ($b = .149$, $\beta = .162$) as well as between consumer ethnocentrism and evaluation of beer from Germany ($b = -.135$, $\beta = -.168$) which are statistically significant ($p < .05$). However, the ANOVA for both models has a very low F-ratio and is statistically not significant, which indicates a poor model fit.

The regression model for the evaluation of products from the United States reveals that nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism can account for only 2.6% of the variation in the dependent variable ($R^2 = .026$). Generalizing for the total population this percentage decreases even more to 1.7% (adjusted $R^2 = .017$). Although the assumption of independent error is confirmed and multicollinearity poses no problem, the ANOVA is again statistically not significant with an F-ratio of 2.857. The b-value ($b = -.060$) and the standardized β coefficient ($\beta = -.083$) for consumer ethnocentrism are not significant either. These results indicate that consumer ethnocentrism does not explain the evaluation of products from the United States, and hence hypothesis 15 which assumes a negative relationship needs to be rejected. For nationalism positive coefficients have been found ($b = .122$, $\beta = .166$, $p < .05$). Hence, hypothesis 11 which indicates a negative relationship between nationalism and the evaluation of foreign products is also not supported by the data. On the individual product category level these findings are

largely confirmed. Between consumer ethnocentrism and the evaluation of toys from the United States significant negative coefficients have been found ($b = -.141$, $\beta = -.149$, $p < .05$). However, the ANOVA is statistically not significant, which again indicates a poor fit for the data. The b-values, their standard errors and the standardized β coefficients for the evaluation of products from the United States are displayed in Table 14. Detailed results per product category can be found in Appendix O.

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.568	.208		$p < .001$	
Nationalism	.122	.052	.166	$p < .05$	Hyp 11: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.060	.051	-.083	not sig.	Hyp 15: x

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Products from the United States, $R^2 = .026$

Table 14: Coefficient Table of the Multiple Regression Analysis on Evaluation of Products from the United States

4.2.3.4 Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting the Intention to Buy Domestic Products

The regression model predicting the willingness to buy domestic products yields a more satisfying R^2 value. Taken together the independent variables national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism account for 46.6% of the variance in the model and when generalizing for the total population this figure remains quite constant (adjusted $R^2 = .456$). The F-ratio is large and significant ($p < .001$) indicating a good model fit. Multicollinearity is no cause for concern as the VIF values are all below 10 and the tolerance statistics all above .2. Furthermore, the Durbin-Watson statistic is close to 2 and thus the assumption of independent error is met.

The b-values and β coefficients of the regression equation (see Table 15 below) show that the willingness to buy domestic products is positively affected by national identity and patriotism. Thus, hypotheses 7 and 9 which expect that high levels of national identity and patriotism respectively lead to a higher intention to buy domestic products are supported by the data. Again patriotism seems to be the best predictor in the model because this variable has the highest β coefficient ($\beta = .428$). The coefficients for

nationalism are not significant and as a consequence hypothesis 12 stating that nationalism has a positive influence on the willingness to buy domestic goods needs to be rejected. As reported earlier, a negative correlation ($r = -.226$, $p < .001$) has been found between consumer ethnocentrism and the intention to buy domestic products, which is contrary to the theoretical assumptions derived in chapter 3. This discrepancy is further supported by the results of the multiple regression analysis according to which consumer ethnocentrism in the present empirical study has a negative impact on the willingness to buy home-made goods. Therefore, hypothesis 16 which assumes a positive effect needs to be rejected.

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.595	.263		$p < .001$	
National Identity	.220	.070	.288	$p < .01$	Hyp 7: ✓
Patriotism	.363	.076	.428	$p < .001$	Hyp 9: ✓
Nationalism	-.079	.058	-.086	not sig.	Hyp 12: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.165	.051	-.179	$p < .01$	Hyp 16: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Products from Denmark, $R^2 = .466$

Table 15: Coefficient Table of the Multiple Regression Analysis on Intention to Buy Domestic Products

On the individual product category level, i.e. toys, furniture and beer from Denmark, these findings are confirmed (see Appendix P). However, one exception is the multiple regression analysis predicting the evaluation of beer from Denmark which yields positive but statistically not significant coefficients for patriotism. Thus, hypothesis 9 which suggests that patriotism has a positive impact on the willingness to buy domestic products cannot be supported for the intention to buy Danish beer.

4.2.3.5 Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting the Intention to Buy Foreign Products

Finally, a multiple regression analysis for the willingness to buy foreign products has been performed. Nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism have been chosen as

predictor variables because based on the hypotheses developed in chapter 3 both constructs are expected to negatively influence the intention to buy foreign goods. Again, national identity and patriotism are not included in the regression model as they involve only in-group favouritism and are expected to have no impact on the willingness to buy foreign products.

For the regression analysis predicting the willingness to buy products from Germany the Durbin-Watson statistic is close to 2, and hence the assumption of independent error is met. Multicollinearity poses no problem as the VIF values are all smaller than 10 and the tolerance statistics are well above .2. However, the R^2 value amounts to only .028, which means that the independent variables account for only 2.8% of the variance in the model. In addition, the F-ratio is rather low and statistically not significant which indicates a poor model fit. The b-values and standardized β coefficients are presented in Table 16 below.

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.577	.250		$p < .001$	
Nationalism	.131	.062	.149	$p < .05$	Hyp 13 : x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	.036	.062	.041	not sig.	Hyp 17: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Products from Germany, $R^2 = .028$

Table 16: Coefficient Table of the Multiple Regression Analysis on Intention to Buy Products from Germany

As can be seen, the b-value and β coefficient for nationalism are both positive and statistically significant ($p < .05$). Hence, hypothesis 13 which indicates that nationalism has a negative influence on the intention to buy foreign products is not supported by the data. The results for consumer ethnocentrism are statistically not significant and thus not in line with hypothesis 17 stating that the concept should negatively affect the willingness to buy products from foreign countries.

The regression analysis predicting the willingness to buy products from the United States also reveals a very small R^2 value of .013 indicating that nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism can account for only 1.3% of the variation in the model. Although the assumption of independent error is met and multicollinearity seems to

pose no problem, the ANOVA again yields a non-significant result which indicates a poor fit for the model. The b-values and standardized β coefficients are presented in Table 17. As the coefficients for both nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism are statistically not significant, hypotheses 13 and 17 which assume that both concepts have a negative influence on the willingness to buy foreign products need to be rejected.

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.012	.236		$p < .001$	
Nationalism	.078	.059	.095	not sig.	Hyp 13 : x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	.034	.058	.042	not sig.	Hyp 17: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Products from the United States, $R^2 = .013$

Table 17: Coefficient Table of the Multiple Regression Analysis on Intention to Buy Products from the United States

Again, for each foreign product category a separate multiple regression analysis has been conducted (see Appendix Q). In general, the findings presented above are confirmed. Only the regression analysis predicting the intention to buy furniture from Germany found a small statistically significant positive effect ($b = .159$, $\beta = .154$, $p < .05$) for consumer ethnocentrism. In addition, a significant positive impact of nationalism on the intention to buy furniture from the United States has been revealed ($b = 176$, $\beta = .182$, $p < .05$). However, again the F-ratio of both models is very low and statistically not significant, which indicates a poor fit for the data.

4.2.3.6 Summary of the Results

An overview about all these multiple regression analyses including their R^2 and adjusted R^2 values, Durbin-Watson statistics, the assessment of the model's fit for the data (ANOVA) and the tolerance as well as VIF values is displayed in Appendix R. In general it can be said that the results provide only partial support for the theoretical assumptions developed in chapter 3 about the impact of national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism on the evaluation of and intention to buy domestic versus foreign products.

Based on the conceptualisations of the constructs as involving only in-group favouritism, it has been suggested that national identity and patriotism have a positive effect on the evaluation of and intention to buy domestic products. These expectations have been confirmed by the findings and thus hypothesis 6 to 9 can be supported. In addition, these results are also in line with previous outcomes from the literature. Verlegh (2001, 2007) for example has found that an individual's willingness to buy domestic products increases with his or her level of national identity. Furthermore, the author has also confirmed that national identity is positively related with the perceived quality of home-made goods. Figure 16 and 17 contrast the hypotheses developed in chapter 3 with the actual findings from the present empirical study. The expected relationships between national identity or patriotism respectively and consumer behaviour are displayed on the left hand side whereas the relationships confirmed by the correlation and regression analyses are shown on the right.

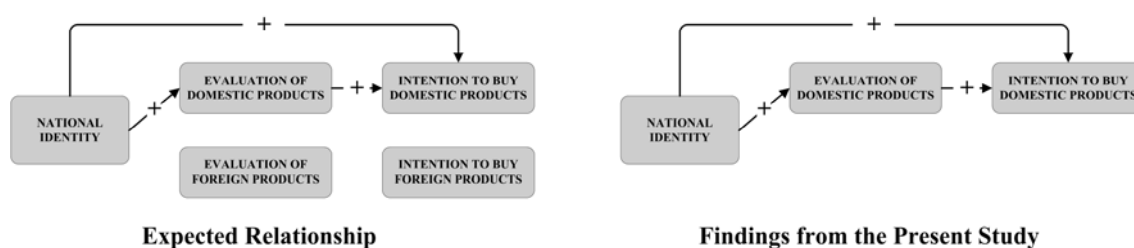


Figure 16: Comparison of the Expected Relationship between National Identity and Consumer Behaviour with the Actual Findings from the Present Empirical Study

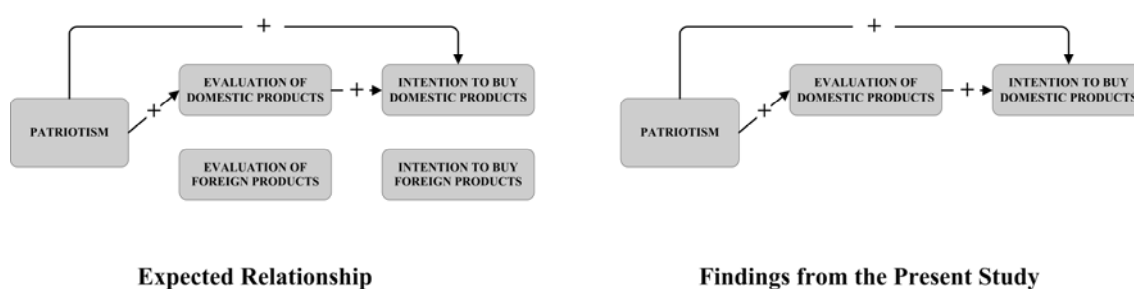


Figure 17: Comparison of the Expected Relationship between Patriotism and Consumer Behaviour with the Actual Findings from the Present Empirical Study

