



The purchasing behaviour of people from different cultural backgrounds in a multicultural nation

By

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ABSTRACT

According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2022), over half the Australian population (51.5%) now includes 1st and 2nd-generation ethnic consumers. Hence, new research is needed to understand the needs and behaviours of this large group of ethnic consumers. In particular, understanding the ethnic consumers' identity after moving to a new country and how this may influence their buying behaviour has become a priority for many stakeholders, including marketers, and forms the focus of this thesis.

Over the past few decades, scholars have shown great interest in understanding the way consumer purchasing behaviour develops, studying several influential factors such as country image – i.e., descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs consumers have about a particular country, often including cognitive as well as affective components (Han, 1989; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Nagashima, 1970; Wang et al., 2012; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Yet, to date, little is known about the impact of the image of the home country and the host country on the identity of ethnic consumers who have relocated to a host country. Accordingly, this thesis has two overarching research objectives: i) to examine how home and host country image factors (cognitive and affective) influence ethnic consumer identity, and ii) to ascertain whether these factors affect the purchasing behaviour of different ethnic groups within a multicultural country. To attain these aims, this thesis discusses the theoretical factors likely to determine ethnic consumer identity (ethnic, i.e., linked to the country of origin; or national, i.e., developed in the host country), while considering whether identity is transferred across generations. The thesis then describes the empirical approach undertaken to evaluate whether consumers' identities impact the image of products/services from the home vs. host country, and their intention to purchase these. Finally, this thesis presents an empirical quantitative study based on online survey data (N=261), collected in Australia from four

ethnic groups (Latvian, Iranian, Vietnamese, and Italian), examined through structural equation modelling.

The results indicate that positive emotions toward the home country and the host country have a positive and significant effect on the identity of ethnic consumers, while cognitive and negative emotions do not seem to affect consumers' identity. Positive feelings toward the home country have the most significant influence on the purchase of their home country products; in contrast, negative emotions toward the host country affect the purchase of products of the host country. Results also show that ethnic consumer identity leads to a strong purchase intention for the home country's products and mediates the positive country image of the home country and the purchase intention of the home country's products. Comparing the first- and second-generation respondents, results show that the factor affecting the identity of the first and second generations is consistently positive country image.

This thesis makes the following significant contributions. Theoretically, it explains the link between the components of country image and the consumers' identities and confirms that key concepts such as home and host positive country image and home cognitive country image act as the force behind national vs. ethnic identities. Doing so, the thesis advances marketing knowledge thanks to linking country image research and consumer identity research. From a managerial point of view, this thesis provides valuable insights that can be turned into marketing strategies to successfully target and meet the needs of ethnic consumers. For instance, marketers can leverage positive emotions of home country products and services using strategies such point-of-sale cues in selected distribution outlets, and positive country image-oriented packaging and communication.

DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university; and that to the best of my knowledge and belief it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text.

Signed Felicia Kim

Date 30 /08/2022

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Thesis background

Immigration is a global phenomenon that involves millions of people and most countries (UN, 2002). In recent years, the presence of ethnic minorities in many areas of the world has continued to increase, and their economic status (or power) has continued to change (Chu, White & Verrelli, 2017). Understanding an ethnic group's identity after immigrating to a new country (host country) and how this may influence its buying behaviour (e.g., choosing to purchase home-country vs host-country products and services) has become a priority for many stakeholders, including multinational companies. *Ethnic consumer identity* is often defined as one's social identity resulting from various important aspects such as race, ethnic background, religion, language, behaviours, and generation (see Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011). This thesis aims to provide a better understanding of this concept by empirically evaluating the extent to which purchasing behaviour related to products and services from the home country vs the host country differs for consumers with dissimilar ethnic identities who live in host countries.

To fully comprehend ethnic consumer identity, it is essential to ascertain which factors shape it; however, previous literature reveals that past research (e.g., Chand & Tung, 2011; Hui et al., 1997; Laroche et al., 2003) offers only a limited empirical appraisal of the antecedents of ethnic identity. For example, Hui et al. (1997) presented six indicators to measure ethnicity (i.e., language use, religion, social interaction, background, spouse's ethnic identity and self-identification). Although the authors made a significant contribution to the conceptualisation of ethnic identity, they overlooked an essential factor in contemporary immigration patterns. Specifically, Hui et al. (1997)

did not take into consideration the likely effect of one's ethnic consumer identity across generations and focused only on first generations of ethnic consumers. A significant number of ethnic minorities who live in multi-ethnic areas of the world classify as second-generation ethnic consumers (Wimmer, 2004). The sheer volume of second-generation ethnic consumers (e.g., 29.8% of the Australian population includes second-generation ethnic consumers; ABS, 2022) implies that it is of paramount importance to investigate whether there are any potential differences among the ethnic identities of these cohorts of people.

Furthermore, it is crucial to ascertain the extent to which a consumers' ethnic identity influences their perceptions and behaviour (e.g., purchase intentions). Hui et al. (1997) made an initial contribution to this aspect, highlighting the impact of ethnicity on consumer behaviour (e.g., ethnic consumers from various groups and different generations living in the same host country). However, the lack of more detailed insights on the matter is likely to have a strong bearing on strategies to effectively market products to large ethnic groups, who represent a substantial portion of the potential target market in many countries. For example, in Australia, 29.8% of the population were born abroad; 67% were born in non-English-speaking countries, and 51.5% were either born overseas or had at least one parent who was born overseas (ABS, 2022). Several ethnic groups also represent a sizeable portion of the population; for example, Asian–Australians are one of the largest non-European Australian ethnic groups, accounting for about 17.4% of the country's population (ABS, 2022). As the Australian population continues to change, studies of ethnic consumer identity among people living in Australia remain scarce (e.g., Anderson, 2016). However, Australia is one example, and it is an issue that many immigration countries such as Canada, the United States, and Europe face in common. To address these issues, therefore, besides concentrating on improving the understanding of the factors that shape consumer ethnic identity, including the generational effect,

this thesis evaluates how these factors impact consumer buying behaviour; in particular, regarding purchase intentions for home-country vs host-country products and services.

Besides being a thorough investigation of consumer ethnic identity, this thesis examines which factors encourage immigrants to accept and embrace a new identity linked to the host country, called *national consumer identity*. When immigrants settle down in a new country (the host country), acculturation takes place that helps them adapt to the host country's culture (Berry, 1990; Piontkowski, Rohmann & Florack, 2002; Redfield, Linton & Herskovits, 1936). Notably, the second generation of immigrants who are born and grow up in the host country have a high probability of absorbing or adapting to the culture of the host country (Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998; Poon, Evangelista & Albaum, 2010; Wimmer, 2004). When this happens, the higher the level of acculturation, the stronger the national consumer identity. Surprisingly, national consumer identity has been overlooked in the marketing literature studying immigrants' ethnicity and ethnic consumer identity (see Burton, 2002; Laroche, Kim & Clarke, 1997; Luedicke, 2011; Ouellet, 2007; Papadopoulos et al., 2008; Swift, 1999). In particular, many researchers (e.g., Chand & Tung, 2011; Laroche, Kim & Clarke, 1997; Laroche et al., 2003; Simpson et al., 2000) focused on predicting immigrants' intentions to purchase products from their home and host countries but considered only the immigrants' consumer identities. In line with this reasoning, another aim of this thesis is to examine the mechanisms underpinning the ways through which consumers' identities (ethnic vs national) shape their cognitive assessments of host- vs home-country products and services. In this regard, this thesis investigates the *cognitive and affective country images of the home and host country* as determinants of consumers' identities and purchasing intentions. *Cognitive country image* captures a consumer's beliefs regarding a specific country, such as its economic development, living standards and technological development (Desborde, 1990; Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993; Kühn, 1993; Martin & Eroglu, 1993). *Affective country image* refers to the

consumer's emotional response (positive and negative) to a specific country (see Brijs, 2006; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2000; Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Verlegh, 2001). Past research (Bannister & Saunders, 1978; Cordell, 1993; Wegapitiya & Dissanayake, 2018) demonstrated that consumers prefer products from countries for which they hold a more positive memory (positive cognitive country image), such as countries seen as having economic power and technology. For example, when choosing between Chinese and Japanese products, consumers might prefer Japanese goods simply due to a more positive (cognitive) country image. This might also change for different ethnic groups. For instance, Koreans tend to prefer Chinese products over Japanese ones, because they have negative associations with Japan and its products due to longstanding historical issues between the two countries (Furukawa, Tangney & Higashibara, 2012). Furthermore, affective country image is known to directly impact product evaluation and purchasing intention (Laroche et al., 2003). Expanding upon the example of Korean consumers evaluating Japanese goods, it is likely that the negative associations carry emotional value, shaping a negative affective country image above and beyond their cognitive country image. Existing research on country image has extensively documented the dual impact of cognitive and affective country image on purchase intentions and, more broadly, purchase behaviour (Laroche et al., 2003). Moreover, it has been established that ethnic consumers have a positive intention to buy their home country's products and services, and consumer ethnicity predicts the intention to buy (Chand & Tung, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003).

Similar conclusions can be derived from studies showing how nostalgia for the home country adds positive feelings to home-country products and services, which makes immigrants more attached to their home country's products and services (Dimitriadou et al., 2019; Lam & Yeoh, 2004; Ray & McCain, 2012). It is, therefore, possible to assume that immigrants who have positive emotions about their home country might make efforts to maintain their ethnic consumer identity through

purchases. It is also reasonable to expect that if immigrants have a negative image of their home country or a strong positive image of the host country, they may prefer to purchase host-country products as a further reflection of their desire to adopt a national consumer identity. Accordingly, expanding upon past research (e.g., Banister & Saunders, 1978; Cordell, 1993; Wegapitiya & Dissanayake, 2018; Xiao, Zhang & Samutachak, 2016), this thesis assumes that: i) purchase intentions can be determined by both the cognitive and affective images of immigrants for their home and host country; and ii) the images of the home and host countries can affect the immigrants' ethnic and national consumer identity. Existing country image studies have overlooked the fact that country image may contribute to the formation of consumer identity (ethnic or national), often assuming that ethnic consumers with the same identity are loyal to their home-country products and services. Furthermore, past research has not considered whether the country image of the host country can become an obstacle to the purchasing behaviour of ethnic consumers. As a result, the marketing literature is currently missing clear guidelines for predicting the buying behaviour of immigrants from an ethnic consumer perspective, which also considers host- and home-country (cognitive and affective) images.

1.2 Research justification

Marketing managers need to understand which perceptions and ideas (e.g., country image) consumers rely on when facing purchase decisions (Han, 1989; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Nagashima, 1970; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Wang et al., 2012). Having this knowledge reduces the risk of emphasising the properties of products and brands that will not resonate with consumers or contrast with their individual identities. Studies have shown that consumers generally rely on country image cues for product purchases (Han, 1989; Laroche et al., 2005; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009); however, this theoretical link is moderated by several factors. For example,

country images may differ depending on the consumer's feelings (Brijs, 2006; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2000; Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994) and even differing generations of consumers (Bond, 2016; Cárdenas, Verkuyten & Fleischmann, 2021; Poon, Evangelista & Albaum, 2010; Verkuyten & Martinovic, 2012), with country image cues known to influence the purchasing of goods from the home country and host country. Indeed, social variables such as consumer generation and identity are documented to influence the use (for decision-making purposes) and understanding of cues such as price and country image (Bond, 2016; Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003; Liu, 2011; Modood et al., 1997; Rabby, Chimhundu & Hassan, 2021). Yet, unfortunately, past research that has concentrated on these aspects has returned conflicting empirical results (e.g., Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Han, 1989; Laroche et al., 2005; Liu, 2011; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009), due at least in part to the lack of consistency between definitions of elements and adopted measures. To date, there has been no explicit investigation of whether country image influences consumer identity. To this end, this thesis provides means to quantify this effect, adding more clarity and depth to the evaluation of consumers' purchase intention through the identification of country image factors that shape consumers' ethnic (or national) identity.

In essence, by concentrating on the issues discussed so far, this thesis aims to address important gaps in the current marketing literature providing a much-needed framework for understanding the links between several established concepts of theoretical relevance: ethnic consumer identity vs national identity; antecedents and ties with country image; and the resulting impact on buying behaviour for host vs home countries. The end goal is to reignite the scholarly debate surrounding the investigation of ties between cultural identities and what consumers buy, significantly expanding what we know about purchase intentions, country image and consumer identity.

1.3 Thesis objectives and contributions

In line with the research justification outlined so far, this thesis has two key overarching research aims: i) to examine how home and host country image affect ethnic consumers' ethnic and national consumer identities; and ii) to ascertain how the combination of these theoretical links influences the purchasing behaviour of different ethnic groups within a multicultural country, including a comparison of the first and second generation. The end goal is to provide a generalisable theoretical framework for understanding the ties between home and host country image and purchasing intentions in multicultural societies, considering consumers' identities, perceptions and buying behaviours.

In terms of the key outcomes considered, the thesis identifies the difference between expected purchase intention (e.g., preference for home-country products for consumers with an ethnic identity shaped by positive home country image) vs. the actual purchase intention (e.g., preference for host-country products irrespective of the ethnic identity's prevalence over national identity). Accordingly, the thesis is set to reveal the determinants of one's ethnic or national consumer identity, and whether these identities are transferred across generations. These factors are then embedded in a new empirical approach designed to evaluate the extent to which ethnic vs. national consumer identity impact the intention to purchase products and services from the home vs. the host country. Besides advancing marketing knowledge on these important concepts, the resulting framework will be a useful tool for practitioners for the development of managerial strategies that emphasise the most powerful and influential country image cues.

A list of the formal research objectives of this thesis is as follows:

Research Objective 1. *To Investigate the influence of home and host country image cues on consumer identity, and how this identity affects the purchase intention towards home- and host-country products and services.*

Research Objective 2. *To measure the effect of the image of the home country and the host country on the purchase of goods from the home country and the host country.*

Research Objective 3. *To measure the effect of the generational difference (first vs second generations) on identity and purchase intentions.*

Research Objective 4. *To determine the differences between empirical contexts (e.g., buying groceries and obtaining financial advice).*

1.4 Thesis outline

Besides the present chapter, this thesis consists of six other chapters, as follows.

Chapter 2: Literature review

Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive review of the existing literature relevant to this thesis, identifying gaps in the current body of knowledge on country image (§2.2) specific to consumers' identities (§2.3, 2.4 and 2.5) and purchase intentions. Furthermore, the chapter provides an overview of social identity theory and the theory of planned behaviours (§2.3.3) to explain how the

thesis conceptualises the theoretical links between consumer identity and purchasing behaviour. Chapter 2 ends with an explanation of the resulting conceptual framework, which provides the basis for empirically investigating the ability of country image cues to influence consumer purchase intentions, by determining consumer identity (ethnic vs. national). The chapter also explains how the framework quantifies the extent to which specific consumer characteristics change their dependence on these cues during decision-making for host- vs. home-country products and services.

Chapter 3: Conceptual framework and hypotheses

Chapter 3 discusses the literature needed to outline the different components of the proposed research framework, leading to the formalisation of research hypotheses (§3.2.3) for empirical testing. The chapter also provides an extensive overview of the methodological approach used (§3.2.1 and 3.2.2), research questions (§ 3.2), stimuli used (§ 3.2.5), key findings, and theoretical and practical implications (§3.2.4).

Chapter 4: Quantitative methodology

Chapter 4 outlines the design of the quantitative research methods used in this thesis, starting with a detailed description and justification of the methods used for sampling and data collection (§4.3). The chapter then presents the measures used to measure country image (§4.5.1 and 4.5.2), ethnic and national consumer identity (§4.5.3) and purchase intention (§4.5.4). Moreover, the chapter provides a discussion of the preliminary quantitative study (pilot study, §4.6) conducted in support of the main study (see Chapters 5 and 6) and focused on determining the reliability and validity of all core measures included in the framework.

Chapter 5: Analysis and results

Chapter 5 presents the outcomes of the empirical analysis of the proposed theoretical framework. Specifically, the chapter concentrates on the results illustrating how the home country and host country images (positive or negative cognitive and affective country images) lead to consumers' ethnic vs national identity (§5.2). The chapter also presents the results of testing the mediating role of ethnic and national consumer identity in the relationship between country image and purchase intention (§5.3). These results provide insight into the extent to which the influence of consumer identity extends far beyond purchase decisions, reflecting country images that shape consumer attitudes. The chapter then presents the outcomes of the evaluation of the moderating role of different generations and language in the relationship between home and host country image, and between the identities of consumers and their purchase intentions (§5.4). Finally, the chapter outlines the results of a multigroup analysis comparing different consumer groups (e.g., Vietnamese vs Iranian), survey types and empirical contexts (§5.5) and demographic factors (treated as control factors, §5.6).

Chapter 6: Discussion, limitations and directions for future research

Chapter 6 provides a comprehensive discussion of the implications of this thesis for marketing theory and practice. It also summarises the main conclusions of the thesis and the links between planned research objectives vs. the empirical results obtained (§6.2). Furthermore, this chapter summarises the theoretical and practical implications of this thesis (§6.3 and 6.4). Subsequently, this last chapter describes the potential limitations that emerged from the empirical work at the heart of this thesis (§6.5). The chapter also includes a discussion of valuable directions for future research resulting from this thesis (§6.6).

