

# Abstract

This study aims initially to investigate the relationship among animosity, religiosity, and ethnocentrism in Saudi Arabia, as well as their impact on consumer purchases of foreign products. The second aim of this study is to assess both the individual and the collective impacts on the product image and country image of the U.S. on Saudi Arabian consumers' purchase intentions.

The study examined the attitudes, perceptions, and belief structures of 530 Saudi Arabian consumers towards the U.S. as a country, along with their propensity to purchase U.S. made products. Data were collected in Saudi Arabia, which involved several steps of statistical analysis used to validate and test the hypotheses of the study. These include exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM).

The correlating variables of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity found to be mediated by product image, but did not demonstrate such a relationship with country image. This may be attributable to the prolonged hostility between the two countries (The U.S. and Saudi Arabia), which may have caused religiosity to influence animosity towards the U.S. Nevertheless, the choice of purchasing U.S. made products was not shaped through these variables.

The study demonstrates that the governments of two countries maintain cordial relationships as reflected in their burgeoning defense cooperation and global trade; however, potential consumers from both countries have shown mutual hostility after the September 11 terrorist attacks in the U.S. The study also reveals the manner by which rich or poor products and country image relate with other variables.

The results indicate a strong and significant inverse relationship between animosity, religiosity and ethnocentric feelings and the intention to buy U.S. made products. There is a mediating effect only between product image and consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity, whereas country image does not yield any mediation. The results of the study reveal that Saudi Arabian consumers are ethnocentric; they hold animosity and a poor country image, but surprisingly, also hold a high product image. In brief, although the Saudi Arabian consumer level of religiosity, which can affect animosity and ethnocentrism, is influenced by country image, it can still lead to a lower consumption of foreign-made products. However, with Saudi Arabian consumers' perceptions towards the product itself, country image is rendered useless, and thus has no significant role to play. Irrespective of feelings held by locals towards the U.S., and regardless of the low perception held against the U.S, the choice to buy their products is unaltered. In fact, they are preferred over foreign-made products from other countries.

This study is predicted to be of benefit to future managers and marketers in order to gain a competitive advantage in one of the world's most pertinent markets. By comprehending and analysing the manner in which cultural factors affect decision-making, as well as acquiring fruitful insights on how levels of religion, nationalism, and politics

create a network of behavioral integration, individuals in the business sector equipped with a novel mindset can formulate effective strategies that cater differently the needs of different people. The examples in this study highlight how product image and country image stand apart among consumers who are able to distinguish between feelings from needs; and thinking about wanting and prejudices from desire

Keywords: Animosity, Religiosity, Ethnocentrism, Product Image, Image Country United States (US), Saudi Arabia

# Abstrak

Yang pertama, kajian ini menyiasat hubungan antara permusuhan, keagamaan dan etnosentrisme di Arab Saudi dan pengaruh mereka ke atas pembelian pengguna produk asing. Kedua kesan individu dan kolektif pada produk imej dan imej negara di Amerika Syarikat (AS) ke atas niat pengguna Arab membeli dinilai.

Kajian ini meneliti sikap, persepsi dan struktur kepercayaan 530 pengguna Saudi ke arah Amerika Syarikat sebagai sebuah negara dan kecenderungan mereka untuk membeli produk buatan Amerika Syarikat (kereta). Data telah dikumpulkan di Arab Saudi dengan beberapa langkah-langkah analisis statistik yang digunakan untuk mengesahkan dan menguji hipotesis kajian; termasuk analisis faktor penerokaan (EFA), analisis faktor pengesahan (CFA) dan pemodelan persamaan struktur (SEM).

Pembolehubah menghubungkan: permusuhan dan keagamaan yang telah didapati diselesaikan oleh imej negara ini tidak menunjukkan apa-apa hubungan dengan imej produk. Ini dapat dijelaskan oleh permusuhan yang berpanjangan antara kedua-dua negara (Amerika Syarikat dan Arab Saudi) yang dibuat atas keagamaan pengaruh permusuhan terhadap Amerika Syarikat Walau bagaimanapun, pilihan untuk membeli produk Amerika Syarikat (kereta) tidak dibentuk oleh pembolehubah ini.

Kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa kerajaan kedua-dua negara (Amerika Syarikat dan Arab Saudi) mengekalkan hubungan mesra seperti yang ditunjukkan dalam kerjasama pertahanan yang berkembang dan perdagangan global, bagaimanapun, pengguna kedua-dua negara menunjukkan permusuhan terhadap satu sama lain selepas 9/11 terhadap keganasan

global. Kajian ini menunjukkan bagaimana produk kaya atau miskin dan imej negara dalam persatuan dengan pembolehubah lain.

Hasil kajian menunjukkan hubungan songsang yang kuat dan signifikan antara permusuhan, keagamaan dan perasaan etnosentrisme dan niat untuk membeli produk buatan Amerika Syarikat (kereta). Terdapat kesan pengantara antara imej negara dan keagamaan dan permusuhan sedangkan etnosentrisme tidak diselesaikan oleh imej negara manakala imej produk tidak mempunyai apa-apa pengantara. Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa pengguna Saudi adalah etnosentrik, mereka mengadakan permusuhan dan imej sebuah negara yang miskin tetapi menghairankan memegang imej produk yang tinggi. Secara ringkas, walaupun tahap pengguna Saudi aspek keagamaan, yang boleh menjejaskan permusuhan dan etnosentrisme, tidak dipengaruhi oleh imej negara, masih boleh membawa kepada kurang penggunaan produk asing. Walau bagaimanapun dengan persepsi Arab bagi produk itu sendiri (kereta), imej negara tidak mempunyai peranan. Tanpa mengira perasaan diadakan ke arah Amerika Syarikat dan tidak kira betapa rendah persepsi diadakan terhadap Amerika Syarikat, pilihan untuk membeli produk mereka (kereta) adalah tidak diubah, ia adalah pilihan.

Kajian ini bertujuan untuk membantu pengurus dan pemasar masa depan mendapat kelebihan berdaya saing dalam salah satu dunia pasaran yang paling penting. Dengan mengetahui, memahami, dan menganalisis bagaimana faktor budaya mempengaruhi pembuatan keputusan dan bagaimana tahap agama, nasionalisme dan politik membentuk web integrasi tingkah laku, peniaga yang dilengkapi dengan pemikiran yang baru boleh membentuk strategi yang berkesan yang memenuhi berbeza keperluan dan kehendak orang yang berbeza. Contoh dalam kajian ini memaparkan bagaimana imej produk dan imej

negara boleh berdiri selain di kalangan pengguna yang dapat membezakan perasaan daripada keperluan, berfikir mengenai kemahuan dan prejudis daripada keinginan untuk dipunyai.

## **WORK DECLARATION**

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**The Impact of Religiosity, Animosity and Ethnocentrism on American product purchase intention:  
Product and country image as a mediator**

Field of Study: **International Marketing and Consumer Behavior**

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## **Glossary of Terms**

**Animosity:** Bitter hostility or open enmity; active hatred, A hostile feeling or act. See synonyms at enmity.

**Country Image:** Perceptions of consumers about a country whose products they wish or do not wish to buy.

**Country of Origin (often abbreviated to COO):** is the country of manufacture, Production, or growth where an article or product comes from.

**Ethnocentrism:** Belief in the superiority of one's own ethnic group, Overriding concern with race.

**Image:** Perceptions of consumers about a product, firm or country.

**Made in:** Place of production or manufacturing or assembly of products.

**Product Country Image:** Consumers' perceptions about the products originating from a particular country.

**Religiosity:** The quality of being religious, Excessive or affected piety.

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# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses an introduction of the study, including the background of the study, the problem statement, research questions of the study, and research objectives of the study, scope of the study. Furthermore, problems related to purchase intention, which lies in the area of international marketing and consumer behavior in a cross-cultural setting, are widely discussed in this section. The significance of the study is also comprehensively and clearly outlined, and its implications on several international marketing practices in terms of theoretical, managerial, and policy facets are considered.

### **1.1 Introduction**

The marketing field has grown significantly, particularly in the millennium years and the era of globalization. As Levitt (1982) has claimed, the globalization of the market has brought significant changes in consumers' behaviors on a global scale. Therefore, marketers or firms must be aware of, and understand, the impact of globalization on their products and/or services. Globalization has also resulted in the relaxation of global trade policies, and thus consumers are provided with more foreign products than ever before (Qing et al., 2012) are. It has been argued that globalization of markets would inevitably result in significant changes in consumption patterns (Hu and Wang, 2010; Muchtar et al., 2012). Although Levitt (1982) and other researchers have argued that globalization of the market has driven the standardization of products and services due to the convergence of consumers' tastes and preferences, various

studies debate this claim, and have shown conflicting evidence. Scholars have argued that it is necessary for marketers to adapt their products because various markets have different tastes and preferences, and are largely influenced by local cultures, which is difficult to change. In adapting to the needs and wants of consumers of different markets, marketers need a comprehensive understanding about the divergence of these tastes and preferences; thus, studies on their behaviors and buying attitudes is crucial. Hence, this study is keen to explore this divergence by examining the differences of consumer behaviors and buying attitudes.

## **1.2 Background**

Globalization of the market has enabled countries to trade products and services all over the world. The exporting and importing of products and services continues to increase worldwide, and has significantly affected the scenario of business and marketing activities. These circumstances not only provide greater opportunities for marketers to market their products abroad, but at the same time, also create greater competition for marketers. In marketing products internationally, marketers have to explore markets beyond their national boundaries and domestic markets. External national boundaries, however, pose vast differences from the home country in terms of consumer attitude. These differences greatly vary from country to country. Despite the concept of globalization, which views the global market as one that is homogeneous, marketers acknowledge that consumers in these various markets are diverse, and thus their behavior remains distinct and unique, both socially and culturally.

This phenomenon has major implications for marketing, primarily pertinent to the behavior of the consumers. These diverse consumer behaviors need to be investigated, since different methods are required to manage such behaviors. Marketing scholars label the cultural diversities of markets as multicultural marketplaces, and marketers have to confront such multicultural environments to compete in the international marketplace. The influx of globalization has created various markets in which the consumers are influenced by their own personal cultures. These variations in the multicultural environment are heavily influenced by local cultures, eventually shaping their perceptions and buying behaviors towards the products and services offered.

As culture differs from one market to another, it is essential for marketers to understand cultural differences, which have a significant impact on their attitudes and buying decisions. Sung and Tinkham (2005) noted that cultural differences among consumers have a potential impact on the perceptions of products. Foxall et al. (1994) claimed that consumer motivation of product and service preference, as well as cultural dimensions, could shape lifestyle. Indeed, Blackwell et al. (2001) asserted that culture has a significant influence on 'how' and 'why' consumers purchase a range of products and services. Therefore, culture can influence an individual's interaction with a product, and in turn the purchase of this product.

Jeannet and Hennessey (1995; in Doole & Lowe, 2008) argued that culture directly influences consumer behavior through cultural forces, including religion, history, family, language, education and arts. These forces determine beliefs and values, and set the standard behavior for the individual in that society. This would result to form a way of thinking and living

that is shared by individuals from that society. Therefore, culture can influence consumer perception and understanding of a given product; subsequently, consumers would behave accordingly. Based on this, cultural attributes are essential, and need to be taken into consideration by marketing managers in examining purchasing behavior.

It is fundamental for marketers to understand how, what, when, and why people buy the products they do. In light of increasing globalization, it is vital for marketers to have a deep understanding of the behavior of consumers in different parts of the world, particularly related to their buying patterns and decisions. There has been a stream of research that focuses on consumer choices regarding products from specific foreign countries (i.e. country-image studies; for recent reviews, see Dmitrović and Vida, 2010; Giraldi and Ikeda, 2009; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). Decisions such as whether to cluster countries based on the similarity of target consumer groups within each country, or to target different segments in different countries with the same product, need answers, this is the reason international marketing academics have shown a great deal of interest in identifying the variables that affect consumers' evaluations of domestic and foreign products (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2008). Learning and recognizing differences in markets will enable marketers to strategically formulate their marketing strategies in segmenting markets, as well as creating brands and image for products. Similarly, marketers will be able to identify and understand the needs and wants of the local consumers in various markets accordingly and in turn develop the best strategies for managing such behaviors

### **1.3 Consumer Purchase Intention and Related Theories**

In understanding the process of purchase intention, as well as the manner in which this process is influenced by various psychological variables discussed above (specifically, animosity, ethnocentrism, religiosity, consumer image and product image), the most appropriate theory to use is.

The Social Identity Theory (SIT; Turner, 1987), as ethnocentrism occurs when that could explain the phenomenon is Social Identity Theory, The SIT, with its full resilience, vibrancy, and dynamics, comprises the perfect attributes required to explain the interface between animosity, ethnocentrism, religiosity, country image and product image; spelling out this study's framework, model and hypotheses.

The SIT, as the “Integrative Theory of Inter-Group Conflict”, pioneered by Tajfel (1982), and subsequently refined, augmented and nurtured by Tajfel and Turner (1986), has been widely employed on an international scale to examine the nature and cause(s) of animosity (Shimp et al., 2004; Shoham et al., 2006). Numerous scholars (e.g., Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986) have deployed the SIT in their studies to examine the dynamics of animosity (Shimp et al., 2004; Shoham et al., 2006; Huang et al., 2010).

The SIT postulates that consumers conceive, develop and enhance their self-image(s) and self-esteem through a process of self-categorization, classifying themselves and others into the “in-groups” and “out-groups” global phenomenon (Turner, 1987). Social institutions, values

and norms codify, spell-out and orchestrate behavior, commensurating to their beliefs, respective identities, societal worth, and in-group/out-group dichotomy (Goar, 2007). Consumers, consciously, subconsciously and unconsciously compare their own in-group(s) with relevant out-group(s), and strive to maintain intergroup distinctiveness by favoring the former, while discriminating against the later (Hewstone et al., 2002; Verlegh, 1999, 2007). Tajfel (1982) asserted that membership in one of the groups could be rooted in societal variables such as nationality, race, tribalism, caste, religion and ethnicity, and varies in degrees based on the society taken into account. Duckitt and Parra (2004), and Sidanius and Pratto (1999), assert that consumers from a particular nation may react negatively to certain foreign countries, and in turn reject purchasing their products because of heightened awareness of their own cohesive group's identity and solidarity to their own society and animosity against others for historical, cultural or political reasons. For instance, a Taiwanese in-group might perceive itself as having more democratic values than its counterparts have across the People's Republic of China, who is thus perceived as the out-group. This process would and/or could gradually lead to an increasing consciousness of a distinct Taiwanese identity that is separate from that of the People's Republic of China (Saunders, 2005). The actual or perceived differences between in-groups and all out-groups can be expected to influence consumers' perceptions, beliefs, evaluations, judgments and behaviors (Shimp et al., 2004).

The SIT does not claim that consumers always prefer domestic products over foreign alternatives, regardless of the price (Verlegh, 2007). Several studies have demonstrated that in-group members' evaluations exhibit a balance of bias and reality (Verlegh, 2007). For example, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), in a study on British consumers, found that bias to the in-

group might better explain the favoring of domestic products than discrimination against foreign alternatives. Similarly, studies examining consumer behavior of Polish consumers (Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001), and Russian and Chinese consumers (Klein et al., 2006), were more likely to be biased in favor of domestic products because of preference for local tastes, nationalistic feelings, and superiority of domestic brands in certain categories such as ethnic clothing, jewelry and food. Pro-national bias may not always be strong enough to overcome price or quality disadvantages. For example, consumers may occasionally prefer the foreign products (Verlegh, 2007) over domestic products due to factors such as superior quality, cheaper prices or global brand prestige.

Besides animosity, this study also examines consumers' attitude towards product image and its country image. This study theorizes that consumer attitude (which comprises of product and country image) acts as a "mediator" rather than as an antecedent. Furthermore, the factors that influence consumer attitude consist of ethnocentrism, religiosity and animosity.

The ethnocentric behavior of consumers can be explained by the fact that consumers perceive themselves as members of a distinct group rather than as unique individuals.

The construct (ethnocentrism) used in this study, deeply rooted in SIT, is defined as: “the view of things in which one’s own group is the centre of everything, and all others are scaled 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” (Sumner, 1906, p. 18).

Religion equips consumers with personal, spiritual and social identity within the context of a cosmic or metaphysical background (Marty and Appleby, 1991). Religiosity is the religious commitment of consumers’ towards their faith(s) (Johnson et al., 2001), and is reflected in their consumer purchasing behavior of numerous products, ranging from food, to clothing. Numerous scholars have investigated the impact of religiosity on consumers’ purchase behavior in numerous nationalistic and social settings, and have argued that religiosity should be considered as a possible determinant of purchase behavior (Bailey and Sood, 1993; Jianfeng et al., 2009; Mokhlis, 2006; Sood and Nasu, 1995). The frontiers of religiosity encompass six independent dimensions: (1) belief, (2) spiritual experience, (3) religious practice, (4) religious knowledge, (5) moral consequences, and (6) social consequences (De Jong et al., 1976). Marketing literature is repellent in numerous studies examining ethnocentrism and animosity as antecedents of purchase intentions of foreign and domestic products (Javalgi et al., 2005; Maher and Mady, 2010). Altintas and Tokol (2007) argue that religiosity is one of the antecedents of ethnocentrism; while Maher and Mady (2010) argue that “effects of animosity, social norms, and anticipated emotions, as antecedents to animosity, might differ based on an individual consumer’s level of religiosity”. Hence, this study argues that understanding the interactions and interface between religiosity, ethnocentrism and animosity, as well as their combined effect(s), are critical to understanding consumers’ purchase behavior towards foreign products in a

conservative Islamic society (Saudi Arabia), which asserts itself on a global scale because of the massive volume of oil wealth it possesses, percolating to its vibrant, resilient and globally assertive consumers. This study analyses the interface of five constructs on Saudi Arabian consumers' purchase behavior of foreign products: animosity, ethnocentrism, religiosity, product image, and country image, and presents results for the benefit of both domestic and global marketers operating in conservative Islamic countries such as Saudi Arabia.

#### **1.4 Consumer Purchase Behavior and Foreign Products**

Globalization has enabled firms to distribute their goods and services across the world. This means that consumers have more choices for almost all kinds of products in the market. However, due to consumer unfamiliarity with foreign products, or vice versa; foreign consumers may find it difficult to gauge or decide whether to purchase foreign products. Consequently, consumers may become confused about the products, and may not be able to accept foreign products that they are unfamiliar with, or vice versa.

In addition, socio-psychological factors such as consumer ethnocentrism (CET) and country-of-origin (COO) may act as 'disturbing factors' in the decision of selecting products and firms from different countries. In order to make rational decisions about purchasing products, consumers are motivated to acquire additional information regarding such products before they decide to purchase them.

Consequently, consumers' knowledge of products and production countries has increased, resulting in changes in their purchasing patterns and behaviors. Consumers also are sometimes influenced by nationalism or sentiment on products manufactured locally, and this creates a dilemma in purchasing products. Many consumers support local industries by maintaining a default primary choice of buying local products.

Previous research indicates the significant influence of purchase intention, while consumers hold a different level of appraisals related to products from other countries, (e.g. Schooler, 1965; Roth and Romeo, 1992; Yasin et al., 2007). Some consumers prefer foreign products as a symbol status provider, while other consumers favor locally made products, and may have a negative perception towards foreign products. The negative perception of imported products can be due to various reasons (Nijssen, Douglas & Bressers, 1999). Consumers who feel that foreign products are of lower quality may have animosity of the country that produces such products, or feel guilty about buying imported products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Ethnocentric people consider buying imported products as being disloyal to the nation, harming the economy and increasing unemployment (Ruyter et al., 1998; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Javalgi et al., 2005; Shimp and Sharma, 1987).

Ethnocentrism has a negative effect on consumer purchase intentions, and this effect differs based on country (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Grier et al., 2006). Ethnocentrism encourages consumers to support the local economy, and assists local employment. Granzin and Painter, (2001), and Shimp and Sharma (1987), discovered that consumer ethnocentrism not only influences the perception of imported products, but also

influences consumer attitudes and behaviors. There is a direct relationship between ethnocentrism and the original country of the products, primarily in automobile products (Brodowsky, 1998). Thus, the research community shares the view that discriminates between consumers who are likely to be ethnocentric, and those who refuse to buy products from a particular country, which is vital to international marketers. This is because, if the levels of animosity toward a producer nation are high, it is likely that the conventional methods of increasing market share would be inappropriate or unsuccessful (Tian, 2010).

With the kingdom of Saudi Arabia being one of the largest importers of products from the USA in the Middle East, it is pertinent to investigate how the consumers in Saudi Arabia determine the selection of the products they purchase. On the other hand, factors that influence consumer ethnocentrism are dissimilar among countries, and differ from one culture to the other.

Patriotism in Turkey was discovered to be the most significant reason for being ethnocentric due to the fact that the country is a collective society, and showing loyalty to the society is extremely important (Balabanis et al., 2001). Since Saudi Arabia shares a similar collective culture, it is paramount that commercial marketers and academic researchers determine the relationship among these constructs.

Subsequently, a study by Ettenson and Klein (2005) suggested that animosity, which involved hatred towards a country, might be linked with a political reaction based on international incidents. Political or war animosity is the effect of post-war behavior, and economic animosity includes the effects of economic imperialism. The current global political

turmoil in various parts of the globe, where the superpowers, which are also the main producers of global products and services, impacts consumers' purchase intentions towards their products, Consumer behavior, which is led by cognitive and affective aspects, is influenced by consumer ethnocentrism and animosity.

Animosity has been distinguished as being national and personal. National animosity represents resentment in how the country has suffered because of the actions of another particular country, whereas personal animosity involves resentment toward another country because of a negative personal experience with a particular country, or with people from that country (Jung et al., 2002, p 528).

Finally, studies have shown that consumers would have purchase intentions first, before they actually purchase the products and realize their intentions (Morrison, 1979; Liny Chen, 2006; Grier et al., 2006; Agarwal and Teas, 2002). Grewal et al. (1998) defined purchase intention as a consumer's readiness to acquire a product. Intentions can forecast a consumer's behavior, because it reveals the possibility of the consumer to buy certain products.

Purchase intention represents "what we think we will buy" (Blackwell, Miniard, & Engel, 2001, p. 283). There are two main types of purchase intentions: repurchase intentions and shopping intentions. Repurchase intentions reflect the anticipation of buying the same product. Shopping intentions indicate a plan for making product purchases. Both internal and external information search may increase consumers' intention to shop or to repurchase on the Internet, which generally leads to the purchase stage of decision-making (Blackwell et al., 2001).

#### **1.4.1 Buying Behavior in the Middle East and Saudi Arabia**

The Middle East, and primarily, the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), comprised of rapidly growing economies such as Bahrain, the United Arab Emirates, Oman, Qatar, Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, has been among the most attractive markets for international marketers. The region is currently undergoing rapid economic development through its oil and industrial wealth, and is a market that cannot be resisted by international marketer. Saudi Arabia, for instance, is rapidly developing, and has become the most lucrative market for consumer products and services (World Investment Report, 2010).

GCC countries have grown enormously in terms of their economies. High oil prices since 2003 have been a booster to the economies of these countries and investors, as well as international trade partners becoming major catalysts for growth (Sturm et al, 2008). Among the six members of the GCC, Saudi Arabia is the largest nation, with 26 million people, making up the majority of the GCC's total population. Saudi Arabia's GDP per capita value is US\$ 16,500 per year. In 2007, Saudi Arabia had the highest production rate of oil, and was the largest oil exporter in the world. The oil reserves of the country are also high, as one fifth; the world's oil reserves are located in Saudi Arabia (Saudi Arabia 2010).

Having such economic potential and growth, as well as an increasing market size, this country offers excellent opportunities for marketers to market their products and services. In

addition, the country is open to a variety of products from all over the world, enabling consumers to enjoy a wide array of choices.

Nonetheless, for consumers, awareness and knowledge in this region began to advance in terms of the origins of the products, and the global issues pertaining to them, such as political upheavals, socio-cultural and ethical; their perspectives of the products coming from such countries has also begun to change. Consequently, this would affect their buying intentions and purchases. A lucid example can be seen after the Gulf Crisis of 1991, during which consumers tended to show their support to U.S. products as gratitude when the U.S. brought its military presence across the region. The nation welcomed the U.S. troops, and encouraged its participation as insurance for the security and safety of the country. Consequently, U.S. products were perceived as acceptable, and the responses towards them were good. However, such a scenario underwent a dramatic turnaround in the repercussion of the tragic events of September 11, 2001. Muslims in the country condemned the manner in which the U.S. managed the attack, where Muslims were accused as terrorists. This situation has created a hostile environment, and tension, among consumers, resulting in changes in their perception towards the U.S., as well as its products (BBC Middle East, 2006).

The U.S. has been Saudi's largest trading partner for a long time (US-Saudi Business Council, 2011). The U.S. is the number one source of foreign direct investment in Saudi Arabia, and the country is among the top 10 recipients of foreign direct investment in the world. Saudi Arabia is also the world's 15<sup>th</sup> largest exporter and 31<sup>st</sup> largest importer of products and services. Saudi Arabia is the 15<sup>th</sup> largest trading partner of the US. These facts indicate that Saudi Arabia

is a great marketplace for U.S. products, and this trend will continue in the long run. Hence, with on-going events depicting negativity on the U.S.'s image in the eyes of Muslims, the future is uncertain.

At the moment, little is known about the perspective of Saudi consumers towards foreign products. Bhuian (1997) examined the attitudes of Saudi consumers towards imported products and marketing practices related to that. The study found differences in terms of Saudi attitudes related to the imported products and their way of marketing the products. The imported products' origins include countries such as the U.S., Japan, Germany, Italy, the UK and France.

Bhuian (1997) highlighted several general product attributes and marketing practices, but not much is known about Saudis' perception and antecedents of purchase intention towards foreign products, primarily American-made products. Hence, it is pertinent to understand the behavior of Saudi consumers regarding U.S. products in the country, as the former represents a major stake in the industry market share. Knowing the Saudis' perceptions and the antecedents of such perception will enable marketers to better comprehend the needs of such consumers, as well as the ability to respond to such perceptions. Consequently, firms competing in the Saudi market could also formulate the most effective marketing strategies, such as advertising and positioning in the country, and in turn gain a more competitive position in the Saudi Arabian consumer market specifically, and other similar markets generally.

## 1.5 Research Problem

Consumers may choose to refuse the products from a felonious country as a means of disagreement and objection (Ettenson and Klein, 2005). Numerous events indicate that sales of a company were greatly lowered when the original country of the company becomes a target of anger (Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). Studies on consumer attitudes on foreign products are mostly centered on one item, such as consumer ethnocentrism, or the country of origin's factors.

Klein et al. (1998) emphasized that factors affecting how consumers assess imported products is complicated, mainly because it involves numerous diverse factors. Furthermore, previous studies were also carried out in advanced countries, which have many locally owned brands. Results or evidence from smaller and developing countries, which have limited or no offers to consumers, remain unclear. Čičič et al. (2005) stated that research in this area that focuses on developing countries is still lacking. As most studies are performed in developed economies, little information exists to support this argument in the context of Saudi Arabia. This is a significant issue, as the country of origin effects on product evaluation is context dependent (Li et al., 2012).

Empirical studies found evidence-varying effects of consumer ethnocentrism in different countries. This differs from country to country. For example, U.S. and European countries preferred to buy domestic products (Elliot and Cameron, 1994; Sharma, Shimp, and Shin, 1995; Acharya and Elliot, 2003; Hamin and Elliot, 2006). On the other hand, consumers in some other countries are biased towards buying foreign products. Studies claim that consumers from

developing countries such as Mexico, the Philippines, Jordan, and Nigeria preferred to buy foreign products (Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999).

Consumer inclinations for products from a specific country maybe a result of various reasons such as product dependency, country-of-origin, similarities between countries, the country's level of development and consumers' beliefs, stereotypes, and experiences (Cordell, 1992; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Many studies conducted in a number of countries have persistently demonstrated that perceptions of global products are influenced by country images (CI) and stereotypes.

Most of the results have concluded that products produced from less-developed countries are perceived as less favorable compared to those produced in highly industrialized countries (Al-Salacity and Baker, 1998). Various marketing researchers have shown that consumers use the general image of countries in order to make specific presumptions about various product characteristics, including quality (Liu and Johnson, 2005; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993; Schaefer, 1997). The focus has been shifted by many scholars to examine the factors that lead consumers to prefer a product from a particular country (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). Hence, with the various influences of the constructs discussed in this section, it is interesting to find out the perceptions of Saudi Arabian customers towards products from countries with a “conflicting” country image, more specifically, the U.S.

Consumers exhibit a higher tendency for products made in particular countries compared to other countries (Cattin et al., 1982; Gaedeke, 1973; Papadopoulos et al., 1987; Schooler, 1965). There are other causes of prejudice that may potentially affect consumers' preferences for

products made in different countries, including ethnocentric prejudice (Han and Terpstra, 1988; Wang, 1978), patriotic reactions (Daser and Meric, 1987), different demographics (Hester and Yuen, 1987), product type (Lumpkin and Kim, 1985; Nagashima, 1977; Wall and Heslop, 1986), and product familiarity (Heimbach et al., 1989; Johansson et al., 1985; Tse and Gom, 1993). COO effects on product evaluations also vary based on product category (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993; Roth and Romeo, 1992). Past studies have shown that consumer preferences tend to be associated with the level of the economic development of nations (Lumpkin and Crawford, 1985; Schooler and Sunoo, 1971).

Marketing scholars have determined that consumers from different countries respond differently to the country-of-origin cues (Papadopoulos et al., 1987; Stephens et al., 1985). The effect of the Country of Origin Image (COI) has made this difficult; hence, the substantial amount of research on making theoretical generalizations on consumer perceptions and purchase decisions. The former is part of an algorithm; the latter, however, is closely associated with the diversity that exists between the products of different origins, considering cultural and economic boundaries. The COI apparently comes across with a paradox; there is an indicative variation in the size of consumer products.

A COI may have high value in a certain product category, whilst not in others. For instance, Germans are better known for their production of automobiles rather than their massive production of perfumes. In addition to stated stimuli, some researchers such as Nebenzahl et al. (1997), Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001), and Balabanis and Diamantopoulous (2004), have suggested

that a product-specific approach to COI is remunerative, and a theory to explain that such product aberration of COI effects is necessary.

On the contrary, even though previous research might indicate COI as an adroit and dexterous concept, with cognition, affect, and conation as its components, the present research corresponds to the perspective that the COI consists of two subjective components, namely, affect and cognition. These two components are independent, and have a casual impact upon country conations (Nebenzahl et al., 1997; Balbanis and Diamantopulous, 2004).

Notwithstanding, COI is unequivocal from a product's country image (PCI). The former refers to an attitude toward the country and its citizens, while the latter is an attitude toward that country's products. For example, consumers might perceive another country's citizens as competent, and praise such citizens, resulting in those consumers having an amicable impression of products from such a PCI (Nebenzahl et al., 1997; Balbanis and Diamantopulous, 2004),

An appraisal of literature has revealed that, compared to the cognitive component of COI, the affective component tends to have a more instantaneous than cognitive component effect on purchase intents. The collaboration of both has been investigated in a limited number of studies. Although the mainstream of studies has concluded the cognitive component as an antecedent to the emotional component, Haubl (1996) argued that the sentimental component influences the intellectual component.

Previous research has investigated the link between animosity and ethnocentrism, and the negative impact of animosity and how it affects product judgments on product responses (Klein et al., 1998; Ettenson and Klein, 2005; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Rose et al., 2008). The manner in which animosity modifies the existing perceptions and mediates purchase intentions is not clearly understood. There is not enough support in the related body of literature to determine whether consumer animosity and ethnocentrism would lead to denigration of quality. Furthermore, the literature is still vague as to the mechanism of the reason consumer animosity affects a consumer's willingness to buy products, which is otherwise perfectly catered to his or her needs and desires (Tian, 2010). As previously mentioned in this section, ethnocentrism and COO may be influenced mainly by culture or religion. For instance, a religion's effect on consumer behavior has been understudied in certain marketing literature.

With regards to consumer animosity, despite extensive research in this field, there is not yet a global consensus on the effect of animosity on the evaluation of goods produced by an adverse country (Tian, 2010). This is because, according to prior studies, the behavioral impact of animosity on product attitudes in different contexts across different nations is not the same (Klein, 2002; Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). Nevertheless, the majority of studies performed in this area have focused on developed nations, with the exception of only a few studies. Klein and Ettenson (1999) focused on Russia, Poland and Hungary; Jaffe and Nebenzahl (1984) focused on Israel; and Klein and Ettenson (1999) focused on China. There is a glaring gap in the research on studies that focus on the Middle East, representing an important developmental economic block.

Most of the studies primarily focus on the effect of religiosity on behaviors, or the application of marketing concepts on religious institutions such as church membership. The effect of religion as a cultural factor in the behavior of consumers has not reached an understandable level. A preliminary search for religious (rather than religion) factors on consumer behavior and marketing resulted in work done by Delener (1990), Andeleeb, Syed Saad (1993), and McDaniel and Burnett (1990).

Although religion has always been a cultural element in the consumer behavior framework, religion and its influences have been perceived as a taboo subject matter for investigation in marketing areas (Hirschman, 1983). There is little known about the influence of religion on consumer decision making and marketplace behaviors in marketing. In fact, there is little common understanding among previous marketing studies in measuring the effects of religion. Conceptualization of a religion's influences available in marketing areas seems to be inconsistent with religious psychology's findings, which is the domain area for religious influence studies on human behavior. Hence, a clear framework of religion's influence factors is urgently needed in marketing areas to assist the understanding of the concept of consumers' marketplace behaviors, based on previous findings from the main disciplines studying religious influences (Delener, 1990; Andeleeb, Syed Saad, 1993; McDaniel and Burnett, 1990). In the areas of psychology and marketing, it is timely that a study that bridges the knowledge gap between these areas is conducted in order to offer an alternative view of how religion influences consumers and buyers in the marketplace (Delener, 1990).

The effects of religious link on consumer behavior were described later by Essoo and Dibb (2004); Mokhlis (2006); and Rehman and Shabbir (2010). However, no similar study was reported in emerging markets, especially in the Middle East. Religious intensity and its effect on consumer behavior towards purchase intention remain to be a gap in the literature. Religious belief may be another research field that can potentially influence purchase intention, and has not been studied in detail. This study endeavors to connect religion and its belief with consumer long-lasting purchase criteria. Hence, Saudi Arabia is a conservative religious country, and at the same time, “offers” a promising consumer market. This is an important matter to investigate.

As we have reiterated earlier, not much research has been conducted on religion and consumer behavior (Hirschman, 1982). Hirschman (1982) argued that the consumption process is influenced by religion and its affiliation. However, a recent study by Hooghe (2008) has found that there is no reliable consensus on the impact of religion (religiosity) on ethnocentrism. Essoo and Dibb (2004), and Mokhlis (2006) have studied the influence of religious affiliation on consumer behavior, but no similar study has been conducted since. Hence, it is pertinent that link religion and its belief with consumer durable purchase criteria are conducted, as religiosity and its intensity could influence consumer purchase behavior. Ahmed et al. (2013) reiterated that there is a dearth of empirical studies that combined the effect of these three constructs (animosity, ethnocentrism and religiosity) towards foreign products.

## **1.6 Research Questions**

Based on the above discussion in the previous sections, and research problems, there are several questions that this research aims to satisfy. The research questions formulated are as follows:

1. Do consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity, and religiosity affect purchase intentions among Saudi consumers?
2. Does religiosity have any relationship with consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism?
3. Do product image and country image have any influence on Saudi consumers' purchase intention?
4. Do consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity, and religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affect the product image and country image of the United States?
5. Do product image and country image mediate the effect of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity, and religiosity on purchase intention?

## **1.7 Objectives of the Study**

This research has been conducted to gauge the interrelationships among religiosity (R), consumer animosity (CA), consumer ethnocentrism (CET), country image (CI), and product image (ProI), on consumer purchase intention (PI). The primary objective of this research is to examine the impact of the variables that influence consumer purchase intentions. The variables include religiosity, consumer animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, country image, and product image. More specifically, the research aims to achieve the following objectives:

- i. To investigate the effect of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity on purchase intention among Saudi consumers.
- ii. To examine the effect of religiosity on consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers.
- iii. To examine the relationship between product image and country image on purchase intention.
- iv. To study the effect of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity, and religiosity of Saudi consumers on product image and country image of the United States.
- v. To assess the mediating effect of product image and country image on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity with purchase intention.

## **1.8 Significance of the Study**

This study is significant to the marketing discipline specifically in the consumer behavior field in three major ways, namely theoretical, managerial, and political.

### **1.8.1 Theoretical significance**

This study is significant to the marketing discipline, specifically in the area dealing with consumer behaviour. The contribution of novel knowledge to this field adds depth to an already existing theory, as well as exceptions that can be explained by cultural, socio-economic and religious factors. New empirical evidence is revealed, highlighting the significance of country image and product image as mediating variables in predicting consumers' tendencies for

purchase intention. Since the existing body of related literature exhibits no prior work on the significance of the mediating effect towards purchase intention, this study aims to clarify and stress this mediating effect, its influence, and its consequences. Naturally, the findings of this study will extend and enrich the existing literature on purchase intention by investigating the influence of mediating variables in predicting purchase intention with regards to consumer animosity, religiosity and ethnocentrism.

This study is also of significant benefit, as it attempts to unfold the religious power and influence on marketing areas. Historically, religion has played a major role in shaping human thinking, verbal expressions and behaviour. This influence is therefore no surprise when it is made apparent as a consequence of feelings of animosity and consumer ethnocentrism; on the contrary, it can explain these concepts from a religious perspective, where marketing management would be better prepared to enter new markets. This will also add to the limited literature perspective in social psychology and marketing, where inconclusive findings in the marketing literature regarding the religious impact on consumer purchase behaviour are rampant. Since academic research dealing with religion and consumer buying behaviour is not prevalent, this study becomes one of value and need. The findings of this study are of utmost significance, since they can be used directly by marketers to better understand the authority and effect religion can have on the perceptions and behaviour of consumers, aiding them in forming marketing strategies.

This study adopts the SIT to explain the phenomenon of consumer animosity, consumer ethnocentrism and religiosity towards buying intention. To the best of the researcher's

knowledge, there remains no prior research work that blends the three major variables towards buying behaviour, especially in the Middle East region. As a result, this study is predicted to be positioned among the pioneers in extending and deepening the understanding of the SIT in the literature on consumer behavior that is related to the mentioned variables. The fact that SIT traces an individual to several selves that depend on group membership, and the fact that different social contexts can elicit different thoughts, attitudes and behaviours according to personal, family or national sense of belonging, is a potent element to cushion this study on.