The outcomes from the correlation and regression analyses testing the relationship between nationalism and consumer behaviour are somewhat contradicting. Although the correlation analyses between nationalism and the evaluation of and willingness to buy domestic products show positive relationships, the regressions reveal statistically non-

significant results. Hence, in the present study nationalism has no significant positive influence on consumers' evaluation and choice of home-made goods in general and hypotheses 10 and 12 need to be rejected. The only exception hereby is the evaluation of beer from Denmark on which nationalism has a significant positive influence. Thus hypothesis 10 is confirmed for beer from Denmark. Concerning foreign goods the analyses yield either non-significant results or the discovered effects go in the wrong direction, which means they are positive for the impact of nationalism on the evaluation of products from Germany and the intention to buy products from the United States. However, the ANOVA in these two cases is statistically not significant, which indicates a poor fit for the data. Thus, hypotheses 11 and 13 predicting that nationalism has a negative effect on the evaluation of and intention to buy foreign products are also not supported. Figure 18 compares the assumptions developed in chapter 3 for nationalism and consumer behaviour with the present empirical findings.

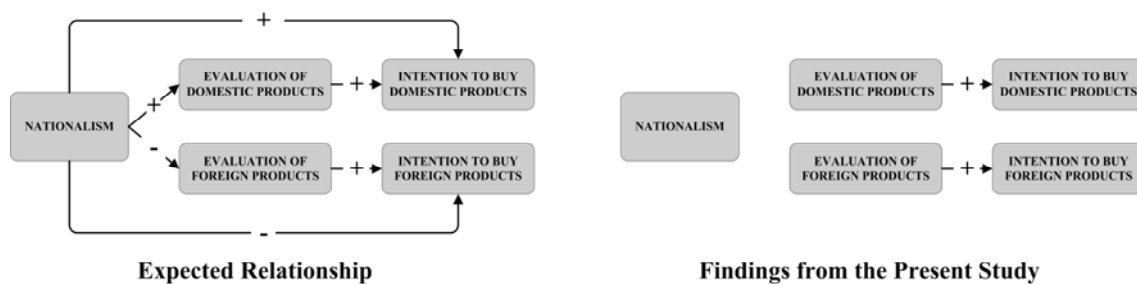


Figure 18: Comparison of the Expected Relationship between Nationalism and Consumer Behaviour with the Actual Findings from the Present Empirical Study

For consumer ethnocentrism the regression analyses predicting the evaluation of and intention to buy domestic products are both negative. As a consequence hypotheses 14 and 16 which assume a positive relationship between these variables need to be rejected. In addition, the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on the evaluation of and willingness to buy goods from Germany or the United States is statistically not significant. Hence, hypotheses 15 and 17 need to be rejected, as well. Although the hypotheses are not supported by the data, these findings are nevertheless partly in line with previous research on consumer ethnocentrism as for example Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004) have discovered that consumer ethnocentrism is mostly unrelated with preferences for foreign alternatives. Figure 19 compares the hypotheses

developed for the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer behaviour with the present empirical findings.

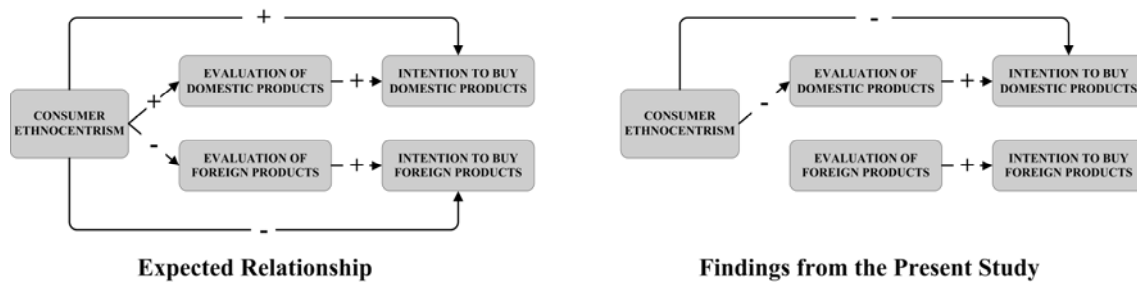


Figure 19: Comparison of the Expected Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Consumer Behaviour with the Actual Findings from the Present Empirical Study

Finally, the relationship between product evaluation and purchase intention should be addressed shortly. As can be seen in Figure 16 to 19 product evaluation and purchase intention are always expected to be positively related, which is confirmed by the data. In this empirical study, for each country and product category the correlation as well as the regression analyses reveal that there is a positive relationship between the evaluation of and the respective willingness to buy a product.

5 DISCUSSION

This thesis examines the concept of national identity. First of all, a detailed literature review on national identity and its related constructs patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism has been presented with the aim to discuss and evaluate the various definitions and measurement instruments proposed by scholars and to clearly distinguish the concepts from each other. In order to derive a sound conceptualisation of national identity, existing definitions of the construct in the field of political and social science as well as marketing have been reviewed. As no concise explanation of national identity could be found in the literature a new definition has been developed. Within the scope of this thesis national identity represents the extent to which an individual identifies with and has a positive feeling of affiliation to his or her home country that is subjectively important to his or her self-concept.

Patriotism and nationalism, on the other hand, refer to much stronger positive sentiments towards the own nation. In line with the definitions developed by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989) patriotism is seen as a feeling of love for and pride in the home country. Patriots do not only identify with their country. They rather are proud of their own nation and are willing to give everything for it (Druckman 1994). In contrast, nationalism combines this affection towards the home country with a degradation of out-groups. Nationalists perceive their home country as dominant and superior in comparison to foreign nations (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989). They idealize the own country and uncritically support its political authorities (Blank 2003). Finally, the conceptualisation of consumer ethnocentrism has been based on the well established work of Shimp & Sharma (1987) seeing the construct as the belief that purchasing foreign products is wrong, immoral and inappropriate because it harms the domestic economy and causes a loss of jobs.

Next, hypotheses have been developed about how the four concepts are related and how they influence the evaluation of and willingness to buy domestic versus foreign products. In order to test these hypotheses a self-completion questionnaire has been created and administered to a convenience sample of 217 Danish students. Two pretests have been carried out so as to assure the appropriateness and comprehensibility of the items. Additionally, before conducting the main analysis the data has been screened and

the scales' uni-dimensionality and reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha > .80$) has been checked.

As anticipated the results from the empirical study demonstrate that national identity is not only positively related to patriotism and nationalism, it also predicts these two constructs. Thus, the assumption that national identity is an antecedent of patriotism and nationalism is confirmed. This is in line with the findings from Blank (2003) and Blank & Schmidt (2003), who both claim that national identity is the more general concept whereas patriotism and nationalism represent stronger and more specific forms of support for the home country which follow from national identity. However, against expectations national identity shows no direct relationship with consumer ethnocentrism. It has been suggested in chapter 3 that a simple feeling of attachment to the home country can translate into economic preferences. This has also been empirically confirmed by Verlegh (2001, 2007), who has found that national identity contributes to the overall strength of consumer ethnocentrism. Nevertheless, as the regression analysis between these two concepts yields a non-significant result, the findings from the present empirical study prove that the pure in-group favouritism of national identity does not directly lead to the avoidance of foreign goods.

Patriotism and nationalism have also been considered as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism. However, according to the regression analyses only nationalism proved to be a significant predictor of consumer ethnocentrism while the results for patriotism are not significant. Thus, Danish consumers seem to show ethnocentric tendencies due to a feeling of superiority and dominance towards other nations and not because they love their home country. This is in line with the findings from several other studies which indicate that the impact of patriotism and nationalism on consumer ethnocentrism is not consistent across countries. For example, Balabanis et al. (2001) have revealed that consumer ethnocentrism in Turkey is influenced by patriotism whereas in the Czech Republic nationalism has a bigger impact. Lee et al. (2003) have replicated the study in the United States and partly support these results. They have discovered a positive relationship between nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism but found no support for the same postulated correlation between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism. Just like in the present empirical study nationalism was found to be a statistically significant antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism while patriotism was not.

To sum up, the findings support the assumption that national identity is the basic concept which can translate into stronger national attitudes such as patriotism or nationalism. However, national identity is no direct antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism. People who simply identify with and have a positive feeling of attachment to their home country do not directly develop a tendency to favour domestic over foreign products. Rather this basic attachment needs to become stronger and turn into nationalism, the only significant predictor of consumer ethnocentrism in the present study. This nationalism can then, due to its typical feeling of superiority and dominance towards other nations, lead to prejudices against imports.

From the definitions presented above it can be inferred that national identity and patriotism involve only in-group favouritism whereas nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism combine this love for the home country with negative attitudes toward other nations. Research has shown that favourable attitudes towards one's own group are not necessarily linked to hostility towards other groups (Brewer 1999). Hence, the first two concepts are expected to have no effect on the evaluation and willingness to buy foreign products while the latter two should have a negative impact. Concerning domestic product evaluation and consumption behaviour all four constructs are expected to have a positive influence.

For national identity these assumptions have been confirmed. National identity has a statistically significant positive influence on the evaluation of and intention to buy domestic products. Thus, consumers with a high level of national identity tend to evaluate domestic products more favourably and are also likely to rather buy domestic goods. These results are in line with Verlegh (2001), who has discovered that an individual's willingness to buy domestic products increases with his or her level of national identity. Furthermore, Verlegh (2007) has found that national identity is not only positively related to the preference for home-made goods but also to the perceived quality of domestic goods, which is confirmed by the present empirical study, as well.