Figure 1.1 outlines the organisation of the thesis.

Chapter 1 Introduction

- Thesis overview (e.g., thesis rationale, objectives, methodologies, and organisation)

Chapter 2 Literature review

- Physical theories of interpersonal relationship – social identity theory and theory of planned behaviours
- Country image research (including home and host country, cognitive and affective country image) and limitations
- Ethnic marketing research (including factors that affect ethnic consumer identity and national consumer identity) and limitations
- Purchase intention-based country image and ethnic consumer research implications, components, and relevance of the thesis

Chapter 3 Conceptual frameworks

- The research design of the thesis
- Conceptual frameworks
- Justification of the conceptual model
- Hypotheses of the thesis

Chapter 4 Quantitative methodology

- Sampling methods and data collection instruments
- Questionnaire development (e.g., country image, ethnic and national consumer identity, and purchase intention)
- Pilot study (pre-test) analysis – sample profile, reliability and validity tests

Chapter 5 Analysis and results

- Scale validation – Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), Common method bias (CMB)
- Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) – mediation role, moderation role, multigroup analysis and control variable test
- Hypotheses and results

Chapters 6 Discussion, contributions, limitations and further research

- Theoretical and managerial contribution of the thesis with respect to each objective and research questions
- Limitations and further research

Figure 1.1 The organisation of the thesis

1.5 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the background, research objectives and intended contributions of this thesis, together with an outline of the content of all chapters. This chapter also laid the foundation for this thesis by introducing the justification for this research.

The key theoretical implication of this thesis comes down to the need to provide a generalisable theoretical framework for understanding the ties between consumers' ethnic and national identity and their purchase intentions, considering the country image of both the home and host country in a multicultural society such as Australia. The thesis also yields a significant managerial value, as it will assist marketers in better understanding product and service preferences with respect to people from other countries, or individuals who share a strong link with another country. In addition, the thesis will offer new insights on the difference between expected purchase intentions and actual perceptions, based on consumers' perceptions of national image and purchase intention, once considering the mediating role of consumer identity. This information will be essential to developing a product design and marketing strategies to target ethnic consumers, whose numbers continue to grow in many multicultural nations.

The next chapter summarises the existing literature, covering multiple relevant areas of marketing including country image, ethnic marketing, and quantitative models aimed at predicting consumers' purchase intentions based on their perceptions (cognitive and affective).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Chapter overview

This chapter reviews the theoretical bases of this thesis, clarifying relevant underlying conceptualisations for the ethnic identity of consumers (Chu, White & Verrelli, 2017; Rao Hill & Paphitis, 2011; Renzaho, McCabe & Sainsbury, 2011; Zolfagharian et al., 2020) the image of the home country and host country (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Simpson et al., 2000); and the resulting purchasing decisions (Demby, 1974; Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). The bases discussed support the conceptual framework at the heart of this thesis and the empirical analyses presented in Chapter 5, in line with the approaches discussed in Chapters 3 and 4.

In more detail, this chapter begins with a critical review of the importance of country image research (Han, 1989; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Nagashima, 1970; Wang et al., 2012; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009), clarifying the links to consumers' ethnicity (Papadopoulos, El Banna & Murphy, 2017). For example, the chapter provides an overview of cognitive (e.g., consumers' memory-based beliefs about a given country: Allred Chakraborty & Miller, 2000; Brijs, 2006) and affective (e.g., consumers' emotional responses to a given country: Brijs, 2006; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009) country image to explain how the images of home vs host countries might influence consumers' ethnic identity and purchase decisions. The aim is to advance the understanding of the psychological mechanisms that explain how consumers' perceptions of their identity and country images influence purchase decisions concerning products and services from the home country vs. the host country.

Next, the chapter emphasises the importance of ethnic consumers by critically reviewing relevant literature on ethnic consumer marketing (Cui, 1997, 2001; Licsandru & Cui, 2019; Peñaloza, 2018). The chapter also discusses how the social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1985; Stets & Burke, 2000; Volpone et al., 2018) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen, 2015; Hagger, Chatzisarantis & Biddle, 2002; Nigg, Lippke & Maddock, 2009) can be applied to understand the link between purchase decision and the ethnic identity of consumers, highlighting relevant assumptions derived from the literature (e.g., in terms of how consumers with the same ethnic identity tend to share similar consumption patterns).

In addition to the above, to further enhance the theoretical contribution that this thesis makes, the second half of this chapter focuses on the concepts that shape ethnic consumer identity such as the social identity of an individual belonging to a home-country cultural group (e.g. for Vietnamese, see Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011); and national consumer identity such as the social identity of an individual belonging to a host country cultural group (e.g. for Australian, see Blank & Schmidt, 2003). Moreover, the chapter presents a series of reflections on how the notions of ethnic and national consumer identity compare, and some potential overlapping drivers of each such as language (Anderson, 2016; Bond, 2016; Hui et al., 1997; Laroche et al., 2003; Modood et al., 1997; Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998); behaviours and practices (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; El Banna et al., 2018; Phinney, 1992); and affirmation (Anagnostou, 2009; Simpson et al., 2000; Waters, 1994; Wimmer, 2004). Finally, the chapter discusses generational effects to understand the differences between different generations within the same ethnic group of consumers. Figure 2.2 presents the logical links between the areas of literature considered and illustrates the theoretical contribution of this thesis.

2.2. Country image

- Elements of country image (cognitive and affective)
- Type of country image consumers experienced (e.g., home and host country)
- Country image and consumers' identity

Valuable for explaining the country image elements and how to use them to describe consumer's identity and purchasing decision.

2.3 Ethnic marketing

- Consumers' ethnicity and purchase intention
- Acculturation and purchase intention
- Social identity theory and theory of planned behaviours

Relevant to explaining the history of consumers' interaction with ethnic marketing strategies.

2.4 Ethnic consumer identity

- Racial homogeneity and religion

The development of ethnic consumer identity and the integration of motivation and perception

2.5. National consumer identity

- Social status (e.g., education, income and social status)

Motivation for and factors in the occurrence of a consumer's identity exchange (national consumer identity)

2.6 Factors that affect ethnic and national consumer identity

- Language usage (ethnic vs English)
- Behaviours (ethnic culture vs host country culture)
- Generation effect (1st vs 2nd generation)

Integration of emotions and cognition concepts with the developing of the consumers' identities.

Different generations to have different perceptions and value of ethnicity.

Figure 2.2 Organisation of Chapter 2

2.2 Country image theory

Country image is a concept that has been considered for decades as an essential tool in international business research and practice to predict and judge consumers' intention to buy (Han, 1989; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Nagashima, 1970; Wang et al., 2012; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Indeed, many studies have presented empirical and theoretical evidence that country image has a significant impact on consumer purchase decisions, highlighting the importance of this strand of marketing research. Country image acts as a cue in consumer memory similarly to other important factors such as price, brand name or warranty, albeit not directly reflecting the performance of a product (Wegapitiya & Dissanayake, 2018). The concept of country image was first mentioned in Nagashima's study (1970), where it was defined as the specific image, stereotype and standing that customer has for a given country – all of which can be shaped by historical, economic and traditional variables. The correct understanding and evaluation of country image are essential to drawing both theoretical and managerial implications from it; thus, many scholars strived to improve country image's definition (Laroche et al., 2005; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). For example, Roth and Romeo (1992) defined country image as the national image, because of consumers recognising the advantages and disadvantages of products manufactured and sold in a country, which often also forms the understanding of a given country – a definition frequently used in country image studies.

This thesis defines country image as a three-dimensional concept, including cognitive, affective and conative elements (Laroche et al. 2005), respectively representing beliefs, emotions and intention to act in relation to a specific attitude object (e.g., a brand or product) from a particular country (Han, 1990). The reasoning behind this assumption is as follows. Han (1989; 1990) stated that understanding consumer perceptions of country image is essential because consumers' evaluation of the quality of products made in different countries is not the same and can vary amongst

individuals. This difference can be explained based on the halo effect theory, according to which when consumers encounter unfamiliar products (e.g., newly launched goods or brands), the image of the given country becomes an external signal that significantly impacts consumers' buying decisions (Han, 1990; Holdershaw & Konopka, 2018). For example, since consumers recognise Japan's country image as high technology and skills, they might prefer to purchase goods labelled as "Made in Japan", rather than "Made in China" even if the objective quality is comparable or identical. Therefore, Han's most significant contribution to marketing research lies in highlighting that country image is a key factor in understanding and measuring purchase behaviour. Nonetheless, Han (1990) did not consider whether the image of a given country might differ from one ethnic group to another. Hence, further research is required to investigate how various ethnic groups settled in a host country might hold different country images (i.e., home vs host country images), how these images are formed and the resulting impact on purchase behaviour.

Lin and Chen (2006) examined consumer purchase intention processing through which certain services become connected to the country image. For example, the authors emphasised the influence of country images to understand the impact of certain factors (e.g., product knowledge and product involvement) on consumer decision making. Accordingly, they claimed that consumers find some countries' products and services to be more important and meaningful than others, leading to a connection between the perceived country image and the consumer decision. Lin and Chen's (2006) work is particularly relevant to this thesis, because it serves as a premise for the assumption of a theoretical link between country image and consumer purchase decisions through the lens of meaning creation. Indeed, later studies further confirm the psychological mechanism through which consumers develop meaningful information about the country image, and subsequently use this information to generate purchasing-related perception (Li et al., 2014; Rezvani et al., 2012; Su, 2010). These cognitive and affective mechanisms shape the relationships

that consumers form with country images over time (Brijs, 2006; Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993; Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Verlegh, 2001).

Similar conclusions can be inferred from studies that embraced a slightly different perspective. For instance, Wang et al. (2012) argued that the product image is built through a two-way communication process between the image of the source country and the level of product involvement. In other words, consumers like to have different levels of involvement in the product as needed, based on perceived information about their favoured country. This two-way process assumes interactions between consumers and the country image of the product; hence, it implies that consumers engage in emotional interactions with the product of choice, developing feelings toward the product (e.g., a feeling of closeness), which might increase the perceptions of value. Other scholars (e.g., Ahmed et al., 2004; Manrai, Lascu & Manrai, 1998; Piron, 2000) also noted that country image varies depending on the level of product involvement. For example, country image is more critical when product involvement is high (e.g., wine and cars), while country image is less critical for products with less involvement (e.g., daily groceries and clothes).

Adenan, Ali and Rahman (2018) used the same approach proposed by Wang et al. (2012) to measure the strength of the country image and the resulting relationship with purchase decisions. They examined the effects of source products' reputation (e.g., cognitive and normative country image of products) and consumer experience (e.g., effects of emotions and passion towards products on the country image relationship) with high-involvement products. The empirical results indicated that consumer experience has a stronger bearing than product reputation, confirming the importance and strength of the link between the affective aspect of country image and consumer purchase decisions. However, Adenan, Ali and Rahman's (2018) work focused on evaluating the role

of product involvement in investigating the reputation of product images. Hence, more research is needed to investigate, for instance, low-involvement purchase decisions.

Recently, Bazan et al. (2021) investigated the theme of country of origin as a criterion for choosing products. The authors showed that the paths toward purchase intention followed three distinct trajectories, labelled as “country image”, “perception regarding the country’s products” and “perception towards consumers of the products”. In particular, the authors emphasised that the country image and perception regarding the country’s products presented positive relationships with the purchase intention; yet, perception towards consumers of the products did not affect purchase intention. In a similar vein, Dekhili, Crouch and Moussawel (2021) expanded the base of the country image by applying it to a new field, namely country ecological image. The authors argued that consumers could accept high prices if they positively perceive a country with a desirable ecological image. They concluded that the country’s ecological image could help increase demand by differentiating eco-friendly products and increasing favourability in globalised markets.

Although some of the studies mentioned so far focused on different theoretical facets of country image, they share a common underlying assumption. Most of the country image studies examine consumer purchase intention and decision based on the country image associated with the product. Contributions in this area primarily addressed the product’s image based on the ‘made in’ or ‘brand origin’. The image itself (cognitive country image) and related emotions (affective country image) are conceptually distinct from the image of the product. Accordingly, understanding the country image is still a significant challenge for today’s marketing research. The country image provides consumers with information that functions as an external signal, which affects their product purchase intentions, but several factors require improved understanding or further research. This is particularly relevant to consumers’ ethnicity and their perception of both the home and host

countries' cognitive and affective images. For instance, any animosity consumers might have towards their home country or a host country reflects a negative view, while affinity would imply a sustained positive attitude. Therefore, this thesis focuses on country image, especially consumers' home vs. host country's cognitive and affective images, as one of the significant decisive cues that affect consumers' purchase intentions. The following sections review the existing literature on the impact of cognitive and affective country image on purchase intentions.

2.2.1 Cognitive and affective country image

Country image has two important dimensions (Li et al., 2014): cognitive (memory-based) and affective (based on emotions or feelings). *Cognitive country image* refers to the consumer beliefs about a given country, such as its level of economic development (Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Wang & Lamb, 1980, 1983), living standards (Li et al., 2014), work culture (Allred, Chakraborty & Miller, 2000; Brijs, 2006; Desborde, 1990; Wang & Lamb, 1983) and technological development (Desborde, 1990; Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993; Kühn, 1993; Martin & Eroglu, 1993). These beliefs exist in consumer memory and constitute a repository of information and mental shortcuts (or simple associations) to be used in the evaluation of products and services (Bilkey & Nes, 1982). In consumer behaviour research, cognitive country image has been used as a tool to distinguish between more and less developed countries; for instance, the *halo effect theory* has been used to explain how the cognitive country image influences actual purchase intentions (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Wegapitiya & Dissanayake, 2018). The halo effect is defined as a type of cognitive bias that affects how consumers feel and think about a particular country, which affects the evaluation of country image (Han, 1989).

Bannister and Saunders (1978) posited that people have stereotypes about products and people in particular countries, which are formed and maintained over a long period. The authors also argued

that the products from more developed countries are not rated the same as those from less developed countries, because national stereotypes almost always affect actual product evaluations and purchase intention. For example, when consumers evaluate cars “Made in Germany” and those “Made in India,” Germany’s cognitive country image serves to provide a better assessment of its products to most consumers, because of the stereotype that Germany is a more advanced country than India. Moreover, Wegapitiya and Dissanayake’s (2018) findings are in line with those of Bilkey and Nes (1982) and Cordell (1993), supporting the idea that the economic level of the producing country is a decisive factor in leading consumers to purchase goods, and that most consumers prefer products from developed countries. However, Bilkey and Nes (1982) and Cordell (1993) assumed that the image of the country might change over time. For instance, in the late 1950s, Japanese products were not welcomed due to Japan’s low economic standards, but after the late 1970s, Japanese producers rapidly became recognised as highly skilled makers of high-quality products (Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987; White & Cundiff, 1978), as Japan grew into the world’s second-largest economy at the time (Asialink Business, 2021). Nonetheless, there is a consensus that the cognitive country image of the given country impacts the consumer decisions and the evaluation of products and services from a certain country.

Affective country image refers to an emotional response of consumers to a country (Brijs, 2006; Heslop et al., 2004; Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2000; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Verlegh, 2001). This emotional response can include positive feelings, such as happiness, excitement and passion, as well as negative feelings, such as hate anger and shame. According to Li et al. (2014), feelings for a particular country impact consumers’ product judgment and purchase intentions. In particular, positive or negative emotions about a particular country directly impact consumers’ experiential purchases. For example, Chinese consumers have a negative emotion about Japan and its products for historical reasons, so they

tend to hesitate when purchasing Japanese goods (Pew Research Center, 2006). Pew Research Center's study provided evidence that affective country image could have a more significant impact on purchase intentions than cognitive country image. Indeed, Xiao, Zhang and Samutachak (2016) found that this is the case when consumers purchase brands and products that are unfamiliar to them – a conclusion that was also reached by Pewglobal (2006) and Li et al. (2014). As such, the literature clearly stresses the importance of distinguishing between positive and negative feelings about a certain country, because people can often hold inconsistent emotional assessments of a given country at the same time (see also Wang et al., 2012).

Previous country image research (e.g., Allred, Chakraborty & Miller, 2000; Brijs, 2006; Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Wang & Lamb, 1980; Wegapitiya & Dissanayake, 2018) has often overlooked the effect of affective country image, especially how positive and negative feelings work for the source country, focusing primarily on cognitive country image. Above all, past studies overlooked the fact that affective country image can play a more important role than cognitive country image for people in certain countries (see the example of China and Japan mentioned earlier). Furthermore, many studies (see Ahmed, 2004; Han, 1990; Holdershaw & Konopka, 2018; Manrai, Lascu & Manrai, 1998; Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Piron, 2000) did not consider the ethnic identity of consumers who live in a host country, and classified groups only by demographic variables (e.g., gender, age and income). More importantly, studies explaining how home and host country image (affective country image and cognitive country image) impact the identity of consumers are very limited (see Laroche et al., 2003). Therefore, further research is required to better understand the role of cognitive and affective country image for different ethnic groups, as population ratios in multicultural contexts have become more diverse than ever (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011). Accordingly, this thesis examines: i) how the image of the home and host country impacts the ethnic identity of consumers who migrated; and ii) how cognitive country image and affective country image of the

home and host country, influence purchase intentions relating to products and services from the home and host country.