### **1.8.2 Managerial significance**

This study provides great significance to all kinds of organizations seeking to sell products and services in international markets. Being endowed with a deep and critical sense of understanding towards major socio-cultural factors, and the effect they may have on purchase behaviour, makes the planning and management by marketers more effective and efficient in different parts of the world. It is thus of great importance for those engaged in international marketing to understand the nature and impact of conflicts and animosity among countries on the demand for products in international markets (Nes et al., 2012). As expected, this study is able to create value to international marketers or marketing managers by increasing the acquaintance and knowledge of Saudi Arabian and Middle East markets in the following ways:

- 1) It emphasizes purchase intention of foreign products from the U.S. in the Saudi Arabian market.
- 2) It offers detailed information and a careful examination of Saudi Arabian consumer behavior through their responses towards U.S. and foreign products, as well as of related marketing practices.

- 3) It unfolds various means by which products can be further improved in order to better serve the needs and wants of Saudi Arabian consumers.
- 4) This study recognizes a number of approaches that can be applied and conducted as marketing practices for imported products from the U.S. in order to increase their competitive positions in the Saudi Arabian market.
- 5) Finally, this study proposes several concepts that promote through effective marketing practices the optimal spread of American or other foreign products into Middle Eastern markets.

In general, this study is important, since it arms international managers with the tools required to understand and manage issues pertaining to the religious and cultural forces behind political turmoil. Alleviating some of the confusion Westerners face when dealing with people from different cultures can reap fruitful results when engaging in business. This research also lends a cooperative hand to marketers in identifying, understanding and improving the behaviour of hostile customers. For example, marketing managers can adjust their advertising strategies to deal with the attitudes of hostile consumers towards their products in a particular country. Finally, this study is also vital in aiding marketing managers to formulate effective marketing strategies that attract loyal customers with positive attitudes, and in turn outperform competitors and pose as market leaders.

### **1.8.3 Political significance**

This study is vital because it may help the governments of countries like Saudi Arabia and other Middle East countries to understand the effect of the political turmoil on businesses

and marketing activities domestically and worldwide. The growing resentment toward the USA and European foreign policy in the Middle East has made the understanding of consumer buying pattern more important to the government and policy makers. Knowing how consumers' recognized positive response to American or foreign products is very much needed for policy interventions to encourage trade between the two nations and other countries, as well.

### **1.9 Scope of the Study**

This study is confined to the Middle East region, and Saudi Arabia is the control variable. The country has been selected due to the fact that the country is the most rapidly growing countries in the region and the size of the population, which is the largest among the GCC countries. Given the purchasing power that the country has, the market is seen as among the most lucrative for marketers to be in thus understanding the market is crucial to refine the marketing strategies. The product used for this study is products imported from US; since the purchasing power is high in Saudi Arabia, in fact, most if not all American products are available in the market. Non-probability quota sampling was undertaken. However, this is considered acceptable and appropriate, since the objective of this research is to test the relationships and not to estimate population parameters finally the findings of this study can be generalized to GCC countries or other countries that share characteristics with Saudi Arabian consumers

### **1.10 Organization of the Report**

This report comprises of five chapters. The first chapter provides an introduction of the study, including the background of the study, problem statement, research questions of the study

and research objectives of the study scope of the study. Furthermore, Chapter 1 highlights the problems related to purchase intention, which lies in the area of international marketing and consumer behavior in a cross-cultural setting. The significance of the study is clearly addressed, and its implications on several international marketing practices such as theoretical, managerial and policies are justified.

In Chapter 2, the existing literature pertaining to consumer purchase intentions and variables related to it including antecedents are clearly discussed and reviewed. The existing body of literature is in fact impressively large, as previous researchers have identified and estimated the number of PCI articles in the academic literature to be close to three hundred. The literature review will therefore be structured in several ways; as the surface areas of PCI research, the field of foreign product evaluation was then related to the emotional constructs such as consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism. The effects of religiosity are also discussed, with a proposed theoretical framework and hypotheses of the study.

Chapter 3 covers the methodological issues in this study. Research design, data collection, instruments used, sampling design, and constructs development are covered in Chapter 3. Besides that, most importantly, data analysis and its pattern are also in this chapter to provide a background of the data.

Chapter 4 presents the output of the study where the results of the research are presented with the help of EFA, CFA and SEM. The results are discussed together with tables and

justification, including both descriptive and inferential statistics. Analyses are presented according to the hypotheses to ensure clarity and consistency of research.

Chapter 5 discusses the impact of the findings of the study; thus, the findings of this study are evaluated by comparing and contrasting them with the previous studies. Consistency of the findings from those studies are argued and justified. Finally, the objectives of the study are clearly presented, and limitations of the study and future research are highlighted.

## **1.11 Summary**

This chapter describes and argues for the significance of determining the relationship of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity, and religiosity towards consumer purchase intention with the mediating effect of country image and product image. Initially, it provides evidence of the lack of research in this area, in addition to the vague and at times confusing description and definition of some of the concepts. In providing a sense of direction for this study, this chapter outlines the research questions and objectives that it hopes to answer. Finally, the chapter ends by elaborating the significance of this study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter discusses the existing literature pertaining to consumer purchase intentions and variables related to it. The existing body of literature is in fact impressively large, as previous researchers have identified and estimated the number of product image and country image articles in the academic literature to be close to three hundred. The literature review will therefore be structured in several ways; as the surface areas of product image and country image research, the field of foreign product evaluation was then related to the emotional constructs such as consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism. The effects of religiosity, as well as a proposed theoretical framework, are also discussed. Hypotheses of the study are developed in this chapter.

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Many events taking place internationally are perceived as unpleasant and may generate people from another country to experience anger or hatred toward that country. As a result, the anger could lead to a reaction and cause consumers in that country to act negatively towards the companies from the offended country. In worse condition, consumers may articulate their dislike explicitly by boycotting products from the offending country. This hatred expression, which is known as animosity, could cause a major disaster to companies' sales. Indeed, previous events confirm that the negative reaction demonstrated against the companies significantly jeopardized

their sales and profit (Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). In marketing, it is important to study how the psychological behavior of consumers may have a major impact on company profitability and economy of the origin country. Animosity, coupled with ethnocentrism, can have a telling effect on the purchase behavior of consumers towards foreign products (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Scholarly literature on ethnocentrism and animosity considers both concepts to be antecedents of purchase intention of foreign and domestic products (Javalgi et al., 2005; Maher and Mady, 2010).

Literature indicates that various factors contribute to the animosity or hatred towards the products of companies. Cultural factors, specifically ethnocentricity are one of the influencing factors of animosity, which is demonstrated through their attitudes. Ethnocentrism is a feeling that one's own culture is superior to others thus a person will look at another culture from his or her own cultural perspective. Consequently, this feeling would enhance a person's animosity level. Lwin et al.(2010) have studied four countries based on changing levels of ethnocentrism and US-focused animosity, and have reasoned that there is a solid link between animosity and ethnocentrism. According to Jimenez and Martin (2010), socio-psychological variables (ethnocentrism and animosity) are interrelated. Apart from ethnocentrism, other cultural factor that has influenced on animosity is religiosity, which has received less attention in the consumer behavior literature. Despite its role in influencing cultural and sociological behavior, religiosity also has a considerable impact on psychological behavior and consumers buying behavior. Nevertheless, in some circumstances animosity, ethnocentrism and religiosity can be counterbalanced through image of the offending country or image of products from this country.

Therefore, country image and product image also play major roles in determining the level of animosity and ethnocentrism, as well as religiosity.

This study aims to examine the entire perspective of animosity, ethnocentrism and religiosity towards consumers' purchase intention of considering, as well the effect of country image and product image on such phenomenon. Hence, this chapter starts by discussing consumer animosity, and then followed by a section covering consumer ethnocentrism and then religiosity. Next, the section examines the influence of country image and product image on the consumers' animosity, ethnocentrism and religiosity. This will be extended by a section investigating purchase intentions and a section, which describes the theoretical framework. The chapter will continue with a section for hypotheses, which are developed based on the literature.

## **2.2 Consumer Animosity**

In 1998, an animosity model of foreign product purchase was constructed and tested in the People's Republic of China (Klein et al., 1998). The model predicted that animosity toward another country negatively affects the purchase of products from that country irrespective of product judgment. The authors show that the negative effect goes beyond consumer ethnocentrism, in which people view their "own in- group as central, as possessing proper standards of behavior, and as offering protection against apparent threats from out-groups" (p. 90). Animosity directly affects the willingness to buy a product, while consumer ethnocentrism has been shown to affect the judgment of the product first, which in turn influences willingness to buy. Klein et al. (1998) showed that Chinese consumer animosity toward Japan was negatively

related to their purchase intention of Japanese products; and pertinent is the fact that this effect was not related to how they perceived or judged the quality of Japanese products, which the Chinese view positively. Therefore, it was revealed that feelings against the target country were responsible for such consumer choices and behavior, which further showed that Chinese consumers could admit positively to quality product while retaining hostility to Japan. Last, Klein et al. (1998) were able to display that even with consumer ethnocentrism held constant, consumer animosity still influenced consumer preferences.

Consumer assessments of product quality and willingness to buy products can be traced from their earlier actions, which may be noted in their present attitudes and actions. In acknowledging the earlier actions on country consumer judgments, Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) established the notion of “consumer animosity or friendliness” referring to “as the remnants of antipathy related to previous or on-going military, political, or economic events” (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998, p 90). Currently, animosity is a factor integrated into marketing research through its economic effects on human emotional responses. According to Villy (2013) consumers with animosity experience stress when purchasing a product.

Klein et al. (1998) stated the consumer animosity concept as negative consumer emotions concerning international unfriendly occurrences between nations. When consumers believe a foreign nation hurt their own country, they are prone to demonstrate animosity towards that specific country. The emotional temperament of animosity reveals how international pressures can have aftermaths on relationships between individuals of different nationalities. Ettenson and Klein (2005) stated that animosity and their effects are related to political behavior, as consumers

implicitly dissent about international events. Muhibubani (2008) stated that the politically tense relationship between China and Tibet causes Chinese consumers to refrain from buying Tibetan jewelry and clothing.

Consumer animosity can be focused toward a specific country, caused by undesirable actions toward the citizens of the consumer's own country. Scholars differentiate animosity from ethnocentrism on the basis that animosity is nation specific, while ethnocentrism is a broader construct relevant across nations and is strongly linked to local preference (Klein, 2002; Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998). Consumer ethnocentrism has a substantial component of domestic consumption that considers both developed and emerging economies (Ramayah, 2011). Both ethnocentrism and animosity affect consumer behavior, which is initiated by cognitive and affective aspects (Russell and Russell, 2002; Ang et al., 2004). It also decreases willingness to purchase a country's products (Rose et al., 2009; Villy 2013; Funk et al., 2010; Guido et al., 2010; Smith and Qianpin, 2010; Hoffmann, Mai, and Smirnova, 2011).

Studies about consumer animosity have examined the effect of animosity on willingness to buy. Table 2.1 summarizes studies conducted on animosity. Findings concerning animosity and its effect on willingness to buy have been mixed. Some studies have suggested that consumer animosity was negatively related to willingness to buy independently of product judgment (Ang et al., 2004; Ettenson and Klein, 2005; Klein 2002; Klein et al., 1998; Shimp et al., 2004). Others suggested that consumer animosity might affect product evaluation in the long run (Ettenson and Klein, 2005). On the contrary, animosity does not affect product judgments Rose et al. (2009).

**Table 2.1: Studies on Animosity**

Year	Author(s)	Customers' Country	The Other Country	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable)
2008	Rose et al.	Israel	UK and Italy	Animosity, Consumer Ethnocentrism	Product judgments, willingness to buy
2009	Rose et al.	Arab and Jewish Israelis	UK and Italy	Animosity, Consumer Ethnocentrism, Product judgments	unwillingness to buy
2010	Tian	china	France	Animosity, Consumer Ethnocentrism	Purchase intention
2010	Maher &Mady	Kuwait	Denmark	Animosity, Product judgments	willingness to buy
2012	Nes et al.	USA Norway	Turkey, North Korea, Serbia, China, Iraq, Pakistan, England, Japan, Iraq, Ireland,	Animosity, Product beliefs	Buying intentions
2013	Fakharmanesh & Miyamdehi	Iran	UK	Animosity, Consumer Ethnocentrism, Brand image	Purchase Intention
2013	Villy	Israel	Germany	Animosity, Consumer ethnocentrism	Purchase involvement

Source: Compiled by the researcher

Various types of consumer animosity have been investigated, including economic animosity, which is based on economic relations between two countries, acrimony grounded on an earlier nation war or a political discrepancy between two countries, or even political and

historic distinctions within one country. Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) viewed consumer animosity as a construct, which has two elements, war and economics. Effecting willingness to buy, a number of studies have considered animosity and its consequences on consumer perceptions of products.

Economic animosity was further examined by Villy (2013) in his research on purchase involvement. He found that animosity directly influences purchase behavior and consumer ethnocentrism affects product judgment and therefore willingness to buy. Villy (2013) explored the case of Holocaust survivors, for whom even scenes from movies about Hitler can be traumatic. Therefore, more sensitivity should be given towards such populations whose eagerness to buy may be linked to their feelings. “The Holocaust could increase the consumer’s level of purchase involvement indirectly through COO cues” (p. 9).

The amount of consumer hatred toward a country may capture positive and negative effects. Jung et al. (2002) distinguished between personal animosity and national; personal animosity involves resentment toward another country because of a negative personal experience with a particular country or people from that country, whereas national animosity exemplifies antipathy at how the country has grieved because of the actions of another country.

Consumer fellow feeling instead refers to positive attitudes toward a particular country. Oberecker et al. (2008, p. 40) defined it as “a feeling of liking, sympathy and even attachment towards a specific foreign country that has become an in-group based on direct personal experience and/or normative exposure and positively impacts consumer decision making

associated with products and services originating from the affinity country”. They suggested that consumer animosity is dissimilar from consumer empathy, because the two outlooks are based on different belief systems and emotions. Instead of divergent constructs, Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001) proposed a simpler, unidimensional affinity-animosity spectrum, on which a negative attitude toward a country leads to animosity and a positive attitude leads to affinity. Nonetheless, the model introduced by Klein et al. (1998) has been used by the majority of studies that examined animosity in the international marketing literature as a conceptual foundation.

A crucial precursor of hostility is the magnitude of accountability allocated to the inhabitants of another nation state for the enactment of a contravention (Leong et al., 2008). When a transgression is professed as a personal act, the wrongdoing might not cause enmity even if it is prejudiced. Hatred is triggered when people of the wrongdoer’s country are perceived as participants or as responsible for the wrongdoer’s action per Pennekamp et al. (2007). The more the Surinamese faced slavery by the Dutch in the past, the more they feel angry towards the act through animosity towards the Dutch (Pennekamp et al., 2007). The delegation of responsibility to the group is derived from perceptions that other people of the country, such as government and existing institutions, either supported or assisted the action or failed to put off the action (Lickel et al., 2003). This indicates that the higher responsibility assigned to the people of a country for the perceived wrongdoing, the greater the level of animosity toward the country.

### **2.3 Consumer Ethnocentrism**

Animosity is not the sole factor that influences purchasing behavior. The consumer's hatred toward a particular country is also augmented by other factors, primarily relevant to their own ethnicity, and this greatly affects their buying decision. Psychologists in consumer behavior studies have distinguished animosity and ethnocentrism despite the fact they are closely related. Lwin et al. (2010) studied four countries based on varying levels of ethnocentrism and US-focused animosity and concluded that there is a strong link between animosity and ethnocentrism. According to Jimenez and Martin (2010), socio-psychological variables (ethnocentrism and animosity) are interrelated. The thin line between them lies in the relevancy of the factors on a particular nation. Animosity is a feeling that focuses specifically on the nation, while ethnocentrism is a wider concept that applies to people across nations (Klein, 2002; Klein, Ettenson, and Morris, 1998). Studies have indicated that ethnocentrism and animosity are vital in initiating cognitive and affective aspects of consumer behavior; thus, both are crucial in influencing consumers' buying behavior and purchase intention (Russell and Russell, 2006; Balabanis et al., 2002; Ang et al., 2004). Consumer ethnocentrism is one of the aspects that may have an emotional impact on the consumer's decision to buy foreign made or domestically fashioned merchandise. Ethnocentrism was defined by Sumner (1906) as "a view in which one's own group is the center of everything and all others are scaled and rated in reference to it". In Adorno et al. (1982), Levinson argued that ethnocentrism is "based on a pervasive and rigid in-group, out-group distinction" (p. 150).

Ethnocentrism has mostly referred to the inclination of viewing the world from a person's own culture. Ethnocentrism asserts that a person's own culture is superior to the others (Sumner, 1906). An ethnocentric person typically believes that his own ethnicity is of utmost importance, and almost all features from his culture are superior to another culture or ethnicity. Subsequently, an ethnocentric person will perceive other culture relative to his own culture primarily concerning cultural elements such as language, behavior, customs, and religion. The concept of ethnocentrism was initially used in describing a particular group behavior patterns and intergroup relations. Sharma et al. (1995) asserted that ethnocentrism is a social occurrence that reveals a propensity to differentiate groups, an inclination towards things belonging to his own society and a view that his own society is better than others. This conduct guaranteed the group endurance, and it is not restricted to a society of the nation, but also to any group or society that want to preserve and protect its cultural norms, values, and identity. In marketing discipline, ethnocentrism is a concept that contributes in explaining the behavior of the consumers, and this concept is known as consumer ethnocentrism.

Research on Taiwanese consumer ethnocentrism was shown to have a positive impact on intention to buy domestic and Korean products (Huang et al. 2008). The authors examined the effects of allocentrism, or “the tendency to define oneself in relation to others” (p. 1098) and consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intentions about domestic and imported Korean products in Taiwan. Whereas results showed that, there is a remarkable positive relation between allocentrism towards parents and consumer ethnocentrism, a negative relationship was revealed between allocentrism towards friend and consumer ethnocentrism. Friends have been shown to play a role in reducing the impact of national identification, implying that social identity

influences national identity, which leads to different purchase intentions. An increase in parental identity leads to an increase in national identity, which leads to higher consumer ethnocentrism. In general, they found that the younger generations tend to be influenced by their friends more than their parents and their level of ethnocentrism was noticeably lower. For example, Huang et al. (2008) found that Taiwanese consumer's attitude toward popular culture of Korea may influence their intentions to buy Korean products.

Li et al. (2012) also examined the effects of country of origin (COO), consumer animosity, and ethnocentrism on the buying behavior of domestic and foreign products in China. Results reveal that consumer ethnocentrism positively influences the purchase of domestic products and negatively influences purchase of foreign products in China. The “impact of animosity on perceived qualities are not significant for both domestic and foreign products, while the impacts of this construct on purchase intention are significant” (p. 2267). As previously noted, consumers can have animosity without changing judgment on the quality of the product. While animosity directly affects purchase behavior, it does not influence perceived quality, whereas ethnocentrism affects the decision of Chinese consumers indirectly as a result of the perception held towards domestic and foreign products.

Consumer ethnocentrism developed as a significant factor in indulging the rejection of foreign products by consumers. “Domestic country bias” happens when consumers tend to have an auspicious favoritism toward domestic products/services (Elliot and Cameron, 1994; Sharma, Shimp, and Shin, 1995). Scholars have defined consumer ethnocentrism (CET) as “the beliefs

held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products” (Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995, p.30; Shimp and Sharma 1987, p.283).

The CET concept related to the favoritism of consumers towards the local products or a prejudice towards foreign and imported products. The notion of consumer ethnocentrism concentrated on the accountability and moral principles of buying foreign products and disloyal to local products, which are locally manufactured (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Shimp and Sharma (1987) asserted that consumers tend to favor home-country products, even when they do not perceive them as being superior. Shimp and Sharma’s (1987) suggested that consumers prefer their home country based on findings in the social psychology literature (Adorno et al., 1950; Tajfel, 1974, 1982). The theoretical argument behind ethnocentrism is that individuals associate themselves with and prefer in-groups, while they dissociate themselves from and reject out-groups (Sumner, 1906). While national identity, consumer ethnocentrism, and economic nationalism all reflect a level of “discrimination against foreign products” (Baughn and Yaprak, 1996, p. 765), the primary reason is domestic preference, rather than negativity towards any country in particular.

The concept of consumer ethnocentrism until now has elucidated and managed to envisage consumer’s attitudes toward preferring, evaluating and purchasing the local and foreign products. The consumer ethnocentrism believes that products from abroad will harm the local economy, political situation, or economic events, thus encourage their resistance in buying foreign products from a specific country (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris, 1998). Sharma, Shimp and Shin (1995) summarized that a high ethnocentrism person may avert from buying products

from overseas in showing his retaliation in the past or present military, political or economic conduct that the country involved. With the growth of international trade and travel, consumers are increasingly confronted with foreign products and services. However, negative attitudes towards foreign products can arise from several factors such as previous or on-going political or military actions (Akdogan M.S et al., 2012).

Pecotich and Rosenthal (2001) held that a product's purchase intents and value are set in motion by consumer ethnocentrism. The link between the intent to purchase domestic products and consumer ethnocentrism is controlled by the need of the purchased product (Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995), the risk that foreign import offers to domestic firms (Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995), the level that the consumer holds bulbous consumption values (Wang and Chen 2004), and the inconsistency in the superiority of extraneous and native products (Wang and Chen 2004). Even though the concept of consumer ethnocentrism was originated in the United States, it has been effectively replicated in various countries, including Korea (Moon, 2004; Sharma, Shimp and Shin, 1995), Nigeria (Festerv and Sokoya, 1994), Poland (Supphellen and Rittenburg 2001), and China (Wang and Chen 2004), as well as Australia (Pecotich and Rosenthal, 2001).

However, the main concern of international marketers is whether consumer ethnocentrism actually leads to the purchase of domestic products, as opposed to foreign products. In investigating this issue, researchers have adopted diverse constructs such as "purchase intention" (Han, 1988), "attitudes towards buying foreign products" (Sharma et al., 1995), "willingness to buy domestic products" (Olsen et al., 1993) and "willingness to buy foreign products" (Klein et al., 1998). The relationships between consumer ethnocentrism and effect variables, which include attitude and intention, have been investigated with the effects of

pertinent moderator and mediator variables. A direct outcome of CET resulted in negative attitudes against foreign products in studies such as Sharma et al. (1995); Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser (2002); Erdener and Ali, (2002); Saffu et al., (2010); Lu and Zhen, (2004); and Taewon and Ik-Whan, (2002). Empirical evidence for a positive association between CET and purchase intention of domestic products are found in studies such as Han (1988) and Herche (1992). Studies such as Klein et al. (1998), Suh and Kwon (2002) also confirmed that there is a statistical verification of the direct negative link between CET and willingness to buy foreign products. Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser (2002) also found a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and support for foreign retail outlets. Ahmed et al., (2013) argued that in a society in which members have strong ethnocentric tendencies, consumers tend to have negative views about foreign products and therefore do not favor buying foreign products. However, Burning (1997) stated that buying domestic products is less important than price considerations among Canadian air travelers with higher ethnocentric scores.

Sharma et al. (1995) emphasized that consumer ethnocentrism may end in over the sentence of the traits and general quality of domestic products, and an under the judgment of the quality of foreign products Shimp and Sharma (1987) developed a measurement for consumer ethnocentrism known as CETSCALE. This scale is comprised of 17 items that are used to evaluate the inclination of customers to perform consistent actions towards domestic and foreign products. Though they are not the equivalent of attitudes, such tendencies may precede attitudes.

Antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism have been empirically tested in previous research. Socio-psychological and demographic have been identified as the most dominant antecedents of CET in examining the effect on consumer purchase intention. Socio-

psychological antecedents include “cultural openness, world mindedness, patriotism, collectivism-individualism, animosity, materialism, values and salience.” “Cultural openness” is determined by voluntaries to cooperate with people from other cultures and experience some of their artifacts (Sharma et al., 1995). Past studies have affirmed that there is a negative link between cultural openness and CET (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Howard, 1989; Berkowitz, 1962). “World mindedness” which refers to a world-view of the difficulties of humankind was found to have a negative relationship with CET (Sampson and Smith, 1957; Skinner, 1988; Rawwas et al., 1996). Patriotism was discovered to be positively related to CET (Sharma et al., 1995).

A number of scholars emphasized that patriotism is not only related to ethnocentrism, but also acts as a defense mechanism for the in-group (Sumner, 1906; Adorno et al., 1950; Mihalyi, 1984). Studies such as Han (1988), Sharma et al. (1995), Klein and Ettenson (1999) provided empirical support for a positive relationship between patriotism and CET. Conservative persons referred to individuals who have an inclination to appreciate the traditions and social institutions that have been existed over a period of difficult time and to initiate changes irregularly, unwillingly and slowly (Sharma et al., 1995, p. 28). Conservatism occasionally can present itself as religious intolerance, affirmation on strict rules and punishments and an anti-hedonic point of view (Wilson and Patterson, 1968 in Sharma et al., 1995). Sharma et al. (1995) and Balabanis et al. (2002) ascertain that there is a positive relationship between conservatism and CET. Experiential evidence for a positive correlation between collectivism and CET is also found in studies conducted by Nishina (1990) and Sharma et al. (1995). Klein et al. (1998, p. 90). Similar to CET, animosity affects consumer-buying decisions regardless of their product judgments.

Nevertheless, unlike CET, animosity differs in the sense that exhibited against specific countries only and not all foreign countries. Materialists on the other hand refer to the material possessions as alternatives to their lack of satisfying interpersonal relationships (Rindfleisch et al., 1997) as well as increasing their sense of belonging. Belk (1984) stated that possessiveness, non-generosity and envy are three elements of materialism. Clarke et al. (2000) also highlighted empirical findings for a positive relationship between materialism and CET.

Meanwhile, the values for a specific mode of conduct that is preferred for living one's life have been categorized as external and internal (Kahle, 1983). Clarke et al. (2000) confirmed that there is a positive connection between external values and CET. This may be because an individual seeking fun and enjoyment in life is basically a hedonist that is externally oriented and materialistic in nature (Mickey, 1993). Salience revealed the perceived danger to domestic workers or industries. One of the crucial parts of CET is its perception as a moral element, thus ethnocentric consumers view buyers of imported products as morally irresponsible to the difficulties of local employees who lose their jobs as a consequence of international competition. Olsen et al. (1993) found consumers' support in buying local products to be a way of helping behavior. Indeed, Rosenblatt (1964) proclaimed that view of risk to the in-group is positively related to ethnocentrism. Olsen et al. (1993) also proved that there is a positive relationship between salience and CET. "Dogmatism," a personality characteristics viewing the world in black and white (Caruana, 1996) was found to be positively related to CET (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Caruana, 1996). These studies confirmed that less dogmatic consumers are prone to prefer foreign products than more dogmatic consumers.

Past studies have revealed that purchasing behavior and CET related studies have examined consumers' demographics as a distinct set of antecedents. The benefit of using demographic antecedents can be seen in terms of segmenting consumers based on their positive and adverse temperament to foreign products. The support for a positive relationship between age and CET is based on greater cosmopolitanism in current years and its socio-cultural effect on the faith patterns of the youth. Even though the empirical support is varied, the findings hold the argument that younger people will have lower CET scores than older people (Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Caruana, 1996). It should be noted that certain studies failed to provide any statistically significant relationship between age and CET (Sharma et al., 1995; Festervand et al., 1985). Earlier studies had in fact found a positive relationship between age and approving foreign product evaluation (Schooler, 1971; Bannister and Saunders, 1978). There is a great deal of proof for the proposition that women have higher ethnocentric scores than men (Bruning, 1997; Sharma et al., 1995). The fundamental reason is that women are more traditionalist, conventional, and collectivist (Eagly, 1978; Han, 1988). Gender differences were confirmed to be not significant in some studies (Caruana, 1996). Other studies discovered that men are more ethnocentric than women (Bannister and Saunders, 1978).

In the Arab and Jewish Israeli context, Ramayah et al. (2011) tested the dimensions of the consumer ethnocentrism scale (CET) and found that the model was both valid and reliable. They assessed the impact of “consumer animosity on global product judgment across two subcultures (Arab and Jewish Israelis) for two specific target nations (the UK and Italy, examined for each subgroup)” (p.331). They concluded that both consumer animosity and ethnocentrism contribute to purchase behavior at an individual level. Specifically, they found Arab and not Jewish Israelis

to be more hostile towards the UK. In addition, consumer ethnocentrism was found to be higher among Jewish Israelis. In both groups, animosity was positively related to ethnocentrism; and although judgment towards a product did not influence willingness to buy from the Jewish, the Arab Israelis' positive judgment did influence purchase preferences. The context-specific nature involves hostile feelings towards the UK; "In this context, the Arab Israeli cultural and religious bond to other Arabs in the region is cited as a key factor" (p.339). Avenging UK political behavior, this subgroup avoids purchase of British goods. Finally, although Arab-Israelis had a more positive opinion of Italian products, they found that judgment of Italian products was not affected by any animosity. As for both groups, animosity was low.

The discoveries on the affiliation between schooling levels and CET were reliable where there is a negative connection amid the variables (Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Caruana, 1996). The foremost reason for such outcome is due to the fact that more cultured people are less likely to have ethnic prejudices (Watson and Johnson, 1972) and inclined to be less traditionalist (Ray, 1990). Though Nijssen, Douglas and Bressers (2002) consider consumer ethnocentrism as a result from lack of knowledge, studies such as Han (1988) did not find education to be a significant factor in explaining consumer patriotism. Mainstream past studies (Sharma et al., 1995; Bruning, 1997) indicated a negative correlation between income levels and CET. Increased income levels provide greater opportunities for travel and buying foreign products, resulting in more cosmopolitan views (Sharma et al., 1995).

## 2.4 Religiosity

No doubt, religion plays a substantial role in influencing consumer behavior. Al-Hyari et al. (2012) found a “strong relationship and a clear link between religiosity in Arabic/Islamic collectivist cultures and consumer behavior, mainly boycotting (p.155). The example is also that of Danish products in the Middle East and how failure by the Danish government to condemn the cartoons led to changed perceptions and attitudes toward Danish products. In the past, Middle Eastern consumers held high loyalty to what they perceived as superior quality Danish products; however, consumer animosity toward the home country negatively affected sales and revenues. This is unlike U.S. boycotts that are short lived due to political or economic stands, the Danish boycott is deeper as it involves profound matter of Faith and religion. The animosity to Denmark is not political or social, but rather rooted in religious soil. To this end, it is worth noting the affluence of religion as a pertinent element of culture influencing consumer behavior, especially in Arabic cultures.

Investigating the influence of religiosity, spirituality, animosity and country of origin (COO) in Bangladeshi consumers on foreign made consumer goods (FMCG) led Rahman (2012) to conclude that there is a significant relationship between “animosities and young consumer’s purchase intention of foreign made fast moving consumer goods” (p.103). Overall, the research showed that young Bangladeshis have sound values and morals, which are reflected in their individual religious beliefs, whether Hindu, Muslim or Christian. Beliefs grounded on spirituality affect the young consumers’ decisions and buying behavior. Bangladeshis, who are also highly

ethnocentric, hold sensitivity toward country of origin and thus seek out knowledge when evaluating the potential purchase of a product.

In research on Malaysian consumers, Ahmed et al. (2013) tested the interaction between animosity, religiosity, and ethnocentrism in affecting judgment toward U.S. products and purchase intentions. They found that “Malaysian consumers are moderate and do not have high levels of animosity towards U.S. products” (p.559). They revealed that religiosity and ethnocentric tendencies of consumers influence animosity positively. In addition, ethnocentrism affects product judgment and animosity may affect purchase intentions. Religiosity influences purchase behavior through animosity and it influences product judgment through ethnocentrism. In brief, Malaysia, a progressive Muslim country, has caught the attention of U.S. marketing managers who are starting to become aware of the changing moods of Malaysian consumers, which rely on U.S. policy and action across the Middle East and Asia.

Previous studies found that there was a connection between religion and its values towards consumer buying attitude, therefore it is noteworthy to investigate further the religiosity variable in understanding its influence on the buying process. Delener (1990) presented religiosity as one of the most important cultural elements, having an effect on the consumer behavior. In addition to that, Engel et al. (1993) also acknowledged that there are some diverse effects of religion on consumer buying process. Though religion is recognized in the marketing field as an important cultural element that influences consumers’ belief and values (Blackwell, Miniarg& Engel, 2006; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007), unlike other cultural elements, religion is perceived as a taboo subject that is too sensitive to present to investigation (Hirschman, 1983).

This sensitivity has discouraged further investigation to be conducted in the field, as a result, only a few studies were carried out. This limited investigation indicates that not much is understood exactly on how religion affects the consumer behavior in the marketplace (Kahle, Kau, Tambyah, Tan & Jung, 2005). Hence, advance examination is required to increase an understanding of the religiosity effects on consumers' buying and decision-making. It is crucial for marketers to understand this phenomenon as religiosity is a cultural factor that is embedded in a person's mind, values and norms. Having a comprehensive understanding of the religiosity occurrence will help the marketers improve their marketing strategies, particularly in the international market. Based on this limitation, this study endeavors to fill gap in the consumer behavior and international marketing literature by inspecting and scrutinizing further the capability of religiosity, as one of the variables in affecting the buying decision among consumers in different countries.

The first study that found an association of buyer behavior and religion was a study on location by Thomson and Raine (1976). They argued that religious affiliation was an obliging groundwork for market segmentation in furniture sales. Nonetheless, the study failed to provide strong evidence on religion and buying behavior. Hirschman (1982) examined the consequences of Jewish society on consumer behavior in specific areas such as innovativeness and information transfer. Jewish customers demonstrated higher levels of innovativeness to adoption compared to non-Jewish customers, indicating that religious affiliation could influence consumer's personality belief, values and behavior. In examining the effects of religiosity on behaviors and attitudes, religion within a broader cultural and societal context must be taken into consideration, i.e. consumer behavior motivations occur within a complex set of related and interacting

variables. Furthermore, the apparent appearance of similar culturally or religiously induced behaviors suggests the emergence of a new group of consumers, where religiosity may be a medium for greater closeness through consumption behaviors (Landrige, 2005). Religion's role in culture and subsequently consumer behavior has been identified to be different between two cultural contexts, Western and Eastern. From a Western perspective, when religiosity declined, culture emphasis on the individual became more pertinent. Marketers should take into consideration that marketing strategy should center on the centrality of the individual's needs and how subsequent consumption will reinforce and enhance this individuality. The Eastern perspective suggests that religion is an essential principle of culture and societal behavior, which could be perceived in the need of being in-groups during consumption encounters. Therefore, in their marketing activities in Eastern cultures, marketers should acknowledge the centrality of the group.

Slowikoski and Jarrat (1996) highlighted that reception of high expertise product in consumer durable is possibly due to factors including conventionalism, casualty and conviction. Assael (1995) examined how culture and holy or material consumption may influence consumer behavior towards purchase decision. Schiffman and Kaunk (1994) also confirmed that consumer behavior is influenced by family values and religious systems. Religion was reckoned as a combination subdivision that shaped a module of environmental influence on buying decision. Essoo and Dibb (2004); Mokhlis (2006); and Jianfeng et al. (2009) also confirmed the effect of religious affiliation on consumer behavior however there is no study so far is noted in emerging markets particularly in the Middle East. For example, due to their perception of a country as

highly competent, consumers might be having a choice of evaluating favorably products that are from that country. A country's image construct emerges from such findings.

Simultaneously religious intensity and its influence on consumer behavior towards a purchase decision remain understudied and less understood. As religiosity and its intensity are possibly affecting the purchase behavior, the phenomenon should be examined and further investigated. Overall, the significant influence of religion on consumers' behavior and their thinking has been well supported.

Understanding the influence of religion on human behavior is complicated. Earlier religious psychology studies tended to focus on one's commitment to the religion as the main indicator for a religion's influence. Almost all factors related to religion are aggregated to form a religious commitment concept, thus complicating efforts to unravel the components of religion's influences (Himmelfarb, 1975). The fact that studies found independent variables to religious commitment factors suggests that religious influences can be measured not only through religious commitment, but also through several other dimensions. Early attempts have been made to conceptualize religious influence in approaching religion, as part of one's commitment to his or her religion (McDaniel and Burnett, 1990). A limited study examining religious influences in marketing areas may have led to this misunderstanding.

Based on religious psychology literature and marketing studies, the influence of religion on consumer behavior is found to be mediated through five factors; including an individual's religious affiliation, his or her commitment to religious beliefs and practices, the extent of his or

her religious knowledge in his or her views and perceptions on societal issues, and his or her motivation in following his or her religion (De Jong et al., 1976; Himmelfarb, 1975). Religious affiliation and commitment are the two most used constructs in marketing to explain religion influences in the marketplace. All dimensions mentioned above appeared to be independent dimensions of religious influence factors (De Jong et al., 1976; Himmelfarb, 1975). Nonetheless, it is reasonable to expect significant relationships or interactions between the dimensions of religious influences. For example, individuals who tend to be intrinsically motivated in following their religion may have a higher appreciation of the societal consequences of following religious principles and values.

## **2.5 Country Image**

Country image has been known as one of the influencing variables that may explain the attitude of consumers and thus affects their decisions to purchase products or services. Country image represents a perception that one has on products manufactured or made in a particular country. May be subject to stereotypical perceptions (Gürhan-Hanli and Maheswaran, 2000).

Previous studies of marketing revealed the conclusion about the characteristics of the product is the result of the general image of a specific country (Liu and Johnson, 2005; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993; Schaefer, 1997). Recent studies conducted by Laroche et al., (2005), and Pereira et al., (2005) argued that country assessments are part of a larger country image construct including cognitive, affective, and cognitive components. The country that

manufactured products in certain instances is required legally to label the name of the country; this has become a marketing tool to leverage strong country images for certain products.

A substantial disparity exists in the way that merchandises are associated with their country origins. For example, certain product categories such as food, cars, software, and perfume, are stalwartly acknowledged with their country of origin; this is the case of German cars, and French for perfume (Kotler and Gertner, 2002). From their consumption experiences, consumers generate in their minds archetypal abstractions about different products. Preferential attributes of those products are generalized.