For patriotism similar results have been obtained. Patriotism has a positive influence on the evaluation of and intention to buy domestic products. Thus, patriotic consumers tend to favour domestic goods and are also more likely to buy the home-made alternatives.

However, the hypotheses regarding nationalism largely need to be rejected. The regression analysis predicting domestic product evaluation has revealed a statistically

non-significant result and thus nationalism seems to make no contribution to the overall evaluation of home-made goods. Only for the evaluation of Danish beer a positive influence has been found. Furthermore, nationalism has no significant effect on the intention to buy domestic products. Concerning the evaluation of and willingness to buy foreign goods the regression analyses also reveal mostly non-significant results, which indicates that nationalism has no negative influence on the attitudes towards and choice of foreign products. These findings are in line with the results from Balabanis et al. (2007), who have found that nationalism has no influence on the willingness to buy imported goods.

Thus, in Denmark nationalism seems to influence only certain product categories. Nationalistic consumers tend to evaluate domestic beer more favourably but show no higher willingness to buy domestic products. In addition, foreign goods are in general not depreciated. This might perhaps be attributable to the respective product categories from Germany and the United States used in the present empirical study as they might not be seen as a threat to the national dominance felt by nationalistic consumers.

As mentioned above, consumer ethnocentrism represents the tendency to favour domestic over foreign goods (Shimp & Sharma 1987) and as such it has been expected to positively influence domestic product evaluation and consumption behaviour and to negatively influence the evaluation of and intention to buy foreign goods. However, the findings from the present empirical study are not exactly in line with the theoretical assumptions. Consumer ethnocentrism has been found to negatively affect the evaluation of and willingness to buy domestic products. Furthermore, no significant impact has been found for the evaluation of and intention to buy foreign products.

Although the hypotheses for consumer ethnocentrism need to be rejected, these findings are nevertheless partly in line with previous research. Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004) for example have found that consumer ethnocentrism is mostly unrelated with preferences for foreign products. In addition, Durvasula et al. (1997) have argued that product evaluations and preferences can vary depending upon product type and country of origin. As a consequence the not existing negative influence of consumer ethnocentrism on the evaluation and intention to buy foreign products might be attributable to the general image of products from Germany and the United States. Both are industrial countries and well known for high quality goods. Hence, the findings might have been different if other countries had been involved. Furthermore, research

has shown that younger, higher educated people tend to be less ethnocentric (Lee et al. 2003). The level of consumer ethnocentrism in the sample is quite low. The mean for the total scale is only 3.07, which is below the average of 4. Thus, the contradicting results can possibly be explained by the use of a student sample which consists of younger participants who either study at a university or already possess a university degree.

6 CONCLUSION

Due to globalization and international trade most consumers are confronted with a variety of products from all over the world which compete against the domestic alternatives. For companies that operate more and more at an international level it becomes necessary to examine how consumers react to these imported products compared to domestic goods in order to best plan their marketing actions. When consumers evaluate products they do this not always based on objective criteria but rather refer to certain cues, such as the country of origin. If consumers are for some reason extensively biased towards their home country this can strongly influence their evaluation of and willingness to buy goods with a foreign country of origin. Thus, for marketers it becomes interesting whether the foreign origin of a product will make it less interesting to consumers (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2004). National identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism are concepts which play an important role in this context because they represent different types of this home country bias.

On the theoretical front this study offers a new, sound conceptualisation of national identity based on the definitions found in political and social science as well as marketing literature. Furthermore, the empirical results show that the short multi-item group identification scale by Brown et al. (1986) presents a reliable and valid tool for assessing national identity in an international marketing context. In addition, the cross-cultural applicability of Kosterman & Feshbach's (1989) patriotism and nationalism measure as well as Shimp & Sharma's (1987) CETSCALE has been verified once again.

Through highlighting the relationship between national identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism international marketers gain valuable insights into how the various forms of attachment to the home country are connected. Moreover, the four concepts can improve the understanding of how consumers compare domestic with foreign-made products. Consumers with a high level of national identity and patriotism are likely to evaluate domestic products more favourably and their willingness to buy domestic products is also higher. However, they prefer domestic goods out of different

reasons. Patriots love their home country and are proud of it while people with a high national identity just feel a positive attachment to their own nation. Nationalists on the other hand perceive the domestic country as superior and better than other nations. These small but important differences have been clarified within the scope of this thesis and have important implications for marketing strategies.

National identity, patriotism, nationalism and consumer ethnocentrism can be useful tools for contemporary marketing managers. The constructs can be used as segmentation variables so as to detect those market segments that show no negative attitudes towards foreign products. In addition the concepts offer the possibility for better understanding how present and prospective customers feel about purchasing foreign-made versus domestic products. This can influence the success of international communication strategies. For example, if consumers are found to be highly nationalistic or ethnocentric, a foreign company's communication strategy should deemphasize the product's country of origin or try to convince local customers that the good is not harmful to their economy.

However, the study also has several limitations. As a student sample has been used, it is necessary to further test these findings with representative samples from other countries. In addition, maybe the inclusion of other countries and product categories could be considered. The student sample has on average low mean scores for consumer ethnocentrism which might possibly explain the contradicting results for this concept. Thus, additional research is needed to examine the relationships between the various constructs with more representative samples.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A: 17-Item CETSCALE by Shimp & Sharma (1987) (Shimp & Sharma 1987, p. 282)

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

Appendix B: 10-Item Group Identification Scale by Brown et al. (1986)
 (Brown et al. 1986, p. 276)

Item 1	I am a person who considers the group important.
Item 2	I am a person who identifies with the group.
Item 3	I am a person who feels strong ties with the group.
Item 4	I am a person who is glad to belong to the group.
Item 5	I am a person who sees myself as belonging to the group.
Item 6	I am a person who makes excuses for belonging to the group.
Item 7	I am a person who tries to hide belonging to the group.
Item 8	I am a person who feels held back by the group.
Item 9	I am a person who is annoyed to say I'm a member of the group.
Item 10	I am a person who criticizes the group.

Appendix C: Modifications of Keillor et al.'s (1996) NATID Scale Across Studies
(adapted from Thelen & Honeycutt 2004, p. 60)

Item	Keillor et al. (1996)	Cui & Adams (2002) – Model 1	Cui & Adams (2002) – Model 2	Thelen & Honeycutt (2004)
Important people from the country's past are admired by people today.	National Heritage	Cultural Heritage	Cultural Heritage	National Heritage
One of country X's strengths is that it emphasizes events of historical importance.	National Heritage	Belief Tradition	–	National Heritage
The country X has a strong historical heritage.	National Heritage	–	–	–
A country X person possesses certain cultural attributes that other people do not possess.	Cultural Homogeneity	Cultural Homogeneity	–	Cultural Homogeneity
Country X citizens in general feel that they come from a common background.	Cultural Homogeneity	Cultural Homogeneity	Cultural Homogeneity	Cultural Homogeneity
Country X citizens are proud of their nationality.	Cultural Homogeneity	Belief Tradition	Cultural Homogeneity	National Heritage
People frequently engage in activities that identify them as country X citizens.	Cultural Homogeneity	Cultural Heritage	Cultural Heritage	Cultural Homogeneity
Country X citizens are proud of their [ethnic] and [religious] roots.	–	–	Cultural Homogeneity	–
One of the things that distinguish country X citizens from other countries is its traditions and customs.	–	–	Belief Tradition	–
A specific religious philosophy is what makes a person uniquely a country X citizen.	Belief System	Belief Tradition	Cultural Homogeneity	Belief System
It is impossible for an individual to be truly a country X citizen without taking part in some form of religious activity.	Belief System	–	–	Belief System
Religious education is essential to preserve the cohesiveness of the country X society.	Belief System	Belief Tradition	Belief Tradition	Belief System
A specific religious philosophy is not an important part of being an American. (<i>reversed</i>)	Belief System	–	–	–
A true country X person would never reject his or her religious beliefs.	Belief System	Belief Tradition	Belief Tradition	Belief System
We should purchase products manufactured in country X instead of letting other countries get rich of us.	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Consumer Ethnocentrism	–
It is always best to purchase country X products. (Russian products, first, last and foremost)	Consumer Ethnocentrism	–	–	Consumer Ethnocentrism
Country X's citizens should not buy foreign products, because it hurts the country's business and causes unemployment.	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Consumer Ethnocentrism
It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support country X products.	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Consumer Ethnocentrism
Only those products that are unavailable in country X should be imported.	Consumer Ethnocentrism	–	–	Consumer Ethnocentrism

Appendix D: 5-Item National Identification Scale by Verlegh (2001)
(Verlegh 2001, p. 92)

Item 1	I am proud to be Dutch.
Item 2	Being Dutch is not important to me. <i>(reversed)</i>
Item 3	I don't like it when someone has a negative opinion about The Netherlands.
Item 4	I don't feel any ties with The Netherlands. <i>(reversed)</i>
Item 5	Being Dutch means a lot to me.