2.2.2 Home vs host country and purchase intention

Conventionally, *purchase intention* is defined as the consumer's preference to buy the product or service during the decision-making process (Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979; Demby, 1974). Schiffman and Kanuk (2000) defined purchase intention as the probability (or subjective probability; see Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1995) a consumer will purchase a particular product or service; the higher the intention, the greater the willingness to make actual purchases in the near future. Many studies (e.g., Adenan, Ali & Rahman, 2018; Han, 1990; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Sevanandee & Damar-Ladkoo, 2018; Su, 2010; Xiao, Zhang & Samutachak, 2016; Wang et al., 2012) have emphasised that consumers' images of their home countries impact purchase intentions. For example, Sevanandee and Damar-Ladkoo (2018) stated that consumers' positive or negative perceptions of their home country affects purchasing decisions when choosing foreign and domestic products. This is because consumers are motivated by strong *ethnocentrism*, which enhances positive evaluations of domestic products. Ethnocentrism is a belief that one's culture has an edge over other cultures, and it has been used to explain why domestic consumers might be emotionally uncomfortable with foreign countries and their products (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002).

El Banna et al. (2018) stressed that to measure consumer purchasing decisions, it is important to know where the consumers consider their home country and host countries. The authors emphasised that the home and host country are determined by where consumers were born or raised, and highlighted that even within the same ethnic group, members can have different identities. For example, the second generation of consumers born and raised in the host country

might consider the host country as their home country and show a strong desire to purchase products from that country rather than from the original home country.

Yelkur, Chakrabarty and Bandyopadhyay (2006) discussed consumers' perceptions and their role in the *theory of narrative identity*, delving into the ways consumers draw upon the image of the home country to resolve purchasing-related conflicts. Narrative identity theory provides a conceptual 'bridge' between the reconstructed past (e.g., home country) and the present (host country), assuming that consumers form an identity by integrating their experiences into stories (Yelkur, Chakrabarty & Bandyopadhyay, 2006). For example, images of a home country may help consumers symbolically resolve conflicts between their ideal purchasing and current purchasing. Therefore, consumers who develop positive perceptions of, or emotions for, their home country may do so to express ideal or actual selves through the products and services from the home country. In this regard, the work of Yelkur, Chakrabarty and Bandyopadhyay (2006) is particularly relevant, given that it provides theoretical and empirical evidence of the fact that perception of the image of home country is an emotional pathway towards achieving purchasing decision-related goals. As such, the thesis includes the affective home country's image as a dimension of consumer decision-making behaviours. Additionally, this thesis examines the impact of the cognitive home country image and the host country's image (affective and cognitive) as determinants of consumer purchase decisions.

Drawing upon the findings of Yelkur, Chakrabarty and Bandyopadhyay (2006), Podoshen (2009) expanded the underlying dimensions of purchasing decisions associated with the country image, and included several other elements (e.g., animosity, collective memory, rumour and equity restoration). Podoshen (2009) confirmed that different cultures could experience different emotions toward the home country image and its products. For instance, while Chinese consumers are attached to their home country's products, which are fully trusted and evoke good memories,

Indian consumers have shown that they do not place any value on trust and good memories. More recent studies have incorporated the country image conceptualisation by Yelkur, Chakrabarty and Bandyopadhyay (2006) to examine the determinants and implications of emotional relationships between the home country and consumers. For example, Chand and Tung (2011) concluded that the feelings consumers have about their home country are antecedents of willingness to buy and loyalty. Chand and Tung (2011) found that feelings toward specific countries other than the home and/or host country (e.g., animosity and hate) have a positive effect on purchase intentions towards products from the home and/or host country. This outcome was linked to the psychological effects of how consumers perceive their feelings for their home and host countries. Similarly, Anderson (2016) confirmed that country image in the context of emotions (e.g., pride or shame) has the power to mediate the influence of consumer identity and loyalty towards their home country.

More recently, Papadopoulos, El Banna and Murphy (2017) emphasised that both affective and cognitive responses to the source country affect the purchase of products and the country image evaluation of consumers. The authors examined how the image consumers had about the old country could be exercised in their current purchasing decisions, and whether such a relationship could shape consumers' attitudes toward products from countries perceived as friendly or hostile to the home country. The authors pointed out that country and product image, affinity and hostility work differently in dissimilar countries. Another important implication of Papadopoulos, El Banna, and Murphy's findings is that a negative and hostile perception of the source country has a strong impact on the intention to purchase the source country's products. Therefore, affective country image (both positive and negative) for the source country has a significant impact on purchase intentions (see also Russell & Carroll 1999; Wohl, Branscombe, & Klar, 2006).

Overall, home country image is a crucial concept affecting how consumers make purchase decisions, with clear implications for researchers and practitioners. Yet, existing frameworks (e.g., those of Adenan, Ali & Rahman, 2018; Han, 1990; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Sevanandee & Damar-Ladkoo, 2018; Su, 2010; Xiao, Zhang & Samutachak, 2016; Wang et al., 2012) have largely overlooked the link between consumers' cognitive and affective images of the host country. Furthermore, past research (e.g., Anderson, 2016; Chand & Tung, 2011; Yelkur, Chakrabarty & Bandyopadhyay, 2006; Podoshen, 2009) focused on measuring consumer loyalty to the image of the home country. To address these issues, this thesis assumes that consumers' purchasing decision involving choosing home vs host country products are impacted by the images of the home and host countries, respectively. It further assumes that country image of home and host comprises a cognitive and affective dimension (Laroche et al., 2003; Martin & Eroglu, 1993). In doing so, this thesis is also linked to past research on country image effects, which highlights that the purchase intentions of consumers can often vary depending on their affective country images towards their host countries (e.g., Chand & Tung, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003).

2.2.3 Country image research and consumers' ethnicity

Over the past few decades, consumers with different cultural backgrounds have migrated to various host countries, bringing with them significant purchasing power and new consumption habits, which make it essential to understand different shopping behaviours (Papadopoulos, El Banna & Murphy, 2017). For example, one or both of their parents of over half (51.5%) Australians were born abroad (ABS, 2022) and ethnic consumers are expected to contribute \$1.6 trillion to Australia's gross domestic product (GDP) by 2050 (Migration Council Australia, 2016). These trends can be seen in established multicultural countries (like Australia) and in many countries that are experiencing increases in 'new' migration streams, due to an increase in the number of ethnic consumers (Chu,

White & Verrelli, 2017). *Ethnic consumers* are defined as people who live in a host country different from their home country, share ancestors, history and the unique ethnic attributes associated with it, and have a sense of identification with the groups associated with their ethnicity (Burton, 2000; Cui, 2001). The fast-growing population of ethnic consumers changes the host country's demographic profile and marketplace (Papadopoulos, El Banna & Murphy, 2017). Many ethnic consumers form a community that maintains strong ties with their home country, raising questions about: i) whether loyalty to their home country is still maintained when evaluating foreign products based on their country of origin; and ii) whether cognitive and affective perceptions of their home country impact the consumer ethnic identity.

Laroche et al. (2003) contended that ethnic consumers have a positive intention to buy the home country's products and services, and consumer ethnicity is one of the factors that predict purchase intentions. Other studies (Dimitriadou et al., 2019; Lam & Yeoh, 2004; Ray & McCain, 2012) noted that nostalgia for the home country enhances ethnicity, making consumers more attached to their home country's products and services. Nostalgia means longing for the past or positive emotion about past-related experiences and memories (Fairley, 2003; Holbrook & Schindler, 1996). For example, consumers who have a positive perception of their home country maintain their ethnicity and, on the contrary, those who are negative about their home country may accept a different identity (e.g., national identity). Therefore, it is possible to assume that consumers with longing for and positive perception (or feelings) for their home country may share the same ethnic identity and may make efforts to purchase home-country products and services.

Country image studies (see Bazan et al., 2021; Chand & Tung, 2011; Dekhili, Crouch & Moussawel, 2021; Laroche et al., 2003; Simpson et al., 2000) have generally neglected the broader role of home and host country elements in formulating the identity of ethnic consumers. Accordingly, this thesis

focuses on these concepts, exploring their role in promoting the development of consumer identity. In doing so, the thesis reviews how the cognitive and affective (positive vs. negative) images of the home and host country shape consumer identity. It also incorporates home and host cognitive and affective country images into the links between consumer identity and consumer purchase intentions for home vs. host country products and services.

To better clarify the intended contribution and originality of this thesis, the following sections discuss in greater detail relevant literature on consumer ethnicity and ethnic marketing. The next sections also touch on social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Burke, 2000; Stets & Volpone et al., 2018; Tajfel & Turner, 1985) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 2015; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Hagger et al., 2002; Nigg, Lippke & Maddock, 2009), both of which are used as underlying conceptual bases to explain the theoretical links that this thesis explores.

2.3 Ethnic marketing

Many companies now include ethnic consumers in the planning and marketing of specific products or brands (Licsandru & Cui, 2019; Soto, 2018). For example, most of the Fortune 1000 corporations have ethnic consumer marketing programs/strategies to target the growing number of multicultural consumers (Soto, 2018). While these companies and marketers have become more skilled and sophisticated in their efforts to reach ethnic consumers, they are still suffering from a lack of effective strategies to target ethnic consumers (Licsandru & Cui, 2019). This is because the diversity of characteristics of ethnic consumers (such as race, religion, language and customs) makes it difficult to use the same and standard marketing mix strategy (Cui, 1997, 2001; Peñaloza, 2018). In this regard, the ultimate goal of marketing researchers is to develop specific recommendations on how to integrate consumer diversity so that marketers can develop and apply appropriate

marketing strategies (Cui, 1997, 2001; Peñaloza, 2018). This thesis offers numerous conceptual and empirical contributions towards this goal, as detailed below.

Historically, ethnic consumers have not been considered a key marketing target of strategic relevance (Turner & Aguirre, 1994). For example, for many decades, people of colour have often been assumed to be somewhat socially constrained and to have more limited economic power; thus, there have been few research attempts to outline marketing strategies to successfully appeal to these consumers (Turner & Aguirre, 1994). However, since the 1960s, conditions for ethnic consumers have continued to significantly improve and evolve, with many companies recognising them as important target consumers (Schwadel, 1992). In line with these changes, the marketing literature has started to pay greater attention to integrated communication and advertising tactics to appeal to ethnic consumers, recognising the tremendous growth in their purchasing power (Liebman & Liebman, 2015). However, past studies considering marketing strategies to appeal to ethnic consumers were not focused on enhancing the understanding of the characteristics of ethnic consumers; rather, such studies aimed to assimilate them to 'mainstream' consumers (see, Liebman & Liebman, 2015). In contrast, research focused on multicultural marketing developed in the 1990s, and established consumer ethnicity as a marketing variable by accepting and recognising the cultural and ethnical identities of ethnic consumers (Brill, 1994; Cui, 2001).

Cui (1997) conducted one of influential study on ethnic marketing to date. Specifically, the author contended that a multicultural ethnic marketing strategy is needed to persuade consumers with different backgrounds, and that marketing researchers and managers need to pay greater attention to the importance of ethnic marketing. Cui (1997) also identified four elements as ultimately responsible for a successful marketing strategy that is likely to appeal to different ethnic consumers: i) standardised strategies; ii) product adaptation; iii) advertising adaptation; and iv) ethnic

marketing. Standardised strategies can be considered in certain product lines where product preferences do not differ significantly between minorities and most of the population, such as high-tech items and sports equipment (Levitt, 1983; Cui, 2001). However, for some products, such as cosmetics, ethnic consumers may have different preferences (Rao & Kurtz, 2015). Therefore, it is important for marketers to recognise these differences, and adapt their products by modifying product designs to suit the needs or tastes of ethnic consumers. Assessments of products may vary from consumer to consumer in terms of value, language and advertising media (Shermach, 1994). In particular, when ethnic consumers demand that marketers make advertising messages in those consumers' language(s), advertising adaptation should be applied. Finally, when there is a culturally driven demand for products and services, or when marketers recognise differences in ethnic values, they should apply ethnic marketing strategies (Bartikowski, Taieb & Chandon, 2016; Peñaloza, 2018; Schlossberg, 1993). That is, marketers should adjust product elements when a particular ethnic consumer group (e.g., Arab consumers) has a unique need (e.g., halal food) that cannot be met by a product designed for most consumers.

Cui's (1997, 2001) conclusions are still used as an important analytical tool to support multinational companies when they seek expansion for ethnic consumers in international markets, and standardisation vs. customisation strategies can be applied to target different ethnic consumers, including in countries (e.g., US, Canada and Australia) with multinational cultural backgrounds (Bartikowski, Taieb & Chandon, 2016; Peñaloza, 2018). Despite the legacy of Cui's (1997) study, it has some limitations worth considering. For example, the framework presented is relatively simple and limited in its ability to respond to all scenarios that might arise. That is, rather than presenting answers to specific marketing issues (e.g., how to treat customers from different cultural backgrounds), it only provides general strategies that give access to ethnic consumers from various cultural backgrounds. Therefore, further research is needed on how cultural and ethnic factors

interact with variables that call for the establishment of bespoke marketing strategies for ethnic consumers living in multicultural countries.

Hermann (2018) explored how a particular emotional reaction can become connected to the *self-concept*, or the subjective perception of oneself, including ability, attitude and feeling in a social context (Flook, Repetti & Ullman, 2005; Leflot, Onghena & Colpin, 2010). More specifically, the author stressed that consumers construct stories around their cultural background (Cui, 2001; Kotler & Keller, 2009), and associate positive and emotions to these stories (Batra & Ray, 1986; Edell & Burke, 1987; Holbrook & Batra, 1987) to make sense of what goes on in the world. These stories provide meaning for consumers by connecting elements that aid them in reaching a goal or conclusion (Gerpott & Bicak, 2016; Meffert et al., 2015). Hermann (2018) argued that consumers find positive emotions to be more important and meaningful than negative emotions, leading to a connection between the products/ services and the consumer's sense of self. Hermann's work is particularly relevant to this thesis, because it highlights the psychological mechanism through which a consumer develops meaningful information about their emotions, and subsequently uses these to generate an ethnic marketing perception (see also Cui, 1997, 2001; Gerpott & Bicak, 2016).

2.3.1 Consumers' ethnicity and purchase intention

Existing marketing studies have already examined the link between ethnicity and consumer behaviour (see Bond, 2016; Rabby, Chimhundu, & Hassan, 2021; Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Hui et al., 1997; Laroche et al., 2003; Liu, 2011; Modood et al., 1997; Phinney, 1996). For example, previous research (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Rogers & Bhowmik, 1970; Simpson et al., 2000) focused on the influence of ethnic homogeneity on consumer behaviour and intentions, positing that consumers sharing the same identity also show similar behaviour and

patterns. Past research (e.g., Cui ,2001; Ersanilli & Saharso, 2011; Hermann, 2018; Laroche et al., 2003) also noted that consumer behaviour and purchase intentions might vary depending on ethnic group (e.g., Vietnamese, Chinese and Italian); a conclusion that supports this thesis's premise – i.e., the intention to purchase home vs. host country products might vary across different ethnic groups, based on the factors that shape ethnic identity.

Shimp and Sharma (1987) proposed *consumer ethnocentrism* as a construct that describes beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness (or otherwise) of purchasing foreign-made products. The authors found that American consumers found different levels of ethnocentric tendencies for products in each region of the United States. At the same time, Klein, Ettenson & Morris (1998) pointed out that although Chinese people recognise Japanese products as having high quality and technology, Chinese consumers in Nanjing may not buy Japanese products because of their hostility toward Japan. The authors reported that hostility and cultural factors related to purchasing foreign products affect the weight given to the national image in the product purchase decision. Other studies (e.g., Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003) highlighted that there is a positive association between the consumers' identity and purchasing intention. For example, Laroche et al. (2003) showed that the image of the home-country products strongly impacted the purchasing behaviour of French Canadians and British Canadians. Specifically, these two ethnic groups revealed strong intentions to purchase homeland products, and had a positive attitude toward products from allied countries such as Hong Kong and Australia. In contrast, Chand and Tung (2011) pointed out that Chinese Canadians' loyalty to their home-country products is very strong, while Indian Canadians' loyalty is relatively low, which suggests that different ethnic groups might have different levels of loyalty towards home-country products.

Overall, existing research has confirmed that consumers' ethnicity can impact their values (e.g., identity) and consumption patterns (e.g., purchasing intention and decision). The continued increase in the proportion of ethnic consumers, especially in a multicultural country such as Australia, means that the ethnic consumer market is potentially quite profitable. However, only a small number of studies have considered differences between views that could be held at the national level and between identities and home and host country are distinct. In addition, Shimp and Sharma (1987), Klein, Ettenson & Morris (1998) and Laroche et al. (2003) focused on regional differences rather than cultural differences. Therefore, further research is needed on the relationship between consumers' ethnicity and purchasing intentions.