Researchers test country image as one of the first variable in according to foreign product also in international business and consumer behavior studies (Kotler, 2011). In addition, one of the most researched fields in international marketing is the confab of country image (COI). Two meta-analytical studies have shown that country of origin affects the buying behavior (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Peterson and Jolibert, 1995), which is in turn subject to product-specific and country-specific variations.

Han (1989) claimed that the halo effect, interpreted as a buyer's general favorable perceptions about a particular country, would be cause for favorable judgments about that country's products and vice versa. Halo effect and stereotyping are conditions that are related to the country image. Stereotyping is a concept in psychology and a process in which can describe consumer reaction towards country origin information (Maheswaran, 1994; Tse and Gorn, 1993).

It is commonly used as a benchmark to assess products from overseas that may influence cognitive process of other product-related cues.

Consumers favor products from certain specific foreign countries due reasons including “product dependency, country-of-origin image, similarities between countries, a country’s level of development and consumers' beliefs, stereotypes and experiences” (Cordell, 1992). Consumers have certain beliefs and perceptions of specific countries, and these beliefs do exert some power in their purchasing behavior (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006; Tan et al., 2001). Agarwal and Kamakura (1999) proclaimed that the objective quality of the product differs within countries. Such differences are consistent with the consumer's perceptions of the product’s origin. Nevertheless, Agarwal and Kamakura (1999) stated that the country-of-origin effect is less obvious when greater information on other attributes of the products is obtained. The decision to buy a foreign product is influenced differently by the country-of-origin attribute. The consequence caused by the country-of-origin for every consumer varies depending on the circumstances, time of the purchase, and the type of product (Dodds et al., 1991).

Reviewing all the literature concerning country of origin or COO, Rezvani et al. (2012) mentioned different variables that influence consumer purchase intention. What impacts a country of origin are factors such as “product knowledge, country image and patriotism” (p.205). For example, a consumer with a high degree of patriotism or ethnocentrism prefers to purchase imported goods from a country with similar values and culture as his or her own rather than a country with unrelated culture. They concluded that COO is an extrinsic cue that has more influence on consumer evaluation than intrinsic product characteristics where the product can be experienced.

Past studies revealed that a country's image relies on the perception of the level of economic development of the country (Roth and Romeo, 1992). The greater the economic development of a country, the more positive the perception of the quality of the employees (Li and Monroe, 1992), and this is reflected in the perceived quality of its products (Iyer and Kalita, 1997). Numerous studies have confirmed that country image and perceptions differ across countries. Kaynak et al. (2000) reaffirmed that country image assessment in a developing country vary from those in developed countries. Koreans were discovered to be more intolerant than Americans against less favorably evaluated countries (Nebenzahl and Jaffe, 1996). Consumers from developing countries also are noted to be more stereotype than consumers from developed countries (Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999). Country images are prone to be built up by consumers through their awareness and consciousness on foreign products (Roth and Romeo, 1992). Balabanis et al. (2002) argued that high level of direct involvement with a country or its products lead to greater objective consumer product perceptions. Advertising programs may help consumers to have a positive image about the product's country (Dagger & Raciti, 2011).

Thakor and Lavack (2003) argued that country origin serves as an extrinsic cue in the form of a national stereotype that consumers use to evaluate product quality. The more favorable a country's image in the consumer mind, the more favorable his or her evaluation of the products made in that country (Han, 1990; Schooler, 1965). In fact, Tse and Gom (1993) found that the country-of-origin to be an equally salient and more enduring determinant of consumer product evaluation than are well-known global brands. Moreover, country image as a set of national stereotypes is product specific; consumers might overemphasize it when little else is known

about the product (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983). As such, country image can serve as a proxy or summary information.

## **2.6 Product Image**

A closely related concept to country image is known as product image. The intimacy of both country and product variables had advocated some scholars to refer product image as product country image (Varlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Knight and Calantone, 2000). This indicated that the image created derived from the country and product simultaneously.

Large discrepancy in consumer beliefs about product quality enhance consumers' understanding on perceived risk and uncertainty (Erdem et al., 2006) and increased the significance of “expressive or image attributes” such as country image to consumer preferences and brand equity (Baughn and Yaprak, 1993; Kotler and Gertner, 2002; Lefkoff-Hagius and Mason, 1993; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). Vague or contrasting information about a product will encourage consumers to seek for clues or frameworks that improve image clarity, decrease perceived risk and, eventually, raise perceived utility (Erdem et al., 2006). Similar to a brand, country-of-origin offer consumers with information pertaining to position the product in their “schema of attribute space “(Schaefer, 1997).

Country image is understood as the attitude toward a country and the people while the product image is the attitude toward the products generated from that country. To illustrate,

consumers may have favorable product image or impressions of products from a country. They might as well perceive the other country's citizens as a cognitive and admire such citizens perceived as affective component. Therefore, the two construct of country image and product image originating from a specific country are separated (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009), further studies have found that cognitions of another country influence product evaluations and product beliefs (Papadopoulos, 1993; Heslop et al., 2004)

Astous et al. (2008) examined the impact of COO on consumer perceptions but of artistic and cultural products. They found that "product-country images in the arts are affected by country and product familiarity as well as consumers openness to foreign cultures and home country bias" (p.379). The originality of their research was in exploring aesthetic, intangible and complex products that involve both cognitive and affective responses. Respecting a foreign culture involves having knowledge of its "people, traditions, ideology, and values" (p.400) which can be gained through exposure to cultural products of that country. Ethnocentrism makes people belittle the strengths of other cultures, especially those with different languages and cultures or those are not geographically or economically close, a factor known as proximity. In addition, the study shows the extent of bias and relativity inherent in forming a reputation with respect to "global cultural products". Finally, like a brand, the "country of origin provides consumers with information about where to position the product in their schema of attribute space" (p.381).

## 2.7 Purchase Intention

The decision of consumer to buy or not to buy a product from another country is largely influenced by a goal or aim known as purchase intention. Purchase intention would lead to an action and is expressed through attitude of consumers towards the products offered by that country. Purchase intention is the ultimate variable or factor that marketers need to understand as it represents their real purchase behavior. This purchase intention is an outcome which could be a consequences from the psychological factors discussed above including animosity, ethnocentrism, religiosity, country image and product image. Hence, it is essential to understand the nature and characteristics of purchase intention to explain the phenomenon of consumers' actions. This is described in Social Identity Theory (SIT), which was discussed in the first section of the chapter.

Purchase intention in general means a possible attempt to buy a product (Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991). According to Kotler (2000), consumer behavior from either outside or external factors motivate consumers to buy products which match their personal features and make decisions from it. Outside factors involved factors such as a product itself, brand, a retailer, timing, and quantity. This indicated that consumers' buying or purchasing behavior is influenced by their preferences for product and brand. Consumers' purchase intentions always arise after consumer perceived the product's value and benefit. Studies on purchasing behavior variables have stated that consumers typically have earlier purchase intentions prior to the purchasing act (Morrison, 1979; Lin y Chen, 2006; Grier et al., 2006; Agarwal and Teas, 2002). Social psychologist asserted that purchase intention could encourage anticipated behavior on the

individual as it reveals the consumer's buying likelihood (Young et al., 1998). As a result, purchase intention has been adopted as an antecedent of behavior due to its ability to expect or predict consumers buying behavior, considering its complexities of realizing the purchasing process (Chandon et al., 2005; Young et al., 1998; Newberry et al., 2003). However, consumer behavior derived from the purchase intention is difficult to be expected. Many studies affirmed that there are clear distinctions between intentions and behaviors (Newberry et al., 2003; Bemmaor, 1995 Young et al., 1998). Factors that affected purchase intention were not perceived equally important among consumers from various countries (Lee and Green, 1991). Chandon et al. (2005), who studied consumer purchase intention towards groceries, automobiles and laptops, means that a consumer who has stronger purchases intention will most likely buy the products.

In terms of consumer purchase intention, previous findings claimed that ethnocentrism and animosity were antecedents of consumer purchase intentions of imported and local products (Marin, 2005). Klein et al. (1998) asserted that consumer ethnocentrism should be included whenever it involved the consumer buying behavior process such as preferences and product assessments as these factors influence their purchase intentions. Previous studies have found that ethnocentric consumers try to avoid buying imported products (Suh, 2002; Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Granzin and Painter, 2001; Ang et al., 2004; Sharma et al., 1995; Maher and Mady, 2010). Studies, which were conducted on Portuguese and Korean consumers found that ethnocentrism raised their awareness about foreign products, thus they declined imported products and prefer to buy local products (Granzin and Painter, 2001; Suh, 2002). Marin (2005) supported the findings in his study, in which he reaffirmed that Spanish consumers favored to buy local products than foreign ones because of ethnocentrism.

Purchase intention is also influenced by the indirect effects of three dimensions of brand image researched by Li et al. (2011): corporate image, product image and user image. The findings indicate that building the brand image of the mobile phone industry “should focus more on the product image leading to consumer’s buying decisions” (p. 1879). However, other dimensions (corporate and user image) should not be ignored, since they have a significant relationship with consumer purchases. Finally, they found that cognitive and affective attitudes can play mediating roles in the “relationships between brand image dimensions and purchase intentions” (p. 1879).

Purchase intentions related to foreign products are also influenced by economic, psychological, and sociological factors. Fakharmanesh & Miyamdehi (2013) studied the relationship between animosity, ethnocentrism, image brand, and purchase intention in Iran. The results indicate that while “consumer’s brand image was found to be positively related to the consumer’s purchase intention, consumer ethnocentrism and animosity was negatively related to the consumer’s purchase intention” (p. 147). Ethnocentrism was found to be negatively related to brand image, whereas animosity had no significant relation with brand image. In brief, Iranian consumers are more likely to buy foreign products if they do not have feelings of ethnocentrism or animosity towards the country of origin. Hence, understanding the concept of ethnocentrism and animosity is crucial in further analyzing consumer purchase intention.

Darrat (2011) found that Middle Eastern consumers' purchase intentions are influenced by brand perceptions/brand equity, with cultural animosity and individualism/uncertainty avoidance acting as moderators. A Middle Eastern consumer's negative feelings and beliefs towards American foreign policy are enhanced by local media influence to encourage them not to "buy American." The animosity affects the relationship between the brand perception and consumer purchase intentions. In such a collectivist society, consumers "will be more likely to base purchase intentions on the views of society toward purchasing" (p. 9).

Due to the difficulty of measuring consumers' purchase of products, the consumers' willingness to buy the foreign products are used as a viable proxy for the actual purchase. Several studies have previously validated specific variables, including purchase intention (Han, 1988), likelihood of purchase (Liefeld, 1993), willingness to buy (Klein, Ettenson and Morris, 1998) and reluctance to buy (Suh and Kwon, 2002) to serve as acceptable indicators of future purchase behavior. Researchers have also routinely conducted studies whereby the foreign products under investigation were non-specific, thus insinuating that product-country images tend to be holistic in nature and affect consumer perceptions across most product categories (Reiersen 1966; Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983; Papadopoulos et al., Ang et al., 2004; Hinck, 2004; Laroche et al., 2005).

## **2.8 Gaps in the Literature**

This study initially conducted to fill the gap in the consumer behavior literature in respect of Saudi consumers towards foreign products. With the current global political turmoil in various parts of the globe and its domino effects on the Islamic countries, the spin-off effects would

ultimately affect the attitude of the consumers who view some of this superpower with some sort of negative attitude. Consequently, as this superpower (countries) is also the main producers of global products and services, it is interesting to determine whether the global political turmoil has an impact on consumer purchase attitude of products produced by the US.

This research aims to fill this gap by investigating the relationships of consumer animosity toward the United States among Saudi's consumers and their purchase intention. Likewise, the research answers the call for a better understanding of the factors underlying the consumption of international products by examining the relationship between anti-American sentiments, religiosity, and consumption in Saudi Arabia, a country where anti-Americanism is more pronounced now than ever before. More specifically, the current study tries to examine the underlying concepts of consumer animosity, religiosity and consumer ethnocentrism, the interrelationships between them and their impact on purchase intention of Saudi's consumers. Significantly, this research would also aim to test the mediating effects of country and product image on purchase intention. This will promote a better understanding of pertinent issues and of improvement strategies in the context of international marketing. The starting point, however, is an examination of the underlying concepts as mentioned above. This will set the scene and help to put consumer animosity, religiosity, and ethnocentrism in a proper context.

This study falls generally under the category of country of origin research, which is a subset of the international marketing field. Nevertheless, as one of the main aims of the study is to investigate the relationship of the proposed constructs (religiosity, animosity, ethnocentrism, country image, and product image) toward consumer purchase intention, the underpinning theory of the study is based on consumer behavior research.

To start with, following the publication of the seminal work of Shimp and Sharma (1987) and Klein, Ettensen and Morris (1998), there have been steady streams of research looking at consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism towards consumer purchase behavior (Kamaruddin, 2009; Lu and Zhen, 2004; Maheswaran, 2006; Saffuet al., 2010). The research community shares this view, which discriminates between consumers who are likely to be ethnocentric and those who refuse to buy products from a particular country. This concept is vital for international marketers. This is because if the levels of animosity toward a producer nation are high, it is likely that the conventional ways of increasing market share will be inappropriate or unsuccessful.

Despite extensive research in this field, however, there is not yet a global agreement on the effect of animosity on the evaluation of goods produced by an adverse country. This is because several studies have shown that the behavioral impact of animosity on product attitudes in different contexts across different nations is not the same (Klein, 2002; Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). Nevertheless, the bulk of the studies done in this area have concerned developed nations, except for a few studies, which have focused on consumers from developing countries such as Klein and Ettenson (1999) – Russian, Polish and Hungarian; Jaffe and Nebenzahl (1984) – Israel; and Klein and Ettenson (1999) – China. There is a glaring gap of research in such studies done within the Middle East, which represents an important developing economic block.

The literature review on this subject showed that there are many studies that study the impact of the two constructs on purchase behavior of consumers (Kamaruddin, 2009; Maheswaran, 2006; Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Scholars have argued that the role of religiosity in consumer behavior has been well established (Essoo and Dibb, 2004; Mokhlis, 2006). Scholarly literature on ethnocentrism and animosity argues both concepts as antecedents of purchase intention of foreign and domestic products (Javalgi et al., 2005; Maher and Mady, 2010). According to Altintas and Tokol (2007), religiosity is one of the antecedents of ethnocentrism. Meanwhile, Maher and Mady (2010) stated that the “effects of animosity, social norms, and anticipated emotions as antecedents to animosity might differ based on the individual’s level of religiosity.”

Therefore, many scholars have studied the impact of religiosity on purchase behavior and have argued that religiosity should be considered as a possible determinant of purchase behavior (Jianfeng et al., 2009; Mokhlis, 2006). Essoo and Dibb (2004) and Mokhlis (2006), have also described the effects of religious link on consumer behavior, but no similar study was reported in emerging markets, especially in the Middle East. Therefore, as Ahmed et al., (2013) pointed out, there is a dearth of empirical studies that combined the effect of these three constructs (animosity, ethnocentrism, and religiosity) towards foreign products.

Another issue of animosity and ethnocentrism is its relation to consumer assessment of product quality. especially for consumers in the developing economies (Supphellen and Rittenburg, 2001).

It is argued that consumers in developing countries are attitudinally preferred to brands of a non-local country of origin, especially from the West, for reasons not only of perceived quality but also of social status (Batra et al., 2000). However, there is not enough support in the literature to suggest whether consumer animosity and ethnocentrism would lead to quality denigration. Furthermore, the literature is still vague as to the mechanism of why consumer animosity affects a consumer's willingness to buy products, which is otherwise perfectly catered to his needs and desires (Tian, 2010).

Consistent with the previous argument is the relationship of religiosity, animosity, and ethnocentrism towards the product country image. Country's image can be thought of as a proxy of overall attractiveness of a country's products and governs a country's ability to produce globally competitive products. Thus, country image has a considerable impact on consumer evaluation of products originating from different countries, and therefore influences their subsequent buying decisions (Han, 1989; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). However, in a developed country, consumers generally tend to have a higher quality perception of domestic than foreign products. This perception would tend to enhance the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on both the purchase of domestic and the rejection of foreign products (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001). However, in developing countries, consumers generally perceive foreign products, particularly those made in higher origin countries, as being of higher quality than domestic products. Even ethnocentric consumers may perceive foreign products to be of higher quality, especially if they originate in a country with a better image (Yagci, 2001). As most of the studies are done in developed economies, little information is there to support this argument in the context of Saudi Arabia.

Finally, most of the studies in the literature derived their findings via single cross sectional surveys (e.g. Braunsberger and Buckler, 2011; Shoham et al., 2006). Such single-shot studies, however, are unlikely to adequately illuminate the complex relationship between consumer animosity, ethnocentrism, and religiosity and their consumption behavior. The only longitudinal study in the literature is Ettenson and Klein's (2005) investigation of Australian consumer reactions to French products during and one year after France conducting nuclear tests in the South Pacific.

## **2.9 Hypothesis Development and Conceptual Framework**

Saudi Arabia occupies a unique position among the community of nations because it is the birthplace of the founder of Islam Prophet Mohammad (pbuh), the center of Islam (possessing two of the holiest shrines of Islam in Makah and Madinah); and the producer/exporter of the largest volume of oil in the world, giving high purchasing power to its consumers. Consequently, Saudi Arabian consumers have a unique mindset, lifestyle and personality (psychographic profile) associated with making decisions about the selection, usage and consumption of products, primarily due to their Islamic heritage and collective nature of their society (Hofstede, 1980).

Saudi Arabian consumer behavior is profoundly influenced by religiosity, animosity and ethnocentrism, which are the founding pillars of the SIT (Turner, 1987). The SIT, for example, claims that ethnocentrism occurs when consumers perceive themselves as members of a distinct

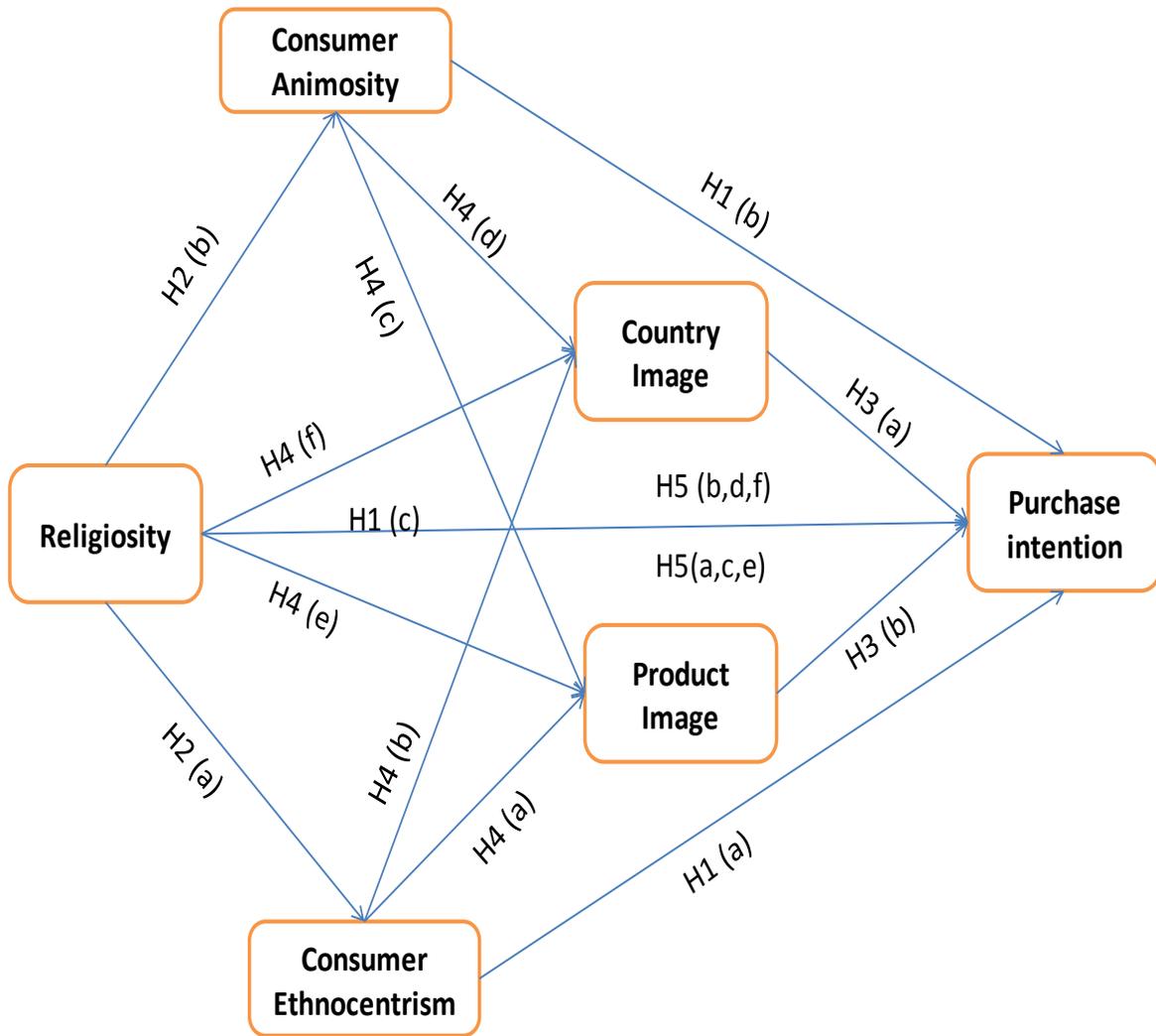
group (e.g., Saudi Arabian Muslim consumers) rather than as unique individuals (e.g., U.S. consumers). This phenomenon inspires and motivates them to formulate a unique social identity (e.g., Saudi Arabian Muslims) in which their religious and cultural beliefs, ideas, attitudes, values and behaviors tend to reflect the norms of their group's members (e.g., the Saudi Arabian society), and consequently, they perceive their group (e.g., Saudi Arabia) as being superior, positive and distinct compared to other groups (e.g., the U.S.; Turner, 1987). If rooted in developed (Western) nations, the members of this distinctive group (e.g., Saudi Arabian consumers) view foreign products as 'threatening' to their country's unique socio-cultural fabric, and consequently, would reject them. This attitude by consumers (e.g., Saudi Arabian consumers) would have a direct effect on the purchase of foreign products (e.g., U.S. products; Erdener and Ali, 2002; Saffu et al., 2010; Lu and Zhen, 2004; Taewon and Ik-Whan, 2002).

We have employed several constructs to examine the interactions and interface of the dependent and independent variables within the proposed research framework. For example, the construct (ethnocentrism) used in this study emanates from the SIT, and is defined as: "the view of things in which one's own group is the epic center of everything, and all others are scaled 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" (Sumner, 1906, p. 18). Religion (e.g., Islam in this case) offers consumers with personal and social (national) identities within the context of a cosmic or metaphysical background (Marty and Appleby, 1991). Religiosity is the religious commitment of consumers towards their faith(s) (Johnson et al., 2001). The construct of religiosity, like ethnocentrism, also originates from the SIT. Numerous scholars have studied the impact of religiosity on purchase behavior, and have argued that religiosity should be considered

a possible determinant of consumer behavior, since consumers either adopt or reject products based on the intensity of their religious faith(s) (Bailey and Sood, 1993; Jianfeng et al., 2009; Mokhlis, 2006; Sood and Nasu, 1995).

In this case, is the cradle of Islamic civilization (Saudi Arabia). This present study considers the influence of five constructs (variables) on Saudi Arabian citizens' consumer behavior animosity, ethnocentrism, religiosity, product image and country image, as well as their individual and combined impact (effect(s)), on purchase intention toward U.S. products.

For example, this study examines the impact of animosity, religiosity and ethnocentrism on purchase intention of Saudi Arabian consumers; religiosity on ethnocentric tendencies of Saudi Arabian consumers; religiosity on animosity of Saudi Arabian consumers; animosity, religiosity and ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers on product image and country image; product image and country image on purchase intention; and product image and country image playing mediating roles. Figure 2.1 illustrates the proposed theoretical framework by this study



**Figure 2.1: Theoretical Framework for the study**

Based the above theoretical framework of this study, the following is the summary of the study's hypotheses as shown in Table 2.2:

**Table 2.2: Summary of the proposed study’s hypothesized relationships**

<i>Hypothesis 1a: Consumer ethnocentrism lowers the consumer’s purchase intentions in buying foreign products in Saudi Arabia.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 1b: Consumer animosity lowers the consumer’s purchase intentions in buying foreign products in Saudi Arabia.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 1c: Religiosity has a significant effect on the consumer’s purchase intentions in buying foreign products in Saudi Arabia.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 2a: There is a significant relationship between religiosity and consumer animosity.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 2b: There is a significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and religiosity.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 3a: Country image positively influence consumers’ purchase intention in Saudi Arabia.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 3b: Product image positively influence consumers’ purchase intention in Saudi Arabia.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 4a: Consumer ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers negatively affects product image of the United States.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 4b: Consumer ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 4c: Consumer animosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects product image of the United States.</i>
<i>Hypothesis 4d: Consumer animosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States.</i>

<i>Proposition 4e: Religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects product image of the United States.</i>
<i>Proposition 4f: Religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States.</i>
<i>Proposition 5a: Product image mediates the effect of religiosity on purchase intention.</i>
<i>Proposition 5b: Country image mediates the effect of religiosity on purchase intention.</i>
<i>Proposition 5c: Product image mediates the effect of consumer animosity on purchase intention.</i>
<i>Proposition 5d: Country image mediates the effect of consumer animosity on purchase intention.</i>
<i>Proposition 5e: Product image mediates the effect of ethnocentrism on purchase intention.</i>
<i>Proposition 5f: Country image mediates the effect of ethnocentrism on purchase intention.</i>

Several hypotheses have been developed for this study based on the literature discussed above. The following is the discussion to support the hypotheses development.

*Research question 1.* Do consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity affect purchase intentions among Saudi’s consumers?

### **2.9.1 Consumer Ethnocentrism and Purchase Intention**

Studies have indicated that consumers are inclined to have a favorable bias toward domestic products or services and avoid buying foreign products (Elliot and Cameron, 1994; Sharma, Shimp, and Shin, 1995). Additional researchers showed that American clients who are more prone to “Buy American” have ethnocentric tendencies (Olsen and Granzin, 1993) and this

feature has shown a similar effect in Portugal as well (Granzin and Painter, 2001). Hence, consumer ethnocentrism helped to elucidate biases among consumers (Acharya and Elliot, 2003; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004).

Consumer ethnocentrism asserts that buying foreign products from abroad will hurt the local economy, political situation, or economic events, thus promoting the fight to buy foreign products from a particular country (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998). Sharma, Shimp and Shin (1995) asserted that a highly ethnocentric person might prevent from buying products from abroad in showing his revenge for the past or present military, political or economic conduct that the country involved.

Many more consumer ethnocentrism studies confirm that ethnocentric consumers prone to avoid buying products from foreign country (Suh, 2002; Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Granzin and Painter, 2001; Ang et al., 2004; Sharma et al., 1995; Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002; Han, 1988; Herche, 1992; Klein et al., 1998; Suh and Kwon, 2002).

This indicates that the consumer buying decision process of product preferences, assessments, and purchase intentions are influenced by consumer ethnocentrism. Shimp and Sharma (1987) stated that American consumers have an inverse relation for their intentions to buy foreign-made automobiles where ethnocentrism is related. Similar findings were found for Portuguese and Korean consumers validated the earlier findings that ethnocentrism increases the dismissal of foreign products and increases consumer purchase intentions of domestic products (Granzin and Painter, 2001; Suh, 2002). Recent study on consumer ethnocentrism in Spain also ascertains the result that consumers prefer to purchase domestic products rather than foreign

imports due to the influence of ethnocentrism (Marín, 2005). Based on the evidences from the above studies, this study proposes that:

*Hypothesis 1a: Consumer ethnocentrism negatively affects purchase intentions of foreign products among Saudi consumers.*

## **2.9.2 Animosity and Purchase Intention**

Earlier studies reveal that animosity towards a specific foreign country can adversely affect the consumption of products from that particular country, regardless of a positive product quality assessment or a valuable product attributes, such as price and quality, by consumers (Klein et al., 1998; Klein, 2002, Ettenson & Klein, 2005). Previous events confirm that the negative reaction demonstrated against the companies significantly jeopardized their sales and profit (Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). In the event that the consumer has a feeling of animosity towards a particular country due to warfare, political disputes and economic issues, their purchase intentions of the product or service coming from that country would be eliminated. Consumer animosity is negatively related to willingness to buy, independently of product judgment (Ang et al., 2004; Ettenson and Klein, 2005; Klein 2002; Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Shimp et al., 2004) and affect product evaluation in the long run (Ettenson and Klein 2005). Consumer animosity was found to influence willingness to buy, but not product judgments (Ettenson and Klein, 2005; Klein et al., 1998; Klein, 2002; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004). Hence, animosity maybe a factor in consumer rejection of foreign products made in countries where animosity, antipathy, anger, or hostility is directed towards them (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Rose et al., 2008; Villy, 2013; Funk et al., 2010; Guido et al., 2010; Smith and Qianpin , 2010;

Hoffmann, Mai, and Smirnova , 2011). Klein et al. (1998) confirm that Chinese consumers who have animosity towards Japan due to the past economic and war experience, exhibit low willingness to buy Japanese products, since the misery of such events still lingers. Ettenson and Klein (2005) also verified these findings when they discovered the rejection of French products by Australian consumers resulting from negative emotions towards the French.

Many studies have indicated that consumer animosity negatively affects the intention to buy products imported from that country. In their seminal study, Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) provided empirical evidence that numerous Chinese consumers still feel animosity toward Japan because of the Nanjing massacre during the Sino- Japanese War (World War II), which in turn reduces their willingness to buy Japanese products. During the past decade, several articles confirmed that consumer animosity has an impact on purchase intentions in various national settings, such as animosity of U.S. consumers toward Japan (Klein, 2002), different Asian consumers toward the United States and Japan (Ang et al., 2004; Jung et al. 2002; Leong et al., 2008; Shin, 2001), Dutch consumers toward Germany (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004), Greek consumers toward Turkey (Nakos and Hajidimitriou, 2007), Iranian consumers toward the United States (Bahae and Pisani 2009), and Australian consumers toward France (Ettenson and Klein, 2005).

Ettenson and Klein (2005), in their subsequent studies, showed that consumers harboring fervor animosity dispositions might deliberately ignore the actual merits of and bias against foreign products from the dispute country. Indeed, this deep-rooted resentment may be so strong in a person's psyche that it even surfaces with consumers in countries without domestic brands (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004). Unlike the confounding findings regarding the relationship

between consumer animosity and product judgment, research concurs that consumer animosity lowers the propensity to buy products from the disputed country (Lee and Lee, 2013).

Other scholars expanded the scope of the concept to regional animosity within one country, such as consumer animosity between northern and southern regions of the United States (Shimp, Dunn, and Klein, 2004) or East versus West Germany (Hinck, 2004; Hinck, Cortes, and James, 2004) as well as ethnic animosity between Jewish and Arab Israelis (Shoham et al., 2006). Moreover, the concept has been applied in a business-to-business context (Edwards, Gut, and Mavondo, 2007). Finally, a number of studies have explored how such feelings of animosity affect the intention to buy products originating from hostile countries (Rose et al., 2009; Funk et al., 2010; Akdogan et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2010). The results of these studies suggest that the level of animosity towards a specific country is an underlying factor in quality judgments and purchase intentions for products originating from this hostile country.

*Hypothesis 1b: Consumer animosity negatively affects purchase intentions of foreign products among Saudi consumers*

### **2.9.3 Religiosity and Purchase Intention**

Delener (1990) emphasizes that religiosity is an important cultural factor and a key influence in a consumer buying behavior. La Barbera (1987) argued that the “spiritual qualities,” which include religious beliefs instead of economic success, determine the general behavior of some religious groups. These spiritual qualities contribute to the differences of a consumer purchasing behavior. A number of studies have demonstrated the influence of religiosity in consumer

research (Delener & Schiffman, 1986; Delener, 1989, 1990, 1994). The ostensible development of analogous culturally or religiously prompted behaviors suggests the emergence of a new group of consumers, where religiosity may be an average for greater closeness through consumption behaviors (Lindrige, 2005). Assael (1995) stated that culture, sacred, and secular consumption all influence consumer purchase decisions. The influence of religious affiliation on consumer behavior was also confirmed by studies by Essoo and Dibb (2004), Mokhlis (2006).

The influence of religion on consumer behavior has been found to be mediated through five factors, including an individual's religious affiliation, his or her commitment to religious beliefs and practices, the extent of his or her religious knowledge in his or her views and perceptions on societal issues, and his or her motivation in following his or her religion (De Jong et al., 1976; Himmelfarb, 1975).

Engel et al. (1993) acknowledged various influences on consumer buying process as it affects consumers' belief and values (Hirschman, 1982; Blackwell, Miniarg & Engel, 2006; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007; Hirschman, 1983). Thomson and Raine (1976) asserted that religious attachment was a supportive basis for market segmentation. Hirschman (1982) argued that religious affiliation could influence consumer's personality belief, values and behavior. Lindrige (2005) claim that religiosity maybe a medium for greater proximity through consumption behaviors.

Schiffman and Kaunk (1994) confirmed that consumer behavior is being influenced by family values and religious system. Religion was considered a combination subculture that formed an element of environmental influence on buying decision. Consistent with this, Assael

(1995) also emphasized that culture and holy or material consumption have an influence on consumer behavior towards a purchase decision. Slowikoski and Jarrat (1996) supported the notion of religion influence on consumer behavior, as they found that religion and traditionalism play a significant role among consumers in accepting high technology products. A recent study in India by Srivastava (2010) has shown that religion and religiosity of Indian consumers affect buying intention their buying intention towards foreign and domestic products more recent studies such as Essoo and Dibb (2004); Mokhlis (2006), and Jianfeng et al. (2009) also confirmed the effect of religious affiliation on consumer behavior.

*Hypothesis 1c: Religiosity negatively affects purchase intentions of foreign products among Saudi consumers*

#### **2.9.4 Animosity and Consumer Ethnocentrism vs. Religiosity.**

*Research question 2.* Does religiosity have any relationship with consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism?

##### **2.9.4. a Animosity and Religiosity**

Jung et al. (2002) distinguished different types of animosity depending on whether animosity is national or personal. National animosity is rooted in the evaluation of whether the home country's national superiority, sovereignty, or competitiveness was or is currently

threatened by the target country, whereas personal animosity results from negative personal experiences with the foreign country, its culture, or people. Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) stated that animosity is rooted in political, military, cultural, or economic conflict. Hence, there is a consensus about animosity sources where is cultural factors is one of them. As religion is one of the elements of cultures, thus religion does play a role in shaping a person's animosity.

Following Klein et al. (1998) investigation, a number of subsequent studies on consumer animosity have been published in recent years. They include Shin (2001), Klein (2002), Nijssen and Douglas (2004), Shimp et al., (2004), Hinck (2004), Jung et al., (2002), Ang et al., (2004), Amine et al., (2005), and Shoham et al. (2006). One researcher investigated the impact of the Second Intifada on Jewish Israelis' buying behavior, which can be described as a contemporary exacerbation of a deeply rooted conflict, and found that the judgment of domestically produced goods is affected negatively by animosity. Ahmed et al. (2013), based on their study in Malaysia, have confirmed a strong relationship between religiosity and animosity. As one of the components of culture is religion, we hypothesized that animosity is related to the religion. Again, subcultures within a specific nation are largely influenced by the religion or ethnicity. Based on the above support, we hypothesize that consumer animosity is related to religiosity.

*Hypothesis 2a: There is a significant relationship between religiosity and consumer animosity.*

#### **2.9.4. b Consumer ethnocentrism and Religiosity**

Consumer animosity was shown to have independent effects on the willingness to buy from consumer ethnocentrism in purchasing foreign-made products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987, p.

280). Indeed, animosity and ethnocentrism have been shown to be distinct constructs (Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Witkowski, 2000; Hinck, 2004), with distinguishable effects on foreign product preferences; thus, ethnocentric consumers tend to avoid buying products from any foreign country. Consumer ethnocentrism “refers to a belief held by consumers that it is inappropriate and immoral to purchase foreign products because it hurts the domestic economy and causes a loss of jobs’ (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). A vast amount of research has shown that not all consumers are equally ethnocentric. In particular, more ethnocentric consumers are less culturally open (e.g. Shimp and Sharma, 1987), have lower world-mindedness (e.g. Balabanis et al., 2001), are more patriotic (e.g. Sharma et al., 1995), more conservative (e.g. Sharma et al., 1995), more collectively than individualistically minded (e.g. Sharma et al., 1995), more materialistic (e.g. Olsen et al., 1993), more dogmatic (e.g. Anderson and Cunningham, 1972), and less educated (e.g. Nishina, 1990).

Ethnocentrism has an affective component that renders one’s attitude towards in-group members much more positive than the attitude towards out-group members. Levine and Campbell (as cited in Stull & Till, 1994) provided a description of attitudes exhibited and endorsed by extreme ethnocentric. In this comparison, members of the group were viewed as strong, honorable, and worthy of assistance, esteem, and sacrifice. In contrast, members of other cultural groups were viewed as feeble, immoral, complicit in the problems of their own groups, negative examples for children, and deserving of loathing, loss, and injury (Stull & Till, p. 6). Within the social sphere, ethnic status is one of numerous master statuses that largely define the place of individuals in society. Individuals who have stigmatized master statuses are often stereotyped. “They are presumed to lack the values the culture holds dear” (Rosenblum & Travis,

2006, p. 30). They are viewed as the roots of serious problems. Also, “people in stigmatized master statuses are stereotyped as lacking self-control; they are characterized as being lustful, immoral, and carriers of disease” (Rosenblum & Travis, 2006, p. 31). Such views of the culturally different are used explicitly or implicitly to justify discrimination, “affirming that those in stigmatized categories deserve such treatment, that they are themselves responsible for their plight” (Roseblum & Travis, p. 32). The stigmatism that the members of the cultural group have, and the values that they hold, are influenced by several cultural elements, including their religion affiliation. This might have a direct or indirect impact on ethnocentrism and this is where this study is about to discover.

As people or consumers are rooted in their own specific culture, it is worthwhile to examine how religion, as one cultural element, plays a role in generating their ethnocentric thinking and protecting their society and nations. The concept of values, attitudes and tradition are known to be related to religion and they are also related to the antecedents of ethnocentrism, therefore this study want to verify the connections between these variables. As such, Altintas and Tokol (2007) argued that religiosity is one of the factors of ethnocentrism. Hence, based on the above discussion, we hypothesized that consumer ethnocentrism is related to religiosity.