Appendix E: 12-Item Patriotism Scale by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)
(Kosterman & Feshbach 1989, p. 264)

Item 1	I love my country.
Item 2	I am proud to be an American.
Item 3	In a sense, I am emotionally attached to my country and emotionally affected by its actions.
Item 4	Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to the U.S. always remains strong.
Item 5	I feel a great pride in that land that is our America.
Item 6	It is not that important for me to serve my country. <i>(reversed)</i>
Item 7	When I see the American flag flying I feel great.
Item 8	The fact that I am an American is an important part of my identity.
Item 9	It is not constructive for one to develop an emotional attachment to his/her country. <i>(reversed)</i>
Item 10	In general, I have very little respect for the American people. <i>(reversed)</i>
Item 11	It bothers me to see children made to pledge allegiance to the flag or sing the national anthem or otherwise induced to adopt such strong patriotic attitudes. <i>(reversed)</i>
Item 12	The U.S. is really just an institution, big and powerful yes, but just an institution. <i>(reversed)</i>

Appendix F: 8-Item Nationalism Scale by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)
 (Kosterman & Feshbach 1989, p. 265)

Item 1	In view of America's moral and material superiority, it is only right that we should have the biggest say in deciding United Nations policy.
Item 2	The first duty of every young American is to honor the national American history and heritage.
Item 3	The important thing for the U.S. foreign aid program is to see to it that the U.S. gains political advantage.
Item 4	Other countries should try to make their government as much like ours as possible.
Item 5	Generally, the more influence America has on other nations, the better off they are.
Item 6	Foreign nations have done some very fine things but it takes America to do things in a big way.
Item 7	It is important that the U.S. win in international sporting competition like the Olympics.
Item 8	It is really not important that the U.S. be number one in whatever it does. (reversed)

Appendix G: Previous Studies on National Identity, Patriotism and Nationalism

Authors	Discipline	Main Focus	Country	Measures	Sample	Dependent Variable(s)	Validity / Reliability
Adorno et al. (1950)	Political Psychology	Understand the ideological trends and personality traits that lead to support for systems like Nazi-Germany and develop a suitable measurement instrument	USA	Ethnocentrism (34 items) - Negro subscale (12 items) - Minority subscale (12 items) - Patriotism subscale (10 items) → measures 'pseudo-patriotism'	N = 144 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	-	Internal consistency reliability: - Patriotism ($\alpha = .80$)
Terhune (1964)	Political Psychology	Clarify the meaning of nationalism and explore its psychological consequences	USA	- Nationalism (7 items) - Affective involvement (6 items) - Goal involvement (6 items) - Ego involvement (5 items) - Dogmatism (10 items) - National power and status, threat to the nation	N Foreign Students = 177 N Americans = 185 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: judgmental sampling	-	not reported
Feather (1981)	Social Psychology	Examine national identification in a newly independent nation	Papua New Guinea	- National identification (1 item) - Attitudes toward national independence of PNG (3 items) - Cantril measures for past, present and future standing of both self and PNG/Australia - Rokeach value survey	N Papua New Guinea = 231 N Australians in PNG = 75 N Australians in AUS = 114 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	-	not reported
Shimp & Sharma (1987)	Marketing	Introduce the concept of consumer ethnocentrism and create and validate a corresponding measurement instrument, the CETSCALE	USA	Study 1 + 2: - Attitudes toward foreign products - Purchase intentions - Ownership of imported cars - Patriotism (5 items) → scale by Adorno et al. (1950) - Conservatism (6 items) - Consumer ethnocentrism (10 items) Study 3: - Opinions toward consumer goods vulnerable to foreign competition - Consumer ethnocentrism (10 items) Study 4: - Reaction to commercials from a Crafted-with-pride-in-USA campaign - Consumer ethnocentrism (17 items) - Dogmatism (20 items) - Patriotism (5 items) → scale by Adorno et al. (1950) - Conservatism (6 items) - Purchase intentions towards domestic and imported clothing	N Study1 = 1,535 N Study2 = 417 Sample type: general population Sampling method: quota sampling N Study3 = 2,000+ Sample type: general population Sampling method: quota sampling N Study4 = 145 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	-	Convergent validity Discriminant validity Nomological validity Internal consistency reliability: - Consumer ethnocentrism ($\alpha = .94$ to .96) - Patriotism ($\alpha = .58$ to .69) Test-retest reliability

Authors	Discipline	Main Focus	Country	Measures	Sample	Dependent Variable(s)	Validity / Reliability
Han (1988)	Marketing	Examine the role of consumer patriotism in the choice between domestic and foreign products (TV sets and cars from Japan and Korea)	USA	- Consumer patriotism (4 items) - Country image (5 items) - Product serviceability (2 items) - Purchase intentions (3 items)	N = 212 Sample type: consumer sample Sampling method: systematic sampling	Purchase intention	not reported
Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)	Political Psychology	Highlight the multi-dimensionality of patriotism and nationalism and develop a scale to measure both constructs	USA	- Patriotism (12 items) - Nationalism (8 items) - Internationalism (9 items) - Civil liberties (7 items) - World government (6 items) - Smugness (4 items)	N = 239 Sample type: college students (N = 194) high school students (N = 24) building contractors (N = 21) Sampling method: convenience sampling	-	<i>Discriminant validity</i> <i>Internal consistency reliability:</i> - Patriotism ($\alpha = .886$) - Nationalism ($\alpha = .798$)
Sharma et al. (1995)	Marketing	Identify antecedents and moderators of consumer ethnocentrism and show the impact of the concept on attitudes toward importing products	Korea	- Patriotism (8 items) → scale partly by <i>Adorno et al. (1950)</i> - Collectivism/individualism (11 items) - Conservatism (7 items) - Cultural openness (7 items) - Perceived economic threat (7 items) - Consumer ethnocentrism (17 items) → scale by <i>Shimp & Sharma (1987)</i> - Daily-living necessity and attitude toward importing 10 product categories (medicine, beef, PCs, kitchenware, golf clubs, liquor, bananas, insurance, large refrigerators, jewellery)	N_{Mail} = 125 N_{School} = 542 Sample type: consumer sample Sampling method: stratified sampling_(mail) + convenience sampling_(school)	Attitude toward importing 10 product categories	<i>Convergent validity</i> <i>Discriminant validity</i> <i>Internal consistency reliability:</i> - Patriotism/Conservatism ($\alpha = .71$) - Consumer ethnocentrism ($\alpha = .91$)
Baughn & Yaprak (1996)	Political Psychology	Develop a scale to measure economic nationalism and distinguish the construct from general nationalism and other international orientations	USA	- Economic nationalism (16 items) → scale partly by <i>Shimp & Sharma (1987)</i> - Nationalism (6 items) - Patriotism (5 items) → scales by <i>Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)</i> - Internationalism (7 items) - Openness (4 items), Cosmopolitanism - Economic threat (4 items), Job insecurity (1 item) - Measures added in Study II: - Authoritarianism (5 items) - Intolerance of ambiguity (8 items)	N_{Sample} = 131 N_{SampleII} = 95 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	Economic nationalism Nationalism	<i>Internal consistency reliability:</i> - Economic nationalism ($\alpha = .84$ to .86) - Nationalism ($\alpha = .64$ to .75) - Patriotism ($\alpha = .78$ to .83) <i>Test-retest reliability</i>
Haller (1996)	Political Science	Examine the national identity of Austrians	Austria	- National identity (22 items) - Patriotism/national pride (24 items) - Immigration/foreigners (9 items) - Central Europe Questions (22 items) - Austrian history and politics (27 items) → items from <i>ISSP 'national identity' study (1995)</i>	N = 1,007 Sample type: general population	-	not reported

Authors	Discipline	Main Focus	Country	Measures	Sample	Dependent Variable(s)	Validity / Reliability
Keillor et al. (1996)	Marketing	Develop a measurement instrument of national identity, establish norms for its use in international marketing and show differences in the importance placed on national identity and its underlying dimensions across 3 countries	USA Japan Sweden	Sample USA: - National identity (53 items) - Consumer ethnocentrism (17 items) → scale by <i>Shimp & Sharma (1987)</i> Sample Japan + Sweden: National identity: - National heritage (3 items) - Cultural homogeneity (4 items) - Belief system (5 items) - Consumer ethnocentrism (5 items)	N_{USA} = 167 Sample type: student sample N_{Japan} = 247 Sample type: general population N_{Sweden} = 129 Sample type: student sample (N = 37) + general population Sampling method: convenience sampling	-	Face validity Convergent validity α not reported
Mlicki & Ellemers (1996)	Social Psychology	Examine national and European identification and how both are related to group perceptions	Poland The Netherlands	Study 1: - Generation and rating of typical national traits Study 2: - Rating of 4 positive and 4 negative traits for GB, GER, ITA and PL/NL - National identification (5 items) - European identification (5 items) Study 3: - National identification (5 items) - European identification (5 items) - Rating of 15 national traits Study 4: - Internal/external attribution of 5 typical national traits (5 items), Evaluation of 15 national traits - National identification (5 items)	N_{Study1} = 75_{PL} + 75_{NL} N_{Study2} = 80_{PL} + 80_{NL} N_{Study3} = 79_{PL} + 82_{NL} N_{Study4} = 22_{PL} + 18_{NL} Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	-	Internal consistency reliability: - National identification (α = .74 to .87) - European identification (α = .90 to .91)
Rawwas et al. (1996)	Marketing	Expand knowledge of the influence of country-of-origin, nationalism and worldmindedness on perceived product quality	Austria	- Nationalism (27 items) → as stated in the paper: scale by <i>Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)</i> although most items seem to be taken from <i>Shimp & Sharma's (1987) CETSCALE</i> - Worldmindedness (7 items) - Perceived quality of 10 product categories (cars, PCs, food, fashion clothing, office equipment, alcoholic beverages, everyday clothing, mainframe computers, stereo equipment, durable consumer goods) from AUT, GER, USA, JAP and UK	N = 593 Sample type: consumer sample Sampling method: random sampling	10 product categories	Convergent validity Discriminant validity Concurrent validity Internal consistency reliability: - Nationalism (α = .955)