To better justify the importance of these research gaps, the following section outlines the concepts of acculturation and social identity theory, and the theory of planned behaviour. In particular, Table 2.1 provides an overview of studies that have considered the relationship between purchase intentions and consumers' ethnicity.

Table 2. 1 Studies of the relationship between purchase intentions and consumers' ethnicity

Authors	Country surveyed	Ethnic groups	Samples	Key findings
Heslop, Papadopoulos & Bourk (1998)	Canada	British Canadian / French Canadian	100 samples in each language group	The closer the consumer perceives the origin region (e.g., Great Britain and France) to be, the stronger is the influence of culture on product evaluations.
Simpson et al. (2000)	America	African	A total of 98 undergraduate students	African consumers' purchasing decision is realised when the actors in the advertisement are of the same ethnicity.
Laroche et al. (2003)	Canada	British Canadian / French Canadian	British and French Canadians totalled 311	The ethnic consumers strongly prefer the home country's products and those of allied countries.
Pankhania, Lee & Hooley (2007)	Italy	German / Italian		Different ethnic consumers show distinctly different values in evaluating the host country's products.
Poon, Evangelista & Albaum (2010)	Australia	Asian/ Western	A total of 206 consumers	Asian consumers have a higher preference for home-country products than Western consumers.
Chand & Tung (2011)	Canada	Chinese / Indian	139 university students	Chinese consumers express more positive and favourable feelings about their home country and its products than do Indian consumers.
Mokhlis (2012)	Malaysia	Chinese / Indian / Malaysian	Total 371 from undergraduate students	Even in countries with long multi-ethnic histories, such as Malaysia, different ethnic consumers present clearly inconsistent preferences in evaluating their native products.
Williams-Forsen (2014)	America	Ghanaian		Attachment to ethnic food has a significant impact on the identity of consumers who want to buy it, and on purchasing intention towards their home country's products.
El Banna et al. (2018)	Canada	Egyptian	A total of 308 Egyptian consumers	Justifies the inference of consumers' dual loyalty by showing positive evaluations and preferences for both their home- and host-country products.
Abdullah, Abdullah & Bujang (2021)	Malaysia	Malaysian Muslim	8 separate focus group interviews, comprising 45 respondents	Considering the factors found within the context of this study, the same Muslim ethnicity strongly influences purchase intention. In addition to beliefs, norms, or practices, Muslim ethnicity is a decisive factor in purchase intention because it affects compositions such as consumer value, knowledge, environmental responsiveness, and social responsiveness.

2.3.2 Acculturation and purchase intention

Acculturation occurs when an original cultural pattern changes when groups of individuals with different cultures encounter different cultural patterns (Redfield, Linton & Herskovits, 1936). In cross-cultural studies, acculturation is often divided into: *integration*, *rejection*, *assimilation* and *marginalisation* (Piontkowski, Rohmann, & Florack, 2002). Integration occurs when individuals value both the home and host country culture; marginalisation arises when neither is valued. If individuals value the culture of their home country and reject the culture of their host country, rejection occurs. Finally, if individuals value the culture of their host country, cultural assimilation occurs. In addition, acculturation might also involve creating a new type of culture that cannot be seen elsewhere, completely changing one's culture over time (Barnett, 1954).

Nwankwo and Lindridge (1998) stated that ethnic identity could change over time due to the subjective choices of individuals and changes in the environment (see also Quester, Karunaratna & Kee Goh, 2000). The authors asserted that consumers' ethnic identity could be negotiated when a person faces a new environment (e.g., immigration or international marriage). This change in identity can have subjective effects on which culture (home or host country) consumers will feel more involvement in and have more positive feelings towards.

In line with the above, Sam and Berry (2006) stated that acculturation is the process by which individuals adopt the culture of the host country. They found that when individuals encounter a host country culture, the acculturation process starts, changing individuals' cognitive and emotional responses and attitudes toward the host country culture. At the same time, those who reject acculturation and continue to maintain their ethnic culture could experience a culture clash. Moreover, the culture of developed countries has a more significant impact than the culture of

developing countries. For example, Romero et al. (2018) explained that consumers who move from developing countries to developed countries are more actively embracing the culture of the host country. On the contrary, consumers moving from developed countries to developing countries are passive in learning and embracing the culture of the host country.

Existing consumer behaviour studies (see Jamal, 2005; Kizgin et al., 2018; Laroche et al., 2003; Peñaloza, 1994; Quester, Karunaratna & Chong, 2001) suggested that the level of acculturation of ethnic consumers affects the decision-making process around purchasing ethnicity and products. Quester, Karunaratna and Chong (2001) examined the intention to purchase products from the home and host countries for Chinese individuals who showed a high level of acculturation in Australia. The authors classified 288 participants into three groups according to their degree of acculturation (low, medium and high) and examined whether participants preferred products from their home or host country more when choosing cars and toothpaste. The results revealed that ethnic consumers with high levels of acculturation preferred to purchase the host country's products, whereas ethnic consumers with low levels of acculturation preferred to purchase the home country's products. Quester, Karunaratna and Chong (2001) also stressed that the longer participants have lived in the host country, the higher their degree of acculturation and the willingness to purchase products from the host country. This is because the longer participants live in the host country, the more familiar they become with the host country's products, brands and retail environment.

Kizgin et al. (2018) pointed out that consumers with high acculturation expressed a high willingness to purchase products from the host country. The author found that there is a positive correlation between Internet language selection (ethnic or host-country language), acculturation and purchasing intentions of consumers. In more detail, the authors explained that the degree of

acculturation depends on whether Turkish consumers living in the Netherlands use Turkish or Dutch on social media such as Facebook and Twitter. Consumers who used only host country languages on social media had a higher level of acculturation than consumers who used both home- and host-country languages, and the former group showed a preference for host-country products. More recently, Kizgin et al. (2021) added friendship orientation, education level and language use as factors that underpin acculturation. The most important contribution of this study is twofold. It strongly supports previous studies that argued that friendship orientation for mainstream culture and the use of mainstream language (Bond, 2016; Kizgin et al., 2018) has a positive effect on acculturation. It also confirms that acculturation affects the purchase intentions of ethnic consumers (Jamal, 2005; Kizgin et al., 2018; Peñaloza, 1994; Quester, Karunaratna & Chong, 2001).

Although important, the studies mentioned so far have generally neglected to investigate the broader role of generational differences within the same ethnic group in formulating the identity of ethnic consumers. Also, many cross-cultural studies (see Piontkowski, Rohmann & Florack, 2002; Roy, 2002; Waters, 1994; Williams-Forson, 2014) have assumed that the acculturation of consumers revolves around the culture of host countries. Hence, extant research does not clarify how the ethnicity of immigrants might change their level of acculturation. Accordingly, this thesis focuses on reviewing the level of acculturation in promoting the development of consumer identity. Specifically, the thesis reviews how the level of acculturation affects purchasing intention as a conceptual element. By doing so, this thesis contributes to the literature by incorporating the level of acculturation (e.g., in different generations) into consumers' identity and purchasing intention relationships as key factors. The following sections explore the theory of social identity and planning behaviour to explain how this incorporation unfolds.

2.3.3 Social identity theory and the theory of planned behaviour

The existence of a link between consumers' identity and purchase behaviour is consistent with the social identity theory (SIT), which claims that individual identities can vary depending on the group to which they belong (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Stets & Burke, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1985; Volpone et al., 2018), and people with the same identity show similar behaviours. Specifically, social identity is an individual's knowledge of belonging to a social category or group (Abrams & Hogg, 1988), whereby a social group is a group of individuals who belong to the same social category (Stets & Burke, 2000). Social identity theory was introduced as a way of explaining intergroup behaviour in society, as part of the individual's own concept derived from the perceived membership of the relevant social group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Individuals formed groups of people like themselves through comparison (Turner et al., 1987), and classified themselves and others as out-groups. Out group is a social group that individuals do not identify with (Turner et al., 1987). Grouping typically hinges on factors such as language, behavioural norms (e.g., expected actions of people expected to conform to laws and norms; Stets & Burke, 2000), values, emotional reactions and individual attitudes (Abrams & Hogg, 1988). Specifically, individuals tend to positively evaluate the group they belong to and negatively evaluate the out-group (Stets & Burke, 2000). Hence, an individual becomes a member of an ethnic group when the values, attitudes and norms of the group align with their beliefs; this alignment explains why people from the same group (and with the same identity) typically show similar behaviours (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Stets & Burke, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1985; Volpone et al., 2018).

Abrams and Hogg (1988) stressed that choosing a group to which an individual belongs is part of a structured society, as social categories have priority over individual identity. The authors also posited that once an individual is in a group, they will embrace the identity of that group. Indeed,

having the same social identity means seeing things from the same perspective as members of a particular group; it could also mean having the same behaviour style as members of a specific group, and standing in the same position (Stets & Burke, 2000). Moreover, people tend to act with members of their groups, and individuals become more involved in the culture and events of the group to indicate their position in the group and try to distinguish themselves from the out-group (Ethier & Deaux, 1994; Ullah, 1987). For instance, individuals in ethnic groups use ethnic language more frequently than the host country's language (Bond, 2016; Gellner, 1996; Steel & Taras, 2010); they also participate more actively in ethnic group events and holidays (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; El Banna et al., 2018; Phinney, 1992).

Past studies (e.g., Rouziès & Hulland, 2014; Salem & Salem, 2018; Sleep, Lam & Hulland, 2018) have documented a strong correlation between consumer identity (social and ethnic) and purchase behaviour, proving that social identity is a critical factor in understanding consumers. In particular, as social identity is often associated with race or ethnicity, several scholars (e.g., Ellemers, Spears & Doosje, 2002; Stets & Burke, 2003; Tajfel, 2010) clarified that social identity could predict consumer attitudes in a marketing context. In a similar vein, Salem and Salem (2018) examined the importance of Malaysian consumers' social identity and how it dramatically affects their purchasing intention. The authors pointed out that consumers tend to reflect their social identity (e.g., ethnicity) or buy more products that match their social identity image.

Nevertheless, the theory of social identity does not explicitly consider that consumer identity could change, depending on the environment or the way it was evaluated. For instance, if mixed-race (e.g., Australian father and Chinese mother) consumers who were born and raised in Australia are surrounded by Australians at school or work, they may not always embrace their ethnic identity. This thesis overcomes this limitation by considering how the new environment (e.g., consumers who

are born and raised in the host country and are more familiar with the culture of the host country than that of their home country) plays into the theoretical link between consumer identity and purchase intention. Moreover, this thesis investigates the identity of consumers with a single ethnicity and their consumption patterns, while also considering potential differences emerging for different generations of consumers.

Besides the social identity theory, another important theory, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), has been used in many marketing studies to understand the factors that determine consumer behaviour (Ajzen, 2015; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Hagger et al., 2002; Nigg, Lippke & Maddock, 2009). According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), an intention reflects a person's motivation to perform a certain action (e.g., buying behaviour). This intention is determined by three factors: attitudes towards the target action, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 2015; Nigg, Lippke & Maddock, 2009). Attitudes are the evaluations of objects (e.g., a product or brand) of personal beliefs, and the evaluations are already stored in a person's memory as beliefs. Subjective norms refer to the belief in whether most people approve or oppose the action. Perceived behavioural control refers to the individual's ability to fulfil the intended actions. Based on this theory, several studies confirmed that ethnicity can impact purchase intentions (Blanchard et al., 2007; Blanchard et al., 2009; Romero et al., 2018). For example, Blanchard et al. (2007) examined whether ethnicity can control the core elements of the theory of planned behaviour, and found that attitudes, subjective norms and behavioural control all vary in line with ethnicity; thus, ethnicity mediates the core theoretical links that this theory prescribes.

Some studies (e.g., Jokonya, 2015, 2017; Sommer, 2011) contend that the theory of planned behaviour is not a perfect lens through which to examine purchase intentions, due to challenges such as the exclusion of habits and emotions as control variables, and a lack of knowledge of the

relationship between the key predictors. Moreover, the theory does not fully reflect all consumption contexts (Pavlou & Fygenon, 2006; Sommer, 2011). Nevertheless, the theory provides a robust and flexible framework for understanding the complexity of human behaviour (Jokony, 2017); it also allows the prediction and understanding of psychological mechanisms that underly actions (e.g., buying behaviour). Moreover, recent research has expanded the scope of this theory by using it to predict purchasing behaviour of consumers with different identities by adding ethnicity into the theory (Blanchard et al., 2009; Blanchard et al., 2007; Romero et al., 2018). This thesis embraces the same approach, and expands it further by establishing additional conceptual links with another area of the marketing literature, namely ethnic identity research, as follows.

2.4 Ethnic consumer identity

Ethnic consumer identity refers to the integration of ethnicity into an individual's self-concept, thus distinguishing it from subjective and ambiguous elements such as race, religion, language, and emotion or other elements through which consumers can maintain and protect their home country's identity (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011). As the number of multicultural countries increases (Rugman & Doh, 2008; Wetzel, 1987) and the composition ratio of their people changes within those countries (Laosa, 1984), ethnic identity is receiving more scholarly attention.

Phinney (1992) conducted one of the most influential studies of ethnic consumer identity to date. The key contribution of Phinney's (1992) work lies in the identification of a series of concepts that can accurately describe the ethnic consumer identity, in particular, ethnic behaviour, ethnic belonging and sense of achievement. Nevertheless, Phinney's (1992) study has several limitations, which call for more investigation and verification. For example, a consumer who has a sense of belonging to an ethnic group can also have a sense of belonging to a second ethnic group, such as a

host-country group. Furthermore, the study overlooked the impact of generational differences, such as differences between first and second generations within the same ethnic group (discussed later on in this chapter). These missing insights might have a strong bearing on managerial strategies to effectively market products to large groups of ethnic consumers, which represent a substantial portion of the potential target market in many multicultural countries.

Other studies have highlighted different drivers of ethnic consumer identity. For instance, Hui et al. (1997) explored six antecedents of ethnic consumer identity: language use, religion, social interaction, background, spouse's ethnic identity and self-identification. In more detail, the authors studied English Canadians and French Canadians living in Canada, and argued that of the six indicators listed above, language and self-identification most significantly affected ethnic identity formation. In doing so, Hui et al. analysed the relationship between ethnic groups, and suggested that language use is the most critical indicator of the distinction between ethnic groups. Nonetheless, their research reveals two noteworthy limitations. First, it did not consider likely differences between the first and second generations of the ethnic consumers studied, so it is difficult to determine whether the six antecedents of ethnic identity considered were equally valid for different generations of ethnic consumers. Second, the study did not mention the identity of a person who could use both home- vs host-country language and only use host country language regardless of ethnicity. To address these issues, this thesis will adopt Phinney's (1992) concepts such as ethnic behaviour and belonging and sense of achievement, as well as the language. This thesis will also take into explicit consideration likely differences in ethnic identity for first vs second generations, and the possible differences in ethnic identity antecedents for these two groups.

In other studies (e.g., Bond, 2016; Cárdenas, Verkuyten & Fleischmann, 2021; Simpson, 2000; Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007), concepts such as race homogeneity and religion have been adduced to

measure the ethnic identity of consumers. For example, Verkuyten and Yildiz (2007) examined the correlation between religion and ethnic consumer identity among Turks in the Netherlands, and found that the sense of belonging to religion was a dominant tool for creating ethnic consumer identity. Bond (2016) observed that the diversity of religion encouraged the formation of ethnicity. Simpson et al. (2000) claimed that the homogeneity of races plays a pivotal role in forming ethnic consumers, revealing that there is a correlation between race homogeneity and ethnic consumer identity. Accordingly, the following section discusses in detail: i) how race homogeneity and religion determine ethnic consumer identity; and ii) how ethnic consumer identity impacts consumer purchase behaviour.

2.4.1 Race homogeneity

Race is one of the most widely known concepts for formulating one's identity, and racial classification is one of the critical factors determining ethnic consumers' *homogeneity* (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Simpson et al., 2000). Homogeneity refers to the similarity between people (Rogers & Bhowmik, 1970) and captures the degree of similarity across factors such as faith, values, education and social status (Rogers & Bhowmik, 1970, p. 529). Homogenous bonds represent the emotional attachment between an individual's identity and belonging to an ethnic group, with race as key determinant of such bonds (Chand & Tung, 2011; Simpson et al., 2000).