*Hypothesis 2b: There is a significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and religiosity.*

## **2.9.5 Country Image, product image and Purchase Intention**

*Research question 3: Do product image and country image have any influence on Saudi consumers purchase intention?*

### **2.9.5. a Country Image and Purchase Intention**

Consumer preferences for products of a specific country is the outcome of a variety of reasons such as product dependency, country-of-origin, similarities between countries, a country's level of development and consumers' beliefs, stereotypes and experiences (Cordell, 1992). Country image was one of the earliest variables assessed within studies that examined consumer perceptions of foreign products (Nagashima, 1977; Schooler, 1965, 1971) and has continued to be heavily researched in the areas of consumer behavior and international marketing (Peterson and Jolibert, 1995).

Papadopoulos (1993) argued that an object's image is a direct result of an individual perception of it and the phenomena surrounding it. Furthermore, Papadopoulos et al., (1988, 1990 and 2000) suggest that the consumer perceptions of a product's country-of-origin consist of cognition (including beliefs about the country's technological and industrial superiority), affect (feelings about the country and its people) and conation (the consumer's desired level of interaction with the country).

Country image represents a perception that a person has on products made in a particular country, which either can be embedded practically or may also be subject to stereotypical perceptions (Gürhan-Hanli and Maheswaran, 2000; Maheswaran, 1994). Past studies indicate that product image and country image do play a role in purchase intention. Past studies on COO influence have found that consumers display a preference for products made in some countries more than others (Cattin et al., 1982; Gaedeke, 1973; Papadopoulos et al., 1987; Schooler, 1965). Products made in developed countries, such as the USA, Japan, and Germany, generally enjoy a positive COO effect (Samiee, 1994; Swift, 1989), whereas developing countries suffer a negative effect on their products (Ettenson and Klein, 2005).

Han (1989) claims the halo effect, which interpreted a buyer's general positive perception about a particular country, would be cause for constructive judgments about that country's products and vice versa. Halo effect and stereotyping are the conditions that are related to the country image. These arguments have led us to hypothesize that perception that consumers have on certain countries will encourage consumers to buy products from that countries.

*Hypothesis 3a: Country image positively influences consumers' purchase intention in Saudi Arabia.*

### **2.9.5.b Product Image on Purchase Intention**

Studies have revealed that country image has an effect on buying behavior (Peterson and Jolibert, 1995; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999), which is subject to product-specific variations. Previous research on country image has focused on the cognitive component of a country's

image. The cognitive component usually includes beliefs about another country's technological advancement, economic development, and political orientation (Papadopoulos, 1993; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Pappu et al., 2007), as well as the competence of its people (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). Studies have further found that concerns about another country's beliefs (e.g. Papadopoulos, 1993; Heslop et al., 2004) and product evaluations (Heslop et al., 2004; Knight and Calantone, 2000), in addition to willingness to buy said country's products (Wang and Lamb, 1980).

High levels of variance in consumer beliefs about product quality increase consumers' sense of perceived risk and uncertainty (Erdem et al., 2006) and increase the importance of expressive or image attributes, such as country image to consumer preferences and brand equity (Baughn and Yaprak, 1993; Kotler and Gertner, 2002; Lefkoff-Hagius and Mason, 1993; Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999). When there is ambiguous or conflicting information about a product, consumers will search for clues or a framework that improve image clarity, reduce perceived risk, and ultimately increase perceived utility (Erdem et al., 2006). Like a brand, country image provides consumers with information about where to position the product in their schema of attribute space (Schaefer, 1997).

Consumers have beliefs and perceptions of a particular country, which then influence their product assessment during the purchasing process (Hamzaoui and Merunka, 2006; Tan et al., 2001). Agarwal and Kamakura (1999) confirmed that consumers' product assessment of quality varies between countries and the differences are uniform with each consumer's perceptions of the product's country of origin. Based from the amount of information accessible to consumers, the decision to purchase a product affects differently due to the country-of-origin

attribute. Country of origin has different consequences for each consumer depending on the circumstances, time of purchase and type of product (Dodds et al., 1991).

Stereotyping is one psychological process that is commonly used to explain how consumers react to the country's image information (Maheswaran, 1994; Tse and Gom, 1993). Stereotypes are used as standards to evaluate products from foreign countries affecting the cognitive processing of other product-related cues. Since country stereotypes may be negative or positive, the management of a product's national image is therefore an important element in the strategic marketing decision-making process of international firms (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998). Based on the above discussion, we hypothesized that the perception that consumers have on products themselves will encourage the consumers to purchase the foreign products.

*Hypothesis 3b: Product image positively influence consumers' purchase intention in Saudi Arabia.*

#### **2.9.6 Consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity affect product image and country image**

*Research question 4: Do consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affect product image and country image of the United States?*

*Hypothesis 4: Consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity, and religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affect product image and country image of the United States.*

### **2.9.6. a Consumer Ethnocentrism and Product Image**

Bilkey and Nes (1982) asserted that consumers' product assessment is very much influenced by the "Country-of-origin" factor. This is because, the assessment of a particular product is done merely based on the information cues. As potential consumers are, less familiar with products which are imported or from foreign origin, they tend to rely on the "country-of-origin" cues in making a "quick" assessment (Huber and McCann, 1982). Han (1990) elaborated that these consumers may also assimilate the respective country's image as an information cue to deduce the level of quality of the particular brand in the event when they are unaware or unfamiliar with the items coming from the particular country. On this note, Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993) categorized the product-country image (PCI) literature into three major parts, namely origin studies, background studies, and holistic studies. For origin studies, PCI was examined based on their constructs.

Many scholars have studied the influence of a country's cognitive image towards the consumer perceptions and decision-making (Heslop and Papadopoulos, 1993; Heslop et al., 2004, 2008; Pappu et al., 2007). The findings of these studies showed that a country's macro-country image that comprises of three dimensions which are technological, economic, and political dimensions positively influence the consumer perception of a product perceived quality, brand associations, and brand loyalty (Pappu et al., 2007). In addition, the current literature has also argued that the consumer perception depends on the degree of competence demonstrated by a country's residents. Meanwhile, Heslop et al. (2004, 2008) discovered that the consumer perceptions of a particular country vary in terms of higher competence among its residents and is

related to a more favorable product image. Consequently, consumer perceptions of competence and friendliness may possibly lead to a more favorable product image.

*Hypothesis 4a: Consumer ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers negatively affects product image of the United States.*

### **2.9.6. b Consumer Ethnocentrism and Country Image**

Substantial studies (e.g. Lantz and Loeb, 1996; Lee and Ganesh, 1999; Stoltman et al., 1991) have shown that the appearance of the COO effect can be very much be traced down to the influence of consumer ethnocentrism. Several scholars have argued that consumer ethnocentrism may also lead towards bias or preconception of the home country produces or offerings, including Sharma et al. (1995) and Rawwas et al., (1996). Nevertheless, Watson and Wright (2000) argued that while these attitudes may connote consumer behaviors, it is not similar as consumer ethnocentrism is product-specific. As such, Shimp and Sharma (1987) hypothesized that the construct is beneficial for explaining the reasons of consumer preference towards local products over imported goods in the event that there is no rationale or logical reasons for doing so, such as the event that the imported goods are more superior – higher quality or cheaper.

On the other hand, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) held that the parallel significance of the construct (COO by culture and level of economic competitiveness) is not correlated to a specific fondness or dismissal of imported products. In their study, they discovered that at certain times an ethnocentric consumer prefers foreign products to local goods. However, in general, the construct behaves as a more consistent predictor of consumer

preferences for domestic products rather than foreign goods. To elaborate, consumer ethnocentrism influence home country consumers to prefer local products, although they may reject foreign alternatives.

Hence, COO acting as an information cue triggers various ethnocentric or beliefs and work with the consumers' prior knowledge that successively affect the assessment and evaluation of the product attributes. Following this proposition, Smith (1993) carried out a study investigating American consumers' beliefs regarding specific foreign products that are identified through the labeling in terms of the origin of the “continent” that the country manufactured is located. The results showed that the labeling of the “continent” of the country (instead of highlighting the specific country of origin) moderates the biases (read negative perception) associated with it which is held by consumers especially items that are produced from developing countries. To illustrate this point, the results have shown that consumers view products produced in South America as of somewhat similar quality to products coming from Western Europe.

In another study, Kaynak et al. (2000) examined the influence of a particular country's profile in the services industry. Their research looked at the perceptions of American consumers towards the 24 major airline carriers. They discovered that there are major differences between local airlines patrons or passengers as compared to consumers that fly domestic as well as foreign airlines. Therefore, consumer ethnocentrism is expected to affect country image.

*Hypothesis 4b: Consumer ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States.*

### **2.9.6. c Animosity and Product Image**

A product's country of origin, or product-country image (PCI), influences consumers' evaluation of it. For example, Swiss watches or Chocolate, as well as German cars, are generally perceived and evaluated differently from Indian cars, Chinese watches, or Ghana chocolates. The marketing literature abounds with examples and research evidence in support of such an argument (Liefeld, 1993; Baughn and Yaprak, 1993; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2001). In the past 15 years or so, scholars have made several attempts to devise an integrative theory of how consumers incorporate the PCI information in forming their attitudes and expressing their purchase intentions (Johansson et al., 1985; Papadopoulos et al., 1988; Johansson, 1989; Han, 1989; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Nebenzahl et al., 1997; Knight and Calantone, 2000). In a meta-analysis, Liefeld (1993) concluded that country image appears to influence consumer evaluation of product quality, risk, likelihood of purchase, and other mediating variables. He also noted that the nature and strength of origin effects depend on such factors as the product category, product stimulus employed in the research, respondent demographics, consumers' prior knowledge and experience with the product category, the number of information cues included in the study, and consumer information processing style.

Papadopoulos (1993) held that the image of an object results from people's perceptions of it and the phenomena that surround it. Based on the studies conducted in eight different countries, Papadopoulos et al. (1988) were among the first to incorporate distinct country image measures in PCI research (in addition to measures of products simply designated as "made in X"), and the first to attempt to model the relationship between country beliefs, product beliefs,

familiarity, and product evaluation and willingness to buy. Several studies in this area have corroborated the impact of animosity for products in general, (Huang et al., 2010; Leong et al., 2008; Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007), for specific categories of products (Hong & Kang, 2006; Jimenez & Martin, 2010; Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004; Shoham et al., 2006), and finally for hybrid products with partial shifts in production to animosity targets (Funk et al., 2010). Therefore, the following hypothesis is:

*Hypothesis 4c: Consumer animosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects product image of the United States.*

#### **2.9.6. d Animosity and Country Image**

Bilkey and Nes (1982) argued that previous work that examined the role of product origin in consumer assessment usually treat “country image” as a “halo” effect, in which the quality of a particular product coming from a country that a consumer is not accustomed with is determined. The plausible reason for the consumers’ action in using the indirect information such as the product (country) origin happens when he or she do not have sufficient knowledge about the product’s attributes. Hence, instead of reaching an objective benchmark, the consumers simply evaluate and make inferences about the quality of the product and its attributes and the brand. Johansson et al. (1985) have supported this assessment, based on the halo affect view. Their research showed that although country image does affect the assessment of product attributes, it does not affect the overall evaluation of products. In addition, the results showed that for an automobile, the consumers overall assessment appeared to influence consumers’ ratings on specific attributes. Erickson et al. (1984) also reported that country image impacts consumer evaluation of specific attributes, rather than their overall evaluation of the product.

Finally, Hoffmann et al. (2011) list the universal drivers of animosity as the following: perceived threat, antithetical political attitudes, and negative personal experiences. Animosity, ethnocentrism, patriotism, and cosmopolitanism were found to influence country of origin image, boycotting, and purchase intentions.

*Hypothesis 4d: Consumer animosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States.*

### **2.9.6. e Religiosity and Product-Country Image**

More than forty years ago, Cox (1966) argued that religion had become immaterial in the emergence of secularization and urbanization. However, today, this is far from true - religion is incredibly alive in the global societies, and religious groups are constantly influencing the public opinion. Numerous work in the current literature, recommended that religion is a basic part of the culture and is integrated with many aspects of consumers' lives and behavior (Bailey & Sood, 1993; Lupfer & Wald, 1985; McDaniel & Burnett, 1990). Therefore, the influence of the religious on the consumer behavior is found in many different areas such as clothing, drinking, eating, family attachment, social issues and control of the sexual behavior (Levin, 1979). Hence, it is clear that the motive for participating in religious experiences is quite connected to religion (Gorlow & Schroeder, 1968). As a result, Swimberghe et al., (2009) argued that consumer's religious beliefs influences decisions in selecting their choice of consumption. Consequently, Proctor & Gamble is one of the few companies that decided to cut back millions of dollars in advertising from television shows, in reaction to pressures from some religious organizations (Han, 2005).

In addition, giant retailers such as Wal-Mart and Target received widespread criticism for avoiding the explicit use of religious references in national advertising and promotional campaigns during the Christmas holidays (French, 2006). Meanwhile, Sheth's (1983) integrative theory of retail store patronage preference and behavior also suggests that a consumer's religion is a personal value that may shape an individual's shopping motives. However, "peculiar" findings of this phenomenon showed that individuals who have high religious commitment were more likely to buy products on sale more open to purchase foreign products, and referred others to stores with the lowest prices versus stores with the best assortment, when compared to their religious counterparts who has low religious commitment (Sood & Nasu, 1995). Finally, Essoo and Dibb (2004) established that casually religious respondents follow trends and feel more inventive than highly pious individuals feel.

As religiosity has been shown to have an effect on consumer buying behavior, this study has developed a hypothesis to examine the effect of religiosity and purchase intention as Hypothesis 1c (section above). In order to extend an understanding of religiosity on purchase intention, this study proposed that religiosity have some effect on foreign products evaluation. Hence, we proposed that religiosity has some effects on product and country image.

*Proposition 4e: Religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects product image of the United States.*

*Proposition 4f: Religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States.*

### **2.9.7 Mediating Effect of Country Image and Product Image**

*Research question 5.* Do product image and country image mediate the effect of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity, and religiosity on purchase intention?

*Hypothesis 5:* Product image and Country image mediate the effect of religiosity consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intention.

No empirical studies have been found which examine product image and country image as a mediator between consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity and purchase intention. As described in the earlier section, consumer animosity studies are quite new and limited work has been done in terms of construct expansion, as well as antecedent identification and the role of mediators. Therefore, the potential areas for further research are considerable, per Klein et al. (1998), and there is a lot of scope for further study.

Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007) urged future studies to examine the animosity effects among industrial buyers. Besides, a related avenue for further investigation to explore the construct of animosity is needed, especially on their potential antecedents (Klein and Ettenson, 1999). Most importantly, Shin (2001) suggests that the mediating and moderating effects should be included in consumer animosity studies. Similarly, according to Nijssen and Douglas (2004), in consumer animosity studies ethnocentrism and religiosity may need to be examined and included in the model since some of them might mediate or counterbalance the negative effects.

Therefore, as suggested by previous researchers in this background of research, the following proposition is derived to examine the mediating effects of country image and product image.

*Proposition 5a:* Product image mediates the effect of religiosity on purchase intention.

*Proposition 5b:* Country image mediates the effect of religiosity on purchase intention.

*Proposition 5c:* Product image mediates the effect of consumer animosity on purchase intention.

*Proposition 5d:* Country image mediates the effect of consumer animosity on purchase intention.

*Proposition 5e:* Product image mediates the effect of ethnocentrism on purchase intention.

*Proposition 5f:* Country image mediates the effect of ethnocentrism on purchase intention.

## **2.10 Conclusion**

This chapter discusses the concepts and variables involved in purchase intentions and their antecedents. An in-depth review of purchase intention and the antecedents, including consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity, religiosity, country image, and product image, has been conducted. Past studies and their findings are thoroughly presented in order to provide holistic perspectives and analysis of the purchase intention phenomenon. Underpinning theories are also discussed in terms of linking the conceptual, theoretical and practical perspectives. Finally, the chapter provides a conceptual framework for the study to further examine. The next chapter will discuss the methodologies adopted in conducting this research

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This chapter discusses the design and the methodology used in this research. Several aspects, such as the instrument used, sampling process, and the questionnaire design and data collection procedures are described in detail in this chapter. Methods of statistical analysis used are also discussed in the chapter. The research was conducted using a survey approach consisting of multiple-choice questionnaires, requiring respondents to give fixed responses to the statements or questions asked. It will accomplish the objectives of the research and answer the issues raised and problem statements put forward using careful analysis.

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter will describe and explain the methodology deployed in this study. In relation to the earlier discussion in Chapters One and Two, this study indicates that there is a significant lack of studies connecting religiosity and animosity as well as consumer ethnocentrism. Adding to these limited understandings, studies showing the effect of country image and product image in mediating these variables also are very limited in international marketing and consumer behavior literature. As the objective of this study is to examine the antecedents of purchase intention on foreign products in Saudi Arabia, the key antecedents, which include consumer ethnocentrism, animosity, and religiosity, are examined together with other mediating variables against the consumer purchase intention. In achieving such objectives, several methodological issues must be addressed to ensure that analyses of the data are correctly conducted.

This methodological part is also necessary to give a clear understanding of the systematic process that has taken place in this study for findings to be derived conclusively. Hence, this section will examine details of the variables mentioned and systematically evaluate them in Saudi context. This section will clarify several issues pertaining to the research methodology, including the research design, instrument and construct, population and sampling and data analysis. This chapter will also analyze further the constructs of variables, data collected, data analysis and findings from the analysis.

### **3.2 Country and Product Selection**

One of the focuses in this study is to explore the effects of animosity construct among Arabs towards the purchase of foreign products. Thus, how to select a foreign country as a producer is one of the major issues in this research. Due to that, it is important to select the foreign country that might have an issue or problem with the Arab nation or Muslims in general. Subjects' knowledge about countries plays an important role in participants' information processing and decision-making. If there were no problems between consumers and foreign country producers, the result would be meaningless and the main objectives of the research might not be accomplished.

When the target population in the research is Muslims, it is important to make sure that the issues will directly give effect to the target group. In this case, it can be said and argue that the current relationship between Muslims and the U.S. as a whole can influence all Muslims express their dissatisfaction toward U.S. by using their purchasing power. As suggested by the

animosity model of foreign products purchased, the animosity toward another country can have many sources such as military events or diplomatic disputes (Klein et al., 1998).

After identifying, considering, and assessing several countries, the U.S. has been chosen as the foreign country to be used in this study. A number of reasons may provide the rationale for this. To understand the depth of hatred toward the U.S., we must first consider what precipitates such sentiments and precisely how hate infused with religious zeal is used to spread anti-Americanism, transforming people psychologically to the point where they are ready to commit unspeakable crimes.

Certainly, the continuing rise of anti-American sentiments has impeded U.S. political maneuverability and undermines its influence, with potentially disastrous implications for its strategic national interests. According to several recent polls taken in many Arab and Muslim countries, 85 to 90 per cent of the people have extremely negative views of the U.S. Hating U.S. is fashionable in this part of the world, and few dare to say anything positive (Ben-Meir, 2005). From Muslim perspectives, the United States represents all that is bad and evil in their societies not simply because it is a superpower with unprecedented influence, but because its power is so visible and domineering.

For the product type, in the country of origin studies, the negative effects seems to exist when the products selected are in general (e.g. Kaynak et al., 2000; Suh and Kwon, 2002; and Balabanis et al., 2002;), for certain product categories (e.g. Cordell, 1992; Hong and Wyer, 1990; Roth and Romeo, 1992; and Kim and Pysarchik, 2000), as well as specific brands (e.g. Chao, 1993; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Tse and Gom, 1993; and Knight and Calantone, 2000).

Studies have claimed the generalizability of their findings in the area of foreign products' evaluation and the influence on consumer behavior when evaluating the quality, determining the willingness to buy, and the final purchase decision for products. For the purpose of this study, there is no specific type of products selected for the study, Hence general products evaluate made in the U.S. will be used for this study. This is consistent with previous studies such as those of Klein et al. (1998); Rose et al. (2009); and Li et al., (2012), in which researchers used general products for evaluating foreign-made products.

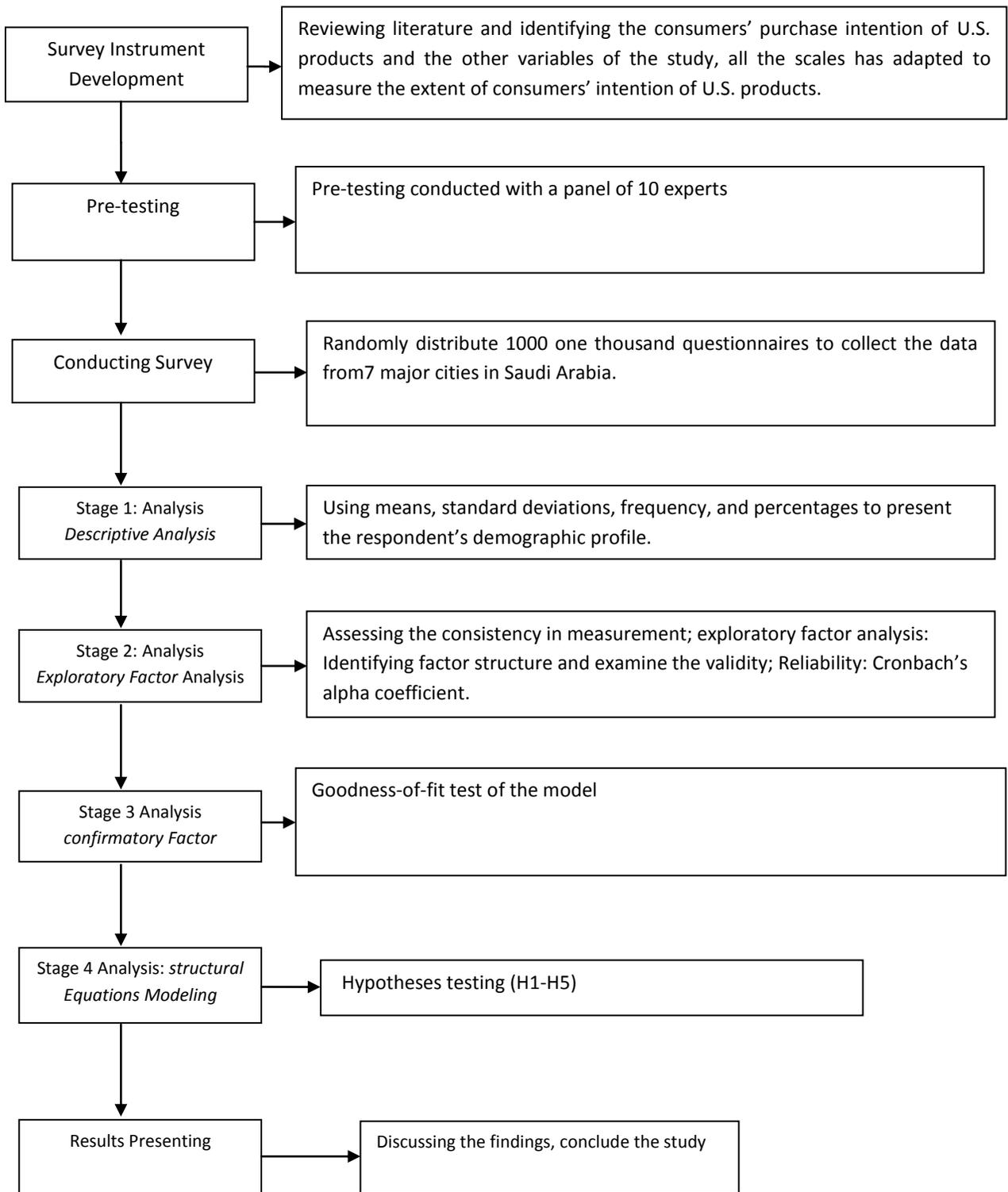
### **3.3 Research Conduct Plan**

Under this section, the quantitative research methodology and theory testing which have been employed in the research are described and justified. These include the survey methodology, survey procedures, sampling, and proposed data analysis strategies.

This research follows a structured data collection method that includes a formal questionnaire. These questionnaires are distributed in a prearranged order; thus, the process is also direct. According to Malhotra, (2004), a survey can be administered in four major modes: telephone interviews, personal interviews, mail interviews, and electronic interviews. The survey method enables respondents to be asked a variety of questions regarding their behavior, intentions, attitudes, perception, awareness, motivations, and demographic and lifestyle characteristics (Malhotra, 1999). In this research, we will follow a self-administered survey in major cities of Saudi Arabia.

The focus of this study confirming existing theories of the consumer's purchase intention regarding purchase of American products and how their purchase intention is affected by religiosity, animosity, ethnocentrism, product image, and country image.

**Figure 3.2 The method part of the study has been organized.**



**Figure 3.2 Research Conduct Plan**

The main focus of the study is the development of an integrated theoretical model as the goal. By integrating animosity, religiosity, ethnocentrism and product country constructs within the same model, the relationships between these and a purchase intention is empirically assessed for the first time. The contribution of theory of this new model is the principal goal. Therefore, of prime importance to the design of the empirical test of the model is the reliability and validity of the measurements. Additionally, for the model to have theoretical value, it must also have relevance in terms of its practical application.

The various aspects related to the methodology of research for the purpose of the present study are discussed in this section. Later, data analysis techniques have been highlighted. The formulation of research objectives, research design, sample design, methods of data collection and accompanying problems are stated next and the limitations of the present study have been outlined.

### **3.4 Research Design**

This research aims to unfold the antecedents of consumer attitude of Saudi consumers against Americans products as foreign products in the country. Hence, the research design that helps to achieve this purpose is a quantitative design. Saudi consumers' attitudes are investigated through the selected antecedents, which involve consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity, and constructs to measure these variables have been developed. Quantitative research is commonly used to investigate research questions when the problem is relatively apparent. In this type of research, the management and analysis of data is well organized with the ability to test the relationship of variables through hypotheses. In addition, quantitative methods

use procedures with little interdisciplinary differences with the aim to test a series of hypothesis. This approach enables the data to be classified based on features and construct statistical models to describe and explain a given phenomenon. This hypothesis has been tested through mathematical and statistical methods, which determine the “rigorousness” of the research.

Hence, this research method is the best way to reach findings, proving a theory or phenomenon, which has an empirical justification that enables the generalization of said findings. However, in choosing this approach, special emphasis needs to be given to data collection. The data collection tools such as the questionnaire need to be developed with care where various influences such as the external factors need to be “adjusted” to acquire real and unbiased data. Therefore, a questionnaire is a formalized plan to acquire correct and full information about a particular research problem (Malhotra, 1999).

Consequently, this study will develop questionnaire with the aim to answer the research objectives through a series of questions. To do this, the questions and response formats are standardized to allow similar stimuli to all respondents. Next, a questionnaire should be designed in a way to provide comprehensible questions to motivate respondent cooperation to completely answer the questionnaire. Finally, a questionnaire helps manage and simplify processing, since most of the questions are pre-coded or utilized a standard response format (Malhotra, 1999).

### **3.5 Pre-testing**

Pre-testing of the questionnaire was carried out to verify the intended meanings were conveyed and understood by respondents. The final questionnaire was bilingual and written in English and Arabic. Interviewers fluent in both languages were hired and would choose the version that they felt respondents would be comfortable with in responding to the survey. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), this can help to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the survey according to question format, wording, and order. It is especially useful when researchers in a cross-cultural survey environment need to identify problems in the translated scales or other concepts that may be associated with the target population.

Hunt et al (1982) suggestion was taken to conduct a pretest of the questionnaire, as he believe that pretesting is paramount to answering fundamental issues in the process, The necessity of pretesting is much needed especially for cross culture study where many variables comes into existence. Language differences, culture, society norms need to be given serious consideration, as their importance is not being compromised. In July 2009, 10 pretest surveys were collected from Saudi experts (king Saud University, governorate of Riyadh, trade ministry, Sabic, and practitioners).

The questionnaire was composed of a total of 78 questions about information in the six following areas: animosity (8), ethnocentrism (17), religiosity (12), country image (17), product image (18), purchase intentions (6) and demographic profiles. It took approximately 30 minutes to complete and included opportunities to discuss if they had any difficulties understanding and answering the questions. They were asked to provide suggestions to modify and improve the

questionnaire. As a result of the pretest, some adjustments were made to the questionnaire, and the wording of the items was revised to reflect the context of this study. Those participants were required to consider wording, question form, order and also the length of questions. Based on the result, there were a few modifications.

Section 8 question Items no 2, 9, 12, 13, and 14 were excluded. This was because most of the practitioners involved in the pre-testing felt that the questions were unnecessary, as these questions were not relevant or not applicable in the context of the study. Item 2 was “Only those products that are unavailable in the U.S. should be imported”, but in the case of Saudi Arabia as a country it depends heavily on imports so the availability of product made locally hardly exist. Item 9 was “It is always best to purchase American products”. Item 12 was “Curbs should be put on all imports”. The reason behind not adopting this question was that this study about general product of the USA. Item 13 were “Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets”, which was not applicable, as the government and the local Saudis welcome foreign products. Item 14, “Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into the U.S.” was not adopted, as there is no tax in Saudi Arabia. Since the country does not have any tax system, the question is irrelevant. Therefore, five items were excluded.

For Section 9 (Ethnocentrism), question 6 “How often do you ask someone to pray for you”, wording was added and two question were excluded, including question 11 “Do you hold any position in your place of your worship?”. This was because most of the practitioners involved in the pre-testing felt the question to be unnecessary. Question 12 “How many clubs or organization do you belong to, or participate in?” was not used; as the system in Saudi Arabia

does not allow the party system or any form of clubs or organizations other than the government system. Therefore, this question would have no answer, as most of the respondents have not experienced or participated in any clubs or organizations in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, two items was excluded and ten items remained. This procedure resulted in a total of 71 items in the six following areas: animosity (8), ethnocentrism (12), religiosity (10), country image (17), product image (18), and purchase intentions (6). The final survey questionnaires are presented as Appendix 1 Questionnaire before Pretesting and Appendix 2 Questionnaire after Pretesting.

### **3.6 Measurement of Constructs**

After a thorough review of the literature and on the basis of the previously established definitions, a pool of 78 items was generated. These items were taken from empirically tested scales from authors such as Klein et al., (1998), Jung et al. (2002), Nijssen and Douglas (2004), Shimp and Sharma (1987, p. 283), and Levin et al., (1995). After screening of items independently, a total of 71 items were retained for psychometric assessment. In the next step, internal consistency analysis was used for achieving reliability in the scale based on exploratory factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ), a traditional technique for assessing reliabilities for each factor (Carmines and Zeller, 1979) was used. For internal consistency, it was determined that reliabilities should not be below 0.6 (Churchill, 1979). In the end, the study adapted 8 items for animosity, 12 for ethnocentrism, 10 for religiosity, 6 for purchase intention, 17 for country image and 18 for product image.

#### **3.6.1 Consumer Animosity Construct**

Klein et al. (1998) used the notion of Consumer Animosity in an article published in the Journal of Marketing, so this concept first entered the literature in 1998. The authors sought to determine the level of Chinese consumer animosity directed toward the Japanese; hence, the anti-Japanese orientation of the questions. Some of the animosity measures were taken from Jung et al. (2002).

The measurement of animosity has two issues the first regarding the items which measure animosity. Klein et al. (1998) and Klein (2002) stated that the second was the war and economic animosity in general as an emotion (see Heslop et al., 2008, 2009; Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). Measures of animosity subsequently have not always used emotional descriptors as items. Measures of animosity that do not make the issues underlying animosity salient, might be more appropriate (Klein, 2002). Table 3.1 below shows the list of consumer animosity constructs Adapted from Klein (2002).

**Table 3.1: Consumer Animosity Constructs**

No	ORIGINAL ITEMS	JUSTIFICATION
1	I feel angry towards the Japanese	Adapted
2	I will never forgive Nanjing Massacre	Adapted
3	Japan is not a reliable trading partner	Adapted
4	Japan wants to gain economic power over China	Adapted
5	Japan is taking advantage of China	Adapted
6	Japan wields too much economic influence across China	Adapted
7	Japans are doing business unfairly with China	Adapted

8	Japan should pay for the war crime it committed in China during World War II	Adapted
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However, this study adapted all the measures to be relevant to the Saudi Arabian context. The questions were rephrased to represent the Saudi context.

**Table 3.2: Adapted Consumer Animosity Constructs**

No	ITEMS USED FOR THE STUDY
1	I feel angry towards the USA.
2	I will never forgive U.S. for war atrocities committed by its armed forces across Iraq.
3	U.S. is not a reliable trading partner.
4	U.S. wants to gain economic power across the Arab world.
5	U.S. is taking advantage of Arab countries.
6	U.S. wields too much economic influence across the Arab world.
7	The U.S. is doing business unfairly with Arab countries.
8	USA should vacate the occupied Iraq and pay for what it did to Iraqi people during the occupation.

### 3.6.2 Consumer Ethnocentrism Construct

The consumer ethnocentrism scale first came into the literature a generation ago with a seminal article in the *Journal of Marketing Research* by Shimp and Sharma (1987). Originally introduced as a 17-item scale, the CETSCALE was developed in the American context; hence,

the original questions reflect this orientation. The researcher has adjusted the scale to Saudi consumers.

Use of a limited number of items is consistent with previous research relating to the efficacy and reliability of shortened scales (Steenkamp, 2000). CETSCALE was initiated with 225 different questions and was reduced to 100 before the initial purification process was conducted. Throughout constant purification studies, the number of questions was finally reduced to 17 questions. Shimp and Sharma (1987) validated the CETSCALE scales by repeating the studies in the U.S. Nevertheless, the first intercultural test of construct validity of the CETSCALE scales was carried out in 1991 in a non-U. S. State (Netemeyer et al., 1991; Wang, 1996). Netemeyer conducted a comparative study involving students in the U.S., France, Japan, and West Germany. Other studies (Durvasula et. al., 1997; Shimp and Sharma, 1987, and Sharma et al., 1995) found the measure to be reliable with a unidimensional factor structure. The study found that the scales were reliable across the different cultures. Hence, the study validated the CETSCALE as a measure of consumer ethnocentricity

**Table 3.3: Consumer Ethnocentrism Constructs**

No	ORIGINAL ITEMS	JUSTIFICATION
1	American people should always buy American-made products instead of imports.	Adapted
2	Only those products that are unavailable in the U.S. should be imported.	Not Adapted -excluded during the pre-testing process

3	Buy American-made products. Keep American working.	Adapted
4	American products, first, last and foremost.	Adapted
5	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-American.	Adapted
6	It is not right to purchase foreign products.	Adapted
7	A real American should always buy American-made products.	Adapted
8	We should purchase products manufactured in America instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	Adapted
9	It is always best to purchase American products.	Not Adapted -excluded during the pre-testing process
10	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.	Adapted
11	American should not buy foreign products, because this hurts American business and causes unemployment.	Adapted
12	Curbs should be put on all imports.	Not Adapted -excluded during the pre-testing process
13	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	Not Adapted -excluded during the pre-testing process
14	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to	Not Adapted - excluded during the

	reduce their entry into the U.S.	pre-testing process
15	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	Adapted
16	American consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans out of work.	Adapted
17	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support American products.	Adapted

Since then, the scales have been used in numerous studies around the world. Table 3.2 below lists the 17 measures for CETSCALE, however, this study only adopted 12 measures most relevant to the Saudi Arabian context. Items 2, 9, 12, 13 and 14 were excluded during the pre-testing process. Finally, the twelve questions were rephrased to represent the Saudi context. The questionnaire can be referred to in Appendix 2.

**Table 3.4: adapted Consumer Ethnocentrism Constructs**

No	ITEMS USED FOR THE STUDY
1	Saudi's should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.
2	Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi's working.
3	Saudi products, first, last and foremost.
4	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Saudi.
5	It is not right to purchase foreign products.

6	A real Saudi's should always buy Saudi-made products.
7	We should purchase products manufactured in Saudi instead of letting other countries get rich off us.
8	There should be very little trading or purchasing of products from other countries unless out of necessity.
9	Saudi should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Saudi business and causes unemployment
10	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.
11	Saudi consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Saudis out of work.
12	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Saudi products.

### 3.6.3 Religiosity Construct

Multidimensional measures of religious involvement, as proposed by Levin, have been used as a religiosity construct (Levin, Taylor, & Chatters, 1995). The three-dimensional factor structure comprising organizational participation refers to behavior, which occurs within a place of worship, such as a mosque, while non-organizational participation refers to behavior, which occurs outside of a place of worship. Subjective religiosity refers to the two perceptions of the individual, the importance and attitudes of the religion. Religiosity construct was confirmed for twelve religious indicators. The dimensions were tested using structural equation modeling procedures among a general sample of African American adults and it was found that the measures are reliable (Levin, Taylor, et al., 1995),

**Table 3.5: Religiosity Construct**

No	ORIGINAL ITEMS	JUSTIFICATION
1	How often do you usually attend religious services?	Adapted
2	Are you an official member of religious organization?	Adapted
3	Besides regular service, how often do you take pan in other activities at your place of worship?	Adapted
4	How often do you read religious books or other religious materials?	Adapted
5	How often do you watch or listen to religious programs on TV or radio?	Adapted
6	How often do you ask someone to pray for you?	Adapted
7	How often do you pray?	Adapted
8	How religious would you say you are?	Adapted
9	How important was religion to you in your home when you were growing up?	Adapted
10	How important is it for parents to send or take their children to religious services?	Adapted
11	Do you hold any position in your place of your worship?	Not Adapted – excluded during the pre-testing process
12	How many clubs or organization do you belong to, or participate in?	Not Adapted – excluded during the pre-testing process

However, this study adapted 10 measures, which are the most relevant to the Saudi Arabian context. Items no 11 and 12 excluded during the pre-testing process. The 10 questions were rephrased to represent the Saudi context.

**Table 3.6: Adapted Religiosity Construct**

No	ITEMS USED FOR THE STUDY
1	How often do you usually attend religious services?
2	Are you an official member of religious organization?
3	Besides regular service, how often do you participate in other activities at your place of worship?
4	How often do you read religious books or other religious materials?
5	How often do you watch or listen to religious programs on TV or radio?
6	How often do you ask someone to pray for you doaa?
7	How often do you pray?
8	How religious would you say you are?
9	How important was religion to you in your home when you were growing up
10	How important is it for parents to send or take their children to religious services?