Authors	Discipline	Main Focus	Country	Measures	Sample	Dependent Variable(s)	Validity / Reliability
Doosje et al. (1998)	Social Psychology	Examine the impact of the history of one's group on feelings of guilt and group perceptions	The Netherlands	Study 1: - General group questions (24 items) - Manipulation of group/personal bias through feedback about group behaviour + check (3 items) - Collective guilt (5 items), Personal guilt (10 items) - Perceived group variability (6 items) - Compensatory behaviour (4 items) - Group identification (3 items) Study 2: - National identification (8 items) - Manipulation of Dutch history (unfavourable, ambiguous, favourable) + check (1 item) - Collective guilt (5 items) - Perceived behaviour variability (4 items) - Compensatory behaviour (6 items)	N_{Study1} = 58 N_{Study2} = 135 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	-	Internal consistency reliability: - Group identification ($\alpha = .81$) - National identification ($\alpha = .94$)
Keillor & Hult (1999)	Marketing	Develop and measure the theoretical construct of national identity and establish a standardized approach which can be used in various cultural settings	USA Japan Sweden Hong Kong Mexico	National identity - National heritage (3 items) - Cultural homogeneity (4 items) - Belief system (5 items) - Consumer ethnocentrism (5 items) → <i>NATID scale by Keillor et al. (1996)</i>	N_{USA} = 167 N_{Japan} = 248 N_{HongKong} = 234 N_{Mexico} = 183 Sample type: general population N_{Sweden} = 129 Sample type: student sample (N = 37) + general population Sampling method: convenience sampling	-	Internal consistency reliability: - National heritage ($\alpha = .46$ to $.77$) - Cultural homogeneity ($\alpha = .36$ to $.72$) - Belief system ($\alpha = .32$ to $.74$) - Consumer ethnocentrism ($\alpha = .43$ to $.88$)
Lili & Diehl (1999)	Social Science	Develop a theoretically based measurement instrument of national identity	Germany	Study 1: National identity: - Membership (4 items) - Private (4 items) - Public (4 items) - Identity (4 items) Measures added in Study 2: Comparison (4 items)	N_{Study1} = 96 N_{Study2} = 49 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	-	Internal consistency reliability: - National identity ($\alpha = .82$ to $.84$)

Authors	Discipline	Main Focus	Country	Measures	Sample	Dependent Variable(s)	Validity / Reliability
Schatz et al. (1999)	Political Psychology	Conceptualize the multi-dimensional nature of patriotism and develop a reliable and valid measure of blind and constructive patriotism	USA	- Blind patriotism (12 items) - Constructive patriotism (6 items) Measures added in Study 1: - National attachment (17 items) → scale partly by <i>Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)</i> - Nationalism (6 items) → scale by <i>Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)</i> - Cultural contamination (3 items) - Political efficacy (3 items) - National vulnerability (10 items) - Political knowledge (6 items) - Info gathering, Activism, Political involvement Measures added in Study 2: - Symbolic vs. instrumental behaviours (14 items) - Political involvement (18 items) - Info-processing preference (10 items) - Ideological variables	N_{Study1} = 291 N_{Study2} = 253 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	Blind patriotism Constructive patriotism	<i>Discriminant validity</i> <i>Internal consistency reliability:</i> - Blind patriotism ($\alpha = .79$ to .88) - Constructive patriotism ($\alpha = .67$ to .71) - National attachment ($\alpha_{Study1} = .87$) - Nationalism ($\alpha_{Study1} = .80$)
Balabanis et al. (2001)	Marketing	Investigate the impact of patriotism, nationalism and internationalism as antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism	Turkey Czech Republic	- Patriotism (12 items) - Nationalism (7 items) → scales by <i>Kosterman & Feshbach 1989</i> - Internationalism (9 items) - Consumer ethnocentrism (10 items) → scale by <i>Shimp & Sharma (1987)</i>	N_{Turkey} = 303 N_{Czech} = 480 Sample type: consumer sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	Consumer ethnocentrism	<i>Internal consistency reliability:</i> - Patriotism ($\alpha = .816$ to .850) - Nationalism ($\alpha = .639$ to .656) - Consumer ethnocentrism ($\alpha = .901$ to .906)
Verlegh (2001)	Marketing	Examine the influence of country-of-origin and home country bias on consumers' evaluations of domestic and foreign products	The Netherlands	Study 1: - Willingness to buy (4 items) apples, tomatoes, refrigerators and CD players from NL, FRA and GER - National identification (4 items) → scale by <i>Feather (1981), Doosje et al. (1998)</i> - Consumer ethnocentrism (5 items) → scale by <i>Shimp & Sharma (1987)</i> Study 2: - Country image (16 items) - Product experience (2^{WashingMachines} items) - Attitudes and beliefs towards tomatoes and washing machines from NL, GER and ESP (12 items) - National identification (5 items) → scale by <i>Feather (1981), Doosje et al. (1998), Duckitt & Mphuthing (1998)</i> - Consumer ethnocentrism (4 items) → scale by <i>Shimp & Sharma (1987)</i>	N_{Study1} = 186 N_{Study2 (Tomatoes)} = 202 N_{Study2 (Washing Machines)} = 204 Sample type: consumer sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	Willingness to buy Attitudes and beliefs toward tomatoes and washing machines from NL, GER, ESP	<i>Internal validity</i> <i>External validity</i> <i>Discriminant validity</i> <i>Internal consistency reliability:</i> - National identification (C.R. = .82 to .84) - Consumer ethnocentrism (C.R. = .85 to .89)

Authors	Discipline	Main Focus	Country	Measures	Sample	Dependent Variable(s)	Validity / Reliability
Cui & Adams (2002)	Marketing	Test the applicability of the NATID scale to Yemen and investigate possible improvements	Yemen	- National identity (17 items) → <i>NATID scale by Keillor et al. (1996)</i> - Emic aspects of national identity (4 items)	N = 208 <i>Sample type:</i> students, academics, business professionals, female consumers <i>Sampling method:</i> convenience sampling	-	<i>Convergent validity</i> <i>Discriminant validity</i> <i>Internal consistency reliability:</i> - National identity $\alpha_{\text{NATID}} = .60$ $\alpha_{\text{21items}} = .64$
Karasawa (2002)	Political Psychology	Examine national attitudes among Japanese citizens and develop a national identity scale using an etic-emic approach	Japan	National identity ^{Sample1}: - Commitment to national heritage (12 items) - Patriotism (7 items) → <i>scale by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)</i> - Nationalism (7 items) → <i>scale by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)</i> - Internationalism (7 items) - Militaristic activities, Protectionism in trade, Intent to vote for political parties, Images of HC and FCs National identity ^{Sample1} (27 items) - Exposure to information, Knowledge quiz	N ^{Sample1} = 385 <i>Sample type:</i> general population <i>Sampling method:</i> convenience sampling N ^{Sample1} = 586 <i>Sample type:</i> student sample <i>Sampling method:</i> convenience sampling	-	<i>Discriminant validity</i> <i>External validity</i> α not reported
Billet et al. (2003)	Political Psychology	Investigate the relationship between identification with the subnation versus identification with the nation and citizens' attitude toward foreigners	Belgium	- Attitude toward foreigners (6 items) - National identity (5 items) → <i>scale from the Belgian General Election survey carried out after parliamentary elections (1995)</i>	N ^{Flanders} = 2,099 N ^{Wallonia} = 1,258 <i>Sample type:</i> general population <i>Sampling method:</i> multistage random sampling	-	not reported
Blank (2003)	Political Psychology	Present an integrated theoretical model of national identity, nationalism and patriotism and determine motivations that cause people to identify with their nation (authoritarianism, anomie, general self-esteem, control beliefs)	Germany	- National identity (3 items) → <i>patriotism scale by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)</i> - Nationalism (4 items) - Patriotism (3 items) - Authoritarianism (4 items) - General self-esteem (4 items) - Anomie (4 items) - General control belief (11 items)	N ^{West Germany} = 883 N ^{East Germany} = 337 <i>Sample type:</i> general population <i>Sampling method:</i> random sampling (1st wave of a panel study on the national identity of GER)	Nationalism Patriotism	<i>External validity</i> <i>Internal validity</i> <i>Internal consistency reliability:</i> - National identity ($\alpha = .88$ to $.91$) - Nationalism ($\alpha = .64$ to $.79$) - Patriotism ($\alpha = .70$ to $.74$)
Blank & Schmidt (2003)	Political Psychology	Investigate the relationship between national identity, patriotism and nationalism and show how these concepts are related to attitudes toward foreigners and minorities	Germany	- National identity (3 items) → <i>patriotism scale by Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)</i> - Nationalism (7 items) → <i>scale partly by Schatz et al. (1999)</i> - Patriotism (6 items) → <i>scale partly by Schatz et al. (1999)</i> - Out-group devaluation (3 items) - Anti-Semitism (3 items)	N ^{West Germany} = 396 N ^{East Germany} = 175 <i>Sample type:</i> general population (3rd wave of a panel study on the national identity of GER)	Anti-Semitism Out-group devaluation	not reported

Authors	Discipline	Main Focus	Country	Measures	Sample	Dependent Variable(s)	Validity / Reliability
Dekker et al. (2003)	Political Psychology	Develop a new set of terms characterising national attitudes, present a clear and consistent terminology of nationalism and identify its main determinants	The Netherlands Slovakia Basque Autonomous Community of Spain	Study 1 – The Netherlands: - National attitudes: - National feeling (1 item) - National liking (4 items) - National pride (2 items) - National preference (2 items) - National superiority (2 items) - Nationalism (3 items) Study 2 – Slovakia: - National attitudes (26 items) - Independent variables: National emotions (3 items), National beliefs (22 items), National behaviours (4 items), Attitudes towards out-groups (5 items), Concern about future (6 items), Positive self-identity (5 items), National socialization Study 3 – Basque Autonomous Community of Spain: - Regional-national attitudes (37 items) - Negative regional-national attitudes (8 items) - National attitudes regarding Spain (25 items) - Negative national attitudes regarding Spain (8 items) - Independent variables	N Netherlands = 849 N Basque = 774 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: quota sampling N Slovakia = 635 Sample type: general population Sampling method: convenience sampling	National attitudes	<i>Face validity</i> <i>Internal validity</i> <i>External validity</i> <i>Internal consistency reliability:</i> - National feeling ($\alpha = .76$ to .93) - National liking ($\alpha = .81$ to .88) - National pride ($\alpha = .67$ to .82) - National preference ($\alpha = .56$ to .91) - National superiority ($\alpha = .70$ to .91) - Nationalism ($\alpha = .62$ to .90)
Lee et al. (2003)	Marketing	Examine the influence of nationalism, patriotism and internationalism as antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism and understand how political attitudes translate into consumption preferences in the post 9/11 climate	USA	- Patriotism (12 items) → scale by <i>Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)</i> - Nationalism (8 items) → scale by <i>Kosterman & Feshbach (1989)</i> - Internationalism (9 items) → scale by <i>Shimp & Sharma (1987)</i> - Consumer ethnocentrism (17 items)	N Pretest = 247 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling N Main Study = 336 Sample type: consumer sample Sampling method: random sampling	Consumer ethnocentrism	<i>Internal consistency reliability:</i> - Patriotism ($\alpha = .90$ to .92) - Nationalism ($\alpha = .81$ to .86) - Consumer ethnocentrism ($\alpha = .95$ to .96)
Phau & Chan (2003)	Marketing	Measure the national identity of 4 Asian countries and compare the results with outcomes from Hong Kong and Japan from the Keillor & Hult (1999) study to provide an overall picture of the Asian market	South Korea Taiwan Thailand Singapore	- National identity (17 items) → <i>NATID scale by Keillor et al. (1996)</i>	N South Korea = 184 N Taiwan = 124 Sample type: consumer sample N Thailand = 126 N Singapore = 131 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	-	not reported