Simpson et al. (2000) examined race and ethnic consumer identity, linking them to homogeneity. The authors claimed that racial matches lead to a rise in consumer trust. Blacks, for example, revealed a strong willingness to buy advertised products sponsored by actors from the same racial background, because racial homogeneity increased trust and credibility. Simpson et al. (2000) also argued that racial congruity creates a sense of ethnic homogeneity, which makes one feel attached

to their ethnic group. In a similar vein, Laroche et al. (2003) linked the homogeneity of races to the ethnicity of consumers. The authors concluded that race homogeneity underpins product evaluation by different ethnic consumers in a nation, as individuals typically show greater attachment to promoted by people from the same racial background. Notably, British Canadian consumers preferred British products and products from Australia or Hong Kong, as these countries are homogeneous. Thus, in a multicultural study focused on ethnic consumers who are constantly in contact with each other, it seems necessary to consider racial homogeneity as a variable. However, Chand and Tung (2011) observed that Chinese Canadians showed a significant preference for and devotion to their homeland goods, whereas Indian Canadians showed much lower preference and attachment towards their mother country's products. Hence, these past findings suggested that the level of homogeneity and attachment might differ depending on race. Nonetheless, the studies of Simpson et al. (2000), Laroche et al. (2003) and Chand and Tung (2011) overlooked some additional factors that could also affect ethnic consumer identity. In comparison, this thesis examines a broader range of concepts (e.g., behaviours, practices and affirmation), compared for multiple ethnic groups; it also investigates the identity of various ethnic groups by generation.

2.4.2 Religion

Religion is another important determinant of ethnic identity, as it is widely used as a significant indicator of one's identity (Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007). The lives of believers revolve around practising their religious beliefs and values (Greenberg, Solomon & Pyszczynski, 1997). This means that religious beliefs may even outweigh the values of individuals and their ethnicity in certain situations (Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007).

According to Verkuyten and Yildiz's (2007) study of the relationship between religion and ethnicity, Turks living in the Netherlands showed a strong correlation between their religions and ethnic identity. To them, believing in the same religion (e.g., Islam) meant sharing the same Turkish ethnicity. Ethnic groups who are part of a collectivist culture want to be members of the religious group because religion provides the opportunity to bind the people together (Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007). Based on these results, the authors argued that religion is a key determinant of ethnic identity, because the stronger the religious belief, the higher the ethnic identity. Verkuyten and Martinovic (2012) supported Verkuyten and Yildiz's (2007) conclusion by confirming the dominant role of religious homogeneity in the determination of ethnic consumer identity.

Garg and Joshi (2018) found that religion affects consumers' willingness to buy, proving that there is a strong connection between religion and the purchase behaviour of ethnic consumers. The authors asserted that religion plays an essential role in determining consumers' attitudes toward products and services. Srivastava (2010) also showed that the religious nature of consumers in the Indian market affects their purchasing behaviour. Furthermore, existing studies (see Cleveland, Laroche & Hallab, 2013; Delener, 1990; Hirschman, 1981; Weaver & Agle, 2002) have shown that religion has a significant impact on the consumer buying decisions. As such, religion is one of the prominent cultural forces that can influence consumer identity and behaviour, and is considered one of the main drivers of ethnic identity in the study of country images.

Recently, Abdullah, Abdullah and Bujang (2021) supported the discovery of Garg and Joshi (2018) showing that religion works strongly between Malaysian Muslims and their purchase intentions. In particular, the authors concluded that it comprehensively affects everything, including consumption and purchasing behaviour, beyond faith and practice.

2.5 National consumer identity

National consumer identity refers to the importance of national solidarity and the subjective views on a consumer's internal relations with their host country (e.g., its politics, culture, and economy); it also often implies that consumers accept the culture and identity of the new place to which they migrated (Blank & Schmidt, 2003). In previous studies, it has been assumed that the national consumer identity of an individual depends on specific elements, such as cultural and political values (Moran, 2011; Smith, 1991;). However, with the advent of increasingly multicultural societies, global views (Papadopoulos, El Banna, & Murphy, 2017), multicultural policies (Ersanilli & Saharso, 2011; Thomson & Crul, 2007), social class changes (Altschul, Oyserman, & Bybee, 2006; Nekby & Rodin, 2007) and different degrees of acculturation (Berry, 2003; Redfield, Linton & Herskovits, 1936, p.149; Schwartz, Montgomery & Briones, 2006) of ethnic consumers in host countries are emerging as factors that determine a 'new' national consumer identity of ethnic consumers.

Fischer and Zeugner-Roth (2017) showed that consumers with high national consumer identity are more likely to buy products of their own country than those with low national consumer identity. The authors also pointed out that consumers with high national consumer identity tend to treat their own country products as 'domestic' and other products as 'foreign', implying that ethnic consumers with high national identity could show strong loyalty to host-country products.

In cross-cultural studies (e.g., Mondal & Karmakar, 2021; Phinney et al., 2006; Staerklé et al., 2010), it has been pointed out that many ethnic consumers show low national consumer identity because they tend to maintain their ethnicity. Indeed, past research (e.g., Phinney et al., 2006; Staerklé et al., 2010) revealed a negative link between ethnic consumer identity and national consumer identity, which means that the higher the ethnic consumer identity of ethnic consumers, the lower

the national consumer identity. Elkins and Sides (2007) clarified that there is a significant difference between minority groups (e.g., Vietnamese in Australia) and majority groups (e.g., Australia) in their attachment to the country, hinting that consumers with low national consumer identity may have a low attachment to the host country.

Surprisingly, the importance of the national consumer identity of ethnic consumers has often been overlooked in the marketing literature (c.f. Dinnie, 2001). As a consequence, marketing practices have paid relatively little attention to marketing strategies to address the needs of different ethnic consumer groups that show dissimilar levels of national identity. Identifying when and for what reason ethnic consumers adapted the national identity provides marketers with a basis for using a marketing strategy (Sevanandee & Damar-Ladkoo, 2018). This insight could lead to the development of marketing strategies for successfully targeting ethnic consumers. Accordingly, one of the aims of this thesis is to expand the base of the marketing literature by reviewing concepts that can affect the national consumer identity. The following section outlines the concepts that typically shape national consumer identity.

2.5.1 Social class

Social class is a set of conceptions that are subjectively defined in social sciences, meaning a group of people of similar status (Grant, 2001). In general, people of similar social class have similar levels of power and wealth, as determined by education and professional success (Rubin et al., 2014). Social class, as demonstrated through markers such as individual education levels and occupation status, is documented to influence the national consumer identity of ethnic consumers (Altschul, Oyserman & Bybee, 2006; Nekby & Rodin, 2007). Past studies (e.g., Nekby & Rodin, 2007; Martinovic, Van Tubergen, & Maas, 2009) stated that less educated ethnic consumers are not

economically wealthy, which typically leads to a relatively low national consumer identity. In comparison, highly educated ethnic consumers tend to have more voluntary contacts with the host country community (Martinovic, Van Tubergen, & Maas, 2009), which positively impacts their national consumer identity. In fact, Ten Teije, Coenders and Verkuyten (2010) confirmed that less-educated ethnic consumers tend to show lower national identity than do more highly educated ethnic consumers.

Buijs, Demant, and Hamdy (2006) proposed that high social class in individuals could decrease national identity – a hypothesis called the *integration paradox*. The integration paradox is a phenomenon in which highly educated individuals avoid host-country societies more than less-educated individuals (see also Verkuyten, 2016). Similarly, Bond (2016) posited that even individuals with high educational and professional job position can have a low national identity. In particular, individuals with higher social class are more sensitive to equality and acceptance than those from lower social class levels, so even a relatively small amount of discrimination cannot be tolerated, which ultimately has a negative impact on national consumer identity.

Irrespective of the conclusions drawn, existing studies clearly document the existence of a theoretical link between social class and national consumer identity. Therefore, this thesis considers the social class (e.g., education, occupational position and income) of consumers as one of the important driving forces affecting the identity and purchase intentions of ethnic consumers.

2.6 Factors that shape consumers' identities

In this thesis, language usage, behaviours and practices, and affirmation are considered to be factors likely to affect consumers' identities. First, which language is used by the subject (i.e., the mother

tongue or the host country's language) is a significant factor determining the identity of ethnic consumers. Many studies (Anderson, 2016; Bond, 2016; Hui et al., 1997; Laroche et al., 2003; Modood, 1997; Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998) have concluded that people who mainly use ethnic languages have a higher ethnic consumer identity than those who speak the language of host countries. Hence, it is reasonable to assume that people who speak the host-country language more often may have a higher national consumer identity, whereas people who interchangeably speak both the home- and host-country languages are more likely to embrace a dual consumer identity. Second, some scholars (e.g., Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; El Banna et al., 2018; Phinney, 1992) confirmed that individuals who participate more frequently in ethnic cultural events and holidays than in host-country events have a higher ethnic consumer identity. In the same vein, people who share positive feelings about ethnic culture have a higher ethnic consumer identity than those who do not (*affirmation*). The following sections cover each of these factors in further detail.

2.6.1 Language usage

Languages are an essential tool that minorities use to manifest their identity and roots, and thus have a remarkable impact on ethnic consumer identity decisions (Anderson, 2016; Bond, 2016; Hui et al., 1997; Laroche et al., 2003; Modood, 1997; Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998). Specifically, members of the same ethnic group share strong cultural and historical ties, as well as common cultural characteristics such as the mother tongue (Laroche et al., 2003). Language is vital in the formation of thought patterns and behavioural reactions, because it provides interpretation codes (or schemas) for organising and expressing the world (Douglas, 1976; Sojka & Tansuhaj, 1995). Moreover, in accordance with the aims and focus of this thesis, language influences the purchase behaviour of ethnic consumers. For example, Laroche, Kim and Clarke (1997) and Laroche et al. (2003) explored the theoretical link between consumers' choice of language (mother tongue vs

host-country language) and purchase intention. The authors found that groups of ethnic consumers who more often speak the ethnic language than the host country language evaluate more positively home country products and show higher willingness to buy them.

More broadly, Kim, Laroche and Lee (1990) found that language use and ethnic homogeneity were reliable measures of the strength of ethnic attributes, and the results of their study have since been used in multidimensional ethnic indices (Bond, 2016; Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003; Liu, 2011; Modood et al., 1997; Phinney, 1996). Liu (2011) pointed out that Chinese Australians who spoke the same ethnic language (e.g., Mandarin) maintained close relationships without being separated from their ethnic groups. The author also noted that speaking the same mother tongue is a key indicator of cultural identity (Bond, 2016; Díaz, 2016; Steel & Taras, 2010). Liu's (2011) findings are consistent with those of Laroche, Kim and Clarke (1997) and Laroche et al. (2003), as these studies also noted that for their subjects, sharing their mother tongue meant sharing their ethnic consumer identity and cultural identity.

Nonetheless, past research that examined the correlation between language and ethnic consumer identity did not consider the identity of a person who speaks both their ethnic language and that of the host country. Furthermore, past research overlooked the identity of a person who is an ethnic member but only spoke the host country's language. As a result, further research is required to investigate the relationship between language and ethnic consumer identity.

2.6.2 Behaviours, practices, affirmation and sense of belonging

The behavioural participation and practices within specific ethnic groups and cultures are known to impact the identity of their members (Phinney, 1992, 2006). Past studies (Cleveland, Papadopoulos

& Laroche, 2011; El Banna et al., 2018; Phinney, 1992) stressed that the identity of consumers depends on which cultural events (or custom holidays) they participate in (or celebrate) more between their home and the host country. Burke and Stets (2009) pointed out that consumers' behavioural patterns represent the identity of the ethnic group. These authors also noted that consumers belonging to the same ethnic group have unity of thoughts and behaviours. Hence, it is plausible to assume that consumers sharing the same ethnicity are likely to show similar consumption patterns.

Other factors that can determine a consumers' identity are emotions and a sense of belonging. If a consumer is proud of their culture of origin (Simpson et al., 2000; Waters, 1994; Wimmer, 2004), he or she has a strong sense of belonging to their ethnic identity. On the contrary, if a consumer is proud of the culture of a host country and has positive feelings about it, he or she can see their sense of belonging to the host country as vital. Emotions are derived from one's culture (Svašek, 2010) and affect one's identity, as well as relationships with others (Galasińska, 2010). Bourdieu (1990) argued that emotions about ethnicity formed by habit can determine the identity of an individual. Anagnostou (2009) also claimed that habitual emotions contribute to the formation of ethnic consumer identity. More recently, Anderson (2016) claimed that positive or negative emotion toward the home and host countries of consumers determine their identity and sense of belonging. The author examined the correlation between ethnic consumer identity and emotion among German Australians who settled in Melbourne, Australia. German Australians generally stated that they had positive emotions around their culture and technology, and thus did not hesitate to indicate their ethnic consumer identity. Anderson's (2016) findings supported Wimmer's (2004) claim that if a person is proud of their culture, they experience belonging to the ethnic group.

Unfortunately, existing research (e.g., Anderson, 2016; Anagnostou, 2009; El Banna et al., 2018; Phinney, 1992; Simpson et al., 2000; Waters, 1994; Wimmer, 2004) has often overlooked the fact that ethnic consumers can have similar feelings for the home and host countries, and might take part in both home and host country cultural events. Therefore, further research is required on consumer feelings (positive or negative) towards the home and host country in order to ascertain their likely impact on the identity of consumers who simultaneously embrace both their home and host cultures, and any resulting behaviour.

2.6.3 Generational effect

Past studies have demonstrated that ethnicity is dynamic (Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998); above all, it might vary from generation to generation within the same ethnic group. Indeed, some scholars (e.g., Bond, 2016; Cárdenas, Verkuyten, & Fleischmann, 2021; Evangelista & Albaum, 2010; Poon, Evangelista & Albaum, 2010; Tung, 2008; Verkuyten & Martinovic, 2012) pointed out that ethnicity can change across generations and different cultures. For example, the first generation of Asian ethnic groups in America, such as Chinese and Koreans, were more interested in their culture and sought to maintain their ethnic identity while pursuing an active ethnic community than subsequent generations (see Cui, 1997; Wimmer, 2004). Similarly, according to Wimmer (2004), the first generation of Turks to live in Switzerland and Italy were also keen to preserve their ethnic identity. Other studies (e.g., Anderson, 2016; Zhou & Gatewood, 2000) argued that the second generation of consumers actively embraces the culture of the host country, revealing a higher level of national identity than the first generation. For instance, the second generation of Germans born and raised in Australia actively embraces the culture of host countries and presents a higher level of national identity than the first generation (Bond, 2016). Finally, Poon, Evangelista and Albaum (2010) posited that Western consumers (e.g., the US, Germany and Canada) are more active in embracing the

culture and identity of the host country than Asian consumers (e.g., Iranian, Vietnamese, and Chinese), who show no intense interest with their home country.

Based on the above findings, this thesis contends that the ethnicity of consumers might vary from culture to culture and across generations. This is an important contribution to marketing research, given that previous studies (e.g., Portes & Zhou, 1993; Wimmer, 2004) ignored the possibility that the first and second generations in the same ethnic group may have different identities, together with the fact that consumers with different cultures can choose different identities. Yet, Quester, Karunaratna & Kee Goh (2000) argued that when consumers face a new environment (e.g., through immigration or international marriage), their identity can be negotiated. These identity changes may also depend on which culture (home vs host) consumers are more exposed to (see Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998). Therefore, this thesis aims to uncover factors affecting the identity of ethnic consumers, including generational differences. Table 2.2 summarises the studies reviewed in this chapter of the concepts that affect ethnic, national and dual consumer identity.

Table 2.2 Studies of concepts affecting consumers' identity

Reference	Concepts affecting consumers' identity							
	Race	Religion	Language usage	Behaviors	Affirmation	Generational effect	Social class	Acculturation
<u>Chand & Tung (2011)</u>	x							
<u>Laroche et al. (2003)</u>			x					
<u>Simpson (2000)</u>	x							
<u>Nwankwo & Lindridge (1998)</u>								x
<u>Wimmer (2004)</u>				x		x		
<u>Anderson (2016)</u>				x				
<u>Bond (2016)</u>		x				x		
<u>Phinney (1992)</u>				x	x			
<u>Verkuyten & Martinovic (2012)</u>								
<u>Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche (2011)</u>				x	x			
<u>Verkuyten & Yildiz (2007)</u>		x						
<u>Greenberg, Solomon & Pyszczynski (1997)</u>		x						
<u>Kim, Laroche & Lee. (1990)</u>			x					
<u>Liu (2011)</u>			x					
<u>El Banna et al. (2018)</u>				x	x			
<u>Svašek (2010)</u>					x			
<u>Burke & Stets (2009)</u>				x	x			
<u>Hui et al. (1997)</u>			x	x				
<u>Altschul, Oyserman, & Bybee (2006)</u>							x	
<u>Nekby & Rodin (2007)</u>							x	
<u>Ten Teije, Coenders, & Verkuyten (2010)</u>							x	
<u>Martinovic, Van Tubergen, & Maas (2009)</u>							x	
<u>Buijs, Demant, & Hamdy (2006)</u>							x	
<u>Redfield, Linton & Herskovits (1936)</u>								x
<u>Piontkowski, Rohmann, & Florack (2002)</u>								x
<u>Berry (2003)</u>						x		
<u>Schwartz et al. (2006)</u>								x
<u>Romero et al. (2018)</u>								x
<u>Nguyen & Von Eye (2002)</u>			x	x				
<u>Sam & Berry (2006)</u>					x			
<u>Fleischman & Verkuyten (2016)</u>								
<u>Cárdenas, Verkuyten & Fleischmann (2021)</u>			x			x		

2.7 Chapter summary

Chapter 2 has explored the relevant theoretical bases of this thesis, which are needed to understand and measure the identity and purchase behaviour of ethnic consumers.