### 3.6.4 Purchase Intention Construct

Constructs for purchase intention were adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) which the constructs modified from Darling and Arnold (1988), Darling and Wood (1990), and

Wood and Darling (1993). The constructs are shown in Table 3.7 below as derived from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998)

**Table 3.7: Purchase Intention Constructs**

No	ORIGINAL ITEMS	JUSTIFICATION
1	I would feel guilty if I would buy a product made in Japan.	Adapted
2	I would never buy a product made in Japan.	Adapted
3	Whenever possible, I avoid buying products made in Japan.	Adapted
4	Whenever available, I would prefer to buy products made in Japan.	Adapted
5	I do not like the idea of owning products made in Japan.	Adapted
6	If two products were equal in quality, but one was from Japan and one was from China, I would pay 10% more for the product from China.	Adapted

However, this study adapted all measures relevant to the Saudi Arabian context. The questions were rephrased to represent the Saudi context.

**Table 3.8: Purchase Intention Constructs**

No	ITEMS USED FOR THE STUDY
1	I would feel guilty if I would buy a product made in the USA
2	I would never buy a product made in the USA.
3	Whenever possible, I avoid buying products made in the USA
4	Whenever available, I would prefer to buy products made in USA
5	I do not like the idea of owning products made in the USA
6	If two products were equal in quality, but one was from USA and one was from Saudi Arabia, I would pay 10% more for the product from Saudi Arabia

### **3.6.5 Country Image Construct**

The current student selects, measures for country image used both the marketing and social psychology literature. The current study relies on the scales used by Bamossy and Papadopoulus (1993) in which respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which 17 specific traits were characteristic of Americans on a seven-point scale. The existence of negative and positive emotion has been suggested (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Williams and Aaker, 2001). Table 3.9 below shows the list of Country Image constructs as adapted from Bamossy and Papadopoulus (1993).

**Table 3.9: Country Image Construct**

No	ORIGINAL ITEMS	JUSTIFICATION
1	Likeability of people	Adapted
2	Industriousness	Adapted
3	Education level	Adapted
4	Wealth	Adapted
5	Friendliness	Adapted
6	Trustworthiness	Adapted
7	Work ethics	Adapted
8	Political stability	Adapted
9	Technology level	Adapted
10	Stability of economy	Adapted
11	Quality of life	Adapted
12	Role in world politics	Adapted
13	Individual right and freedom	Adapted
14	Alignment with United States	Adapted
15	Political and economic ties with United States	Adapted
16	Investment from United States	Adapted
17	Knowledge of the United States	Adapted

However, this study adapted all measures, which are relevant to the Saudi Arabian context.

**Table 3.10: Country Image Construct**

No	ITEMS USED FOR THE STUDY
1	Likeability of people
2	Industriousness
3	Education level
4	Wealth
5	Friendliness
6	Trustworthiness
7	Work ethics
8	Political stability
9	Technology level
10	Stability of economy
11	Quality of life
12	Role in world politics
13	Individual right and freedom
14	Alignment with United States
15	Political and economic ties with U.S.A
16	Investment from United States
17	Knowledge of the United States

### 3.6.6 Product Image Construct

Papadopoulos (1993) suggests a broader term of the Product - Country Image (PCI) to account for the multidimensional character of the images of products or brands. It also considers the multiple places potentially involved in the global production system with increasingly mobile products on the other. PCI of a specific product category is directly linked to the general image of this country, not only indirectly through the general image of other products, as it seems to be indicated by the summary construct. In general, it can be said that the halo or summary construct approach remains on a very general and abstract level, avoiding the discussion of how different contexts or product categories may influence the imagery created (Papadopoulos, 1993). Hence, this study relies on the scale used by Heslop and Papadopoulos (1999).

Table 3.11 below shows a list of product image constructs adapted from Heslop and Papadopoulos (1999).

**Table 3.11: Product Image Constructs**

No	ORIGINAL ITEMS	JUSTIFICATION
1	Quality	Adapted
2	Value	Adapted
3	Workmanship	Adapted
4	Defects in merchandise	Adapted
5	Attractiveness	Adapted
6	Innovativeness	Adapted
7	Variety	Adapted

8	Brand names	Adapted
9	Price	Adapted
10	Durability	Adapted
11	Technology level	Adapted
12	Reliability	Adapted
13	Knowledge of American products	Adapted
14	Overall satisfaction	Adapted
15	Ease of finding	Adapted
16	Willing to buy	Adapted
17	Proud to own	Adapted
18	After sales service	Adapted

However, this study adapted all measures relevant to the Saudi Arabian context.

**Table 3.12: Adapted Product Image Constructs**

No	ITEMS USED FOR THE STUDY
1	Quality
2	Value
3	Workmanship
4	Defects in merchandise
5	Attractiveness

6	Innovativeness
7	Variety
8	Brand names
9	Price
10	Durability
11	Technology level
12	Reliability
13	Knowledge of American products
14	Overall satisfaction
15	Ease of finding
16	Willing to buy
17	Proud to own
18	After sales service

### **3.7 Sample and Population**

The purpose of sampling is to ensure that the sample selected for the study represents the whole population; thus, generalizations can be accurately made on the population, which allows prediction. A sampling technique is a scientific process of selecting sampling units, which would provide the required answers with a certain margin of error or uncertainty where only a section of the population is studied. There are two types of sampling, which are probability and non-

probability sampling. The difference between the two is the selection of non-probability sampling is not random and while the probability sampling does. In non-probability sampling, the process of choosing the samples is not “fair” where it does not enable the individuals in the population equal chances of being selected. Therefore, researchers prefer probabilistic or random sampling methods over non-probabilistic ones, as such a method is considered to be rigorous and “correct”. Nevertheless, there are circumstances or situation where it is not feasible, practical, or theoretically sensible to do random sampling. Therefore, non-random sampling is an alternative.

As pointed out above, it is less feasible to perform a random selection of sample in Saudi Arabia, considering the cultural and physical setting in the country. In the random selection sample, everyone has an equal chance to be chosen as a sample regardless of his or her gender and locations. In Saudi Arabia, the segregation between males and females in most locations has created a limit for everyone to have a chance to be selected as a sample.

Hence, probability sampling was not possible to be conducted; alternatively, non-probability sampling was the most suitable to be carried out in the country. Under non-probability sampling, two types of sampling techniques were used in stages. The first was non-proportional quota sampling, and the second was convenience sampling. Quota sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where the study ensures equal or proportionate representation of the sample depending on which characteristics, it wishes to consider as the basis of the quota. In quota sampling, the chosen sample has the same proportions of individuals as the whole population in relation to the available characteristics, traits, or focused phenomenon.

Convenience sampling, on the other hand, is a sampling technique in which samples are selected based on their accessibility to the researcher. The respondents are chosen because they are accessible or easy to access. This technique is considered easy, cheaper and less time consuming. Convenience sampling is chosen when the respondents are selected because of their convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher.

Based on the Saudi population structure, optimum care has been taken to ensure that the sample was drawn which was representative of the population. The most important consideration for any research is to ensure representation of the findings to the population. In Saudi Arabia, home addresses are not openly known to everybody, and it is exclusive to certain people that they know. Therefore, data regarding the people in the cities are not publicly listed in the directories or Yellow Pages as in other countries. Hence, there is no an authoritative directory or database regarding the people or the community in the city that is openly given to everybody. Since there is no mailing list that is representative of the Saudi population, the use of random sampling was not possible. As a result, non-probability quota sampling was undertaken. However, this is considered acceptable and appropriate, since the objective of this research is to test the relationships and not to estimate population parameters (Malhotra, 2004). In addition, this technique should not in any way influence the findings of the study.

This study aims to investigate the attitude on purchase intention of Saudi consumers; the scope of this study is limited to the country of Saudi Arabia. Hence, the population of this study is comprised of all Saudi nationals. The country has approximately 26 million populations (2009); thus, this number is the population of the study. The population comprised individuals living in Saudi Arabia. The starting point was the university and offices because there is at least

one university in the seven states of the Kingdom and multitude of offices. Given the nature of the country's social fabric, theme park and malls were also chosen to distribute the questionnaire. The reason for doing so is due to the fact that Saudis like to mingle and talk to others, even with strangers in malls and parks, but care should be taken so that it should only be male to male and female to female communication. The second reason for choosing malls and parks was to compensate for the harsh climate of the Kingdom. In fact, theme park and the malls are the only places for family outings.

In ensuring a sufficient number of male and females, the distribution or administration of the questionnaires was handled by both males and females. However, as most of the population in the country is populated and centered in several major cities, this study incorporates seven major cities in Saudi Arabia as a population frame and samples were drawn from these major cities, including Riyadh, Jeddah, Makah, Dammam, Tabuk, Dharan, and Najran. The study distributes samples of 1000 among seven major cities in Saudi Arabia. According to Hair et al (1998), a minimum of 500 samples is needed to give a reasonable good generalization to the study. Moreover, if SEM is used for analysis, a rule of thumb of 200 to 500 samples is required to ensure robust outcome from the analysis. According to Gerbing and Anderson (1988), in order for the model to converge properly, a large sample size (e.g., 400 to 500 samples) is sufficient. Therefore, a sample of 530 respondents met the criteria for an adequate sample size for factor analysis and path analysis of SEM. According to Stevens (1996), the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is false is heavily dependent on both the sample size and the number of dependent variables. A large sample thus helps to reduce the possibility of poor power equivalently, a type II error).

### **3.8 Measurement of instrument**

The questionnaire consisted of an introduction that included an overview of its purpose, why the respondent was chosen, and an assurance of the anonymity of respondents. After the introduction, instructions followed on how respondents should complete the questionnaire. With regards to the questionnaire design, determining the appropriate format of responses is of paramount importance which is the issue of measurement. In this study, measurement consists of an activity that establishes the “amount of variables that an object possesses” (Emory and Cooper, 1991; Malhotra, 1999). The respondents' profile comprises of nominal type of data, which categorizes respondents in groups based on their gender, age, marital status, education, occupation, and income. Ordinal scales assigned responses to categories such that scores in a higher category possess more of a characteristic of interest than scores in a lower category (Malhotra, 1999). Nonetheless, this study did not incorporate ordinal scales as its measurement in the questionnaire.

On the other hand, interval scales are among the commonly used scales in marketing research (Bagozzi, 1996). This type of scale assigns numbers to indicate differences in the degree of specific features along a continuum that differentiates an equal number across the range of the scale. In this research, the 7 point Likert scale was used to measure the variables of animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, and purchase intention in the questionnaires. Respondents were required to fill eight main sections, which consisted of eight questions rating Saudi respondent Animosity towards the USA. The questionnaire contained statement such as “U.S. is taking advantage of Arab countries” and “U.S. is not a reliable trading partner”. For ethnocentrism, the section contained twelve questions rating Saudi respondent’s ethnocentric level with statements

such as “Saudi’s should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports”, and “Imported product should be taxed heavily”. For purchase intention, the section consisted of six questions, rating the respondent's purchase intention, and had statements such as “I feel guilty if I buy a product made in the United States”, “Never buy a product made in the United States” and “I avoid buying products made in the United States”.

This study also incorporated 5-point scale to measure the religiosity variable. This section consists of ten questions again, ratings Saudi respondent level of religiosity and had questions/statements on attendance of Islamic religious services, ‘regular prayers and the importance of the religion’. Indeed, respondents completing the questionnaires in this research are allowed to place their answers anywhere along the Likert scales. Many social scientists accept that Likert scales are approximately the interval in character (Asker et al., 2001). Although there is controversy about a Likert scale whether it is interval or merely ordinal, there are a number of reasons accounting for the use of Likert scales as interval scales in this research. Likert scales have always been found to communicate interval properties to the respondent responses and hence, the data can be assumed to be interval. Finally, throughout the marketing literature, Likert scales are usually treated as interval scales (Asker et al., 2001). More importantly five points Likert scale with all points labeled are used for the collection of most of the data for two reasons. Firstly, they are widely used by marketing researchers, and they allow for a degree of intensity and feelings to be expressed. They provide a direct measure of the respondent’s opinions, and they make the responses easy to administer, code and adaptable to statistical analysis (Burns and Bush 2000).

Semantic differential was used in the questionnaire to measure product images, as well as the country and people image. The product image section consisted of eighteen ratings that include product attributes, familiarity, pride, a willingness to buy and overall knowledge of the United States. The country and people section consist of seventeen ratings for the United States. Scales in this section were aimed at representing feelings of affect towards the country and its people, as well as cognitive factors such as beliefs held concerning the level of industrial development, knowledge of the source country, alignment of the source country with the home country and the respondents' desired level of interaction with the source country.

### **3.9 Questionnaire**

The final research instrument used in this study was a six-page questionnaire, which consists of 7 sections; translated back to back in English and Arabic. In ensuring accurate translation, consultants in Riyadh Saudi Arabia who specialized in translating Arabic to English were appointed, and changes to the language were made accordingly. Items employed to measure the various constructs of interest are contained in the Appendix 2. The items were first developed in English. Given that several measures were included from scales used in previous studies with the Western and Eastern consumers, native speakers fluent in English (Douglas & Craig, 1984) assessed the initial draft survey for cultural compatibility and adequacy for an Asian sample. Minor modifications were made, based on their feedback, to ensure that all items to be employed where appropriate, adequate, and meaningful for respondents.

The final questionnaire was produced in English. Bilingual interviewers used the version that respondents felt more comfortable within administering the survey. For more details, see Appendix 3.

The questionnaire consisted of an introduction that included an overview of its purpose, why the respondent was chosen and an assurance of the anonymity of respondents. After the introduction, instructions followed on how respondents should complete the questionnaire. Respondents were required to fill all twelve sections.

The first section consists of eight questions rating Saudis respondent Animosity towards the USA. The question contained statements such as “U.S. is taking advantage of Saudi Arabia” and “U.S. is not a reliable trading partner”.

The second section contained twelve questions rating Saudi respondent’s ethnocentric level with statements such as “Saudi’s should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports”, “It is not right to purchase foreign products”, and “Saudi consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Saudi out of work”.

The third section consists of ten questions rating Saudis religiously. The question contained statement such as “How often do you attend Islamic religious services?”, “How religious would you say you are”, and “How important was religion to you in your home when you were growing up?”

The fourth section which consists of six questions, rating the respondent's purchase intention, and had statements such as “I feel guilty if I buy a product made in the USA”, “Never buy a product made in the USA”, and “ I avoid buying products made in the USA”.

The fifth and sixth sections consisted of items to measure product images, as well as the country image. The product image section consisted of seventeen ratings that include Defects in merchandise, familiarity, pride, and after-sales service. The country image section consists of eighteen ratings for USA. Scales in this section were aimed at representing the feelings of the affect towards the country and its people, likeability of people. As well as cognitive factors such as beliefs held concerning the level of industrial development.

The last sections included questions on demographics and asked for the respondents' gender, age, marital Status, education, and occupation. In brief, constructing measurement and scaling procedures were well taken care in designing the questionnaire for this research. Details of the cover letter and questionnaire are presented in Appendix 2.

### **3.10 Data Collection techniques**

Data for this study will be collected through a survey among the Saudi consumers in several selected cities in Saudi Arabia. The survey is a popular and a significant data collection process in social research. Survey research includes any measurement protocols that data collection through solicitation of questions to respective respondents. Consequently, a "survey" can consist of any manner, whether it is a short paper-and-pencil feedback form or an elaborate personal, in-depth interview. In general, the survey is categorized according to questionnaire and interview. Questionnaires are usually written mechanism where respondents need to answer a battery of questions. In accomplishing the aim of this study, only questionnaire is used as a major survey method to be distributed to the respondents.

The unit of analysis for this study is a Saudi consumer that involves in purchasing foreign products in the country. Thus, a survey has been conducted on the Saudi consumers to examine their attitude of purchase intention towards the foreign products specifically American products. The respondents for the survey comprise of all Saudi nationals that have potentials to buy and American products in Saudi Arabia.

Self-administered questionnaire is a type of survey that is commonly used in business research. A group of respondents is asked to respond to a sequence of structured questions. Initially, the questionnaires were administered in-group settings for the purpose of convenience. The researcher then gave the questionnaire to the respondents to ensure a high response rate. In the event that the respondents were unsure or unclear on the respective question, clarification is made. This study used merely self-administered survey, as this is the best option in ensuring the feedback from the potential respondents as well as increasing the response rate. Consumers from developing countries are known to have a much lower response rate normally about 10percent compared to the consumers from developed countries, which normally have about 30-50percent response rate. The self-administered questionnaires were conducted successfully as some prior efforts were conducted. Appointments were set prior when the questionnaire was given, then the researcher went back to them to personally pick up the questionnaire.

Data for this study was collected in July 2009. Two different techniques were employed to collect the data; firstly, data from personal mail for those who are busy or it is difficult to meet them, the drop-off/pick up technique was employed. Questionnaires were dropped off at residences, offices and picked up the following day where in the case of the university, park and the mall,

The researcher and his teams personally distributed the questionnaires to the respondent and waited for them to answer the questions approximately one hour, once they complete filling in the questionnaire, they were collected personally from them, this method has been shown to yield high response rate and to have the added benefit of quick data collection. Besides the researcher, five other individuals two males and three females, assisted in the data collection. The reason females are assisting in the data collection is due to Saudi culture where male is strictly not allowed to talk to female and vice-versa since the data from females was mostly collected from malls and theme parks, designed especially for women, employing females made the collection easier.

The number of respondents that participated in the study comprised of 1000 males and females, more than half of the questions is useful to the study. 470 responses failed to complete because of various reasons, including refusing to participate or did not complete more than 50% of the questionnaire. Incomplete questionnaires are considered useable when at least 80% of the questionnaires are completed. Table 3.13 below summarizes the number of questionnaires distributed, completed and useable for the analysis.

**Table 3.13: Response Rate by Cities**

<b>Cities</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Total Returned</b>	<b>Completed</b>	<b>Incomplete</b>	<b>Refused or of no use</b>
<b>Riyadh</b>	300	205	178	17	105
<b>Jeddah</b>	200	116	92	19	89
<b>Makkah</b>	100	69	53	16	31
<b>Dammam</b>	100	76	73	13	14

<b>Tabuk</b>	100	61	52	8	40
<b>Dharan</b>	100	56	41	13	46
<b>Najran</b>	100	47	41	14	45
<b>Total</b>	1000	630	530	100	370

300 questionnaires were distributed in Riyadh, because it is the largest city in the country with 6 million people. Jeddah is relatively smaller with 4 million; thus, a lesser number of questionnaires were distributed. Other cities are much smaller, with less than 1 million populations; thus, only 100 questionnaires were distributed.

### 3.11 Data Analysis

Data collected in this study was gathered and coded in Statistical Packages for Social Sciences software known as SPSS version 16. Before the data can be further analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical techniques, several processes were conducted in ensuring the data is usable and reliable. The initial process began with data cleaning where all the raw data were checked for any possible errors before it was further used. Several steps were taken to clean and prepare the data for analysis. Firstly, missing data were highlighted and double-checked against the original questionnaires. Completed data were also checked to ensure its accuracy during the coding process. Recoding for negative values was carried out to ensure the consistency of the data values. Outliers were identified and removed; the open-ended questions were clustered and coded as nominal variables. The normality of the sample was also identified in ensuring the most accurate statistical testing conducted.

Data collected for this study was also analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). SEM is a methodology for representing, estimating and testing a network of relationships between variables. SEM is a comprehensive statistical approach to testing hypotheses about relations among observed and latent variables, (Hoyle, 1995). It is a multivariate technique incorporating measured variables and latent constructs and explicitly specifies measurement error. A model of the diagram allows for specification of relationships between variables. SEM was used with two major aims firstly, to understand the pattern of correlation or covariance among a set of variables, and secondly to explain as much as possible of their variance with the model specified (Kline, 1998). In performing SEM analysis, two major processes involved known as Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). These two analyses are explained below.

### **3.11.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)**

Exploratory factor analysis is a useful scale development technique for reducing a large number of indicators to a more manageable set. It is particularly useful as a set of the preliminary analysis in the absence of sufficiently detailed theory about the relations of the indicators to the underlying constructs. EFA is a useful tool to aid the researcher in recovering an underlying measurement model that can then be evaluated by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Scales are formed by assigning to the same scale that the items load at least moderately onto the same factor. Gerbing and Anderson (1988) asserted that the scale development must include an assessment of whether the multiple measures that define a scale can be acceptably regarded as alternative indicators of the same construct, i.e. that the scale is unidimensional. They argue that before the item is assessed for its reliability, the unidimensionality of the scale must be

established. This is because the measure development procedure may not have created a set of unidimensional items.

Therefore, following the guidelines of Gerbing and Hamilton (1996), exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was implemented as a heuristic strategy for constructing multiple-indicator measurement models as a precursor to CFA procedures. Adopting the guidelines outlined by Hair et al. (1998) EFA using principal components analysis and varimax rotation was conducted. Variables with low factor loadings ( $<0.5$ ) were considered for deletion, as were variables loading significantly ( $>0.3$ ) onto more than one factor. The commonalities of the variables, representing the amount of variance accounted for the factor solution of each variable, were also examined. Factors with low commonalities ( $<0.4$ ) were also considered for deletion. Several other complementary methods were employed to obtain the most representative and parsimonious set of components such as eigenvalues more than 1 and scree plot. Finally, items that do not belong conceptually to the other factor that loads into it will also be considered for deletion.

Once the relationship of the items representing the respective constructs had been verified, the reliability of the scales was examined. Reliability is assessed by determining the proportion of systematic variation in scale. The coefficient varies from 0 to 1. Nunnally (1978) suggested that the value of 0.7 be used as the lowest acceptable value of alpha indicating adequate reliability, although in exploratory research, the acceptable range for a reliability measure is usually lower (0.50) (Nunnally, 1967).

### 3.11.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

As EFA is used initially as a precursor in the measurement purification process, it enables specifying the expected number of factors. EFA is a move from being entirely exploratory, but it is not a confirmatory analysis like CFA where the pattern by which measurement items load onto certain factor is specified in advance. This includes convergent validity and discriminant validity under the principles of SEM (using AMOS software). Subsequently, testing of the structural model, also with SEM, serves as a confirmatory assessment of the homological validity.

### 3.11.3 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity represents the degree to which measures designed to assess the same construct are related, with higher correlations indicating convergent validity. Convergent validity can be assessed from the measurement model by determining whether each indicator's estimated pattern coefficient on its posted underlying construct factor is significant (greater than twice its standard error) (Gerbing and Anderson (1988)). Further, composite reliabilities ( $\rho_x$ ) and average variance extracted ( $AVE_x$ ) scores of the constructs were calculated. Listed below are the formulas for calculating the scores.

Composite reliability: Let  $s_{li}$  be the standardized loadings for the indicators for a particular latent variable. To be the corresponding error terms, where error is 1 minus the reliability of the indicator, which is the square of the indicator's standardized loading.

$$\rho_x = [(\text{SUM}(s_{li}))^2] / [(\text{SUM}(s_{li}))^2 + \text{SUM}(e_i)].$$

Average Variance Extracted: Its formula is a variation on construct reliability.

$$AVE_x = \frac{(\text{SUM}(s_i^2))}{[(\text{SUM}(s_i^2) + \text{SUM}(e_i))]}.$$

Composite reliability assesses the reliability value for each latent variable. Bagozzi and Yi (1988) suggest that composite reliabilities of at least 0.5-0.6 are considered desirable. Hair et al. (1998) suggest that composite reliabilities of 0.70 are acceptable, although they emphasize that this is not an absolute measure and values below this threshold are deemed acceptable if the research is exploratory in nature. AVE shows “the amount of variance that is captured by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error” (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). AVE values less than 0.50 indicate that measurement error accounts for a greater amount of variance in the indicators than does the underlying latent variable (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2000).

#### **3.11.4 Construct Validity**

Construct validity concerns the degree of correspondence between a construct which is observable, conceptual level and a purported measure of it which is at an operational level’ (Peter, 1981). The generation of internally consistent and unidimensional scales was necessary for the creation of measures which possess construct validity (Churchill, 1979). However, it is not sufficient for accepting construct validity (Peter, 1981). Several types of validity can be used to establish scales construct validity. The types that are used in this study are convergent and discriminant validity (Churchill, 1979).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is an appropriate method to test the measurement properties identified in the EFA and provides guidelines for further model re-specification, Babin (1994). Gerbing and Anderson (1988) suggest that CFA is done after EFA to assess the

convergent validity of the measurements. CFA extends the earlier method of EFA by providing a means for rigorously testing a model that must be specified a priori. Extending well beyond the simple specification of the number of factors, CFA requires a specification of the complete factor pattern, including the factor correlations. Specific values can be specified, or more commonly, only the relations are specified with the corresponding pattern values estimated by the algorithm.

Although simultaneous estimation of all parameters in the model with AMOS is possible, the modeling process can be thought of as the analysis of two conceptually distinct models measurement and structural. The measurement model specifies the causal relations between the observed variables and the underlying latent variables or theoretical constructs, which are presumed to determine responses to the observed measures. The structural model specifies the causal relations among the theoretical constructs.

The reason for drawing a distinction between the measurement model and the structural model is that proper specification of the measurement model is necessary before meaning can be assigned to the analysis of the structural model. Good measurement of the latent variables is a prerequisite for the analysis of the causal relations among the latent variables. Multiple indicators measure each construct and each indicator measures only a single construct. Thus, the set of indicators defining each construct are unidimensional (Bagozzi, 1980). A prerequisite to the causal analysis of constructs is a satisfactory measurement of the constructs themselves. The dual constraints of unidimensionality and reliability must be specified. Unidimensionality is defined by both internal and external consistency. Due to the sample size-parameter constraints, the

measurement models for the respective constructs involved in the study are estimated individually using AMOS 20.0.

### **3.11.5 Bootstrap Techniques**

Bootstrap considered as a computing intensive data resampling method. It is particularly useful when the distribution is not known, such as sample median (Cheung & Lau, 2008). The word is derived from the phrase “to pull oneself up to by one’s bootstrap” (Zwanzig, 2007). Its importance is as a versatile analytic approach that conducts data analysis, which is being recognized not only in the areas of statistics, but also by quantitative researchers in general. Normally, statistical inference is made based on the sampling distribution. The deviation of such sampling distribution is actually based on the theoretical assumption. While bootstrap methods attempt to estimate sampling distributions empirically by using the sample data drawn from the observations, which is used to estimate the sampling distributions empirically (Diaconis & Efron, 1983; Efron, 1979). It has been found to have a wide range of research applications in social and behavioral science.

As earlier, it was proposed as a tool for non-parametric statistical inference, but it was later used in parametric data. It is also used as a descriptive tool and an internal replication method for assessing the stability and reliability of the sample results (Higgins, 2005). As bootstrapping is not implemented automatically in the software packages, (SPSS, SAS) the researchers wish to use this method need to deal with programming for performing bootstrap resampling. Hence, this is a major obstacle for implementing bootstrapping in the research. It also provides a user-friendly alternative to the cross-validation. Bootstrap copies the original

dataset into an extra-large file, which draws a sample with replacement from the extra-large file and then calculates and stores the result, it is then repeated until the desired number of times, usually in the thousands. The result is stored and performed to find out the average, standard errors are calculated and confidence intervals are computed for interpretations. It does not depend on the theoretical sampling distribution as in statistical significance testing. The sampling or resampling in the bootstrap process takes place with combinations of samples which are endless and are driven by random number generators from Monte Carlo (Higgins, 2005). The performance of parametric and non- parametric bootstrap in descriptive is uniform if the parameter of interest is the average. However, for the variance, the bootstrap estimation depends on the sample kurtosis of the data. Therefore, this method will be used for testing the mediation effect of this study

### **3.12 Conclusion**

This chapter outlines the research methodology for the current study. The discussion includes several aspects such as the research design, measurement of construct, questionnaire design, sampling technique, data collection technique as well as the data analysis techniques. This study employed a quantitative method as a major means of designing the method. A survey was used means of collecting data, and major instrument is a questionnaire. In developing the questionnaires, constructs were designed from the previous studies using existing constructs developed by previous scholars.

The study focuses on examining the buying behavior of Saudi consumers towards U.S. products as foreign products, based on the animosity, ethnocentrism and religiosity model of

foreign product purchase. Six major variables for the study are consumer animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, religiosity, country image, product image and purchase intention. Independent variables are consumer animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, religiosity, mediating variables are country image and product image, and the dependent variable is purchase intention. Constructs were developed for the researcher to measure the variables and test the hypotheses developed. Consumer ethnocentrism constructs were based on Shimp and Sharma (1987); consumer animosity constructs were based on Klein et al., (1998) and Klein, (2000); religiosity constructs were based on Levin, Taylor & Chatters, (1995); country image constructs were based on Bamossy and Papadopoulus (1993); product image constructs were based on Heslop and Papadopoulos (1999), and purchase intention constructs were based on Klein, Ettenson, and Morris(1998), who modified the constructs from Darling and Arnold (1988), Darling and Wood (1990), and Wood and Darling (1993).

The population of the study is people who reside in Saudi Arabia, and population frame, and samples were drawn from seven major cities in the country, including Riyadh, Jeddah, Makkah, Dammam, Tabuk, Dharan, and Najran. Sampling techniques used was non-probability where respondents are chosen from the convenient access by the researcher. Data for this study were analyzed using two major statistical techniques, which are Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and Structured Equation Modeling (SEM). In performing SEM analysis, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) were conducted.

# **CHAPTER 4**

## **RESULTS**

### **4.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this study is to comprehend the interrelationship between consumer ethnocentrism (CET), country image (CI), product image (PI), consumer animosity (CA), and religiosity (R) on consumer purchase intention (P). In achieving such objectives, data collected has been statistically analyzed in order to derive to the findings of the study. Hence, this chapter will present the findings and results for the hypotheses and research questions that have been developed. The chapter commences by descriptive statistical analysis, followed by inferential statistics, EFA, CFA and SEM.

### **4.2 Characteristics of respondent**

Descriptive analysis refers to the converting data into a piece of information that is more understandable and meaningful (Zikmund, 2000). Respondents of the profile are part of the descriptive analysis that illustrates the data and facilitate the researcher to comprehend the information in the data; Table 4.1 below summarizes the respondents' profile for this study. The respondents' profile examined comprising of gender, age, marital status, education, occupation and income. This information provides an overview on the nature of the data obtained. Table 4.1 indicates that the male respondents were 63.2 percent, while females accounted for 36.6 percent of the total respondents. This means that the numbers of male are approximately twice as many as females. The majority of the respondents' age is between the age group of 25 to 34 years old

(30.8 percent); others are younger about 18 to 24 years old and slightly older between age of 35 to 44 years old (20.4 percent), whereas the remaining respondents are 45 years old and above. Results showed that nearly 70 percent of respondents are married; only a small portion of respondents remain single (20.1 percent) or are divorced (11.1 percent). In terms of education, 37.4 percent of the respondents are high school leavers, meaning they completed their schooling system, 20.40 percent of the respondents completed their secondary school and graduate from university. Those who are educated at primary level are less than 17.7 percent. In terms of occupation, 23.2 percent of the respondents are teachers, lecturers or other jobs related to education and nurses, doctors or other jobs related to medical services. Other jobs such as managerial and administrative jobs, professionals, businesspersons as well as retirees are equally involved in this study. Most of the participants in this study comprise of the people from the average income who earned about SR 5001-10, 000 at 32.5 percent. The other group of income is comprised of those who earned slightly higher (SR 10, 001-SR 20, 000) and slightly lower (SR 2000-SR 5000) than the average figure.

**Table 4.1: Respondents Profile**

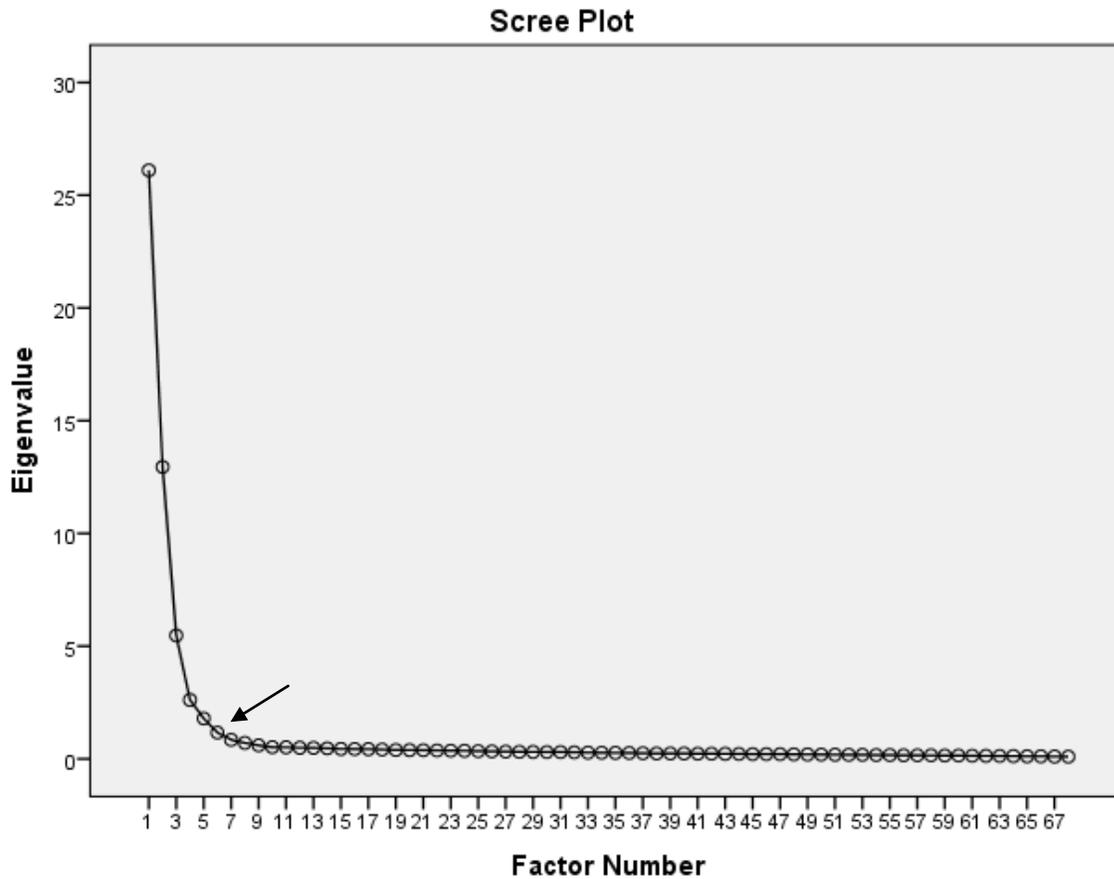
Demographic	Group	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	335	63.2
	Female	194	36.6
	Total	529	99.8
	Missing	1	00.2
Age	18-24	108	20.4
	25-34	163	30.8
	35-44	121	22.7

	45-44	61	11.5
	55-64	48	9
	Above 65	29	5.5
	Total	530	100
Marital status	Single	117	22.1
	Married	354	66.8
	Divorced	59	11.1
	Total	530	100
Education	Primary	94	17.7
	Secondary	108	20.4
	High school	198	37.4
	University	123	23.2
	Others	7	1.3
	Total	530	100
Occupation	Student	46	8.7
	Businessman	65	12.3
	Education/medical services	104	19.6
	Professional	63	11.9
	Manager/administration	73	13.8
	Retired	54	10.2
	Government Worker	115	21.4
	Total	520	97.9
	Missing	10	2.1
Income	Below SR2000	62	11.7

	SR2001-SR5000	133	25.1
	SR5001-SR10,000	172	32.5
	SR10,001-SR20,000	118	22.2
	Above SR20,000	45	8.5
	Total	530	100

### 4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA was conducted using principal components analysis and varimax rotation to ascertain the underlying six factors/constructs as proposed in the early part of the study, namely religiosity (R), animosity (A), ethnocentrism (E), country image (CI), product image (ProI), and purchase intention (PI). Variables/Items with low factor loadings ( $<0.5$ ) were considered for deletion, as were variables loading significantly ( $>0.3$ ) onto more than one factor. The commonalities of the variables, representing the amount of variance accounted for the factor solution of each variable, were also examined. Factors with low commonalities ( $<0.4$ ) were also considered for deletion. Several other complementary methods were employed to obtain the most representative and parsimonious set of components such as eigenvalues more than 1 and scree plot



**Figure 4.3: Scree plot for EFA**

The scree plot as presented above in Figure 4.3 indicated that the “elbow” posited in the 6<sup>th</sup> eigenvalue, suggesting that six major factors are more appropriate to be extracted for parsimonious factor analysis model, consistent with the initial six dimensions proposed. Table 4.3 below presents the items remained in each dimension. Based on the table, noticed that 67 items remained having high factor loading ranged from 0.660 to 0.937 indicating that each item have a significant contribution towards their own dimension.

Two statistical measures that can help to assess the suitability in the performing factor analysis are a Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1974). The Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant (0.05) for factor analysis to be considered appropriate, and the KMO index ranges from 0 to 1, with a suggested value of 0.6 minimum for a good factor analysis. As explained by Hair et al. (2006), the index can be interpreted as follows: 0.8 or above, as meritorious; 0.7 or above, as middling; 0.6 or above, as mediocre; 0.5 or above as miserable; and below 0.5 as unacceptable. The Kaiser –Meyer-Olkin (KMO) values which is a measure of sampling adequacy, were found to be all above suggested value, i.e., 0.6, suggesting that the factor analysis had proceeded correctly, and that sample was adequate. The results of the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were also significant, indicating that the factor analysis processes were correct and suitable for testing multidimensionality.

The KMO value of 0.976 above 0.6 reflects adequate of EFA, while Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicates that the value is significant (p.000). Therefore, Animosity (A) has 8 items, Ethnocentrism (E) has 12 items, Religiosity (R) has 8 items, Purchase Intention (PI) has 5 items, Country Image (CI) has 16 items and Product Image (ProI) has 18 items.

### Output of Factor Analysis

**Table 4.2: Factor loading for items in EFA**

Factor Loading	Factor
<b>Animosity</b>	
.846	I feel angry towards the USA.

.838	I will never forgive U.S. for war atrocities committed by its armed forces across Iraq.
.833	U.S. is not a reliable trading partner.
.737	U.S. wants to gain economic power across the Arab world.
.773	U.S. is taking advantage of Arab countries.
.777	U.S. wields economic influence across the Arab world.
.704	The U.S. is doing business unfairly with Arab countries.
.743	USA should vacate the occupied Iraq and pay for what it did to Iraqi people during the occupation.
<b>Ethnocentrism</b>	
.831	Saudi's should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.
.828	Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi's working.
.836	Saudi products, first, last and foremost.
.892	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Saudi.
.833	It is not right to purchase foreign products.
.840	A real Saudi's should always buy Saudi-made products.
.849	We should purchase products manufactured in Saudi instead of letting other countries get rich off us.
.858	There should be very little trading or purchasing of products from other countries unless out of necessity.
.764	Saudi should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Saudi business and causes unemployment.
.803	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.
.824	Saudi consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Saudi out of work.
.828	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Saudi products.