Authors	Discipline	Main Focus	Country	Measures	Sample	Dependent Variable(s)	Validity / Reliability
Weiss (2003)	Political Psychology	Analyze the relationship between nationalism and other concepts (e.g. capitalism, democracy, tolerance, social status) across 5 countries	Hungary Czech Republic Slovakia Poland Austria	- Nationalism (4 items) → scale by <i>Kosterman & Feshbach</i> (1989) - Ethnic intolerance (4 items) - Democracy (4 items) - Capitalism (4 items) - Social status (3 items)	N Hungary = 1,048 N Czech = 978 N Slovakia = 1,117 N Poland = 1,057 N Austria = 1,774 Sample type: general population Sampling method: random sampling	Nationalism	not reported
Thelen & Honeycutt (2004)	Marketing	Examine the applicability of Keillor et al.'s (1996) NATID scale to Russia across different age cohorts	Russia	- National identity (17 items) → NATID scale by <i>Keillor et al.</i> (1996)	N = 378 Sample type: General population Sampling method: multistage sampling	-	Convergent validity Internal consistency reliability: - National heritage ($\alpha = .67$) - Cultural homogeneity ($\alpha = .61$) - Belief system ($\alpha = .71$) - Consumer ethnocentrism ($\alpha = .76$)
Balabanis et al. (2007)	Marketing	Examine the relationship of patriotism, nationalism and internationalism with country-of-origin image and buying intentions	Turkey Czech Republic	- Country-of-origin image of Germany and its products - General country attributes (8 items) - General product attributes (12 items) - Patriotism (12 items) - Nationalism (7 items) - Internationalism (9 items) - Purchase intention (likelihood to buy a German car)	N Turkey = 303 N Czech = 480 Sample type: consumer sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	Country-of-origin image Purchase intentions	not reported
Verlegh (2007)	Marketing	Establish economic (i.e. consumer ethnocentrism) and socio-psychological (i.e. national identification) motives for home country bias	The Netherlands USA	Study 1 – The Netherlands: - National identification (4 items) → scale by <i>Feather</i> (1981), <i>Doosje et al.</i> (1998) - Consumer ethnocentrism (5 items) - Willingness to buy (1 item) apples, tomatoes, refrigerators, CD players from NL, FRA and GER Study 2 – USA: - National identification (4 items) - Consumer ethnocentrism (5 items) - Quality perceptions (4 items) and relative preferences for cars from Japan and USA	N Netherlands = 186 Sample type: general population N USA = 103 Sample type: student sample Sampling method: convenience sampling	Willingness to buy	Discriminant validity Internal consistency reliability: - National identification (C.R. = .83) - Consumer ethnocentrism (C.R. = .87)

Appendix H: Final Questionnaire



NATIONAL EVALUATION IN DENMARK
- A Diploma Thesis Project -



Dear participant,

At the moment I am working on my final thesis for my Masters Degree in International Business Administration at the University of Vienna in the field of international marketing. My thesis focuses on national evaluations and their impact on consumer product choice. For this purpose I have developed the following questionnaire in order to analyse the attitudes of Danish consumers towards their country and towards domestic and foreign products.

Please answer all questions as **spontaneously** as possible and don't leave out any questions. It will take approximately 10 minutes to fill out the questionnaire.

Thank you very much in advance for participating!

PART 1: PRODUCT EVALUATION

In the following statements please tick that number from 1 to 7 which corresponds most to your personal attitudes towards the products in question:

1	How do you perceive the INNOVATIVENESS of the products from the respective countries listed below, when innovativeness means use of new technology and engineering advances?	not innovative	very innovative					
1.1	Toys from Denmark	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.2	Toys from Germany	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.3	Toys from the United States	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.4	Furniture from Denmark	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.5	Furniture from Germany	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.6	Furniture from the United States	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2	How do you perceive the DESIGN of the products from the respective countries listed below, when design refers to the appearance, style, color, and variety of a product?	non-attractive design	attractive design					
2.1	Toys from Denmark	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.2	Toys from Germany	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.3	Toys from the United States	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.4	Furniture from Denmark	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.5	Furniture from Germany	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.6	Furniture from the United States	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

If you have any question please contact me: [REDACTED]

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3	How do you perceive the PRESTIGE of the products from the respective countries listed below, when prestige refers to elements such as exclusivity, status and brand-name reputation?	low prestige  high prestige
3.1	Toys from Denmark	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
3.2	Toys from Germany	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
3.3	Toys from the United States	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
3.4	Furniture from Denmark	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
3.5	Furniture from Germany	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
3.6	Furniture from the United States	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐

4	How do you perceive the WORKMANSHIP of the products from the respective countries listed below, when workmanship refers to the reliability, durability, craftsmanship and manufacturing quality of a product?	bad workmanship  good workmanship
4.1	Toys from Denmark	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
4.2	Toys from Germany	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
4.3	Toys from the United States	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
4.4	Furniture from Denmark	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
4.5	Furniture from Germany	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
4.6	Furniture from the United States	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐

		Quality	Taste
5	How do you evaluate BEER from the countries listed below based on the two attributes on the right?	low quality  high quality	weak taste  strong taste
5.1	Beer from Denmark	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
5.2	Beer from Germany	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐
5.3	Beer from the United States	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐ -- ☐

		Naturalness	Price
6	How do you evaluate BEER from the countries listed below based on the two attributes on the right?	unnatural natural 	poor value-for-money good value-for-money 
6.1	Beer from Denmark	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
6.2	Beer from Germany	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
6.3	Beer from the United States	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐

		Brand Name	Exclusivity
7	How do you evaluate BEER from the countries listed below based on the two attributes on the right?	unrecognizable brand name recognizable brand name 	common exclusive 
7.1	Beer from Denmark	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
7.2	Beer from Germany	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
7.3	Beer from the United States	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐

PART 2: PURCHASE INTENTION

		Denmark	Germany	United States
8	It is very likely that I will buy...	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 
8.1	...toys from this country.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
8.2	...furniture from this country.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
8.3	...beer from this country.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐

		Denmark	Germany	United States
9	I will purchase...	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 
9.1	...toys from this country the next time I need toys.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
9.2	...furniture from this country the next time I need furniture.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
9.3	...beer from this country the next time I need beer.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐

		Denmark	Germany	United States
10	I will definitely try...	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 
10.1	...toys from this country.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
10.2	...furniture from this country.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
10.3	...beer from this country.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐

		Denmark	Germany	United States
11	The probability that I consider buying...	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 
11.1	...toys from this country is very high.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
11.2	...furniture from this country is very high.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
11.3	...beer from this country is very high.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐

		Denmark	Germany	United States
12	I am willing to buy...	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 	I strongly disagree I strongly agree 
12.1	...toys from this country.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
12.2	...furniture from this country.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐
12.3	...beer from this country.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐ - ☐

PART 3: ATTITUDES TOWARDS DENMARK

Please insert the corresponding number from 1 to 7 into the boxes in front of the statements given below:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I strongly disagree	I rather disagree	I disagree a little	I neither agree nor disagree	I agree a little	I rather agree	I strongly agree

Example: In case you strongly agree with the statement "I like Denmark" you would insert a 7 into the corresponding box.

7	I like Denmark.
---	-----------------

13			
	I love my country.		I like it when children sing the national anthem or otherwise express patriotic attitudes.
	I am proud to be a Dane.		It is only right that we should have a bigger say in the United Nations and other international organisations.
	In a sense, I am emotionally attached to my country and emotionally affected by its actions.		The first duty of every young Dane is to honor the national Danish history and heritage.
	Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to Denmark always remains strong.		The important thing for the Danish foreign aid program is to see to it that Denmark gains a political advantage.
	I feel a great pride in that land that is our Denmark.		Other countries should try to make their government as much like ours as possible.
	It is very important for me to serve my country.		Generally, the more influence Denmark has on other nations, the better off they are.
	When I see the Danish flag flying I feel great.		Foreign nations have done some very fine things but it takes Denmark to do things the best way.
	The fact that I am Danish is an important part of my identity.		It is important that Denmark wins in international sporting competitions like the Olympics.
	It is constructive for one to develop an emotional attachment to his/her country.		It is important that Denmark be number one in whatever it does.
	In general, I have a lot of respect for Danish people.		For me, Denmark is the best country in the world.

In the following statements please tick that number from 1 to 7 which corresponds most to your personal attitudes:

14 In how far do you agree with the following statements?		I strongly disagree						I strongly agree
14.1	To be a Dane is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.2	I identify with Denmark.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.3	I feel strong ties with Denmark.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.4	I am glad to be a Dane.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.5	I see myself as a Dane.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15 In how far do you agree with the following statements?		I strongly disagree						I strongly agree
15.1	Only those products that are unavailable in Denmark should be imported.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.2	Danish products - first, last, and foremost.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.3	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Danish.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.4	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Danes out of jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.5	A real Dane should always buy Danish-made products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.6	We should purchase products manufactured in Denmark instead of letting other countries get rich of us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.7	Danes should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Danish business and causes unemployment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.8	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Danish products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.9	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.10	Danish consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Danes out of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART 4: QUESTIONS ON YOUR SOCIAL ATTITUDES

16 In how far do you agree with the following statements?		I strongly disagree						I strongly agree
16.1	I like gossip at times.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.2	There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.3	I'm always willing to admit it when I've made a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.4	I always try to practice what I preach.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.5	I sometimes try to take revenge rather than forgive or forget.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.6	At times I have really insisted on having things my way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.7	There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.8	I never resent being asked to return a favor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.9	I have never been annoyed when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.10	I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART 5: PERSONAL DATA

Gender ☐ Female ☐ Male	Highest level of education attained: ☐ Compulsory education	Age: years Current occupation:
	☐ Upper secondary education	Nationality: If you are not Danish please state how long you have been living in Denmark:
	☐ Higher education (University, College)	

Thank you for participating!