First, the chapter began by explaining and highlighting the importance of country image, a concept that has been considered for decades as an essential tool in international business research and practice for predicting and judging consumers' purchase intention. In more detail, country image is divided into both cognitive and affective dimensions, and this chapter clarified the importance of both in shaping consumer identity. In addition, the chapter highlighted that affective country image is more relevant in shaping purchasing decisions when the cognitive and affective country images of the source country do not match. This premise was needed to support the following assumption of this thesis: the emotions (either positive or negative) ethnic consumers have toward their home and host countries strongly affect purchase decisions. Finally, this chapter identified aspects of the relationship between ethnic consumers and home and host countries, which have not received much attention in past research. Accordingly, the chapter outlined how the dimensions of country image (cognitive and affective) affect consumer identity development as a conceptual factor.

Second, based on research on ethnic consumer marketing, this chapter emphasised ethnicity as a key factor useful for predicting consumer behaviour. The chapter then touched on the social identity theory (SIT), as it clarified that consumers with the same identity have similar behaviour patterns (e.g., purchase intention), supporting the possibility that consumers' ethnicity can influence purchasing decisions through a classic theory of planned behaviour (TPB) lens.

Third, the chapter presented a review of racial homogeneity, religion and level of acculturation as fundamental factors shaping the identity of consumers (ethnic vs. national consumer identity). In particular, it emphasised that consumers of the same ethnicity could have different identities

depending on their level of acculturation, and that this could be expressed as different purchasing intentions for their home and host country products and services. For example, consumers with a high level of acculturation tend to take on the host country's identity (called national consumer identity), which may indicate a high willingness to purchase products and services from the host country. Subsequently, the chapter focused on the notion of national consumer identity, embraced in this thesis as having significant potential for explaining the likelihood that ethnic consumers might display unexpected purchase preferences for products from the home and host countries.

Finally, the chapter discussed language, behaviours and practices, and affirmation, all of which are documented to have great implications for researching consumer identity and the related outcomes (e.g., purchase decisions).

The next chapter describes the design, conceptual framework and hypothesis development of this thesis, and explains how it helps to achieve the purpose of this research.

CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Chapter overview

Chapter two presented an extensive review of existing literature linking home and host country image to consumer identity. It also discussed how these variables may impact the purchasing behaviour/intention of ethnic consumers who live in a multicultural society. Through the review of relevant past studies, the previous chapter also outlined several significant knowledge voids. In particular, the previous chapter revealed a clear need for new conceptual and empirical evidence to improve the understanding of the factors likely to influence the purchasing behaviour of first and second generations of ethnic consumers when choosing to buy host vs. home country products and services in the host country. Accordingly, this chapter presents a conceptual model of the feasible relationships between the core variables. The chapter also discusses the link between the thesis' empirical context used, the studies, and the related hypotheses to be tested.

In more detail, this chapter aims to delve deeper into the components of the conceptual framework, explaining its original contribution to marketing theory and practice, and elucidating the theoretical relationships seen in Figure 3.3. The chapter clarifies the various components of the research framework, research questions, and the rationale for this thesis, considering relevant existing research (see § 3.2). The chapter also describes the research approach used in this thesis (see § 3.2.1) and provides an overview of the selected analytical approaches (see § 3.2.2). Further, this chapter illustrates the hypotheses development (see § 3.2.3), research paradigm (see § 3.2.4) and stimuli used (see § 3.2.5). This information is then brought together into the final section of the

chapter (see §3.3), which outlines the empirical study design and outlines the various research steps undertaken.

3.2 Research framework

Table 3.3 describes the critical constructs and concepts included in the research model with reference to the key existing studies drawn upon.

Table 3.3 The key theoretical components investigated

Cognitive country image (CCI)	Consumer beliefs about a given country (as retained in memory), such as its level of economic development, living standards, work culture and technological development (Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Wang & Lamb, 1980, 1983).
Positive affective country image (ACI)	A positive emotional response by a consumer to a certain country, including feelings of happiness, excitement, and love (Li et al., 2014; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Verlegh, 2001).
Negative affective country image (ACI)	A negative emotional response by a consumer to a certain country, including feelings of sympathy, anger, and shame (Laroche et al., 2005; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).
Ethnic consumer identity	The extent to which consumers hold a strong identity linked to their ‘home’ country, or the home country of at least one of their parents (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Phinney et al., 2006).
National consumer identity	The extent to which consumers hold a strong identity linked to their ‘host’ country or the ‘new’ country they migrated to (Berry et al., 2006a; Verkuyten & Martinovic, 2012).

Country image (CI) is generally described as a source of holistic, often stereotypical, views that a consumer forms in their mind about a certain country. CI’s influence on consumer expectations and products evaluations has been intensively studied since the 1960s (Han, 1989; Nagashima, 1970). For example, it has been widely established that when consumers form opinions of products and services from different countries, they use a combination of cognitive and affective CI ‘cues’ to inform purchase decisions (Han, 1989; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Nagashima, 1970; Park, Zourrig & El Hedhli, 2021; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Wang et al., 2012). Early research relied almost

exclusively on measures that quantified consumers' cognitively formed assumptions of a location (Han, 1989; Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Nagashima, 1970). Later, it was found that consumers also have emotional or 'affective' reactions to different locations, and this can influence their perceptions of the country or 'place', its people, products, and services (Laroche et al., 2005; Li et al., 2014; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).

Cognitive country image (CCI) represents consumers' beliefs in attributes about a country that are more objective in nature; for example, CCI refers to aspects that lead to assumptions regarding manufacturing capabilities (e.g., economic development, technological development, infrastructure) and the freedom of individuals to be entrepreneurs and possess, largely, control over their own business (e.g., democratic systems, education and quality of life) (Desborde, 1990; Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993; Kühn, 1993; Martin & Eroglu, 1993). In previous studies (e.g., Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Cleaver, Green & Muller, 2000; De Mooij, 2019; Wegapitiya & Dissanayake, 2018), CCI has been used as a tool to distinguish between developed vs. developing countries, confirming consumers tend to show greater purchase intentions (PI) for products and services from developed countries.

Affective country image (ACI) represents positive (e.g., love, happiness, inspiration) and negative feelings (e.g., anger, disappointment and fear) consumers have toward a country, irrespective of rational thoughts or objective information memorised (Brijs, 2006; Laroche et al., 2005; Papadopoulos, Heslop & IKON Research Group, 2000; Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Verlegh, 2001). According to Li et al. (2014), emotions toward a particular country (e.g., home vs. host country) impact consumers' product judgment and PI and positive or negative emotions about a particular country directly influence consumers' experiential purchases. The literature also consistently supports the view that

ACI can be used in consumer decision-making as an accurate 'criteria or standard' of quality of products and services, even if the experienced product quality falls short of expectations (El Banna, et al., 2018; Papadopoulos, El Banna, & Murphy, 2017; Podoshen, 2009; Yelkur, Chakrabarty & Bandyopadhyay, 2006). Therefore, a positive ACI for the source country significantly impacts the choice of products and services in the source country and indicates the importance of ACI in CI research. However, existing studies (see Han, 1989; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Nagashima, 1977; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Wang et al., 2012) have not returned consistent conclusions about the relationship between CCI and ACI. This reasoning leads to the following research question:

RQ1: To what extent do the cognitive and affective (positive and negative) CIs of the home and host affect consumers' PI of products and services from the host v. home country?

Past studies (Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Sevanandee & Damar-Ladkoo, 2018) have explained that ethnic consumers' perceptions and feelings about their home countries tend to be positive; for instance, ethnic consumers have nostalgia for their home country (Dimitriadou et al., 2019; Ray Lam & Yeoh, 2004; & McCain, 2012). Nostalgia stimulates positive emotions for the home country, making memories about the motherland more positive. This positive perception can influence the individual ability and willingness to maintain their ethnic identity (Cui, 1997; Licsandru & Cui, 2019). Conversely, ethnic consumers who have left their home countries for some negative reason may negatively perceive their home countries. Furthermore, depending on where consumers were born and raised, the status of their home and host country may vary. For example, the second generation of consumers born and raised in the host country may consider the host country their home country and choose to have a national consumer identity.

Considering the aims of this thesis and the existing findings discussed so far, it is likely that the more positive the CCI of the home country, the higher the ethnic consumer identity and the lower the national consumer identity, and vice versa. Moreover, if consumers have positive feelings (positive ACI) about their home country, they should have a greater ethnic identity. Conversely, if consumers have negative feelings about their home country (negative ACI), they should show a stronger national consumer identity. The reverse is also possible when considering ACI for the host country. However, previous marketing research explored only instances where purchasing-related behaviours is affected by CI (e.g., Brijs, 2006; Laroche et al., 2003; Papadopoulos, Heslop & IKON Research Group, 2000; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Verlegh, 2001), overlooking the fact that CI of home and host countries can shape consumers' identity. This reasoning leads to the following:

RQ2: *To what extent do the home country and host country CI determine the ethnic consumer identity and national consumer identity of immigrants living outside their home country in a host country?*

Existing research (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003; Liu, 2011) has confirmed the role of consumer identity in consumer evaluations of products and services, via shaping purchasing intentions. There is also evidence that consumer identity greatly influences PI (El Banna et al., 2018; Yelkur, Chakrabarty & Bandyopadhyay, 2006), since consumers often aim to express their identity through purchasing decisions when buying products related to a particular country (e.g., home vs. host country). A more 'positive or negative' CI can increase a consumer's 'emotional intention', shaping consumer attitudes and responses toward a product from a specific country (see Li et al., 2014; Pew Research Center, 2006; Xiao et al., 2016). Accordingly, this thesis assumes that consumer identity impacts PI and mediates the relationship between the home country and the host country's CI and PI. Consequently, consumers with a national consumer

identity may be positive about the products and services of a host country, with national identity being expressed to promote national interests. However, previous marketing studies have not explored the relationship between PI and consumer identity, especially the impact of the identity of consumers (ethnic vs. national) residing in host countries on purchasing products and services from home and host countries. As a result, it is unclear how consumer identity affects home and host country products and services PI; yet this is an aspect that needs to be clarified to determine the underlying mechanisms that form a PI for host vs. home country products and services. Hence:

RQ3: To what extent do the ethnic consumer identity and national consumer identity impact the PI of home vs. host country products or services?

3.2.1 Research approach

To address the research questions, this thesis adopts a series of quantitative research methods, as they are the best way to explain specific phenomena and generalise empirical findings linked to the phenomena investigated (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Connolly, 2007; Gorard, 2001; Mariusz, 2021; Shank & Brown, 2007). More broadly, a quantitative research approach has many advantages that are relevant to the aims and objectives of this thesis, as follows.

First, quantitative research methods are often standardised, reducing bias in data collection and analysis; thus, the results are valid, reliable, and generalisable (Connolly, 2007; Gorard, 2001). Second, studies using quantitative methods can be easily replicated to achieve the same results, even if repeated at different times and places (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Shank & Brown, 2007). Indeed, replicability is another advantage that this research approach can induce. Finally, quantitative research approaches ensure researchers' objectivity, thanks to the ease of

interpretation of results, explanation of findings and drawing of conclusions (Creswell, 2009; Lichtman, 2006; Muijs, 2004).

In the specific instance of this thesis, quantitative research methods are used to test the validity of the proposed theoretical model, answering the research questions outlined so far and testing a series of specific research hypotheses (presented later in this chapter). Doing so fully embraces the scientific traditions of objectivism and positivism (Mariusz, 2021; Rahman, 2016), ensuring that the thesis adds robust new findings to the relevant field of marketing knowledge.

3.2.2 Research analysis methods

In terms of the specific quantitative research methods used, the thesis uses exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to confirm the conceptualisation and measurement of the focal concepts, together with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the validity and reliability of all measures. The thesis also uses covariance-based structural equation modelling (SEM) to test the hypotheses, using Amos SPSS version 27.0 statistical tool. In general, it is believed that researchers need to have a strong theory that underlies a measurement model before analysing the data (Brown & Moore, 2012; Thompson, 2004), as demonstratable through CFA and EFA. In particular, EFA may be appropriate for the early stages of scale development and CFA is used to investigate the expected causal relationship between variables in data analysis (Brown & Moore, 2012; Hurley et al., 1997; Suhr, 2006; Thompson, 2004). In fact, existing studies measuring consumer identity and PI (e.g., El Banna et al., 2018; Laroche et al., 2003; Mokhlis, 2012) also used CFA and EFA.

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a well-established technique for multivariate statistical analysis (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013), and has been extensively employed in marketing

research to determine the drivers of consumer decisions, including the prediction of PI (see El Banna et al., 2018; Laroche et al., 2003; Mokhlis, 2012). According to Steenkamp Batra and Alden (2003) SEM is a strong method for theory testing in marketing research; it is also a robust technique accounting for measurement error, which is suitable for testing hypotheses in cross-sectional research testing varying sets of constructs and measures. Furthermore, SEM allows for less rigorous sample distribution assumptions (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013).

In brief, SEM involves the measurement of respondents' psychological judgments of perceived similarities or differences between different product profiles by studying the 'path effects' on consumers' product preferences (Baron & Kenny, 1986; MacKinnon et al., 2002). In this thesis, SEM will be deployed to estimate PI, based on multiple causal relationships between the variables of interest (country image, and ethnic and national consumer identity). The flexibility of SEM also allows exploration of a range of underlying theoretical links (Lüdtke et al., 2008; Preacher, Zyphur & Zhang, 2010) and the accurate empirical appraisal of consumer behaviour (PI for host vs. home country products and services in the instance of this thesis) within a controlled experimental design (Preacher, Zhang & Zyphur, 2011; Preacher, Zyphur & Zhang, 2010). Lastly, SEM imposes few constraints in terms of the measures and links that can be tested, allowing for parametric, non-parametric and categorical variables specified at various levels (i.e., first vs. second order constructs) (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013).

3.2.3 Development of the causal model and core research hypotheses

The dependent variable at the heart of the conceptual model of this thesis is PI, assumed to derive from the assessment of home and host CI's cues, and to be moderated by the consumers' ethnic and national identities. PI has been defined in various ways and there are various approaches to its

measurement (Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979; Demby, 1974; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). This thesis focuses on the literature discussing the prediction of PI in the CI literature, as follows.

In the literature evaluating country-of-origin effects, CI is typically divided into cognitive and affective (positive and negative) dimensions, both assumed to influence consumer buying decisions (Adenan, Ali & Rahman, 2018; Han, 1989; Martin & Eroglu, 1993). Specifically, CI studies have established that consumer sentiment towards a country affects their intention to buy (e.g., Brijs, 2006; Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993; Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Verlegh, 2001), the prices they are willing to pay (e.g., Cordell, 1993; Diallo, 2012) and quality expectations (e.g., Grewal et al., 1998; Whittal, Hanke & Lippke, 2017). The conceptual framework this thesis proposes adopts this type of CI-oriented PI prediction, but also links CI (cognitive and affective) to the analysis of consumer identity (ethnic and national), compared to alternative variables. According to the literature (see Bond, 2016; Hui et al., 1997; Phinney, 1992; Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007), ethnic consumers have an ethnic consumer identity, which captures where they come from. They also have a national consumer identity, which originates from where they live. In essence, consumers living in host countries away from their home countries have a sense of where they were (ethnic consumer identity), and at the same time, begin to recognise where they are (adopted new identity). Figure 3.3 illustrates the associations formalised in the stated hypotheses that will test the links between: i) CI (cognitive and affective, and for the home v. host country) and PI (for home country v. host country products and services); ii) ethnic and national consumer identities and PI; and iii) the mediating role of consumers' identities between the independent and dependent variables. Notably, the dependent variable PI will be converted into a utility value representing each tested CI variable and consumer identity. This conversion is necessary to evaluate the impact of CI on ethnic vs. national identity, and then the respective impact on PI.