<b>Religiosity</b>	
.801	How often do you attend Islamic religious services?
.937	Besides regular service, how often do you participate in other activities at your place of worship?
.912	How often do you read Islamic religious books?
.773	How often do you watch / listen to Islamic religious programs on TV / radio?
.822	How often do you ask someone to pray for you doaa?
.582	How often do you pray?
.874	How religious would you say you are?
.788	How important is it for parents to send or take their children to Islamic religious services?
<b>Purchase Intention</b>	
.660	I would feel guilty if I would buy a product made in the USA.
.611	I would never buy a product made in the USA.
.578	Whenever possible, I avoid buying products made in the USA.
.856	I do not like the idea of owning products made in the USA.
.533	If two products were equal in quality, but one was from USA and one was from Saudi Arabia, I would pay 10% more for the product from Saudi Arabia.
<b>Country Image</b>	
.895	Likeability of people
.870	Industriousness
.831	Education level
.802	Wealth
.865	Friendliness

.845	Trustworthiness
.864	Work ethics
.846	Political stability
.830	Technology level
.839	Stability of economy
.829	Quality of life
.783	Role in world politics
.785	Individual rights and freedoms
.855	Alignment with U.S.A
.769	Political and economic ties with U.S.A
.763	Investments from U.S.A.
<b>Product Image</b>	
.828	Quality
.862	Value
.821	Workmanship
.842	Defects in merchandise
.838	Attractiveness
.836	Innovativeness
.858	Variety
.857	Brand names
.820	Price
.858	Durability
.832	Technology level
.855	Reliability

.842	Your knowledge of American products
.841	Satisfaction
.850	Ease of finding
.841	Willing to buy
.884	Proud to own
.894	After sales service

*Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis,  
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization- a Rotation converged in 5 iterations.*

All 71 items of the study that were developed from the past studies were analyzed through EFA (with principal axis factoring). Hair et al. (1998), the items are maintained if (1) they loaded 0.5 and above on a factor, (2) did not load more than 0.5 and above on two factors, in terms of cross loading factors, and (3) if the reliability indicates an item to total correlation of more than 0.4.

Additionally, correlations between variables and factor are called loading factors. According to Hair et al. (1998), the minimum value of the factor loading depends on the amount of respondents. Having 530 respondents, the study used 5 as a minimum value of factor loading. Measurement of factor analysis is good; it can be looked at as the magnitude of total variances explained by the factor. The larger the value of the variance the better the factor. Thus, most of the researchers use only factors with an Eigenvalue greater than 1 (de Vaus, 2002). The procedure used to drop items as suggested by Hair et al. (1998) is first to drop the item that does not achieve the minimum score of loading (greater than .50), then check the items that exist in double and more factor, and also loading in a single factor. Therefore, 4 items were dropped. The first item was q9-2 “Are you an official member of Islamic religious organization?” With factor

loading 361; the second item was q9-9 “How important was religion to you in your home when you were growing up?” with 255 factor loading; the third was q10-d “Whenever available, I would prefer to buy products made in USA, factor loading” with 212 factor loading; and the last item q11-17 with factor loading 424 was “Your knowledge of the U.S.A.”.

#### **4.4 Reliability Analysis**

In this study, Cronbach’s (1951), a popular unidimensional coefficient alpha was used to test reliability. It is an estimate of the correlation between random samples of items from a universe of items and is an appropriate index of equivalence. This measurement, in effect, produces the mean of all possible split-half coefficients resulting from different splitting’s of the measurement instrument (Anastasi, 1976). Based on Nunnally’s criteria, it is important to note that the scale reliabilities are very large in magnitude. This indicates a high degree of internal consistency. According to Nunnally (1967), a satisfactory level of reliability depends on how the measure is being used. In the early stages of research on predictor tests or hypothesized measures of a construct, one saves time and energy by working with instruments that have only modest reliability, for which purpose reliabilities of 0.60 or 0.50 will suffice (p. 226).

It is important to find the scales that we have used in the questioner are reliable. One of the main reasons to do with the reliability test is to check the consistency. The reliability measure indicates the extent to which the measure is without bias (error free) hence offers consistent measurement across time and the various items in the instrument. In other words, the reliability of a measure indicates the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the goodness of the measure.

However, for the purpose of the study, it only concentrated on inter item Consistency Reliability. Inter-item Consistency Reliability is a test of the consistency of the respondent's answers to all the items in a measure. The most popular test of inter item consistency reliability is the Cronbach's coefficient alpha, which is used for multi-point –scaled items. From the table, The Reliability Statistics, we got the Cronbach's Alpha .919, which means that our measure is very consistent.

The summary of the results of the internal consistency reliability test, for all the constructs used in this study, is presented in Table 4.3. Constructs with a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of above 0.5 will be retained.

**Table 4.3: Reliability Statistics**

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Animosity	0.985	8
Ethnocentrism	0.967	12
Religiosity	0.918	8
Purchase Intention	0.849	5
Country Image	0.968	16
Product Image	0.979	18

From the results, all the factors have coefficient alphas of above the 0.5 value suggested as the minimum value recommended by Nunnally (1967). Therefore, all these factors were retained for further analysis.

#### 4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted for all the constructs (Animosity (A) has 8 items; Ethnocentrism (E) has 12 items; Religiosity(R) has 8 items; Purchase Intention (PI) has 5 items; Country Image has 16 items; and Product Image (ProI) has 18 items), allotting to the initial issue of the measurement analysis it showed a marginal fit and had to be re-specified (Hair et al., 2006). As illustrated in Figure 4.4. In full measurement dimensions CFA, Chi square value was found to be 3557, with a degree of freedom 2125. P value, however, was lower than 0.05 indicating that lack of fit of the model to the data. This finding was not unexpected as explained by Hair et al. (2010), as larger sample size tends to render large Chi square value causing a significant test.

Table 4.4 Regardless the p value, GFI value of 0.825, AGFI 0.813 suggesting a marginal fit of the measurement model to the data which commonly occurs when a sample size larger than 200 is involved (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Garver & Mentzer, 1999). In addition, the study found that CFI value of 0.962; TLI value of 0.960; and RMSEA of 0.036 is definitely lower than 0.08, suggesting a good-fitting model. For more details, see Appendix 4 CFA Model Fit Summary.

**Table 4.4: Model Fit**

$\chi^2$	Df	$\chi^2/df$	GFI	AFGI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
3557	2125	1.671	0.825	0.813	0.962	0.960	0.036

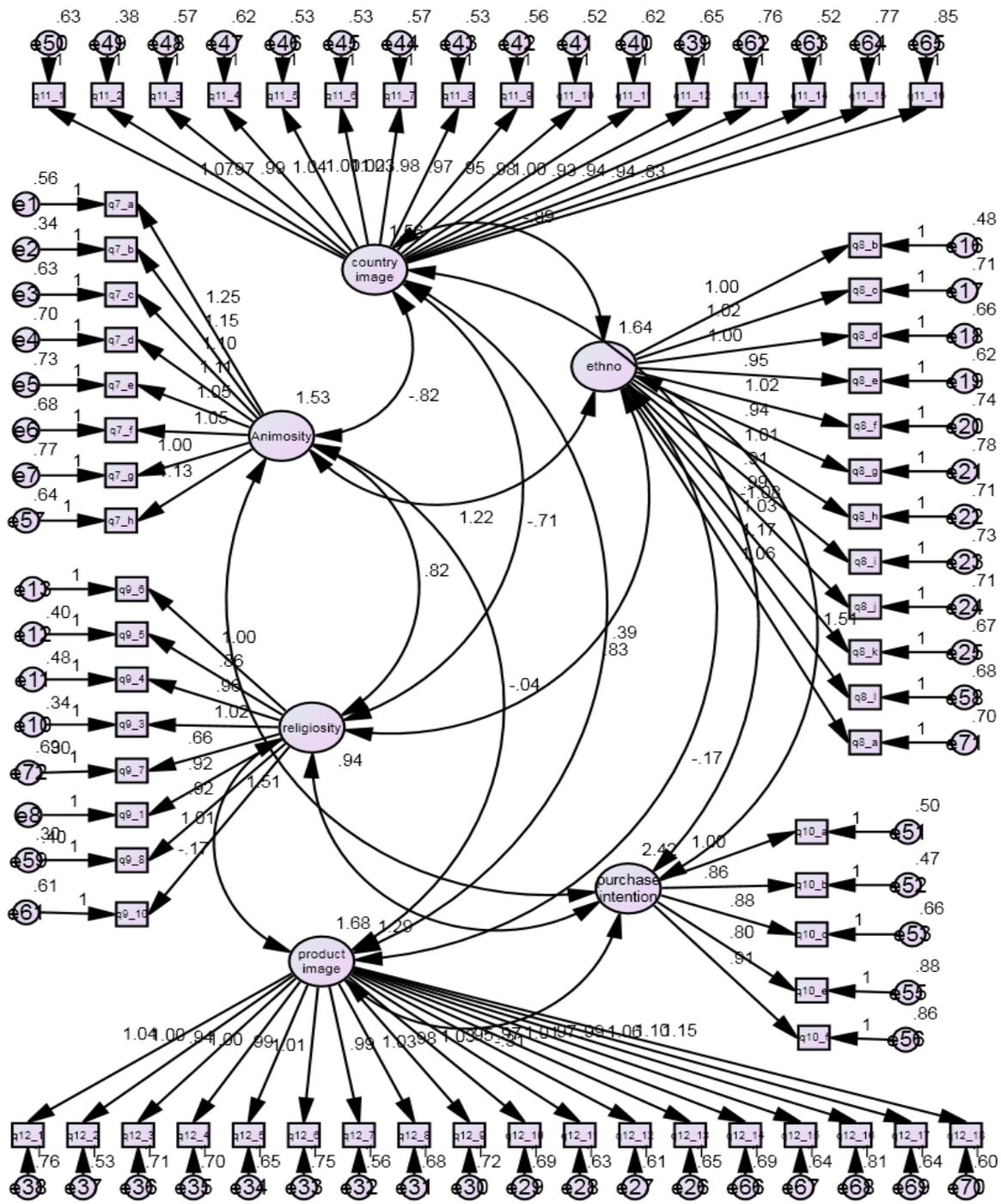


Figure 4.4: CFA for all measurement dimensions

According to the initial result of the measurement analysis, it needed to be re-specified. Specifically, “I feel angry towards the USA” had a big MI = 18.262 and SR = 2.037 (>1.96) with “Saudi's should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports”. Therefore, in terms of animosity, one item was deleted, namely “I feel angry towards the USA.”

There were three items excluded from country image because of high modification indexes, and the standardized residual was greater than 1.96. Specifically, the item “Likeability of people” shows MI = 31.421 and SR = 3.443 (>1.96), with item “Saudi's should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports”, while the second item “Wealth” has a big MI = 11.514 and SR = 2.305 (>1.96) with the item “How important is it for parents to send or take their children to Islamic religious services?” The third item, “Friendliness”, has a big MI = 25.787 and SR = 2.426 (>1.96) with item “Saudi's should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.”

Finally, three items were also dropped in the product image, the items were “Technology level, which had a high MI = 10.978 and SR = 2.871 (>1.96) with the item “How often do you pray?” while the item “Willing to buy” has a big MI = 17.295 and SR = 2.541 (>1.96) with item “How often do you pray?” The last item “Proud to own” had a high MI = 10.731 and SR = 2.525 (>1.96) with the item “How often do you pray?” Therefore, the study decided to exclude seven items “one from animosity, three from country image and three from product image, however, this study has sixty items of this construct remaining for further analysis.

As illustrated in Figure 4.5, in terms of full measurement dimensions CFA, the Chi square value found to be 2,335, with a degree of freedom of 1,671. P value, however, was lower than 0.05, indicating a lack of fit of the model to the data. This finding was not unexpected, as explained by Hair et al. (2010). A larger sample size tends to render a large Chi square value, causing a significant test.

Table 4.5 shows that, regardless of the P value, the GFI value of 0.873, the AGFI value of 0.861, the CFI value of 0.979, the TLI value of 0.978, and the RMSEA value of 0.027 is definitely lower than 0.08, suggesting a marginally acceptable fitting of the model. For more details, refer to Appendix 5: CFA Final Model Fit Summary.

According to Bloemer et al. (2002), a GFI index usually displays a value that is lower than the recommended one because it is usually influenced by the model's complexity. Furthermore, Hair et al. (1998) stated that a GFI =.874 can be considered a marginally acceptable GFI, similar studies (Rose et al. 2009; Li et al. 2012; Bloemer et al. 2002; Srinivasan et al. 2002). The GFI index in their studies exhibited values of (.88), (.82), (.79) and (.75) respectively. Therefore, the GFI index =.873 in this study, which is consistent with other related studies such as Rose et al. (2009), Li et al. (2012), Bloemer et al. (2002), and Srinivasan et al. (2002). The following table illustrates the above description.

**Table 4.5: Model Fit**

Chi square	Df	Chi square /df	GFI	AFGI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
2335	2671	1.397	0.873	0.861	0.979	0.978	0.027

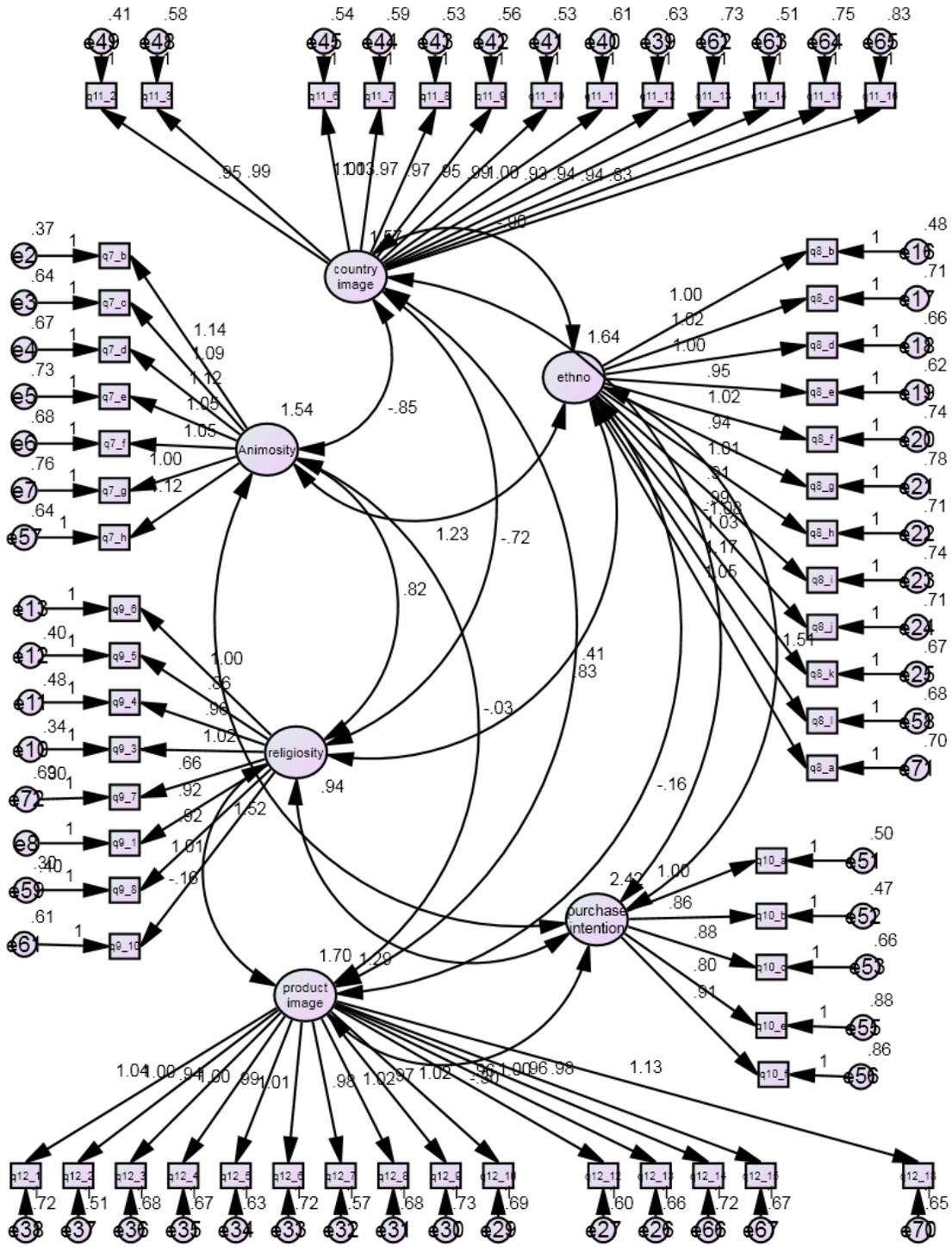


Figure 4.5: CFA for all measurement dimensions

## 4.6 Descriptive Analysis of the Variables

Descriptive analysis is needed in research to explain the basic features of the data in the study. They provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures. Descriptive statistics enable the researcher to clarify the nature of the data and its behavior. Descriptive statistics facilitates the process of condensing large amounts of data in a reasonable way. Thus, it is typically used to present quantitative descriptions in a controllable manner. Each descriptive statistic reduces many data into a simpler summary.

**Table 4.6a: Descriptive Results for Animosity**

Items for Animosity	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
I will never forgive U.S. for war atrocities committed by its armed forces across Iraq.	530	1.00	7.00	4.4830	.06450	1.48486
U.S. is not a reliable trading partner.	530	1.00	7.00	4.6170	.06654	1.53180
U.S. wants to gain economic power across the Arab world.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5830	.06642	1.52908
U.S. is taking advantage of Arab countries.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5642	.06587	1.51634
U.S. wields too much economic influence across the Arab world.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5830	.06539	1.50541
The U.S. is doing business unfairly with Arab countries.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5094	.06625	1.52512
USA should vacate the occupied Iraq and pay for what it did to Iraqi people during the occupation.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5962	.06912	1.59132

Seven-point scale: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Quite disagree; 4= Not sure; 5= Quite Agree; 6= Agree; 7= Strongly agree

Table 4.6a above shows the mean value, minimum and maximum value of responses and standard deviation of the items for animosity. The scale used in the measurement is Likert scale with 1 for strongly disagree; 2 for disagree; 3 for quite disagree; 4 for not sure; 5 for quite

agree; 6 for agree; and 7 for strongly agree. Generally, the value of the mean for all animosity items as shown in Table 4.6a are above 4.5, indicating that the average responses are inclined towards not sure and agree for animosity. The standard deviation is an average to be at 1.5, which indicates that the average value did not differ much from the mean value; thus, items did not vary too much from each other. The distribution of the sample is quite normal and rather close to the mean. This means that there are very few outliers and that the spread of the curve is narrow.

**Table 4.6b: Descriptive Results for Consumer Ethnocentrism**

Items for Ethnocentrism	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Saudi's should always buy Saudi-made products instead of imports.	530	1.00	7.00	4.4283	.07186	1.65433
Buy Saudi-made products. Keep Saudi's working Saudi products, first, last and foremost.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5226	.06526	1.50250
Purchasing foreign-made products is un- Saudi's	530	1.00	7.00	4.6528	.06741	1.55195
It is not right to purchase foreign products.	530	1.00	7.00	4.6302	.06563	1.51084
A real Saudi's should always buy Saudi-made products.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5698	.06393	1.47180
We should purchase products manufactured in Saudi instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5528	.06791	1.56342
There should be very little trading or purchasing of products from other countries unless out of necessity.	530	1.00	7.00	4.4528	.06611	1.52194
Saudi should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Saudi business and causes unemployment.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5868	.06662	1.53381
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5849	.06412	1.47614
	530	1.00	7.00	4.6170	.06744	1.55263

Saudi consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Saudi out of work.	530	1.00	7.00	4.4925	.06657	1.53255
It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Saudi products.	530	1.00	7.00	4.7208	.07584	1.74600

Seven-point scale: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Quite disagree; 4= Not sure; 5= Quite Agree; 6= Agree; 7= Strongly agree

Similar to Table 4.6a, Table 4.6b above summarizes the descriptive results for consumer ethnocentrism. The mean value of consumer ethnocentrism items is all above 4 and less than 5, indicating that the responses are inclined towards not sure and agree. The standard deviation is above 1, indicating that the variance is rather low between the items; thus, the spread between the responses is narrow. This implies that responses from Saudi respondents did not very many and outliers are limited in the results. Hence, consumer ethnocentrism results are normally distributed among the Saudis.

**Table 4.6c: Descriptive Results for Religiosity**

Items for Religiosity	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
How often do you attend Islamic religious services?	530	1.00	5.00	3.2472	.04765	1.09701
Besides regular service, how often do you participate in other activities at your place of worship?	530	1.00	5.00	3.1226	.04907	1.12962
How often do you read Islamic religious books?	530	1.00	5.00	3.2962	.04750	1.09345
How often do you watch / listen to Islamic religious programs on TV / radio?	530	1.00	5.00	3.1660	.04715	1.08555
How often do you ask someone to pray for you doaa?	530	1.00	5.00	3.3943	.05034	1.15899
How often do you pray?	530	1.00	6.00	4.3472	.04564	1.05081
How religious would you say you are?	530	1.00	5.00	3.2962	.04542	1.04573

How important is it for parents to send or take their children to Islamic religious services?	530	1.00	5.00	3.3302	.05451	1.25502
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Five -point scale :Q 1-Q 3-Q 4,-Q 5and Q 6 (1=never; 2=Occasionally; 3= About once a Month; 4=Usually once a week; 5= More than once a week) and Q8 and Q 10 (1=Not at all important ;2= Somewhat important ; 3=Moderately important ;4= Very important ; 5=Extremely important)

Table 4.6c above shows the descriptive results for religiosity. The scale used in the measurement is Likert scale 1 to 5, and the results for mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values are shown in the Table 4.6c. Mean value of religiosity indicates that most of the items are above 3 indicating that most of the respondents are quite disagreed with the items measured. However, the spread remains narrow, and data is normally distributed.

**Table 4.6d: Descriptive Results for Purchase Intention**

Items for Purchase Intention	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
I would feel guilty if I would buy a product made in the USA.	530	1.00	7.00	4.4038	.07430	1.71041
I would never buy a product made in the USA.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5491	.06551	1.50815
Whenever possible, I avoid buying products made in the USA.	530	1.00	7.00	4.6547	.06923	1.59383
I do not like the idea of owning products made in the USA.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5717	.06777	1.56024
If two products were equal in quality, but one was from USA and one was from Saudi Arabia, I would pay 10% more for the product from Saudi Arabia.	530	1.00	7.00	4.5623	.07330	1.68752

Seven-point scale:1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Quite disagree; 4= Not sure; 5= Quite Agree; 6= Agree; 7= Strongly agree

Table 4.2d above shows the descriptive results for purchase intention. The values of the means mostly are above 4 indicating that most of the respondents tend to be unsure and agree with the items measured. The value of standard deviation is between 1 to 2, which means that the differences of responses did not vary much, and spread of the distribution was rather narrow; nonetheless, the distribution of the data remains normal.

**Table 4.6e: Descriptive Results for Country Image**

Items for Country Image	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Industriousness	530	1.00	7.00	2.8962	.06267	1.44286
Education level	530	1.00	7.00	2.9396	.06783	1.56163
Trustworthiness	530	1.00	7.00	2.9811	.06682	1.53830
Work ethics	530	1.00	7.00	3.0075	.06704	1.54331
Political stability	530	1.00	7.00	2.9566	.06438	1.48209
Technology level	530	1.00	7.00	2.9943	.06463	1.48781
Stability of economy	530	1.00	7.00	3.0660	.06356	1.46328
Quality of life	530	1.00	7.00	3.0340	.06675	1.53681
Role in world politics	530	1.00	7.00	3.0509	.06574	1.51341
Individual rights and freedoms	530	1.00	7.00	3.0415	.06594	1.51806
Alignment with U.S.A	530	1.00	7.00	2.9925	.06303	1.45114
Political and economic ties with U.S.A	530	1.00	7.00	2.8528	.06560	1.51022
Investments from U.S.A.	530	1.00	7.00	3.1302	.06332	1.45767

Seven-point scale: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Quite disagree; 4= Not sure; 5= Quite Agree; 6= Agree; 7= Strongly agree

Table 4.6e above summarizes the minimum and maximum values, mean and standard deviation for country image. Generally, the average value of the means above 2 and below 3; this indicates that the respondents mostly disagree and quite disagree with the items measured in country image. The standard deviation, which is between 1 and 2 shows that the discrepancies between the responses are low, it also means that the spread of the data is narrow, and data is normally distributed.

**Table 4.6f: Descriptive Results for Product Image**

Items for Product Image	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Quality	530	1.00	7.00	4.6491	.06423	1.47872
Value	530	1.00	7.00	4.7868	.05687	1.30934
Workmanship	530	1.00	7.00	4.7642	.05683	1.30834
Defects in merchandise	530	1.00	7.00	4.7679	.06003	1.38207
Attractiveness	530	1.00	7.00	4.7396	.06044	1.39135
Innovativeness	530	1.00	7.00	4.7830	.06155	1.41692
Variety	530	1.00	7.00	4.7623	.06114	1.40754
Brand names	530	1.00	7.00	4.8811	.06001	1.38143
Price	530	1.00	7.00	4.8472	.06004	1.38219
Durability	530	1.00	7.00	4.7811	.06156	1.41729
Reliability	530	1.00	7.00	4.7868	.05694	1.31079
Your knowledge of American products	530	1.00	7.00	4.8943	.05634	1.29714
Overall satisfaction	530	1.00	7.00	4.7679	.05841	1.34463
Ease of finding	530	1.00	7.00	4.8415	.05829	1.34198
After sales service	530	1.00	7.00	5.0396	.06247	1.43818

Seven-point scale: 1= Strongly disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Quite disagree; 4= Not sure; 5= Quite Agree; 6= Agree; 7= Strongly agree

Table 4.6f above shows the mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum output for items represent product image. The mean is generally 4.5 above and below 5 indicating that the results are at unsure level except item number 13 where the mean is 5 meaning that it is slightly different from others. However, the standard deviation results depict that the data is not much distorted, and the outliers is not significant and data is narrowly spread. This also indicates that the data is normally distributed.

## 4.7 Convergent Validity

Table 4.7 shows an average variance extracted (AVE), and composite reliability (CR) for animosity, purchase intention, country image, product image, religiosity, and ethnocentrism. To assess the convergent validity for each construct, standardized factor loadings were employed to determine the convergent validity of the six constructs (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988). The findings indicate that each factor loading of the reflective indicators exceeded the recommended level of 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Diamantopoulos and Siguaaw, 2001). Further, each factor has AVE values greater than 0.5 ranged from 0.713 to 0.745; thus, the convergent validity for each construct (animosity, purchase intention, country image, product image, religiosity, and ethnocentrism) was established, thereby providing evidence of convergent validity for all the constructs in this study (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Hair et al., 2006). Ultimately, the composite reliability of each construct was provided ranged from 0.934 to 0.979. The results of the composite reliabilities ( $\rho_x$ ) of all the factors exceed the recommended standards of both Bagozzi and Yi (1988) and Hair et al. (1998). This means that all six constructs are, in fact, reliable.

The summary of the results of composite reliabilities and Average Variance Extracted, for all the constructs used in this study, is presented in Table 4.7.

**Table 4.7: Composite Reliabilities and Average Variance Extracted**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>CR</b>	<b>AVE</b>
Animosity	0.959	0.745
Purchase intention	0.934	0.739
Country image	0.975	0.713
Product image	0.979	0.720
Religiosity	0.935	0.744
Ethnocentrism	0.967	0.709

#### **4.8 Discriminant Validity**

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was accomplished through maximum likelihood estimation to test the dimensionality of the scales (Babin, 1994). SEM allows researchers to choose the input matrix from two types of matrices: the variance covariance matrix and the correlation matrix. We choose the correlation matrix as the input matrix, because we used a single sample, and the correlation matrix has gained widespread use (e.g. Hult, Ketchen, and Slater, 2002). The summary of the results of a correlation matrix, for all the constructs used in this study, is presented in Table 4.8.

**Table 4.8: correlation matrix**

	<b>Animosity</b>	<b>Purchase Intention</b>	<b>Country Image</b>	<b>Product Image</b>	<b>Religiosity</b>	<b>Ethnocentrism</b>
<b>Animosity</b>	0.863					
<b>Purchase Intention</b>	0.787	0.860				
<b>Country Image</b>	-0.532	-0.555	0.844			
<b>Product Image</b>	-0.026	-0.151	0.243	0.849		
<b>Religiosity</b>	0.682	0.855	-0.588	-0.136	0.802	
<b>Ethnocentrism</b>	0.770	0.759	-0.556	-0.101	0.665	0.842

Moreover, the squared multiple correlation matrix for six constructs were provided as in Table 4.8 to evaluate the discriminant validity. Based on the table, all AVE values were basically greater than their corresponding squared multiple correlation, suggesting that the variance explained by each construct is greater than the variance explained towards other constructs, thereby providing sufficient evidence of discriminant validity. Therefore, CFA has shown that six constructs (animosity, purchase intention, country image, product image, religiosity, and ethnocentrism) are indeed reliable, as well as exhibiting good construct validity.

#### **4.9 Correlation Analysis**

Correlation analysis is used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables and it can also indicate the relationship of one variable to another (Pallant, 2005). The correlation coefficient range must be from +1.0 to -1.0. For this purpose, Pearson's bivariate correlation test was employed. This analysis is necessary to identify whether variables have a significant relationship or not and also being a preliminary confirmation of the

relationships and the direction of the hypotheses before sending all variables to the structural equation modeling. The descriptive statistic (mean and standard deviation) reliabilities and zero-order correlations between the variables examined in the study are described specifically in table 4.9 below:

**Table 4.9 Descriptive statistics and Pearson`s correlation**

	Mean	SD	(A)	(E)	(R)	(PI)	(CI)	(Prol)
<b>Animosity (A)</b>	4.4502	1.39486	1.00					
<b>Ethnocentrism (E)</b>	4.6420	1.31527	.741**	1.00				
<b>Religiosity(R)</b>	3.2108	.81216	.642**	.627**	1.00			
<b>Purchase intention(PI)</b>	4.5079	1.22062	.712**	.694**	.775**	1.00		
<b>Country Image(CI)</b>	2.8218	1.18967	-.514**	-.533**	-.565**	-.524**	1.00	
<b>Product Image (Prol)</b>	4.0734	1.32640	-.021	-.095*	-.130**	-.157**	.234**	1.00

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The Pearson correlation was used to test for correlation between Animosity, Ethnocentrism, Religiosity, Product Image, Country Image and Purchase Intention. From the results, it is revealed that it seem not to be a very high negative or positive correlation between the purchase intention and the variables Religiosity, Product Image, Country Image, Animosity and Ethnocentrism. A test of correlation was done on purchase intention made to American products that of the variables, which may represent the consumer, purchase intention. However, there are strong correlations between the variables themselves.

Based on the above outcome, it can be summarized that all the relationships of the antecedents that were hypothesized and the outputs of this model are in the estimated directions and could be used as a preliminary confirmation of the approved hypotheses.

#### **4.10 Skewness and Kurtosis**

Hair et al., 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001 suggest that univariate normality is achieved, when multivariate normality occurred. EFA and CFA were used to analyses data in the study and the normality assumptions holds as multivariate normality has been achieved.

The function of the skewness and kurtosis are to check on the shape of the scores of the distribution. Skewness is used to describe the balance of the distribution; that is, is it unbalanced and shifted to one side (right or left) or centered and symmetrical, with about the same shape on both sides, proposing that the considered level of the value should be greater than 3 (Hair et al., 2008).

According to Kline (1998), the considered level of kurtosis, of greater than 10 may suggest the departed of the variable from normality and a value exceeding 20 indicates an extreme level of kurtosis, thus presenting a more serious departure from normality. For this purpose, AMOS 20 is used to assess the univariate normality in structural equation modeling, in which it produces a portion of output known as Mardia's coefficient (Mardia, 1970). There is no issue with skewness and kurtosis. It may be seen in appendix 6.

#### 4.11 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

As all the indices in the measurement model fit show overall goodness-of-fit, all the direct relationship effects, mediation effects of the specific latent variables were tested simultaneously in the structural equation modeling. The figure 4.6 model assumes a causal structure among a set of latent variables, and that the observed variables are indicators of the latent variables. As such, the observed variables are measures of, animosity, ethnocentrism, religiosity, country image, product image and purchase intention. A structural model was then conducted to estimate the parameters. In general, terms, the model allows for the testing of the specified relationships (e.g. religiosity is directly linked to purchase intention) through the use of a set of linear structural equations. The major advantage in this approach, a path model, is that it allows for the testing of antecedent and consequent relationships. The relationships between latent variables with the items are shown one direction per the arrow, as seen in Figure 4.6.

Figure 4.6 indicates that the hypothesized model of the structural equation modeling is marginally acceptable fitted to the sample data. The result in Table 4.10 shows that chi square is significant ( $\chi^2 = 2967.337$ ,  $\chi^2 / \text{degree of freedom}$  ( $\chi^2/\text{df}$ ) ratio = 1.697,  $p = 0.000$ ). Meanwhile, the CFI value is 0.961.TLI of 0.959, and RMSEA value is 0.038. However, all values meet the criterion of preferable values, except the ratio of (GFI=.841), and (AGFI=.828), referring to a marginally acceptable fitting for the SEM modeling. This commonly occurs when a sample size larger than 200 is involved (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Garver and Mentzer, 1999). SEM is a rigorous analysis that simultaneously taken into accounts all the combined relationships instead of the one-to-one relationship testing as in the multiple regressions by SPSS. The outcome of the findings, however, demonstrates that the main relationship between religiosity and animosity,

ethnocentrism, country image, product image, and purchase intention results of these analyses would be elaborated in more detail in the discussion section. For more details, see Appendix 7 and Appendix 8 regression analysis.

**Table 4.10: Model Fit**

$\chi^2$	Df	$\chi^2/df$	GFI	AFGI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
2967	1697	1.749	0.841	0.828	0.961	0.959	0.038

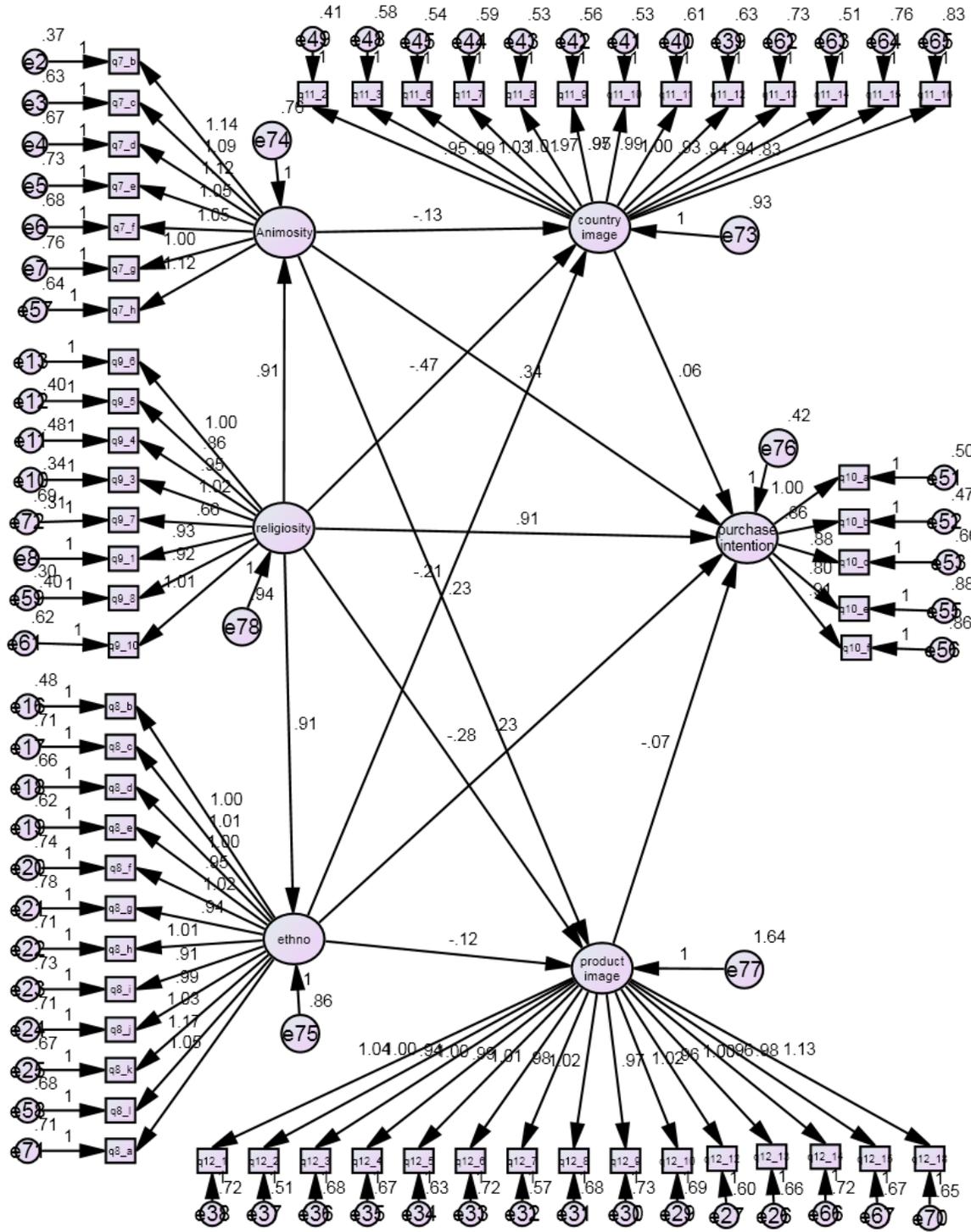


Figure 4.6: Structural Equation Modeling

#### 4.12 Effects of Consumer ethnocentrism, Consumer animosity and Religiosity on Purchase Intention (H1 a, b, c)

As mentioned in Chapter 3, SEM are a multivariate method that enables researchers to identify explanatory variables related to the dependent variable, particularly, in this study, the ethnocentrism, animosity and religiosity that contribute to the overall purchase intention. Hence, in confirming postulated hypotheses, SEM is used to statistically analyze the data. SEM is appropriate to be used in confirming the effects of antecedents encompassed animosity, ethnocentrism and religiosity on purchase intention due to the fact that there are significant strong correlation coefficients between them as presented in the previous section.