Appendix I: Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
Product Evaluation (Toys from Denmark)	$\alpha = .8406$
Product Evaluation (Toys from Germany)	$\alpha = .8064$
Product Evaluation (Toys from the United States)	$\alpha = .8018$
Product Evaluation (Furniture from Denmark)	$\alpha = .9105$
Product Evaluation (Furniture from Germany)	$\alpha = .8079$
Product Evaluation (Furniture from the United States)	$\alpha = .8737$
Product Evaluation (Beer from Denmark)	$\alpha = .8609$
Product Evaluation (Beer from Germany)	$\alpha = .8461$
Product Evaluation (Beer from the United States)	$\alpha = .8009$
Purchase Intention (Toys from Denmark)	$\alpha = .9134$
Purchase Intention (Toys from Germany)	$\alpha = .8831$
Purchase Intention (Toys from the United States)	$\alpha = .8923$
Purchase Intention (Furniture from Denmark)	$\alpha = .9216$
Purchase Intention (Furniture from Germany)	$\alpha = .8681$
Purchase Intention (Furniture from the United States)	$\alpha = .8685$
Purchase Intention (Beer from Denmark)	$\alpha = .9277$
Purchase Intention (Beer from Germany)	$\alpha = .8640$
Purchase Intention (Beer from the United States)	$\alpha = .8789$
Patriotism	$\alpha = .9552$
Nationalism	$\alpha = .8901$
National Identity	$\alpha = .9511$
Consumer Ethnocentrism	$\alpha = .9351$

Appendix J: Detailed Results from the Correlation Analyses between National Identity and Consumer Behaviour

Variables	Expected Relationship	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
National Identity – Domestic Product Evaluation (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .645$	$p < .001$	Hyp 6: ✓
National Identity – Domestic Product Evaluation (Toys from Denmark)	+	$r = .568$	$p < .001$	✓
National Identity – Domestic Product Evaluation (Furniture from Denmark)	+	$r = .567$	$p < .001$	✓
National Identity – Domestic Product Evaluation (Beer from Denmark)	+	$r = .576$	$p < .001$	✓
National Identity – Intention to Buy Domestic (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .620$	$p < .001$	Hyp 7: ✓
National Identity – Intention to Buy Domestic (Toys from Denmark)	+	$r = .581$	$p < .001$	✓
National Identity – Intention to Buy Domestic (Furniture from Denmark)	+	$r = .624$	$p < .001$	✓
National Identity – Intention to Buy Domestic (Beer from Denmark)	+	$r = .442$	$p < .001$	✓

Appendix K: Detailed Results from the Correlation Analyses between Patriotism and Consumer Behaviour

Variables	Expected Relationship	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Patriotism – Domestic Product Evaluation (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .661$	$p < .001$	Hyp 8: ✓
Patriotism – Domestic Product Evaluation (Toys from Denmark)	+	$r = .605$	$p < .001$	✓
Patriotism – Domestic Product Evaluation (Furniture from Denmark)	+	$r = .575$	$p < .001$	✓
Patriotism – Domestic Product Evaluation (Beer from Denmark)	+	$r = .581$	$p < .001$	✓
Patriotism – Intention to Buy Domestic (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .617$	$p < .001$	Hyp 9: ✓
Patriotism – Intention to Buy Domestic (Toys from Denmark)	+	$r = .605$	$p < .001$	✓
Patriotism – Intention to Buy Domestic (Furniture from Denmark)	+	$r = .632$	$p < .001$	✓
Patriotism – Intention to Buy Domestic (Beer from Denmark)	+	$r = .406$	$p < .001$	✓

Appendix L: Detailed Results from the Correlation Analyses between Nationalism and Consumer Behaviour

Variables	Expected Relationship	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Nationalism – Domestic Product Evaluation (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .266$	$p < .001$	Hyp 10: ✓
Nationalism – Domestic Product Evaluation (Toys from Denmark)	+	$r = .199$	$p < .01$	✓
Nationalism – Domestic Product Evaluation (Furniture from Denmark)	+	$r = .122$	$p < .05$	✓
Nationalism – Domestic Product Evaluation (Beer from Denmark)	+	$r = .349$	$p < .001$	✓
Nationalism – Foreign Product Evaluation (Products from Germany)	-	$r = -.018$	not sig.	Hyp 11: x
Nationalism – Foreign Product Evaluation (Toys from Germany)	-	$r = .001$	not sig.	x
Nationalism – Foreign Product Evaluation (Furniture from Germany)	-	$r = .003$	not sig.	x
Nationalism – Foreign Product Evaluation (Beer from Germany)	-	$r = -.041$	not sig.	x
Nationalism – Foreign Product Evaluation (Products from the United States)	-	$r = .141$	$p < .05$	Hyp 11: x
Nationalism – Foreign Product Evaluation (Toys from the United States)	-	$r = .062$	not sig.	x
Nationalism – Foreign Product Evaluation (Furniture from the United States)	-	$r = .130$	$p < .05$	x
Nationalism – Foreign Product Evaluation (Beer from the United States)	-	$r = .129$	$p < .05$	x
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Domestic (Products from Denmark)	+	$r = .196$	$p < .01$	Hyp 12: ✓
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Domestic (Toys from Denmark)	+	$r = .135$	$p < .05$	✓
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Domestic (Furniture from Denmark)	+	$r = .198$	$p < .01$	✓
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Domestic (Beer from Denmark)	+	$r = .185$	$p < .01$	✓
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Products from Germany)	-	$r = .162$	$p < .01$	Hyp 13: x
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Toys from Germany)	-	$r = .114$	$p < .05$	x
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Furniture from Germany)	-	$r = .184$	$p < .01$	x
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Beer from Germany)	-	$r = .098$	not sig.	x
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Products from the United States)	-	$r = .108$	not sig.	Hyp 13: x
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Toys from the United States)	-	$r = -.031$	not sig.	x
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Furniture from the United States)	-	$r = .212$	$p < .01$	x
Nationalism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Beer from the United States)	-	$r = .082$	not sig.	x

Appendix M: Detailed Results from the Correlation Analyses between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Consumer Behaviour

Variables	Expected Relationship	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Domestic Product Evaluation (<i>Products from Denmark</i>)	+	$r = -.188$	$p < .01$	Hyp 14: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Domestic Product Evaluation (<i>Toys from Denmark</i>)	+	$r = -.064$	not sig.	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Domestic Product Evaluation (<i>Furniture from Denmark</i>)	+	$r = -.278$	$p < .001$	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Domestic Product Evaluation (<i>Beer from Denmark</i>)	+	$r = -.151$	$p < .05$	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Foreign Product Evaluation (<i>Products from Germany</i>)	-	$r = -.019$	not sig.	Hyp 15: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Foreign Product Evaluation (<i>Toys from Germany</i>)	-	$r = .018$	not sig.	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Foreign Product Evaluation (<i>Furniture from Germany</i>)	-	$r = .148$	$p < .05$	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Foreign Product Evaluation (<i>Beer from Germany</i>)	-	$r = -.165$	$p < .01$	✓
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Foreign Product Evaluation (<i>Products from the United States</i>)	-	$r = -.032$	not sig.	Hyp 15: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Foreign Product Evaluation (<i>Toys from the United States</i>)	-	$r = -.116$	$p < .05$	✓
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Foreign Product Evaluation (<i>Furniture from the United States</i>)	-	$r = .074$	not sig.	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Foreign Product Evaluation (<i>Beer from the United States</i>)	-	$r = -.038$	not sig.	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Domestic (<i>Products from Denmark</i>)	+	$r = -.226$	$p < .001$	Hyp 16: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Domestic (<i>Toys from Denmark</i>)	+	$r = -.155$	$p < .05$	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Domestic (<i>Furniture from Denmark</i>)	+	$r = -.226$	$p < .001$	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Domestic (<i>Beer from Denmark</i>)	+	$r = -.214$	$p < .01$	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (<i>Products from Germany</i>)	-	$r = .087$	not sig.	Hyp 17: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (<i>Toys from Germany</i>)	-	$r = .103$	not sig.	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (<i>Furniture from Germany</i>)	-	$r = .196$	$p < .01$	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (<i>Beer from Germany</i>)	-	$r = -.076$	not sig.	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (<i>Products from the United States</i>)	-	$r = .071$	not sig.	Hyp 17: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (<i>Toys from the United States</i>)	-	$r = -.098$	not sig.	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (<i>Furniture from the United States</i>)	-	$r = .154$	$p < .05$	x
Consumer Ethnocentrism – Intention to Buy Foreign Products (<i>Beer from the United States</i>)	-	$r = .116$	$p < .05$	x

Appendix N: Coefficient Tables of the Multiple Regression Analyses on Evaluation of Toys, Furniture and Beer from Denmark

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	2.758	.272		$p < .001$	
National Identity	.178	.072	.240	$p < .05$	Hyp 6: ✓
Patriotism	.393	.079	.476	$p < .001$	Hyp 8: ✓
Nationalism	-.124	.060	-.137	$p < .05$	Hyp 10: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.008	.053	-.009	not sig.	Hyp 14: x

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Toys from Denmark, $R^2 = .397$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.778	.293		$p < .001$	
National Identity	.182	.077	.220	$p < .05$	Hyp 6: ✓
Patriotism	.430	.085	.467	$p < .001$	Hyp 8: ✓
Nationalism	-.135	.064	-.134	$p < .05$	Hyp 10: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.225	.057	-.226	$p < .001$	Hyp 14: x