Home/Host Country Image and PI

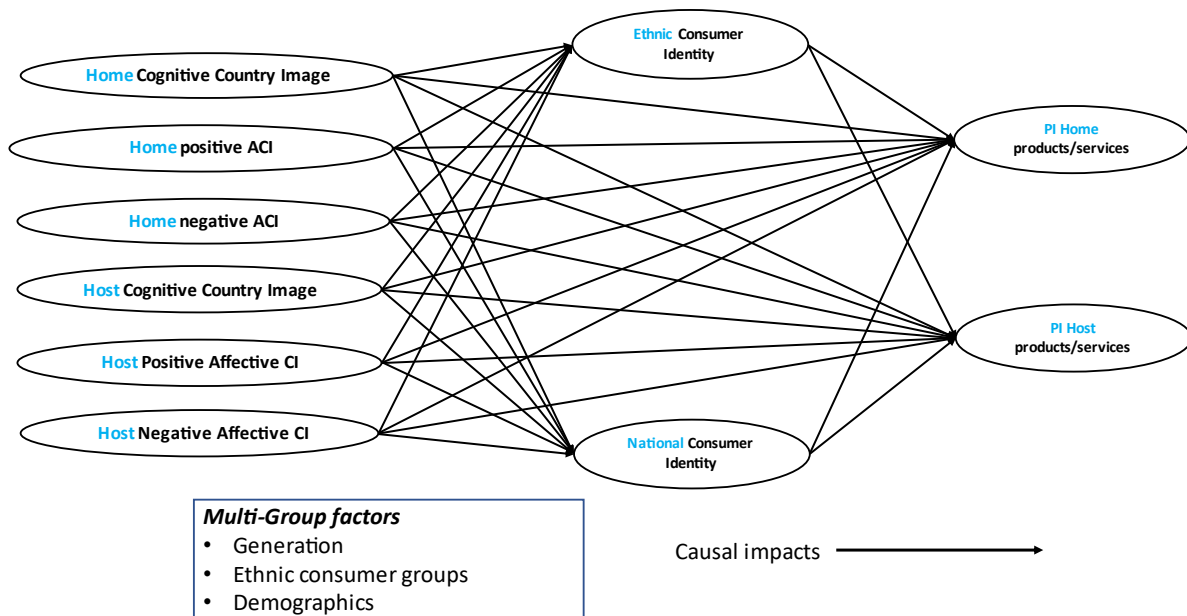


Figure 3.3 Conceptual framework of the study

Consumers' perceptions of their home and host country may affect their ethnic or national consumer identity. Existing studies (e.g., Lam & Yeoh, 2004; Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Wegapitiya & Dissanayake, 2018) stress that consumers who have moved from a developing country to a developed country tend to choose the national identity of the developed country. This means that consumers can choose a national consumer identity. Understanding consumers' emotions (positive or negative) towards their home country provides important clues as to where their roots or identity are anchored vs. their likelihood to change (e.g., shift toward a new national identity elsewhere) (Sierra & McQuitty, 2007). Emotions for the home country form nostalgia, which denotes longing for the past or positive or negative feelings about experiences and memories related to the past (Fairley, 2003; Holbrook & Schindler, 1996). According to Ray and McCain (2012), consumers consider their home country as the place where they were born and spent their childhood; thus,

they often tend to cherish nostalgic memories of their home country and feel an inseparable connection between the home country – a fact that shapes their ethnic consumer identity.

Previous CI studies concentrated primarily on the implications of the cognitive image of the source country and PI (Han, 1989; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Nagashima, 1970; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Wang et al., 2012). Some studies (see Brijs, 2006; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2000; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Verlegh, 2001) claimed that immigrants indicated positive emotions and a strong PI toward their home country products, highlighting the significance of ACI and clarifying how emotions about the home country affect PI. Although these studies recognised the importance of CI and consumer identity (e.g., Han, 1989 1990; Laroche et al., 2005; Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Park, Zourrig & El Hedhli, 2021; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009), the mechanisms through which the relationship between the CI and the consumer identity unfolds remain unclear. Moreover, the ways through which PI develops for immigrants because of CI, and for host vs. home country products and services are unknown. Based on the literature considered so far, this thesis proposes the following hypotheses:

H1. CCI for the home country (hereafter 'Home CCI') significantly and a) positively influences PI of products and services from the home country (**hereafter 'Home PI'**), b) negatively influences PI of products and services from the host country (**hereafter 'Host PI'**), c) positively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) negatively influences national consumer identity.

H2. Positive ACI for the home country (hereafter 'Home positive ACI') significantly and a) positively influences home PI, b) negatively influences host PI, c) positively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) negatively influences national consumer identity.

H3. Negative ACI for the home country (hereafter 'Home negative ACI') significantly and a) negative influences home PI, b) positively influences host PI, c) negatively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) Positively influences National consumer identity.

H4. CCI for the host country (hereafter 'Host CCI') significantly and a) negatively influences home PI, b) positively influences host PI, c) negatively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) positively influences national consumer identity.

H5. Positive ACI for the host country (hereafter 'Host positive ACI') significantly and a) negatively influences home PI, b) positively influences host PI, c) negatively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) positively influences national consumer identity.

H6. Negative ACI for the host country (hereafter 'Host negative ACI') significantly and a) positively influences home PI, b) negatively influences host PI, c) positively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) negatively influences national consumer identity.

Consumers with the same identity are likely to share the same memories of their home country's products and services, with similar purchase orientations (Chand & Tung, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003). Existing research (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003; Liu, 2011) has provided support for the significant role of consumer identity (ethnic or national) in consumer evaluations of PI. Consumer identities also help transfer impact and feelings to their home and host countries through a categorisation process (Laroche et al., 2003). This occurrence can be explained as follows: a more 'positive or negative' CI recognition can leverage a consumer's 'emotional intention' and thus affect consumer perceptions and attitude responses (El Banna et al., 2018; Yelkur, Chakrabarty & Bandyopadhyay, 2006). Accordingly, the thesis considers consumer identity

as an important mediator of the relationship between the home country and the host country's CI and PI, and tests the following hypotheses:

H7 Ethnic consumer identity significantly and a) positively influences home PI, and b) negatively influences host PI.

H8. National consumer identity significantly and a) positively influences host PI, and b) negatively influences home PI.

Nwankwo and Lindridge (1998) stated that ethnicity could change over time, due to the subjective choices of individuals and other changes in the environment (see also Quester, Karunaratna & Kee Goh, 2000). The authors argued that consumers' ethnic identity could be negotiated when a person faces a new environment (e.g., immigration or international marriage). This change in identity can have subjective effects on what cultures (home or host) consumers will be involved with and the related feelings. Quester, Karunaratna and Chong (2001) posited that the longer individuals live in the host country, the higher the degree of acculturation, thanks to further familiarisation with the host country's culture and environment. For example, the second generation of immigrants will likely adopt some aspects of the new country's culture (Piontkowski, Rohmann, & Florack, 2002; Redfield, Linton & Herskovits, 1936). Acculturation can impact the ethnic identity of consumers and PI (Piontkowski, Rohmann, & Florack, 2002). Moreover, the literature (see Anderson, 2016; Wimmer, 2004; Zhou & Gatewood, 2000) confirmed that the first generation of ethnic consumers displays more strength and conviction to maintain their ethnicity than the second generation. Based on these reflections, this thesis also tests the following hypotheses:

H9 Generation effect significantly moderates a) the relationship between home CCI and ethnic consumer identity, b) the relationship between home positive ACI and ethnic consumer identity, and c) the relationship between home negative ACI and ethnic consumer identity.

H10. Generation effect significantly moderates a) the relationship between host CCI and national consumer identity, b) the relationship between host positive ACI and national consumer identity, and c) the relationship between host negative ACI and national consumer identity.

3.2.4 Research paradigm

This thesis concentrates on two documented forms of CI (CCI and ACI) and their respective influence on PI as mediated by consumer identity (ethnic vs. national). Previous studies mainly evaluated the effect of CI on PI (see Adenan, Ali & Rahman, 2018; Han, 1990; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Sevanandee & Damar- Ladkoo, 2018; Su, 2010; Wang et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2016). No previous research has considered the possibility of CI acting as a 'bundle' of cognitive and affective 'cues' likely to determine consumers' identity, and also, not many studies manifest, using CI bundle, buying behaviour as preferences (PI) for host vs. home country products and services (e.g., Zolfagharian, Saldivar & Williams, 2020).. Furthermore, the mediating role of consumer identity, as a possible 'pathway' or explanation of the theoretical link between the CI and PI, has not been previously investigated. In this thesis, these variables are expected to be work as 'filters', assisting consumers in decision-making. Testing this model contributes to consumer behaviour research through the expansion of the understanding of consumer identity, assuming it to be the result of CI 'cues' not considered in existing literature.

Past research has established that internal factors (e.g., emotions, Galasińska, 2010; Svašek, 2010) and external factors (e.g., race or ethnicity, Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Simpson et al., 2000) shape consumer identity. The literature also confirmed that consumers sharing the same identity share similar opinions about the products and services experienced (Laroche et al., 2003). Chapter 2 discussed in greater detail the factors affecting the identity of ethnic consumers and concentrated on existing empirical evidence corroborating that consumer identity influences purchasing behaviour. Furthermore, Chapter 2 highlighted the value of using CI (CCI and ACI) as 'cues' of the home and host country that contribute to the identity of consumers (ethnic v. national). Hence, the proposed model is pragmatic, as it includes these independent and moderate variables, and quantifies the impact on the intention to buy home vs. host country products and services.

3.2.5 Stimuli used

The model was tested using different consumer groups, different languages, and different empirical contexts. This section presents the reasons for selecting these stimuli and the testing levels.

3.2.5.1 Ethnic group difference

Existing studies suggest that different ethnic groups may have dissimilar identities (Piontkowski, Rohmann, & Florack, 2002; Redfield, Linton & Herskovits, 1936). For example, Turkish ethnic consumers living in Europe are obsessed with maintaining their ethnicity, while Canadians are receptive to accepting new identities (e.g., Simpson et al., 2000; Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007). In addition, the majority of existing studies (see De Vroome, Verkuyten, & Martinovic, 2014; Fleischmann & Verkuyten, 2016; Simpson et al., 2000; Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007) concentrated on only two groups at a time, and the groups considered were often quite large in terms of percentage

of the ethnic consumers (e.g., the Turkish immigration group). To address such shortcomings, in this study, various immigrant groups, namely Latvians, Vietnamese, Italians, and Iranians living in Australia, were identified as test groups. The selected groups covered very different cultures, languages, and economic and geographical backgrounds. Possible differences between the ethnic groups considered do not constitute a formal hypothesis of this thesis; however, possible differences were implemented in the sampling group.

3.2.5.2 Different languages

Language is an essential tool for explaining an individual's identity and roots, and significantly impacts ethnic consumer identity (Anderson, 2016; Bond, 2016; Laroche et al., 2003; Modood et al., 1997; Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998). Past research has reported a strong link between language choice and ethnicity (Anderson, 2016; Hui et al., 1997; Laroche et al., 2003; Modood et al., 1997; Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998). Thus, it is reasonable to assume that consumers can have an ethnic identity if they prefer to use their home country language and a national consumer identity if they prefer to use the host country language. In addition, previous studies (see Laroche et al., 2003) have shown that the intention of purchasing products from home and host countries may vary depending on the use of language (ethnic vs. host country language). Accordingly, this thesis considers language usage as an important moderation in the relationship between home and host CI and PI.

3.2.5.3 Empirical context

With respect to the empirical contexts, the thesis considers two different real-life products and services: buying groceries and financial services/advice. The rationale for choosing these two contexts now follows.

Category 1: Groceries

Past studies (Gabaccia, 2000; Shange, 1998; Williams-Forson, 2014) confirmed a positive and significant relationship between ethnic food and the maintenance of the ethnic consumer identity. Williams-Forson (2014) emphasised ethnic food can be used to preserve the ethnic culture and to sustain ethnic identity because it is an expression of values such as ethnic lifestyle, traditions, and faith, and combines beliefs with simple human habits. Food can also trigger powerful emotions (Williams-Forson, 2014), including nostalgia. Indeed, food serves as a channel for shaping identity, memory and tradition, and food habits linked to ethnicity are rarely given up (Gabaccia, 2000; Shange, 1998). Thus, ethnic grocery was chosen as the first empirical context of this thesis since it serves as channels for connecting ethnic consumers' traditions and customs, preserving their relations with their home country.

Category 2: Financial advice and services

Consumers often rely on expert financial advice when making investment decisions, especially in the presence of strong information asymmetry and lack of expertise (Zhan, Anderson & Zhang, 2012). Financial advice and service apply to various areas, such as investment, insurance, and real estate planning (Paulson et al., 2006; Rhine, Greene & Toussaint-Comeau, 2006). Recently, many banks and financial institutions have been actively engaged in activities (e.g., developing financial products and services) to attract ethnic customers (Paulson et al., 2006; Rhine, Greene & Toussaint-Comeau, 2006). For instance, the first generation of ethnic consumers often has no choice but to rely on professional financial advisers to explain and advise on investment-related matters, because

it can be difficult to understand the host country's laws, regulations and procedures. A reasonable assumption is that ethnic consumers may prefer the same ethnicity when they seek experts to help them with their finances.

Compared to previous studies that looked at purchasing behaviour in general or only one category, this section looks at two large categories with many meanings. Results in this empirical context section will add statistics showing growth in the availability of ethnic food in big retailers and the proliferation of small grocery stores specialising in providing ethnic foods. Likewise, the statistics will show that provision of ethnic financial services will provide an opportunity to expand Australian financial services and diversify Australian finance. Based on this information, financial advice and services were selected as the second empirical context.

3.3 Overview of the research design

The empirical study included in this thesis comprises six stages: see Figure 3.4 stages of the research.

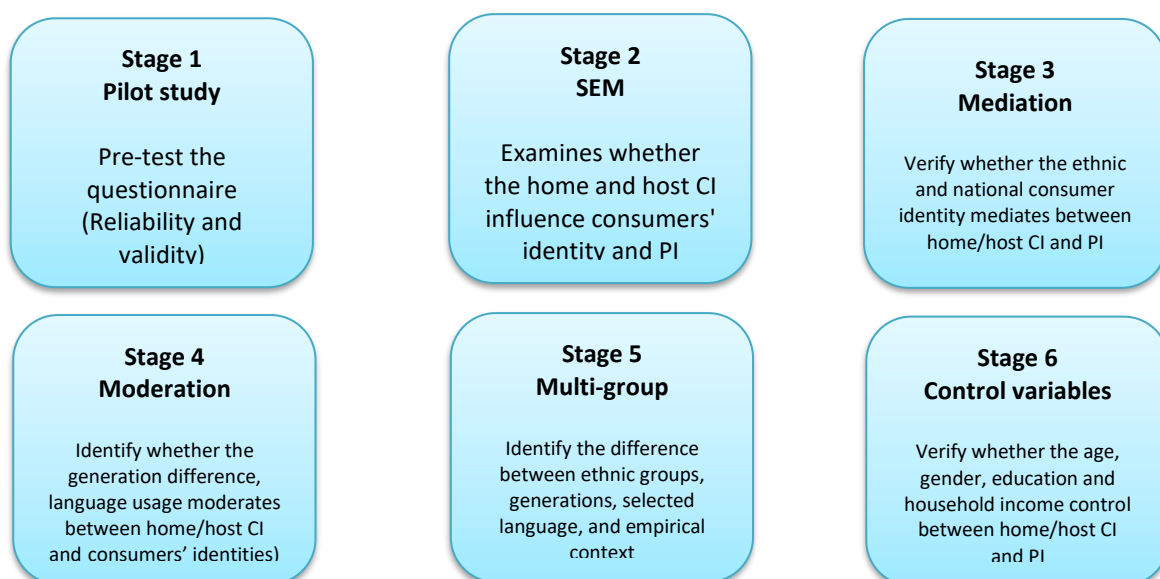


Figure 3.4 Stages of the research

Stage 1 (pilot study) consists of a pilot survey administered online to a small group of Iranian and Italian consumers living in Australia. The goal of the pilot was to ensure the reliability and face validity of all measurement instruments and to corroborate the choice of the two empirical contexts selected. The data from the pilot study were explored through correlation analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). More details of the pilot study can be found in Chapter 4, in the methodology section.

Stage 2 (SEM) consists of the analysis of the data collected in the main study of this thesis, via a survey that measured the effect of CI and ethnic/national consumer identity on PI. Specifically, the effect of the image of the home and the host country on the consumers' identity and PI, and the effect of the consumer's identity on PI were empirically evaluated following standard statistical techniques such as EFA, CFA, and Common Method Bias (CMB) using Harman's single factor test and Common Latent Factor (CLF).

Stage 3 (mediation effect) explored how the consumers' identities (ethnic vs. national) added to the explanation of the theoretical link between CI and PI.

Stage 4 (moderation effect) examined whether the role of differences in generations and language usage affected the relationship between CI, ethnic/national consumers' identities, and PI.

Stage 5 (multi groups factors) verified whether different ethnic groups, language usage groups and the different empirical contexts created some differences in the relationships between CI, ethnic/national consumers' identities, and PI.

Stage 6 (control variables) confirmed the effects of demographic factors on the results derived from the hypotheses testing. The demographic factors considered included age, gender, education level, and household income. Demographic factors reveal consumers' social status, through which consumers consolidate their identity and develop PI according to their social position. Hence, this thesis considered demographic factors as control variables to add to the robustness of the conclusions drawn.

3.4 Chapter summary

This chapter presented an overview of the model this thesis proposes and tests, and of all the hypotheses tested within the model, forming the basis for the development of the empirical work of this dissertation. This chapter also developed the justification of the research model, presenting a series of arguments in support of all research questions and hypotheses (see Table 3.4 below), before introducing the stimuli used. Following this, the chapter described the research design and the overall analytical approach of this thesis, including an overview of all stages of data analysis followed.