This relationship explains the possible outcome of purchase intention based on the effects of antecedents i.e. animosity, ethnocentrism, and religiosity. Table 4.11 demonstrates the results of SEM for such relationships.

**Table 4.11 Model Summary of Ethnocentrism, Animosity, and Religiosity on Purchase Intention**

	Path	$\beta$	SE	P
H1a	Ethnocentrism $\longrightarrow$ Purchase Intention	0.230	0.041	***
H1b	Animosity $\longrightarrow$ Purchase Intention	0.911	0.077	***
H1c	Religiosity $\longrightarrow$ Purchase Intention	0.336	0.045	***

Notes: \*significant at the 0.05 level, \*\*\*significant at the 0.000 level

Table 4.11 above shows that purchase intention is not significantly affected by its antecedences: ethnocentrism and animosity. Based on the p values, there is a significant positive

influence in purchase intention by ethnocentrism, animosity; religiosity has no effect on purchase intention.

Based on the table above, confirmation of hypotheses 1 can be made as follows:

*Hypothesis 1 (H1): Consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity affect purchase intentions among Saudi's consumers*

Based on the above table there is positive significant effect of consumer ethnocentrism, animosity and religiosity on purchase intention the values indicate a major contribution of the variables on Saudi consumers' purchase intention. Thus, there is sufficient evidence to reject H1.

*Hypothesis 1a (H1a): Consumer ethnocentrism negatively affects purchase intentions of foreign products among Saudi consumers*

There was a significant positive effect of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intention, since the hypotheses is on the negative direction, Consumer ethnocentrism negatively affects purchase intentions. Thus, H1a was rejected.

*Hypothesis 1b (H1b): Consumer animosity negatively affects purchase intentions of foreign products among Saudi consumers*

Similarly, there was a significant positive effect of consumer animosity on purchase intention, since the hypotheses is on the negative direction, Consumer animosity negatively affects purchase intentions. Thus, H1b was rejected.

*Hypothesis 1c (H1c): Religiosity negatively affects purchase intentions of foreign products among Saudi consumers*

The same applies for religiosity, as there was a significant positive effect of religiosity on purchase intention. Since the hypothesis is on the negative direction, religiosity negatively affects purchase intentions. Thus, H1c was rejected.

#### **4.13 Effects of religiosity on consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism (H2, a, b)**

**Table 4.12: Model Summary of Religiosity on Animosity and Ethnocentrism**

	Path	$\beta$	SE	P
H2a	Religiosity $\longrightarrow$ Animosity	0.908	0.057	***
H2b	Religiosity $\longrightarrow$ Ethnocentrism	0.914	0.057	***

Notes: \*significant at the 0.05 level, \*\*\*significant at the 0.000 level

*Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between religiosity and consumer animosity as well as consumer ethnocentrism*

In confirming the relationship between the three antecedents of purchase intention, which are consumer ethnocentrism, animosity and religiosity, SEM was conducted. The results are depicted in Table 4.12 above. From the findings, the hypotheses decisions are concluded below.

*Hypothesis 2a (H2a): There is a significant relationship between religiosity and consumer animosity.*

The result shows that there is a strong positive significant relationship between religiosity and consumer animosity the p value significant at (0.00) significance level. This indicates that religiosity has a strong positive effect on animosity, the more religious a person is, and the greater the animosity of the person would be. Thus, there is sufficient evidence for the study to support H2a.

*Hypothesis 2b (H2b): There is a significant relationship between religiosity and consumer ethnocentrism*

The result also shows that there is a strong positive significant relationship between religiosity and consumer ethnocentrism the p value significant at 0.00 significance level. This indicates that religiosity has a strong positive effect on ethnocentrism, the more religious the person is, the greater ethnocentric the person would be. Thus, there is sufficient evidence in the study to support H2b.

Based on the results above, it is confirmed that there are strong significant relationships between religiosity-animosity, and religiosity-ethnocentrism. Thus, there is sufficient evidence for the study to support H2.

**4.14 Effects of Product image and country image on consumers purchase intention (H3.a, b)**

**Table 4.13 Model Summary of Product image and country image on consumers purchase intention**

	Path	$\beta$	SE	P
H3a	Country Image $\longrightarrow$ Purchase Intention	-0.070	0.028	0.094
H3b	Product Image $\longrightarrow$ Purchase Intention	0.062	0.037	0.012

Notes: \*significant at the 0.05 level, \*\*significant at the 0.01 level

Table 4.13 is the output for SEM of country image and product image on purchase intention, the influence country image on purchase intention is not significant as the p values were than 0,094 significance levels for country image. Therefore, country image was found to have no influence on purchase intention; whereas the influence of product image on purchase intention is significant as the p values 0.012 significance level for product image were lower than 0.05. Therefore, product image was found to have a positive influence on purchase intention.

*Hypothesis 3 (H3): Country image and product image have any influence on Saudi consumers' purchase intention*

*Hypothesis 3 (H3a): Country image positively influence Saudi consumers purchase intention*

Based on the SEM output, H3a as there is no evidence of positive influence of *Country* image on purchase intention. Therefore, the hypothesis is not supported.

*Hypothesis 3 (H3b): Product image positively influence Saudi consumers purchase intention*

Based on the SEM output, H3b as there is clear evidence of the positive influence of product image on purchase intention. Which mean if the product image is high the effect on purchase intention will be positive. Therefore, the hypothesis is supported.

#### **4.15 Effects of Consumer ethnocentrism, Consumer animosity and Religiosity on Product Image and Country Image (H4. a, b, c, d, e, f)**

*Hypothesis 4a: Consumer ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers negatively affects the product image of the United States*

**Table 4.14a: Model Summary of Ethnocentrism on Product Country Image**

	Path	$\beta$	SE	P
H4a	Ethnocentrism $\longrightarrow$ Product image	-0.118	0.065	0.066
H4b	Ethnocentrism $\longrightarrow$ Country image	-0.206	0.050	***

Notes: \*significant at the 0.05 level, \*\*\*significant at the 0.000 level

The result shows that there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and product image. The p value not significant at (0.066) significance level. This indicates that the consumer ethnocentrism has no effect on the product image. Thus, there is sufficient evidence in the study to reject H4a.

Table 4.14a is the output for SEM of consumer ethnocentrism on country image. The results show that the p value is 0.000 indicating that there is a significant negative effect of

ethnocentrism on country image. The greater the ethnocentrism of the consumer, the lower the country image possessed. There is clear evidence that there is a negative effect of consumer ethnocentrism on country image and the result is statistically significant. Thus, there is sufficient evidence in the study to support H4b.

*Hypothesis 4b: Consumer ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States.*

**Table 4.14b: Model Summary of Animosity on Product Country Image**

	Path	$\beta$	SE	P
H4c	Animosity $\longrightarrow$ Product image	0.229	0.070	0.001
H4d	Animosity $\longrightarrow$ Country image	-0.133	0.054	0.013

Notes: \*significant at the 0.05 level, \*\*significant at the 0.01 level

The above result shows that there is no significant relationship between Animosity and product image. The p value significant at 0.001 but the  $\beta$  0.229 positive. This indicates that animosity has no negative effect on the product image. Thus, there is sufficient evidence in the study to reject H4c.

*Hypothesis 4c: Consumer animosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects the product image of the United States*

Table 4.11b is the output for SEM of consumer animosity on country image. The results show that the p value is 0.012 indicating that there is a significant negative effect of animosity on country image. The greater the animosity of the consumer, the lower the country image possessed. There is clear evidence that there is a negative effect of animosity on country image

and the result is statistically significant. Thus, there is sufficient evidence in the study to support H4d.

*Hypothesis 4d: Consumer animosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States.*

**Table 4.14c: Model Summary of Religiosity on Product Country Image**

	Path	$\beta$	SE	P
P4e	Religiosity $\longrightarrow$ Product image	-0.281	0.111	0.012
P4f	Religiosity $\longrightarrow$ Country image	-0.467	0.087	***

Notes: \*significant at the 0.05 level, \*\*significant at the 0.01 level, \*\*\*significant at the 0.000 level

*Proposition 4e: Religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects product image of the United States*

*Proposition 4f: Religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States*

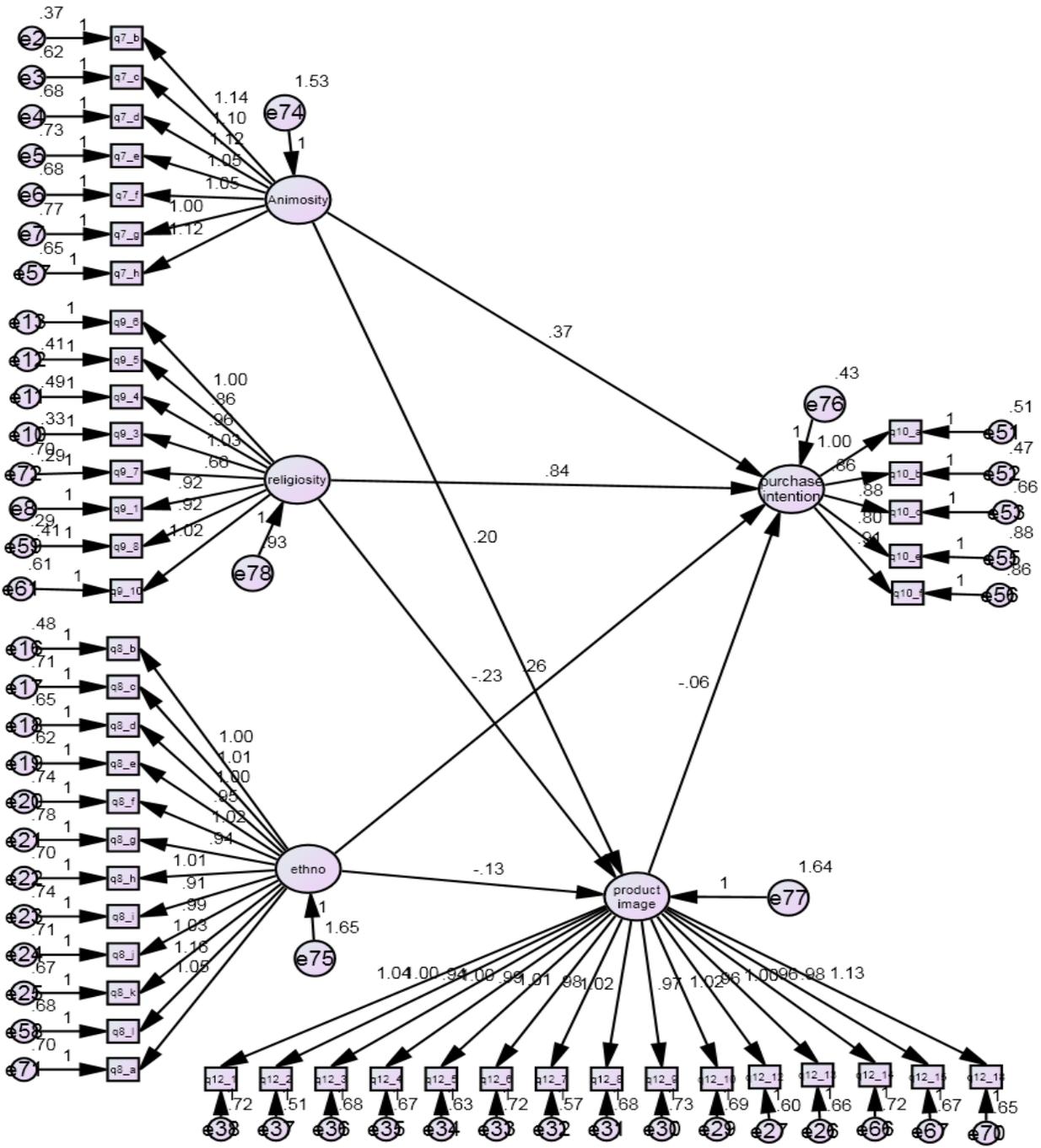
Table 4.14.c has the output for SEM of religiosity on product image and country image. The results of the religiosity show that p value is significant at 0.012 and 0.000 significance level, indicating that there is a significant negative influence of religiosity on product image and country image. Therefore, the more religious the person, the lower the image of the USA and its product perceived by respondents. This indicates that the influences of religiosity are in a negative direction. Therefore Proposition 4e 4f supported.

#### 4.16 Testing Mediating Effects of the product image.

The following section discusses the testing of the hypothesis on the effects of religiosity, animosity and ethnocentrism on purchasing intention mediated by the product image. Figure 4.7 indicates a marginally acceptable fit. Table 4.15 Model Fit indicates that a marginally acceptable fit the result shows that chi square is significant ( $\chi^2 = 2529$ ,  $\chi^2 / \text{degree of freedom}$  ( $\chi^2/\text{df}$ ) ratio = 2.463,  $\rho = 0.000$ ). Meanwhile, the AGFI value is 0.813, CFI value 0.94, TLI of 0.937, RMSEA value 0.053. However, it indicates that the GFI index is less than .9 (GFI= .829), which commonly occurs when a sample size larger than 200 is involved (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Garver & Mentzer, 1999).

**Table 4.15: product Image Mediating effect model fit**

$\chi^2$	Df	$\chi^2/\text{df}$	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
2529	1027	2.463	0.829	0.813	0.94	0.937	0.053



**Figure 4.7: product Image Mediating Model.**

*Proposition 5a: Product image mediates the effect of religiosity on purchase intention.*

*Proposition 5c: Product image mediates the effect of consumer animosity on purchase intention.*

*Proposition 5e: Product image mediates the effect of ethnocentrism on purchase intention.*

Figure 4.7 indicates that the model of the mediating relationship in the structural equation modeling which computed through bootstrapping method. Table 4.16.a, b, c below shows the results of direct, indirect effect and total effect of religiosity with indirect effect of (0.007), direct effect of (0.001), and total effect of (0.001). Animosity with indirect effect of (0.005), direct effect of (0.001), and total effect of (0.001), and ethnocentrism with indirect effect of (0.029), direct effect of (0.001), and total effect of (0.001). To find out what kind of medication we have to look at if Direct & Indirect < 0.05 then check Total. If Total < 0.05 then partial mediation is significant, the study found there is a significant direct and indirect effect, as well as total effect of religiosity, Animosity as well as ethnocentrism on purchase intention with the mediation of country image, thus study concludes that country image partially mediate the relationship of religiosity, Animosity and ethnocentrism on purchase intention; therefore, there is clear evidence to support Proposition 5a.c.e.

**Table 4.16.a: Direct, Indirect Effect and Total of Religiosity**

Decomposition of structural effect On Purchase intention	Standardized	SE	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Sig. (Two-tailed)
<b>Religiosity</b>					
<b>Direct Effect</b>	0.678	0.048	0.707	0.966	0.001
<b>Indirect Effect (Via product image)</b>	0.012	0.061	0.004	0.035	0.007
<b>Total Effect</b>	0.690	0.027	0.724	0.990	0.001

**Table 4.12.b: Direct, Indirect Effect and Total of Animosity**

Decomposition of structural effect On Purchase intention	Standardized	SE	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Sig. (Two-tailed)
<b>Animosity</b>					
Direct Effect	0.381	0.032	0.269	0.469	0.001
Indirect Effect (Via product Image)	-0.014	0.047	-0.032	-0.004	0.005
Total Effect	0.376	0.027	0.248	0.456	0.001

**Table 4.12.c: Direct, Indirect Effect and Total of Ethnocentrism**

Decomposition of structural effect On Purchase intention	Standardized	SE	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Sig. (Two-tailed)
<b>Ethnocentrism</b>					
Direct Effect	0.279	0.029	0.167	0.365	0.001
Indirect Effect (Via product Image)	0.009	0.045	0.001	0.026	0.029
Total Effect	0,289	0.027	0.175	0.373	0.001

#### 4.17 Testing Mediating Effects of country image

The following section discusses the testing of the hypothesis on the effects of religiosity, animosity and ethnocentrism on purchasing intention mediated by the country image.

Figure 4.8 country Image Mediating effect Model. Indicates that a marginally acceptable fit. The result in Table 4.12.f shows that chi square is significant ( $\chi^2 = 2316$ ,  $\chi^2 / \text{degree of}$

freedom ( $\chi^2/\text{df}$ ) ratio = 2.469,  $\rho = 0.000$ ). Meanwhile, the AGFI value is 0.823, CFI value 0.942. TLI of 0.939, RMSEA value 0.050. However, it indicates that the GFI index is less than .9 (GFI= .84), which commonly occurs when a sample size larger than 200 is involved (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; and Garver & Mentzer, 1999).

**Table 4.17: Country Image mediating effect model fit**

$\chi^2$	Df	$\chi^2/\text{df}$	GFI	AGFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
2316	938	2.469	0.84	0.823	0.942	0.939	0.050

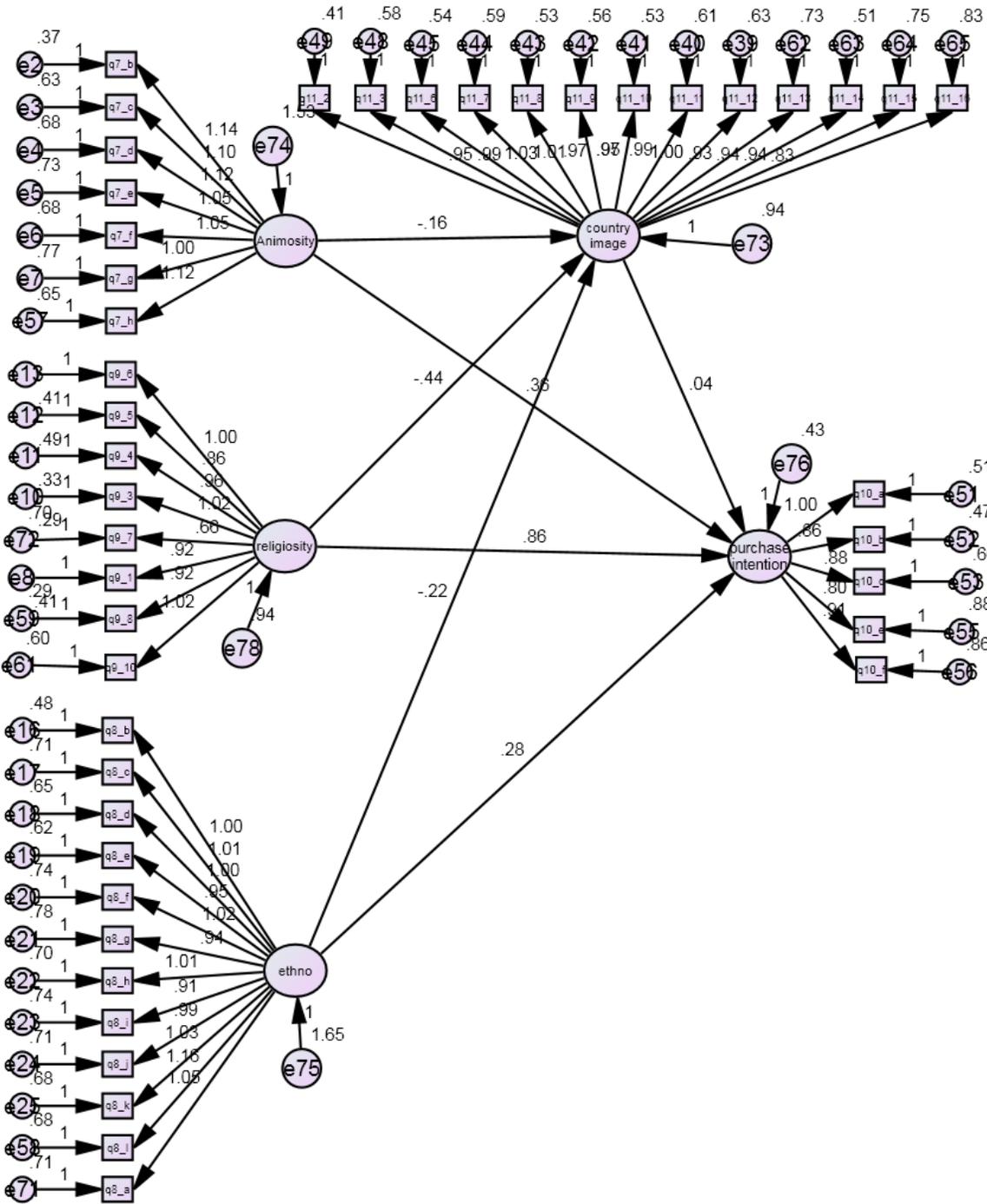


Figure 4.8 Country Image direct Mediating Model

*Proposition 5d: Country image mediates the effect of consumer animosity on purchase intention.*

*Proposition 5f: Country image mediates the effect of ethnocentrism on purchase intention.*

*Proposition 5b: Country image mediates the effect of religiosity on purchase intention.*

Figure 4.8 indicates that the model of the mediating relationship in the structural equation modeling which computed through bootstrapping method. Table 4.18.a; demonstrate the results of direct effect, indirect effect and total effect. The indirect effect in the study is  $> 0.05$ , which reveal that the country image has no mediation effect of religiosity, animosity and ethnocentrism towards purchase intention.

In terms of religiosity, it has an indirect effect (0.307), direct effect (0.001), and total effect (0.001), meanwhile, animosity has an indirect effect (0.266), direct effect (0.001), and total effect (0.001). Finally, ethnocentrism has an indirect effect (0.252), direct effect (0.001), and total effect (0.001). The study found no significant indirect effect of religiosity, animosity and ethnocentrism on purchase intention with the mediation of country image Therefore, the study concludes that country image does not mediate the relationship of religiosity, animosity and ethnocentrism on purchase intention. Therefore, there is sufficient evidence to reject Proposition 5b, 5d, 5f.

**Table 4.18.a: Direct, Indirect Effect and Total of Religiosity**

<b>Decomposition of structural effect</b>	<b>Standardized</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>Lower Bound</b>	<b>Upper Bound</b>	<b>Sig. (Two-tailed)</b>
<b>On Purchase intention</b>					
<b>Religiosity</b>					
<b>Direct Effect</b>	0.865	0.052	732	1.005	001
<b>Indirect Effect (Via country image)</b>	-0.013	0.050	-0.050	014	307
<b>Total Effect</b>	0.690	0.037	723	987	001

**Table 4.18.b: Direct, Indirect effect and total of Animosity**

<b>Decomposition of structural effect</b>	<b>Standardized</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>Lower Bound</b>	<b>Upper Bound</b>	<b>Sig. (Two-tailed)</b>
<b>On Purchase intention</b>					
<b>Animosity</b>					
<b>Direct Effect</b>	0.359	0.032	0.251	463	001
<b>Indirect Effect (Via country Image)</b>	-0.006	0.037	-0.023	004	266
<b>Total Effect</b>	0.368	0.037	249	456	001

**Table 4.18.c: Direct, Indirect Effect and Total of Ethnocentrism**

<b>Decomposition of structural effect</b>	<b>Standardized</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b>Lower Bound</b>	<b>Upper Bound</b>	<b>Sig. (Two-tailed)</b>
<b>On Purchase intention</b>					
<b>Ethnocentrism</b>					
<b>Direct Effect</b>	0.276	0.030	182	384	001
<b>Indirect Effect (Via country Image)</b>	-0.009	0.036	-0.028	006	252
<b>Total Effect</b>	0.289	0.037	176	373	001

#### 4.18 Summary of the Results

**Table 4.19: Hypotheses summary**

Path				Hypotheses
H1a	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Influence	Purchase Intention	Not Supported
H1b	Consumer Animosity	Influence	Purchase Intention	Not Supported
H1c	Religiosity	Influence	Purchase Intention	Not Supported
H2a	Religiosity	Influence	Consumer Animosity	Supported
H2b	Religiosity	Influence	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Supported
H3a	Country Image	Influence	Purchase Intention	Not Supported
H3b	Product Image	Influence	Purchase Intention	Supported
H4a	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Influence	Product Image	Not Supported
H4b	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Influence	Country Image	Supported
H4c	Consumer Animosity	Influence	Product Image	Not Supported
H4d	Consumer Animosity	Influence	Country Image	Supported
P 4e	Religiosity	Influence	Product Image	Supported
P 4f	Religiosity	Influence	Country Image	Supported
P5a	Product Image	Mediate	Religiosity	Supported
P5b	Country Image	Mediate	Religiosity	Not Supported
P5c	Product Image	Mediate	Consumer Animosity	Supported
P5d	Country Image	Mediate	Consumer Animosity	Not Supported
P5e	Product Image	Mediate	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Supported
P5f	Country Image	Mediate	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Not Supported

As the hypotheses summary shows:

- Consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity do not influence purchase intention.
- Religiosity influences consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism.
- Country image does not influence purchase intention.
- Product image influences purchase intention.
- Consumer ethnocentrism does not influence product image but does influence country image.
- Consumer animosity does not influence product image but influences country image.
- Religiosity influences product image and country image.
- Product image mediates religiosity, consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism.
- Country image does not mediate religiosity, consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism.

As seen, purchase intention is influenced by the product image and not the country image. Although religiosity can affect consumer animosity and ethnocentrism, these forces do not touch on purchase intention simply because Saudi consumers focus on the product itself and not the country behind it.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter describes the findings of this study, discussed the implications and contributions of the study, acknowledges the limitations of this study and proposed possible future research for the study. As mentioned earlier, this study was conducted based on five major objectives; first was to investigate the effect of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity on purchase intention among Saudi consumer. Second was examining the effect of religiosity on consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism of the Saudi consumer. Third was examining the relationship between product image and country image on purchase intention. Fourth was to study the effect of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity of Saudi consumer on the product image and country image of the United States. Finally was to assess the mediating effect of product image and country image on the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity, towards purchase intention. In achieving these objectives, established scales for all variables were adopted, and various procedures were followed to ensure reliability and validity of the scales. Five hypotheses addressing the objectives were developed and statistical testing using a SEM model to examine the effects of the variables.

## 5.2 Overview of the Study

Table 5.1 below summarizes the findings of the study. The discussion is conducted based on each objective and hypothesis. For the first objective, which is to investigate the effect of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity on purchase intention among Saudi consumer, Hypothesis 1 was developed to test its significance. The outcome of Hypothesis 1 indicates that there is a no support in terms of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity of consumers in Saudi on purchase intention.

The findings of objective one are inconsistent with the previous studies. This study indicates that the consumer purchase intention is not influenced by consumer ethnocentrism and animosity. Previous studies depicts that high ethnocentrism and animosity would lead to a less interest in purchasing imported products as found by Marín, (2005); Klein, Ettenson, and Morris, (1998); Sharma, Shimp and Shin, (1995); Pecotich and Rosenthal, (2001); Supphellen and Rittenburg, (2001); Moon, (2004); Wang and Chen, (2004); Pecotich and Rosenthal, (2001); Festervand and Sokoya, (1994); Nijssen, Douglas and Bressers, (2002); Han, (1988); Herche, (1992); Klein et al. (1998); Suh and Kwon, (2002); Rose et al., (2008); Villy, (2013); Funk et al., (2010); Guido et al., (2010); Smith and Qianpin , (2010); Hoffmann, Mai, and Smirnova , (2011).

Consumer ethnocentrism and animosity did not affect the purchase intention similarly the religiosity did not show any effect on purchase intention, indeed it is a very interesting new finding of this study as ethnocentrism, animosity and religiosity did not show any negative effect

this means that Saudi consumers when it comes to purchasing behavior of an imported product from the U.S. These variations will not have an effect on their intention to buy.

**Table 5.1: Hypothesis 1**

Hypothesis	Result
<i>Hypothesis 1a: Consumer ethnocentrism lowers the consumer's purchase intentions in buying foreign products in Saudi Arabia</i>	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 1b: Consumer animosity lowers the consumer's purchase intentions in buying foreign products in Saudi Arabia</i>	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 1c: Religiosity has a significant effect on the consumer's purchase intentions in buying foreign products in Saudi Arabia</i>	Not Supported

The second objective of this study is to examine the effect of religiosity on consumer animosity and ethnocentrism of the Saudi consumer. The finding is summarized in Table 5.2 below. Hypothesis 2 is developed to examine the second objective, and it is found that there is a significant relationship between animosity and consumer ethnocentrism towards religiosity. Both hypotheses were significantly supported. This study also confirmed the previous findings that religiosity is related to animosity and consumer ethnocentrism.

Animosity was found to have a positive relationship with consumer ethnocentrism and religiosity (Russell and Russell, 2006; Balabanis et al., 2002; Ang et al., 2004; Khraim, 2010; Haque et al., 2011; Ahmed et al., 2013). Animosity is strongly related to these two factors, which

indicate that a high animosity among the Saudi would lead them to be highly ethnocentric and possibly more religious. As Islam is the religion in Saudi Arabia, the more religious a person refers to a stronger faith that a person has on Islam.

Similarly, consumer ethnocentrism has a strong positive relationship to the religiosity, which means that a highly ethnocentric person would probably be highly religious, as well. In short, the three factors are strongly correlated to each other. Religiosity was found to be strongly positively correlated with ethnocentrism and animosity. This situation reveals that Saudi consumers are greatly influenced by Islam, which also correlated towards their ethnocentrism and animosity to the American image specifically.

**Table 5.2: Hypothesis 2**

Hypothesis	Result
<i>Hypothesis 2a: There is a significant relationship between religiosity and consumer animosity</i>	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 2b: There is a significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and religiosity</i>	Supported

The third objective is to examine the relationship between country image and product image on purchase intention. Table 5.3 below summarizes the findings of the hypotheses. The results show that country image has no significant effect on the consumer purchase intention.

Regardless of their perception of U.S. as a country, the image of the U.S. is not contributing to their buying behaviors. The findings of country image are inconsistent with previous studies; on the contrary, the findings of product image are consistent with previous studies as they found that country image and product image do have a profound effect on purchase intention. Studies by Cordell, (1992); Nagashima, (1977); Schooler, (1965, 1971); Peterson and Jolibert, (1995); Papadopoulos (1993); Papadopoulos et al., (1988, 1990 and 2000); Gürhan-Hanli and Maheswaran, (2000); and Maheswaran, (1994) indicated that product image and country image do play a role in purchase intention. Bruning, (1997); Cattin et al., (1982); Gaedeke, (1973); Papadopoulos et al., (1987); Schooler, (1965); Samiee, (1994); Swift, (1989); Ettenson and Klein, (2005); and Han (1989) found that there was a positive of country image on purchase intention. Past studies also have revealed that product image has an effect on buying behavior (Peterson and Jolibert, 1995; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Papadopoulos, 1993; Martin and Eroglu, 1993; Pappu et al., 2007; Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009; Papadopoulos, 1993; Heslop et al., 2004; Knight and Calantone, 2000; Wang and Lamb, 1980; Erdem et al., 2006; Baughn and Yaprak, 1993; Kotler and Gertner, 2002; Lefkoff-Hagius and Mason, 1993; Erdem et al., 2006; Schaefer, 1997). Hence, this study verifies that product image influence the consumer purchase intention in Saudi Arabia. Whereas the findings of country image are inconsistent with the above studies, therefore it is a new finding of the study.

Various factors may contribute to this phenomenon. Saudi consumers who have a poor image of America as a country would still buy products imported from the US. This phenomenon deviates from previous studies, as the Saudi market is possibly different from other markets that have been studied. The Saudi market has been dominated by Americans, since almost all American products are available in the Saudi market.

Generally, the lifestyle, tastes, and preferences of Saudi consumers are similar to those of Americans, which might cause them to be loyal to the imported products. Furthermore, it is an advantage to American manufacturers as the kingdom does not have much local production. Therefore, the dependency on the imported product is even higher primarily from US. It is concluded that Saudi has a poor image of the USA; on the other hand, they buy their product.

**Table 5.3: Hypothesis 3**

Hypothesis	Result
<i>Hypothesis 3a: Country image positively influences consumers' purchase intention in Saudi Arabia</i>	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 3b: Product image positively influences consumers' purchase intention in Saudi Arabia</i>	Supported

The fourth objective of this study is to study the effect of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and religiosity of Saudi consumer on the product image and country image of the United States. Hypothesis 4 is developed to examine the fourth objective. Table 5.4 below summarizes the findings of the hypothesis 4. The findings show that consumer ethnocentrism is positively influencing product image of the US. The results of this study are inconsistent with previous studies as ethnocentrism is found to be negatively influencing the image of the foreign

products locally. Findings from Bilkey and Nes, (1982); Huber and McCann, (1982); Han (1990); Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993); Barrett, (1998); Shimp and Sharma, (1987); Heslop et al., (2004, 2008); and Pappu et al., (2007). also found that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively influencing the image of the products from a particular country. The findings of the study are inconsistent with other studies that mean ethnocentric people they have a high product image even if that products are from a particular country where they harbor high ethnocentric feeling towards the same country, this is a new finding of the study, as product image was not affected negatively by consumer ethnocentrism.

Similarly, pertaining to the country image, this study also found consistent findings with previous studies where ethnocentrism negatively influences the image of the country. The findings of the country of origin effects have been discussed in the following literature (Lantz and Loeb, 1996; Lee and Ganesh, 1999; Stoltman et al., 1991; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Sharma et al., 1995, Rawwas et al., 1996; Watson and Wright, 2000; Khachaturian and Morganosky, 1990; Okechuku and Onyemah, 1999; Schaefer, 1995; Ahmed et al., 2013; Ahmed and d'Astus, 1996; Knight and Calantone, 2000; Wang and Lamb, 1983, Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998); Maheswaran, 1994; Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000; Han, 1989; Klein, 2002; Wall et al., 1991; Watson and Wright, 2000; Supphellen and Rittenburgh, 2001). Hence, this study confirms the significant role that the consumer ethnocentrism has a negative effect on the image of the country (USA).

Animosity is found to have a positive influence on the image of the products, as the findings of this study are inconsistent with past studies where animosity has negatively influenced the product image of the country. The results of this study differ from the past

findings. Hence the study was not able to verify this argument, therefore it is a new finding (Liefeld, 1993; Baughn and Yaprak, 1993; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2001; Johansson et al., 1985; Papadopoulos et al., 1988; Johansson, 1989; Han, 1989; Hong and Wyer, 1989; Nebenzahl et al., 1997; Knight and Calantone, 2000;. Liefeld, 1993; Papadopoulos, 1993; Papadopoulos et al., 1988).

Animosity negatively affects the image of the U.S. as the findings of this study is consistent with past studies where animosity has influence negatively the image of the country. Prior studies by the following scholars revealed that animosity has a negative influence on country image and this study confirms such findings (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Johansson et al. 1985; Erickson et al., 1984; Schooler, 1971; Wang and Lamb, 1983; Ettenson, 1993; Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Jung et al. 2002; Ang et al. 2004; Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2004; Hinck, 2004; Hinck et al., 2004; Ettenson and Klein, 2005; Klein et al., 1998; Shin, 2001; Amine et al., 2005; Shoham et al., 2006; Russell and Russell, 2006; Edwards et al. 2007; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Han, 1989;Johansson, 1989; Klein, 2002).

Religiosity negatively affects the product image based on these findings; this study confirms that religiosity has a significant negative impact on the product image, which is consistent with the latest study by Ahmed et al. (2013). This outcome of the latest findings showed that religiosity negatively influences product judgment, whereas religiosity negatively affects the country image of the U.S., as the findings of this study are new, with no past studies conducted.

**Table 5.4: Hypothesis 4**

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Result</b>
<i>Hypothesis 4a:</i> Consumer ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers negatively affects product image of the United States	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 4b:</i> Consumer ethnocentrism of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 4c:</i> Consumer animosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects product image of the United States	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 4d:</i> Consumer animosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States	Supported
<i>Proposition 4e:</i> Religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects product image of the United States	Supported
<i>Proposition 4f:</i> Religiosity of Saudi consumers negatively affects country image of the United States	Supported

The fifth objective is to assess the mediating effect of product image and country image on the relationship between religiosity, consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism, towards purchase intention. Table 5.5 below summarizes the findings of the hypothesis 5.

This study found that the religiosity outcomes where the product image shows a partial mediating effect of religiosity on purchase intention. Nonetheless, country image failed to show any mediating impact on religiosity and purchase intention. The results of product image

mediating the religiosity effect on purchase intention is a new result, there is no past studies have shown the effect of religiosity on purchase intention mediated by product image.

For animosity, the findings of this study indicate that the product image partially mediate the effect of animosity on purchase intention. This study is consistent with previous studies indicated that animosity mediates product judgment (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris, 1998; Baillargeon, 2003; Zajone, 1980; Berkowitz et al., 2000). However, this study found that country image shows no mediating effect on animosity and purchase intention this is considered new findings of the study

Ethnocentrism is similar to religiosity and animosity. This study found that product image shows a partial mediating effect of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intention. Nonetheless, country image failed to show any mediating effect on consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intention. The results of product image partially mediating the consumer ethnocentrism effect on purchase intention is new findings, there is no past studies have shown the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intention mediated by product image.

Finally, this study found that no mediation effect with country image while product image partially mediate the effect of religiosity, consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intention. There is no past studies have shown the mediating effect of product country and country image of religiosity, consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intention ;These results are not surprising because it is expected since the consumer are found to be ethnocentric, religious with a high level of animosity , the country image will not really have any influence while product image will have influence therefore it is

expected in a country like Saudi Arabia where the consumer belongs to close and collective society, Irrespective of feelings held towards the U.S. and no matter how low the perception held against the U.S, the choice to buy their products is unaltered, it is preferred.

**Table 5.5: Mediating effects of Product image and country image on Purchase intention**

Hypothesis	Result
<i>Proposition 5a:</i> Product image mediates the effect of religiosity on purchase intention	Supported
<i>Proposition 5b:</i> Country image mediates the effect of religiosity on purchase intention	Not Supported
<i>Proposition 5c:</i> Product image mediates the effect of consumer animosity on purchase intention	Supported
<i>Proposition 5d:</i> Country image mediates the effect of consumer animosity on purchase intention	Not Supported
<i>Proposition 5e:</i> Product image mediates the effect of ethnocentrism on purchase intention	Supported
<i>Proposition 5f:</i> Country image mediates the effect of ethnocentrism on purchase intention	Not Supported

### **5.3 Contributions of the study**

Theoretical and managerial in scope, this study has two major contributions to the international marketing and consumer behavior literature. A Theoretical contribution refers to an extension of knowledge that guides humans in understanding phenomena and the relationships between factors that impact these phenomena. Though the research done with the purpose of theoretical advancement is a worthwhile effort, the real world application of theory is needed just as much by managers in business. In other words, for managers to obtain competitive advantages, enhance efficiencies, add value and improve their business model, strategies and practices, a managerial contribution maybe of utmost assistance.