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Furniture from Denmark, $R^2 = .440$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	2.936	.263		$p < .001$	
National Identity	.150	.069	.209	$p < .05$	Hyp 6: ✓
Patriotism	.276	.076	.347	$p < .001$	Hyp 8: ✓
Nationalism	.125	.058	.143	$p < .05$	Hyp 10: ✓
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.157	.051	-.182	$p < .01$	Hyp 14: x

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Beer from Denmark, $R^2 = .399$

Appendix O: Coefficient Tables of the Multiple Regression Analyses on Evaluation of Toys, Furniture and Beer from Germany and the United States

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	4.166	.245		$p < .001$	
Nationalism	-.004	.061	-.005	not sig.	Hyp 11: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	.016	.060	.020	not sig.	Hyp 15: x

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Toys from Germany, $R^2 = .000$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.627	.265		$p < .001$	
Nationalism	-.043	.066	-.046	not sig.	Hyp 11: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	.149	.065	.162	$p < .05$	Hyp 15: x

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Furniture from Germany, $R^2 = .024$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	5.317	.231		$p < .001$	
Nationalism	.009	.058	.011	not sig.	Hyp 11: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.135	.057	-.168	$p < .05$	Hyp 15: ✓

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Beer from Germany, $R^2 = .027$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	4.400	.273		$p < .001$	
Nationalism	.103	.068	.108	not sig.	Hyp 11: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.141	.067	-.149	$p < .05$	Hyp 15: ✓

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Toys from USA, $R^2 = .024$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.108	.303		$p < .001$	
Patriotism	.125	.075	.118	not sig.	Hyp 11: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	.039	.075	.037	not sig.	Hyp 15: x

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Furniture from USA, $R^2 = .018$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.321	.241		$p < .001$	
Nationalism	.132	.060	.156	$p < .05$	Hyp 11: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.072	.059	-.086	not sig.	Hyp 15: x

Dependent Variable: Evaluation of Beer from USA, $R^2 = .024$

Appendix P: Coefficient Tables of the Multiple Regression Analyses on Intention to Buy Toys, Furniture and Beer from Denmark

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.221	.298		$p < .001$	
National Identity	.218	.079	.260	$p < .01$	Hyp 7: ✓
Patriotism	.456	.086	.489	$p < .001$	Hyp 9: ✓
Nationalism	-.198	.065	-.194	$p < .01$	Hyp 12: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.081	.058	-.080	not sig.	Hyp 16: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Toys from Denmark, $R^2 = .433$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.260	.285		$p < .001$	
National Identity	.221	.075	.263	$p < .01$	Hyp 7: ✓
Patriotism	.434	.083	.466	$p < .001$	Hyp 9: ✓
Nationalism	-.092	.062	-.090	not sig.	Hyp 12: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.184	.055	-.182	$p < .01$	Hyp 16: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Furniture from Denmark, $R^2 = .482$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	4.306	.380		$p < .001$	
National Identity	.220	.101	.239	$p < .05$	Hyp 7: ✓
Patriotism	.199	.110	.195	not sig.	Hyp 9: x
Nationalism	.052	.083	.047	not sig.	Hyp 12: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.230	.074	-.207	$p < .01$	Hyp 16: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Beer from Denmark, $R^2 = .237$

Appendix Q: Coefficient Tables of the Multiple Regression Analyses on Intention to Buy Toys, Furniture and Beer from Germany and the United States

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	3.352	.309		p < .001	
Nationalism	.098	.077	.091	not sig.	Hyp 13: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	.080	.076	.075	not sig.	Hyp 17: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Toys from Germany, $R^2 = .018$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	2.703	.292		p < .001	
Nationalism	.143	.073	.137	not sig.	Hyp 13: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	.159	.072	.154	p < .05	Hyp 17: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Furniture from Germany, $R^2 = .056$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	4.674	.324		p < .001	
Nationalism	.153	.081	.135	not sig.	Hyp 13: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.132	.080	-.118	not sig.	Hyp 17: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Beer from Germany, $R^2 = .022$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	4.225	.316		p < .001	
Nationalism	-.001	.079	-.001	not sig.	Hyp 13: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-.106	.078	-.097	not sig.	Hyp 17: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Toys from USA, $R^2 = .010$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	2.056	.272		p < .001	
Nationalism	.176	.068	.182	p < .05	Hyp 13: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	.094	.067	.098	not sig.	Hyp 17: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Furniture from USA, $R^2 = .053$

	b-values	Standard Error	β	Sig.	Hypothesis confirmed
Constant	2.717	.336		p < .001	
Nationalism	.060	.084	.031	not sig.	Hyp 13: x
Consumer Ethnocentrism	.117	.083	.101	not sig.	Hyp 17: x

Dependent Variable: Intention to Buy Beer from USA, $R^2 = .016$

Appendix R: Detailed Results from the Multiple Regression Analyses on Product Evaluation and Purchase Intention

Outcome Variable	R ²	adjusted R ²	Durbin-Watson Statistic	ANOVA		Tolerance Statistic	VIF
				F-ratio	Sig.		
Evaluation of Domestic Products (Products from Denmark)	.499	.490	1.967	52.853	p < .001	ok	ok
Evaluation of Domestic Products (Toys from Denmark)	.397	.386	1.993	34.941	p < .001	ok	ok
Evaluation of Domestic Products (Furniture from Denmark)	.440	.429	1.874	41.649	p < .001	ok	ok
Evaluation of Domestic Products (Beer from Denmark)	.399	.388	1.884	35.179	p < .001	ok	ok
Evaluation of Foreign Products (Products from Germany)	.001	-.009	2.110	.058	not sig.	ok	ok
Evaluation of Foreign Products (Toys from Germany)	.000	-.009	2.205	.037	not sig.	ok	ok
Evaluation of Foreign Products (Furniture from Germany)	.024	.015	1.964	2.617	not sig.	ok	ok
Evaluation of Foreign Products (Beer from Germany)	.027	.018	1.990	3.003	not sig.	ok	ok
Evaluation of Foreign Products (Products from the United States)	.026	.017	2.000	2.857	not sig.	ok	ok
Evaluation of Foreign Products (Toys from the United States)	.024	.015	2.290	2.621	not sig.	ok	ok
Evaluation of Foreign Products (Furniture from the United States)	.018	.009	1.929	1.974	not sig.	ok	ok
Evaluation of Foreign Products (Beer from the United States)	.024	.014	1.928	2.576	not sig.	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Domestic (Products from Denmark)	.466	.456	1.679	46.294	p < .001	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Domestic (Toys from Denmark)	.433	.423	2.015	40.517	p < .001	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Domestic (Furniture from Denmark)	.482	.472	1.959	49.350	p < .001	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Domestic (Beer from Denmark)	.237	.223	1.499	16.495	p < .001	ok	ok
Intention to Buy of Foreign Products (Products from Germany)	.028	.019	1.997	3.048	not sig.	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Toys from Germany)	.018	.009	2.036	1.960	not sig.	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Furniture from Germany)	.056	.047	2.012	6.290	p < .01	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Beer from Germany)	.022	.013	1.787	2.431	not sig.	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Products from the United States)	.013	.004	2.034	1.432	not sig.	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Toys from the United States)	.010	.000	2.357	1.027	not sig.	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Furniture from the United States)	.053	.045	1.714	6.043	p < .01	ok	ok
Intention to Buy Foreign Products (Beer from the United States)	.016	.007	1.917	1.723	not sig.	ok	ok

Appendix S: Abstract in German**Deutsche Zusammenfassung**

Diese Diplomarbeit erforscht das Konstrukt der Nationalen Identität. Nationale Identität wird in ein nomologisches Netzwerk mit ähnlichen Konzepten wie Patriotismus, Nationalismus und Konsumenten-Ethnozentrismus eingebettet. Darüber hinaus wird der Einfluss dieser vier Konstrukte auf das Konsumentenverhalten untersucht. Zuerst erfolgt ein Literaturüberblick, welcher Nationale Identität, Patriotismus, Nationalismus und Konsumenten-Ethnozentrismus vorstellt und klar von einander abgrenzt. Da viele unterschiedliche Forschungsansätze in Bezug auf die Konzeptualisierung und Operationalisierung von Nationaler Identität existieren, wird im Rahmen dieser Arbeit eine neue Definition entwickelt. Die Beziehung der vier Konstrukte zueinander sowie deren Einfluss auf die Bewertung bzw. den Kauf von heimischen und ausländischen Produkten werden mit einem Sample von 217 dänischen Studenten getestet. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass ein Gefühl der Nationalen Identität dem Entstehen von Patriotismus und Nationalismus vorausgeht. Jedoch ist das Konstrukt kein direkter Vorläufer von Konsumenten-Ethnozentrismus. Darüber hinaus hat eine hohe Nationale Identität einen positiven Einfluss auf die Bewertung heimischen Produkte sowie auf die Bereitschaft der Verbraucher diese auch zu kaufen. Zum Abschluss werden die Auswirkungen dieser Resultate auf internationale Marketingstrategien, Empfehlungen für Marketingmanager sowie Vorschläge für weiterführende Forschung diskutiert.

Appendix T: Curriculum Vitae**CURRICULUM VITAE****Personal Data**

Name: Elisabeth Fritsch
 Date & Place of Birth: January 3rd, 1983 in Klosterneuburg, Austria
 Nationality: Austria

Education

2001-2008 International Business Administration, University of Vienna
 Concentration: International Marketing, International Management
 2007 ERASMUS Exchange Semester, Aarhus School of Business, Denmark
 2003-2008 Journalism and Communication Studies, University of Vienna
 1993-2001 Bundesgymnasium Klosterneuburg, High School

Work Experience

2003-2008 Dr. Jaro Sterbik-Lamina, Tax Consultant's Office, Vienna, Austria
 2005 Austrian Trade Commission, Athens, Greece
 2003 Bank Austria Creditanstalt, Vienna, Austria
 2002 Studio Hollinger, Commercial Artist's Office, Vienna, Austria

Languages

German Native Language
 English Fluently
 Spanish Fluently
 French Intermediate Knowledge
 Modern Greek Intermediate Knowledge
 Danish Basic Knowledge