#### **5.3.1 Theoretical contribution**

This study used the Social Identity Theory (SIT) as its underpinning theory. This theory relates to a person's sense of whom they are and where they fit. It depicts that consumers perceive, build and develop their self-image and identity by a process of self-categorization, classifying themselves and others into "in-groups" and "out-groups", a phenomenon taking place ubiquitously around the world (Turner, 1987). In the context of this study, consumers through raised awareness of their identity may carry hostility against those with different religious, cultural or political stands. Nationalistic feelings may push local consumers towards favouring domestic brands over foreign ones. In addition, feelings of political animosity towards a country may call for boycotting products as a form of pressure. The ethnocentric demeanour of consumers can thus be viewed in light of the SIT, since consumers do not perceive themselves as

separate, but rather as members of a distinct group. To this end, this study, through explaining variables by pinning them to the SIT theory, will call to further root this research in a theoretical foundation, understanding and analysis.

The findings of this study validate the process of consumer buying behavior, a process, which is known to be influenced by socio-psychological factors such as ethnocentrism, animosity and religiosity. However, not all findings from this study are consistent with earlier studies that showed a variety of existing impacts of variables in other parts of the world. Thus, it is in this study's inconsistency where the challenge to existing theories lies. This study adds to the existing literature a factor that has not been widely explored in consumer behavior theories, religiosity, a factor shown to be closely connected to consumer ethnocentrism and animosity. This study challenges the current theories in consumer behavior literature by asserting that, despite the influence of religiosity on consumer ethnocentrism, animosity and country image and product image, religiosity seem to have an influence on purchase intention and a product image mediating effect was found in the consumer purchase intention.

As a result, the findings of this study give considerable support in viewing religion as an important construct in the study of consumer behavior. Religious psychology was investigated as a field that influences many areas in marketing. Areas such as the attitude, belief and underlying values that guide behavior in the purchase of consumer goods are an important source of information.

Already available in most studies on consumer behavior is the premise that purchase intention is highly influenced by consumer ethnocentrism, animosity, religiosity, product image and country image. This study confirmed that purchase intention is not influenced by consumer ethnocentrism, animosity, religiosity, and country image. Purchase intention is only influenced by product image, and this study offers an alternative view of how religion influences consumers and buyers in the marketplace. Little research exists in providing empirical evidence depicting the influence of religion on the way people make purchases. Consequently, there have been insufficient explanations for the role of religion in purchasing conditions. This research therefore has contributed to the understanding of religion's influence on purchase intention. It has also provided empirical evidence about the nature of that influence on the consumer purchase behavior. The effort exhibited could be of assistance to marketers and future researchers in researching the influence of religion in the marketplace. To this end, and by the proposed theoretical model displayed in Figures 2.1 in Chapter two, the study has contributed theoretically to the current literature. This contribution maybe summarized as follows:

1. Develops and tests a comprehensive model of the negative attitudes among local consumers (Saudi) towards products from a foreign country (USA).
2. Integration of PCI in this model is one of the contributions of this study.
3. The study includes the religiosity construct as a predictor or antecedent of consumer animosity, consumer ethnocentrism.
4. This study confirms that there is no influence of religiosity, animosity, and ethnocentrism on purchase intention.
5. This study confirms that religiosity is a construct that affects animosity and ethnocentrism.
6. This study confirms that product image is a construct that influence purchase intention.

7. This study confirms the relationship between animosity, ethnocentrism and country image and surprisingly a non-relation status on the product image.
8. This study found that religiosity, influence country image and product image.
9. This study found that product image is a mediator in the relationship between the religiosity, animosity, and ethnocentrism on purchase intention.
10. The study provides new insights on the mediating effects by the country and product image on religiosity, consumer animosity, and consumer animosity.
11. Another significant theoretical contribution of this study involves the source of animosity used in this study, which is not based on the direct dispute between two countries, but the indirect effect of animosity.

Finally, the study contributes to the growing body of literature related to cross-cultural comparisons of country-of-origin influence. By utilizing Saudi Arabia as a developing country and as a setting for research, the present study contributes to the generalization of the existing body of research, which is mostly carried out in industrialized countries.

### **5.3.2 Managerial contribution**

Discovering the value in understanding religion and its influence on human behavior makes it worthwhile for marketers to delve into this sea of knowledge. The functional significance of this study is the revelation that religious affiliation and religiosity seem to have as predictors of consumer behavior. An increased understanding of religious influences on purchase intentions of consumer behavior can be beneficial in many ways. First, it is valuable knowledge used to predict future behavior. Second, it is a useful tool in the formation and implementation of marketing strategies and tactics. Following a strategic line of thought, religion can be seen as an antecedent of consumer purchase intention. In this way, marketing plans can be reconstructed

and redesigned to resemble and reveal the characteristics of consumer behavior in different religious groups.

A consumers' cognitive association with a country and its products tends to influence the overall evaluation of the produce; this enables marketers to manipulate the amount of country image information when advertising, promoting or educating consumers about new product offerings. Marketers can deliberately emphasize the country image information on the country of origin where the consumers in that market will perceive it as favorable. The country of origin information can also be de-emphasized to avert consumer's attention from an unattractive country of origin towards more attractive product attributes.

The findings of this study also suggest that the effects of consumer ethnocentrism and animosity upon product purchase intention occur independently of product judgments. Hence, managers should consider these variables in developing their action marketing strategies and should not merely rely on conventional tools such as sales promotion, advertising and pricing to attract highly ethnocentric consumers or those with high levels of animosity towards a country. Lowering the price or providing heavy sales promotion will not deter a consumer from avoiding the product based on animosity towards the foreign country of origin or high level of ethnocentrism.

To this end, it is of utmost relevance for managerial and marketing roles to acknowledge, embrace and build on the findings of this study.

#### **5.4 Limitations of the Study**

While every effort was made to ensure that the conceptual and methodological aspects of this study were precise as possible, as with any empirical study, the present work also had certain constraints that need to be taken into account when assessing the outcomes of its findings and implications. Hence, this study has been conducted, not without several restrictions.

Firstly, the constructs that were used in this study on religiosity and consumer ethnocentrism were not the most updated one. The latest version of the revising constructs in the literature was only known to the researcher after the data has been collected. Therefore, the constructs used covers certain items that may not be the most updated one in the marketing discipline, specifically consumer behavior literature.

Secondly, it is also important to recognize the limitation associated with generalizing the findings beyond the sample utilized and its geographical scope. The sample for this study was limited to the seven cities in the whole kingdom of Saudi Arabia in which three cities share similar value and openness to the world more than the rest of the kingdom this is obviously due to the increasing number of tourist and pilgrims visit those cities, and the distribution of the sample of the select demographic characteristics does not necessarily follow the characteristics of the general population of Saudi Arabia. Furthermore, the data collected in Saudi Arabia were also limited to certain places such as universities, shopping malls and few other public places rather than collecting in all cities throughout the kingdom of Saudi Arabia due to the regulatory and cultural constraints. Therefore, the results of the study may be subject to certain bias and generalization of the findings has to be carried out cautiously. It is possible that the behavior

patterns of consumers in other economic-social-political environments could well differ from those uncovered in this study. Thus, there is a limitation to generalizing the findings of this research to the Saudi population as a whole and to other less or more developed countries.

Thirdly, data collected in this study are a cross section data, which did not enable the researcher to completely understand the socio-psychological behavior of the Saudi consumers. Since the current study is a cross-sectional nature and since no experimental research was conducted, no definite conclusions can be drawn concerning the causality of the relationships in the results. Thus, in considering the findings, one should recognize the exploratory nature of this study in that it attempts to discover associations between religion and some aspects of consumer behavior. It is also correlated or associative and not causal in nature and is intended to build upon the existing work in this field. Against this background, the identified relationships should be interpreted as possible, relationships or preliminary evidence rather than as a conclusive demonstration that such causal relationships exist. Cross-sectional data analysis cannot validate the way of causality inferred in the study; thus, it is necessary to be careful in conclusions concerning causality. In addition, any survey-based method, including that adopted in this study, involves measurement error.

## **5.5 Future Research**

There are many other related issues pertaining to socio-psychological factors in consumer behavior could be further explored. Advance studies are warranted to validate the conclusions drawn from the present findings. It is suggested that future research endeavors should investigate the differences in the purchase intention of different religion in international settings. There is a

need for future research, which shall examine the effect of product country image (PCI) on purchase intention while considering religiosity as moderating or mediating variable this research could be in any Muslim country. In addition, future research should consider some new construct as national identity to be examined along with animosity, future research should probably examine other aspects of purchase intention that were not examined in the present study. For example, a study examining how religiosity affects purchase intention and buying attitude would offer potential implications for marketing strategists. Further research would add a new dimension to work that has already been reported and synthesized, thereby giving marketers a richer understanding of the behavior of religious consumers.

The very personal nature of religious behaviors or beliefs makes it somewhat unrealistic to rely solely on quantitative data. For this reason, qualitative research method such as depth interview is recommended as a powerful tool for discovering consumers' religious values, ideas and motivation in more depth. Data collection methods in qualitative research permit a detailed description and analysis and is appropriate when the researcher is attempting to discover what lies behind a phenomenon about which little is known. Since little attention has been paid in the literature on the relationship between religion and consumer behavior, qualitative research is particularly appropriate as a precursor to or to complement the quantitative research. By applications of methodological triangulation in future research, it is expected that the disadvantages of pure quantitative or pure qualitative methods of research may be minimized. In this way, the highly complex nature of the religious influences on consumer behavior is maintained, and data are not lost. This, in turn, would add both breadth and depth to our understanding of consumer behavior.

This research can also be replicated while taking into consideration cross-cultural theory (e.g., collectivist vs. individualist cultures). The question that arises is whether the feeling of animosity depends on the culture to which the consumer belongs. It would be interesting to examine whether there are differences between individualistic and collectivist cultures with regards to animosity. Future studies should examine whether animosity depends on the brand being sold. Perhaps some brands are more subject to animosity than others, because they represent an enemy country.

Future studies should also examine whether the effect of animosity fades over time. This research analyzed the effects of animosity using purchase intention as the ultimate dependent measure. Future research might consider a broader range of dependent variables, including actual brand purchase behavior, brand choice, word-of-mouth recommendation, ownership and usage patterns, and product disposal.

## **5.6 Conclusion**

When marketers want to enter different countries in this ever more connected world, assuming that the closer technology brings them together, the more similar they become, is a fallacy. Quite the opposite, consumer behavior is as distinct and unique as the culture and society it stems from. Many factors that influence and shape buyers thinking, perceptions, intentions, attitudes, and buying decisions and behaviors are at play in local cultures. Cultural factors couched within religious, historical, familial, linguistic and educational roots are what structure the beliefs and values that guide behavior for people in society. Local culture has the power on its own in giving answers as to how, what, when, and why consumers behave as they do. In

delving into such learning and analysis, marketers are able to achieve holistic understanding that can help in formulating efficient strategies; these include effective market segmentation, branding, and image of the product, in addition to gaining a competitive advantage in identifying and catering distinctly to the needs and wants of local consumers.

This study identified and reviewed pertinent factors at play in the Saudi Arabian culture, which influence a consumer's intention of buying U.S. products. Being a Muslim country that holds conflicting feelings with the United States, choosing Saudi Arabia was intentional in helping to understand varied perceptions of people. For this reason, Saudi consumers are an interesting case and give useful information for future marketers.

In brief, the variables of ethnocentrism, animosity and religiosity, all of which are strongly correlated to one another and product image and country image, became part of the equation. Product image, which posed as a mediator to all these variables, has a direct influence on the feelings and minds of consumers. However, what is remarkable is the fact that although Saudi animosity, religiosity, and ethnocentrism have shaped the way they perceive the United States as a country, they still preferred U.S. products. This points to an important synthesis that it is not necessary to reject products from countries perceived with rejection. Secondly, a strong product image is independent of factors that influence thought and behavior. The fact that Saudis still have a positive product image means that other factors such as convenience, familiarity, levels of economic development and product type are at play. Therefore, in conclusion, although consumer ethnocentrism and animosity did not lead to a decline in consumer intentions to buy a foreign product, and although religiosity which affects animosity and ethnocentrism also did not lead to such behaviors, the fact that Saudis were able to separate between the images of country

and product enabled them to still prefer, at least in the realm of this study, U.S. products to other substitute products.

Finally, managers will gain a competitive advantage by recognizing, understanding and catering to local cultures as distinct cases. In the end, the psychology of human perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors is the steering wheel behind a successful marketing ride.

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## APPENDIXES

### APPENDICES

- Appendix 1 Questionnaire before Pretesting
- Appendix 2 Questionnaire after Pretesting
- Appendix 3 Questionnaire Arabic Version
- Appendix 4 CFA Model Fit Summary
- Appendix 5 CFA Final Model Fit Summary
- Appendix 6 Skewness and Kurtosis
- Appendix 7 SEM Model Fit Summary
- Appendix 8 Regression analysis

**Appendix 1 Questionnaire before Pretesting**

***Questionnaire:***



**Research Title**

**The Impact of Religiosity, Animosity, and Ethnocentrism on  
American product purchase intention:  
Product and country image as a mediator**

**Prepared by:**

**Mahmoud odeh**

**Supervisor:**

**Dr. Md Nor Othman**

**FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND ACCOUNTANCY**

**UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA**

**KUALA LUMPUR**

**MALAYSIA**

**2009**

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You are one of the few selected respondents how are being asked to give their valuable opinion based on the quota sampling of the Kingdome about products made in the USA. To ensure proper representation of the area it is important that each questionnaire to be completed and returned we also request you kindly please answer all the questions.

All questions need to be answered because incomplete questionnaire cannot be included in the analysis. For each of the questions, please indicate the number that best describes your perception. Please note that there are no right and wrong answers. Thank you for your time and effort.

Thank you very much for your contributions in the completion of the study.

Mahmoud odeh

Number of Respondent: ( )

**1. The following statements view your perceptions of USA as a country. There is no right or wrong answers and all we are interested is in knowing your opinions:**

		Strongly Disagree ..... Strongly Agree						
A	I feel angry towards the USA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	I will never forgive US for war atrocities committed by its armed forces across Iraq.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	US are not a reliable trading partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	US want to gain economic power across the Arab world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	US are taking advantage of Arab countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F	US wield too much economic influence across the Arab world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
G	The US is doing business unfairly with Arab countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
H	USA should vacate the occupied Iraq and pay for what it did to Iraqi people during the occupation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**2. The following statements view your feelings towards products made in Saudi Arabia**

		Strongly Disagree ..... Strongly Agree						
A	Saudi's should always buy Saudi's -made products instead of imports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	Only those products that are unavailable in the Saudi Arabia should be imported	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Buy Saudi's -made products. Keep Saudi's working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Saudi products, first, last and foremost.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

E	Purchasing foreign-made products is un- Saudi's	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F	It is not right to purchase foreign products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
G	A real Saudi's should always buy Saudi's -made products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
H	We should purchase products manufactured in Saudi instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I	It is always best to purchase Saudi products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
J	There should be very little trading or purchasing of products from other countries unless out of necessity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
K	Saudi should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Saudi's business and causes unemployment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
L	Curbs should be put on all imports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
M	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
N	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into the Saudi Arabia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
O	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
P	Saudi consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Saudi out of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q	It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Saudi products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**3. The following statements capture the extent to which you consider yourself to be of a religious orientation.**

1	How often do you attend Islamic religious services?  (1) never                      (2) Occasionally                      (3) About once a Month                      (4) Usually once a week                      (5) More than once a week
2	Are you an official member of Islamic religious organization?  (1) Yes                      (2) No
3	Besides regular service, how often do you participate in other activities at your place of worship?  (1) never                      (2) Occasionally                      (3) About once a Month                      (4) Usually once a week                      (5) More than once a week
4	How often do you read religious books or other religious materials? (1) never                      (2) Occasionally                      (3) About once a Month                      (4) Usually once a week                      (5) More than once a week
5	How often do you watch / listen to Islamic religious programs on TV / radio? (1) never                      (2) Occasionally or on holiday                      (3) About once a week                      (4) Usually once a week                      (5) More than once month
6	How often do you ask someone to pray for you?  (1) never                      (2) Occasionally                      (3) About once a Month                      (4) Usually once a week                      (5) More than once a week
7	How often do you pray?  (1) never                      (2) Occasionally                      (3) About once a week                      (4) Usually once a day                      (5) five times a day
8	How religious would you say you are?  (1) Not at all religious                      (2) Somewhat religious                      (3) Moderately religious                      (4) Very religious                      (5) Extremely religious
9	How important was religion to you in your home when you were growing up?  (1) Not at all important                      (2) Somewhat important                      (3) Moderately important                      (4) Very important                      (5) Extremely important
10	How important is it for parents to send or take their children to Islamic religious services?

	(1) Not at all important	(2) Somewhat important	(3) Moderately important	(4) Very important	(5) Extremely important
11	Do you hold any position in your place of your worship				
	(1) Yes		(2) No		
12	How many clubs or organization do you belong to, or participate in				
	(1) Not at all important	(2) Somewhat important	(3) Moderately important	(4) Very important	(5) Extremely important

**4. The following questions assess your intentions to purchase Products Made in the USA in the future:**

		Strongly Disagree ..... Strongly Agree						
A	I would feel guilty if I would buy a product made in the USA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B	I would never buy a product made in the USA.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Whenever possible, I avoid buying products made in the USA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Whenever available, I would prefer to buy products made in USA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	I do not like the idea of owning products made in the USA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F	If two products were equal in quality, but one was from USA and one was from Saudi Arabia, I would pay 10% more for the product from Saudi Arabia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**5. How would you describe USA and its people (Americans)?**

Likeability of people	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Industriousness	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Education level	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Wealth	Poor: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: Rich
Friendliness	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Trustworthiness	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Work ethics	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Political stability	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Technology level	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Stability of economy	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Quality of life	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Role in world politics	Poor: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: Good
Individual rights and freedoms	Few: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: Many
Alignment with U.S.A	Weak: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: Strong
Political and economic ties with U.S.A	Less: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: More
Investments from U.S.A.	Less: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: More
Your knowledge of the U.S.A.	Low: ____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High

**6. How would you describe products made in the USA?**

Quality	Low :____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Value	Low :____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Workmanship	Low :____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Defects in merchandise	Low :____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High
Attractiveness	Low :____:____:____:____:____:____:____: High

Innovativeness	Low :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : High
Variety	Low :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : High
Brand names	Unknown :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : Well known
Price	Low :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : High
Durability	Low :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : High
Technology level	Low :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : High
Reliability	Low :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : High
Your knowledge of American products	Low :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : High
Overall satisfaction	Low :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : High
Ease of finding	Difficult :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : Easy
Willing to buy	Never :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : Always
Proud to own	Never :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : Always
After sales service	Poor :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ :__ : Good

### ***Your Profile: Demographics***

**7. Your gender:**

- a). Male
- b). Female

**8. Your Age:**

- a). 18-24
- b). 25-34
- c). 35-44
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- e). 55-64
- f). Over 55

**9. Your Marital Status:**

- a). Single
- b). Married

c). Divorced

**10. Your educational level:**

a). Primary

b). Secondary

c). High School

d). University

e). others (Please specify).

**11. Your Occupation:**

a). Student

b). Businessman

c). Education/medical services

d). Professional

e). Manager/admin executive

f). Retired

g). Investor

h). Government Worker

i). others (please specify).

**12. Which of the following describes your Monthly Income?**

a). Under 2000 SR

b). 2001-5000

c). 5001-10,000

d). 10,001-20,000

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**THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP**

**Appendix 2 Questionnaire after Pretesting**

***Questionnaire:***



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B	Buy Saudi's -made products. Keep Saudi's working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C	Saudi products, first, last and foremost.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D	Purchasing foreign-made products is un- Saudi's	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E	It is not right to purchase foreign products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F	A real Saudi's should always buy Saudi's -made	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	products.							
G	We should purchase products manufactured in Saudi instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
H	There should be very little trading or purchasing of products from other countries unless out of necessity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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4	How often do you read religious books ?

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	never	Occasionally	About once a Month	Usually once a week	More than once a week
5	How often do you watch / listen to Islamic religious programs on TV / radio?				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Never	Occasionally or on holiday	About once a week	Usually once a week	More than once month
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	never	Occasionally	About once a week	Usually once a day	five times a day
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	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Not at all Religious	Somewhat religious	Moderately religious	Very religious	Extremely religious
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	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
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10	How important is it for parents to send or take their children to Islamic religious services?				
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- Education level                                Low: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High
- Wealth    Poor: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: Rich
- Friendliness                                    Low: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High
- Trustworthiness                                Low: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High
- Work ethics                                      Low: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High
- Political stability                                Low: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High
- Technology level                                Low: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High
- Stability of economy                            Low: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Quality of life Low: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Role in world politics Poor: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: Good

Individual rights and freedoms Few: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: Many

Alignment with U.S.A Weak: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: Strong

Political and economic ties  
with U.S.A Less: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: More

Investments from U.S.A. Less: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: More

Your knowledge of the U.S.A. Low: \_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

**6. How would you describe products made in the USA?**

Quality Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Value Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Workmanship Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Defects in merchandise Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Attractiveness Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Innovativeness Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Variety Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Brand names Unknown :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: Well known

Price Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Durability Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Technology level Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Reliability Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Your knowledge of American products Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Overall satisfaction Low :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: High

Ease of finding Difficult :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: Easy

Willing to buy Never :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: Always

Proud to own Never :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: Always

After sales service Poor :\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_:\_\_\_\_: Good

## ***Your Profile: Demographics***

### ***7. Your gender:***

- a). Male
- b). Female

### ***8. Your Age:***

- a). 18-24
- b). 25-34
- c). 35-44
- d). 45-54
- e). 55-64
- f). Over 55

### ***9. Your Marital Status:***

- a). Single
- b). Married
- c). Divorced

### ***10. Your educational level:***

- a). Primary
- b). Secondary
- c). High School
- d). University
- e). others (Please specify).

**11. Your Occupation:**

- a). Student
- b). Businessman
- c). Education/medical services
- d). Professional
- e). Manager/admin executive
- f). Retired
- g). Investor
- h). Government Worker
- i). others (please specify).

**12. Which of the following describes your Monthly Income?**

- a). Under 2000 SR
- b). 2001-5000
- c). 5001-10,000
- d). 10,001-20,000
- e). Above 20,001

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP**

Appendix 3 Questionnaire Arabic Version

استبيان



عنوان البحث

تأثير التدين والعداوه والعنصريه على الرغبه في شراء المنتجات الامريكيه :  
نضره البلد و المنتج كعنصر دخيل

اعداد

محمود عوده

اشراف

البرفسور الدكتور محمد نور عثمان

كلية الاداره و المحاسيه

جامعة مالايا

كوالا لمبور ، ماليزيا

2009

عزيزي المشارك المحترم

بعد التحية هذه الدراسة هي دراسة للمستهلكين السعوديين ، تجاه المنتجات المصنوعة في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية, الغرض من هذه الدراسة هو أن نفهم وجهات نظر المستهلكين السعوديين حول المنتجات المصنوعة في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية .  
انت واحدا من عدد قليل من المشاركين الذين تم اختيارهم الرجاء منك إبداء الرأي على أساس أخذ العينات من المملكة حول المنتجات المصنوعة في الولايات المتحدة لضمان التمثيل الصحيح للمنطقة  
أطلب منكم التفضل أن تستكمل كل الاستبيان الرجاء الإجابة على جميع الأسئلة على جميع الأسئلة لأن الاستبيان الناقص لا يمكن ان تستعمل في التحليل , لكل من الأسئلة ، يرجى الإشارة إلى الرقم الذي يصف أفضل تصور لديكم

يرجى ملاحظة أنه لا توجد إجابات صحيحة و خاطئ

شكرا جزيلاً لمساهماتكم في الانتهاء من الدراسة

1. الرجاء الاجابه على العبارات التالية, ليست هناك إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة ونحن مهتمون في معرفة آرائك

		اوفق بشده ..... لا اوفق بشده						
ا	اشعر بغضب اتجاه الولايات المتحدة الامريكه	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ب	لن اسامح أبدا الولايات الأميركية للفضاء على الحربالت يارتكبتها قواتها المسلحة في جميع أنحاء العالم							
ت	الولايات المتحدة شريك غير موثوق به	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ث	الولايات المتحدة تريد الوصول إلى السلطة الاقتصادية في العالم العربي	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ج	الولايات المتحدة تريد الاستفادة من الدول العربية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ح	الولايات المتحدة تملك النفوذ الاقتصادي الكبير في جميع أنحاء العالم العربي	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
خ	الولايات المتحدة تمارس الأعمال التجارية مع الدول العربية بشكل غير عادل	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
د	يجب على الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية إخلاء العراق المحتل ودفع ثمن ما فعلت لشعب العراقي خلال فترة الاحتلال	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. العبارات التالية عرض لارائك تجاه المنتجات المصنوعة في المملكة العربية السعودية

		اوفق بشده ..... لا اوفق بشده						
ا	على السعوديين أن يشترو دائما من ما صنع في السعودية بدلا من المنتجات المستورده	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ب	شراءالمنتجات السعودية من اجل استمرارالسعوديين في العمل	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ت	المنتجات السعودية،أولا، وقبل كل شيء	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ث	شراء المنتجات المصنوعة من الامم المتحدة يعتبر غير سعودي	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ج	ليس من الصحيح شراء المنتجات الأجنبية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ح	. المواطن السعودي الحقيقي يجب أن يشتري دائما ماصنع في السعودية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

خ	ينبغي لنا شراء المنتجات المصنعة في السعودية بدل السماح للبلدان الأخرى بالتجارة على حسابنا	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
د	ينبغي أن يكون هناك القليل جدا من التداول أو شراء المنتجات من بلدان أخرى ما لم تكن ضروري	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ر	يجب على السعوديين ان لا يشترو المنتجات الأجنبية ،لأن هذا يضر الأعمال السعوديه ويسبب البطالة	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ز	ينبغي أن تشتري من دول أجنبية فقط تلك المنتجات التي لا يمكن الحصول عليه اداخل بلدنا	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
س	المستهلكين السعوديين الذين يشترون المنتجات المصنوعة في بلدان أخرى هم المسؤولون عن وضع زملائهم السعوديين بدون العمل	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ش	قد تكلفني على المدى الطويل ولكن أنا أفضل أن ا دعم المنتجات السعودية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

### 3. الى اي مدى تعتبر نفسك متدين ؟

1	غالباً كم مره تحضر من اجل الشعائر الدينية الإسلامية؟ (1) ابدا (2) احيانا (3) تقريبا مره في الشهر (4) مره في الشهر (5) اكثر من مره في الشهر
2	هل انت عضو رسمي في اي منضمه اسلاميه (1) نعم (2) لا
3	إلى جانب اداء العباده ،غالب اكيف اكنت تشارك في الأنشطة الأخرى في مكان العباده؟ (1) ابدا (2) احيانا (3) تقريبا مره في الشهر (4) مره في الشهر (5) اكثر من مره في الشهر
4	غالباً هل كنت تقرأ الكتب الدينية؟ (1) ابدا (2) احيانا (3) تقريبا مره في الشهر (4) مره في الشهر (5) اكثر من مره في الشهر
5	غالباً هل تشاهد / الاستماع إلى البرامج الدينية الإسلامية على شاشة التلفزيون / الراديو؟ (1) ابدا (2) احيانا (3) تقريبا مره في الشهر (4) مره في الشهر (5) اكثر من مره في الشهر

6	كم غالبا ما كنت تطلب من شخص الدعاء لك؟				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	ابدا	احيانا	مره في الاسبوع	مره في اليوم تقريبا	خمس مرات في اليوم
7	كم مره تصلي غالبا				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	ابدا	احيانا	مره في الاسبوع	مره في اليوم تقريبا	خمس مرات في اليوم
8	نسبه التدخين عندك				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	غير متدين	تقريبا متدين	معتدل	متدين	متدين بشده
9	مدى اهمية الدين بالنسبة لك فيمنز لك عندما كنت صغير؟				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	غير متدين	تقريبا متدين	معتدل	متدين	متدين بشده
10	ما مدى أهمية ذلك بالنسبة للأباء لإرسال أو أخذ أطفالهم إلى الخدمات الدينية الإسلامية؟				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	غير متدين	تقريبا متدين	معتدل	متدين	متدين بشده

الأسئلة التالية تقيم نوايا الشراء للمنتجات المصنوعة في الولايات المتحدة في المستقبل.4.

		اوافق بشده ..... لا اوافق بشده						
ا	سوف اشعر بالذنب إذا اشتريت المنتجات المصنوعة في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ب	أنا لن اقوم بشراء المنتجات المصنوعة في الولايات المتحدة	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ت	كلما أمكن ذلك ، اتجنب شراء المنتجات المصنوعة في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ج	إذا توافر أفضل شراء المنتجات المصنوعة في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية		2	3	4	5	6	7
ح	أنا لأحب فكرة امتلاك المنتجات المصنوعة في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7





ج). 55-64

ح). Over 55

### 9. الحالة الاجتماعية

متزوج غير (ا).

متزوج (ب).

مطلق (ت).

### 10. مستوى التعليم

الابتدائي (ا).

ثانوي (ب).

الثانوية (ت).

جامعة (ث).

اخرى (يرجى التحديد). (ج)

### 11. المهنة:

طالب (ا).

رجل اعمال (ب).

خدمات طبية/تعليم (ت).

مهني (ث).

مشرف / مدير (ج).

متقاعد (ح).

مستثمر (خ).

موظف حكومه (د).

(حدد) أخرى (ر).

## 12. الدخل

- ا). 2000 SR تحت
- ب). 2001-5000
- ت). 5001-10,000
- ث). 10,001-20,000
- ج). 20,001 فوق

شاكرين لكم حسن تعاونكم

## Appendix 4 CFA Model Fit Summary

### Model Fit Summary

#### CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	149	3557.579	2129	.000	1.671
Saturated model	2278	.000	0		
Independence model	67	39661.213	2211	.000	17.938

#### RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.067	.825	.813	.771
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.945	.075	.047	.073

#### Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.910	.907	.962	.960	.962
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

#### Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.963	.877	.926
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

#### NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	1428.579	1268.191	1596.792
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	37450.213	36807.463	38099.363

#### FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	6.725	2.701	2.397	3.019

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	74.974	70.794	69.579	72.021

**RMSEA**

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.036	.034	.038	1.000
Independence model	.179	.177	.180	.000

**AIC**

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	3855.579	3899.535	4492.237	4641.237
Saturated model	4556.000	5228.035	14289.614	16567.614
Independence model	39795.213	39814.978	40081.495	40148.495

**ECVI**

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	7.288	6.985	7.606	7.372
Saturated model	8.612	8.612	8.612	9.883
Independence model	75.227	74.012	76.454	75.265

**HOELTER**

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	333	340
Independence model	31	32

## Appendix 5 CFA Final Model Fit Summary

### Model Fit Summary

#### CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	159	2335.161	1671	.000	1.397
Saturated model	1830	.000	0		
Independence model	60	34140.826	1770	.000	19.289

#### RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.061	.873	.861	.797
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.934	.083	.051	.080

#### Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.932	.928	.980	.978	.979
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

#### Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.944	.879	.925
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

#### NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	664.161	540.747	795.591
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	32370.826	31774.110	32973.934

#### FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	4.414	1.256	1.022	1.504

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	64.538	61.192	60.064	62.333

**RMSEA**

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.027	.025	.030	1.000
Independence model	.186	.184	.188	.000

**AIC**

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	2653.161	2694.610	3332.549	3491.549
Saturated model	3660.000	4137.051	11479.365	13309.365
Independence model	34260.826	34276.467	34517.199	34577.199

**ECVI**

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	5.015	4.782	5.264	5.094
Saturated model	6.919	6.919	6.919	7.821
Independence model	64.765	63.637	65.905	64.795

**HOELTER**

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	401	410
Independence model	29	30

## Appendix 6 Skewness and Kurtosis

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
q12_18	1.000	7.000	-.005	-.044	-.824	-3.872
q12_17	1.000	7.000	.021	.200	-.818	-3.844
q12_16	1.000	7.000	-.040	-.378	-.820	-3.854
q12_15	1.000	7.000	-.015	-.143	-.652	-3.063
q12_14	1.000	7.000	-.017	-.161	-.674	-3.169
q11_16	1.000	7.000	.399	3.746	-.660	-3.102
q11_15	1.000	7.000	.697	6.549	-.339	-1.595
q11_13	1.000	7.000	.608	5.712	-.290	-1.364
q9_10	1.000	5.000	-.256	-2.406	-.996	-4.681
q9_8	1.000	5.000	-.425	-3.995	-.478	-2.244
q8_1	1.000	7.000	-.407	-3.822	-.653	-3.067
q7_h	1.000	7.000	-.362	-3.399	-.536	-2.520
q8_k	1.000	7.000	-.341	-3.206	-.617	-2.902
q8_j	1.000	7.000	-.498	-4.677	-.217	-1.021
q8_h	1.000	7.000	-.500	-4.696	-.311	-1.461
q8_g	1.000	7.000	-.290	-2.723	-.280	-1.314
q8_f	1.000	7.000	-.374	-3.517	-.486	-2.285
q8_e	1.000	7.000	-.395	-3.712	-.383	-1.800
q8_d	1.000	7.000	-.341	-3.201	-.433	-2.036
q8_c	1.000	7.000	-.382	-3.595	-.469	-2.206
q8_b	1.000	7.000	-.392	-3.683	-.408	-1.919
q7_b	1.000	7.000	-.317	-2.976	-.863	-4.057
q7_c	1.000	7.000	-.411	-3.867	-.502	-2.360
q7_d	1.000	7.000	-.318	-2.988	-.553	-2.597
q7_e	1.000	7.000	-.243	-2.287	-.536	-2.519
q7_f	1.000	7.000	-.373	-3.509	-.547	-2.571
q7_g	1.000	7.000	-.344	-3.230	-.426	-2.000
q12_1	1.000	7.000	-.130	-1.221	-.711	-3.339
q9_1	1.000	5.000	-.320	-3.005	-.654	-3.072
q9_3	1.000	5.000	-.210	-1.978	-.761	-3.578
q9_4	1.000	5.000	-.320	-3.004	-.658	-3.093
q9_5	1.000	5.000	-.262	-2.460	-.572	-2.690
q9_6	1.000	5.000	-.399	-3.748	-.696	-3.272
q12_13	1.000	7.000	-.004	-.041	-.799	-3.756

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
q12_12	1.000	7.000	-.056	-.530	-.516	-2.423
q12_11	1.000	7.000	-.098	-.924	-.603	-2.832
q12_10	1.000	7.000	-.097	-.915	-.756	-3.554
q12_9	1.000	7.000	-.063	-.596	-.636	-2.990
q12_8	1.000	7.000	-.031	-.290	-.792	-3.724
q12_7	1.000	7.000	.013	.124	-.651	-3.059
q12_6	1.000	7.000	-.065	-.613	-.635	-2.982
q12_5	1.000	7.000	-.050	-.472	-.777	-3.652
q12_4	1.000	7.000	-.033	-.310	-.693	-3.259
q12_3	1.000	7.000	-.058	-.543	-.604	-2.840
q12_2	1.000	7.000	-.061	-.569	-.852	-4.003
q11_2	1.000	7.000	.642	6.037	-.436	-2.050
q11_3	1.000	7.000	.681	6.403	-.240	-1.126
q11_4	1.000	7.000	.611	5.746	-.469	-2.202
q11_8	1.000	7.000	.644	6.048	-.284	-1.336
q11_9	1.000	7.000	.610	5.737	-.389	-1.827
q11_10	1.000	7.000	.614	5.768	-.344	-1.614
q11_11	1.000	7.000	.778	7.312	-.021	-.098
q11_12	1.000	7.000	.604	5.676	-.447	-2.101
q10_f	1.000	7.000	-.436	-4.098	-.535	-2.515
q10_e	1.000	7.000	-.437	-4.105	-.532	-2.498
q10_c	1.000	7.000	-.316	-2.974	-.617	-2.900
q10_b	1.000	7.000	-.356	-3.342	-.508	-2.389
Multivariate					101.744	14.280

## Appendix 7 SEM Model Fit Summary

### Model Fit Summary

#### CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	133	2967.337	1697	.000	1.749
Saturated model	1830	.000	0		
Independence model	60	34140.826	1770	.000	19.289

#### RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.159	.841	.828	.779
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.934	.083	.051	.080

#### Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.913	.909	.961	.959	.961
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

#### Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.959	.875	.921
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

#### NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	1270.337	1122.775	1425.707
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	32370.826	31774.110	32973.934

#### FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	5.609	2.401	2.122	2.695

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	64.538	61.192	60.064	62.333

**RMSEA**

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.038	.035	.040	1.000
Independence model	.186	.184	.188	.000

**AIC**

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	3233.337	3268.007	3801.629	3934.629
Saturated model	3660.000	4137.051	11479.365	13309.365
Independence model	34260.826	34276.467	34517.199	34577.199

**ECVI**

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	6.112	5.833	6.406	6.178
Saturated model	6.919	6.919	6.919	7.821
Independence model	64.765	63.637	65.905	64.795

**HOELTER**

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	320	328
Independence model	29	30

## Appendix 8 Regression analysis

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Animosity	<---	religiosity	.908	.057	15.948	***	
ethno	<---	religiosity	.914	.057	15.946	***	
product_image	<---	ethno	-.118	.065	-1.837	.066	
product_image	<---	religiosity	-.281	.111	-2.524	.012	
product_image	<---	Animosity	.229	.070	3.260	.001	
country_image	<---	ethno	-.206	.050	-4.111	***	
country_image	<---	Animosity	-.133	.054	-2.476	.013	
country_image	<---	religiosity	-.467	.087	-5.371	***	
purchase_intention	<---	product_image	-.070	.028	-2.527	.012	
purchase_intention	<---	country_image	<u>.062</u>	.037	1.677	.094	
purchase_intention	<---	ethno	.230	.041	5.631	***	
purchase_intention	<---	religiosity	.911	.077	11.781	***	
purchase_intention	<---	Animosity	.336	.045	7.476	***	