The next chapter presents in detail the methodology used in this thesis, along with further details and justification of all measures used.

Table 3.4 Summary of hypotheses tested

H1. Home CCI significantly and a) positively influences home PI, b) negatively influences host PI, c) positively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) negatively influences national consumer identity.

H2. Home positive ACI significantly and a) positively influences home PI, b) negatively influences host PI, c) positively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) negatively influences national consumer identity.

H3. Home negative ACI significantly and a) negative influences home PI, b) positively influences host PI, c) negatively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) Positively influences National consumer identity.

H4. Host CCI significantly and a) negatively influences home PI, b) positively influences host PI, c) negatively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) positively influences national consumer identity.

H5. Host positive ACI significantly and a) negatively influences home PI, b) positively influences host PI, c) negatively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) positively influences national consumer identity.

H6. Host negative ACI significantly and a) positively influences home PI, b) negatively influences host PI, c) positively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) negatively influences national consumer identity.

H7 Ethnic consumer identity significantly and a) positively influences home PI, and b) negatively influences host PI.

H8. National consumer identity significantly and a) positively influences host PI, and b) negatively influences home PI.

H9 Generation effect significantly moderates a) the relationship between home CCI and ethnic consumer identity, b) the relationship between home positive ACI and ethnic consumer identity, and c) the relationship between home negative ACI and ethnic consumer identity.

H10. Generation effect significantly moderates a) the relationship between host CCI and national consumer identity, b) the relationship between host positive ACI and national consumer identity, and c) the relationship between host negative ACI and national consumer identity.

CHAPTER 4: QUANTITATIVE METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided an overview of the empirical approach of this thesis, outlining the research questions, the proposed conceptual framework, and the hypotheses to be tested, with the accompanying justification. This chapter provides a description of all methodologies used in this thesis with justifications and explanations of the analytical approaches chosen. It also provides the details of all measures used to evaluate the focal concepts of interest (see Chapter 2) and the underlying theoretical links between those concepts (see Chapter 3). Additionally, this chapter outlines the data collection instrument and the sampling methods employed, together with an overview of the sample characteristics. Subsequently, the chapter briefly describes the methods used to test the research hypotheses, which will be then outlined in greater detail in the next chapter (Chapter 5). Finally, the chapter offers a first indication of which combination of variables is linked through the correlation analysis.

4.2 Justification of the quantitative methodologies used

4.2.1 Correlations and factor analysis for pre-test

Correlation and factor loadings tests were conducted to evaluate scale consistency and item sets (Byrne, 2016; Malhotra, 2002). According to Malhotra (2002), correlation is a measure of the relationship between two or more variables, and Pearson's r is used as a measure of normality (see § 4.5.3). The coefficient represents a perfect positive relationship with +1 and a negative

relationship with -1; for example, if there is a significant relationship (p-value less than 0.05) between the two variables and the coefficient is close to +1 or -1, there is a strong linear relationship between the two variables. The latent variables were measured using the factor analysis of the items, e.g., factor loading, Cronbach's Alpha, and composite reliabilities (Byrne, 2016). Items below 0.6 should be excluded from further analysis as Byrne (2016) recommended. This procedure was used to infer the reliability and validity of all measurement items, and to appraise latent variables ahead of the main analysis (see § 4.5.2).

4.2.2 Structural equation model (SEM)

After the pre-test (pilot) analysis of the collected data, more advanced analysis techniques were used to review the conceptual model and test the research hypothesis. SEM analysis is a family of statistical techniques used to investigate the relationship between variables, which mainly incorporates a combination of factor analysis and multiple regression analysis (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013). Importantly, SEM can test theoretical models for empirical data depending on the purpose of the study and provides statistical estimates of the relationship between components without measurement errors (Brown & Moore, 2012; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013, – see also § 3.2.4 for more details). Importantly, considering the conceptual framework outlined in the previous chapter, SEM was suitable for this thesis, as it deals with multiple potential configurations or theoretical pathways (e.g., how CI influences consumers' identity) and unobserved variables, allowing unmeasured theoretical concepts to be represented (Brown & Moore, 2012).

4.3 Sampling methods and data collection instruments

The empirical work conducted for this thesis aimed to recruit multiple ethnicities, as the generational effect/differences has not been done in previous studies. Non-probability, convenience sampling was employed in this thesis, with respondents recruited in Australia using a variety of incentives (e.g., gift vouchers via a prize draw, a donation to a specified ethnic community, etc.) and various communications methods (e.g., Facebook promotion, attending the ethnic community gatherings, word-of-mouth, etc.). Since non-probabilistic sampling methods allow data to be generated or interpreted in numerical form, they are suitable for use in conducting quantitative, pilot, and exploratory studies such as this thesis (Schreuder, Gregoire & Weyer, 2001).

Samples consisted of four ethnic consumer groups (Vietnamese, Latvian, Iranian and Italian) of participants over 18 years, who have lived in Australia for more than a year and are classed as first or second-generation ethnic consumers, as per the following criteria. Participants belonged to the first-generation group if they were born outside of Australia, and belonged to the second-generation if they were born in Australia with at least one parent born outside of Australia. The inclusion of both the first and second generations of consumers in the sample allowed investigation of the possibility that consumers' ethnic identities might vary depending on the time resident in a new country and generation (Bond, 2016; Poon, Evangelista & Albaum, 2010; Tung, 2008; Verkuyten & Martinovic, 2012). This distinction was also necessary to ascertain whether generation differences affect purchasing intentions (Laroche et al., 2003), as part of the thesis aims.

To access the four consumer groups selected as target samples, each ethnic consumer group was provided information that outlines the study and its objectives. The four selected groups have a long history of moving to Australia, with many second-generation ethnic consumers aged 18 or older

(Australian Department of Home Affairs, 2021). Past studies of CI (e.g., Cui, 2001; Laroche et al., 2003; Papadopoulos, El Banna & Murphy, 2017) and consumer identity (e.g., Bond, 2016; Verkuyten, 2013) found it difficult to compare or represent the entire immigrant population by comparing one or two groups. Therefore, comparing four immigrant groups with different cultural backgrounds expands existing identity and purchasing behaviour research.

For the Vietnamese, Iranian and Italian consumer groups, participation was encouraged using 10 Amazon vouchers (each valued at \$50) to be won through a prize draw. The Latvian consumer group was accessed via their community restaurant the 'Old Latvian Village', encouraging participation in the survey in exchange for a donation to support community activities. In addition, the thesis author used her personal network to promote the survey across the Vietnamese, Iranian and Italian student councils and Facebook communities. To ensure practical research that may be related to the theories being explored, the sample size was targeted at more than 200, with at least two consumer groups requiring more than 100 samples each (Delice, 2010).

Unfortunately, the timing of the survey distribution coincided with the COVID-19 pandemic, where lockdowns slowed down the distribution progression considerably. To address this issue, the thesis author approached the target consumer groups directly (following pandemic requirements), offering 60 Adelaide Central Market Vouchers (each valued at \$10 per usable questionnaire). For example, the author visited Vietnamese grocery stores, restaurants, and social clubs. Ultimately, the overall number of completed questionnaires reached 348. However, some entries were incomplete (e.g., less than 50% of answered questions) and/or otherwise unusable (e.g., all items with similar replies or inconsistent responses), leaving a final sample of 261 usable questionnaires.

A sample size of SEM plays a vital role in estimating and interpreting SEM results. In general, in literature (Delice, 2010; Hair et al., 2006; Siddiqui, 2013), the sample size of SEM is typically executed in the range of 200 to 400, and at least 100, preferably 200 (Siddiqui, 2013). If the sample size is less than 200, the parameter estimates are generally unstable, and the power of the statistical significance test is insufficient. The total number of samples in this study was 261, reflecting the appropriate sample size of SEM. The demographic profile of respondents was as follows.

4.4 Demographic profile of respondents

The demographic profile of the respondents who returned usable questionnaires is seen in Table 4.5. As demonstrated in Table 4.5, 64% of respondents were aged between 26 and 45. Approximately 80% of the samples were educated at the university or university level, and nearly 60% were female. In addition, 38.7% of the respondents were Iranian and 38.7% of respondents were Vietnamese; about 14% were Latvian and only 8% were Italian. 82% of the participants were born in their home countries, and 17.6% were born in Australia. Finally, with respect to annual household income, over a third of respondents earn less than AUD50,000 per year, and 41% earn more than AUD 50.001. With respect to occupation, 44.8% of the respondents had jobs, 24.1% were students, and 16.5% were unemployed. Considering the natural self-satisfaction caused by voluntary participation, a higher proportion of people with high education levels and income were shown. The job of the respondent was categorised into five classes, according to The National Statistics Socio-Economic Classification (e.g., I- Professional occupations, II- Managerial and Technical occupations, III- Skilled occupations, IV- Partly skilled occupations, and V - Unskilled occupations, Pevalin & Rose 2002). Half of the respondents were professionals; 15% held managerial and technical occupations, and another 15% held skilled occupations. Table 4.20 (see Appendix 2) shows the classification of occupations.

Table 4.5 Demographic profile of the characteristics of the respondents (N =261)

		Frequency	%
Ethnic consumer group	Vietnamese	101	38.7
	Iranian	101	38.7
	Latvian	38	14.6
	Italian	21	8.0
User Language	English	145	55.6
	Ethnic language	116	44.4
Gender	Male	109	41.8
	Female	151	57.9
	I'd rather not say	1	0.4
Years lived in Australia	1 year to 4	58	22.2
	5 years to 10	110	42.1
	10 years to 20	26	10.0
	20 or more	22	8.4
Generation	1 st Generation	216	73.7
	2 nd Generation	45	21.3
Age	18-25	33	12.6
	26-35	99	37.9
	36-45	69	26.4
	46-55	26	10.0
	56 over	34	13.0
Job	I work as a	117	44.8
	I am currently not working	43	16.5
	I am a full-time student	63	24.1
	I prefer not to answer	37	14.2
Education	Didn't finish high school	4	1.5
	High school graduate	20	7.7
	Trade qualification	18	5.7
	Bachelor's degree	107	41.0
	Master's degree	70	26.8
	PhD	26	10.0
Household income	\$20.000 or less	29	11.1
	\$20.001 to \$50.000	54	20.7
	\$50.001 to \$100.000	60	23.0
	\$100.001 or more	47	18.0
	I prefer not to answer	70	26.8
	Total	261	100

4.5 Questionnaire distribution and structure

The survey was distributed using the Qualtrics software. The survey link was distributed amongst each consumer group through Facebook and direct email. When recruiting participants, mixed data collection methods were used to expose more survey links and promote the participation of participants (Iribarren et al., 2018; Lüdtke et al., 2008; Strömmer et al., 2018). Using only one method (e.g., direct email) has the disadvantage of approaching only one designated consumer but using SNS simultaneously can achieve a powerful distribution that offsets these weaknesses (MacCallum, Browne & Sugawara, 1996; MacKinnon et al., 2002; Preacher, Zyphur & Zhang, 2010).

To ensure that research participants (ethnic minority or ethnic consumers who do not speak English) understood the questionnaire items, and to make statistical inferences based on translated data (Currents, 1991; Shimizu, 1995), researchers selected native speakers, fluent in both their native language and English, to translate questionnaires from English into their respective foreign languages. Back translation was also deployed to ensure the maximum accuracy of the translation (Brislin, 1970). The questionnaire was offered in four languages, Iranian, Vietnamese, Italian and Latvian accommodating for consumers who were not familiar with English. The survey was also offered to all potential participants in English to encourage participation by second-generation consumers. A universally accepted view is that translating an English survey into a foreign language (or ethnic language) makes it possible for foreigners to understand the survey questions. Some scholars (Bollen et al., 1992; Kozanhan & Yildiz, 2021) suspected that even if the validity of the initial questionnaire item is verified, the validity may not be equivalent to that of questionnaires written in one language and translated into another (e.g., English translated into ethnic language). Finally, minority groups living in host countries sometime do not participate in surveys or refuse to respond

due to language barriers, so it is necessary to use two different languages (Ahlmark et al., 2015; Carlsson et al., 2006).

Participants were provided with a brief overview of the research in the welcome page and offered a downloadable extended version of the information sheet. Participation was voluntary, and participants were able to leave the survey at any time. The welcome page also contained the name and contact information of the principal supervisor, offering a contact channel for the duration of the project. The questionnaire received ethical clearance before being distributed (Project No: 2256) and a full copy of an example survey can be seen in Appendix 1. The questionnaires for each ethnic group were identical, except for the name of home country mentioned in relevant questions.

The empirical context was used to measure the willingness of ethnic consumers to buy groceries and financial advice as determined through a pilot study (see § 4.6).

The questionnaire consisted of four parts, beginning with items related to the cognitive (see § 4.5.1) and affective (positive and negative emotions) CI (see § 4.5.2), for both home and host countries. CI items included 14 items from Martin and Eroglu (1993) and 20 items from Glick et al. (2006) and Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009). Then, the survey measured the identity (ethnic vs. national) of ethnic consumers (see § 4.5.3.1) using Cleveland, Papadopoulos, and Laroche (2011) and El Banna et al.'s (2018) "Desire to Maintain ethnic Cultures (IDMC)". items. However, this thesis measured not only ethnic consumer identity; it also measured national consumer identity based on existing literature that measures ethnicity, by using, for example, the item "It is very important to me to maintain my home/ host country culture" to identify ethnic and national consumer identity (Cleveland, Papadopoulos, & Laroche, 2011; El Banna et al., 2018). In addition, languages (see § 4.5.3.2) and lifestyles (see § 4.5.3.3), as adopted in most existing immigrant identity studies, were

also used to measure consumer identity. Subsequently, the survey measured the home PI and host PI (see § 4.5.4). This measurement was divided into general PI and category-specific PI (buying groceries and financial advice) so that consumers can see if the PI is different when a product or service is added. The PI measurement was modified to meet the purpose of the thesis, adapting items from the existing literature (e.g., “I prefer to buy domestic products” was changed to “I prefer to buy home/ host country products”). Finally, demographic factors were measured, focusing on respondents' age, gender, and estimated annual household income.

More details of each measure, including explanation of the scales and items chosen, now follows.

4.5.1 Measurement of CCI

CCI was measured using the 14 items adapted from Martin and Eroglu (1993). The scale items reflect three major dimensions: political (e.g., democratic, free market), economic (e.g., level of standard of living, labour cost, and welfare system), and technical (e.g., industrialisation, mass-produced) dimensions. This measure has been widely used by researchers exploring and quantifying CI and in cross-cultural oriented studies (e.g., see Han, 1990; Han & Terpstra, 1988; Marchi, Martinelli & Balboni, 2014; Pappu, Quester & Cooksey, 2007). In particular, CI studies (e.g., Han, 1989, 1990; Laroche et al., 2005; Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009) agreed that consumers' preconceived notions about the source country (e.g., developed countries vs. underdeveloped countries) generally affect the reliability aspect of the product. Therefore, the scale presented in this thesis was considered valid and legitimate for evaluating PI. For each of these measures, respondents were able to select one value from a 7-point Likert range, where 1 indicated strongly disagree and 7 indicated strongly agree. The items comprising this scale are seen in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Home and host CCI measurement items

	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• I believe Australia (host country) is / has a ...• I believe (home country) is / has a...	Source: Martin and Eroglu (1993)
1	Highly developed economy.	
2	Highly democratic system.	
3	Mass-produced products.	
4	Government free of military influence.	
5	High level of industrialisation.	
6	High labour costs.	
7	Good level of education.	
8	Free- market system.	
9	Excellent welfare system.	
10	Stable economic environment.	
11	Exporter of agricultural products.	
12	Producer of high -quality products.	
13	High standard of living.	
14	High level of technological research.	

Response format: 1=strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree

4.5.2 Measurement of ACI

The second component of the CI concept measured emotional (or affective) responses to the countries investigated. Two predominant dimensions (e.g., positive and negative emotions) have been consistently developed in the study of emotional structure (Glick et al., 2006; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Positive emotions reflected consumers' enthusiasm, activity, and level of happiness, and high positive emotions included a state of complete concentration and joyful engagement. In contrast, negative emotions reflected various opposition states, including anger, fear, and nervousness, and high negative emotions indicated subjective pain and unpleasant participation. Past studies emphasised that consumers' emotions (positive vs. negative) in the source country affect their PI (Li et al., 2014; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Wegapitiya & Dissanayake, 2018). Past research also stated that when evaluating foreign (e.g., host country) and domestic (e.g., home country) products, consumers' positive or negative emotion about the source country influence their evaluation of

products (Brijs, 2006; Laroche et al., 2005; Papadopoulos, Heslop & IKON Research Group, 2000; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Verlegh, 2001). Finally, some studies (see Cannon & Yaprak, 2002; Glick et al., 2006; Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988) claimed that ethnic consumers indicated positive emotions and a strong PI of their home country products, highlighting the significance of an ACI, namely, what emotional factors about their home country affect PI. In the questionnaire administered for this thesis, respondents were able to select one value from a 7-point Likert range, whereby 1 indicated strongly disagree and 7 indicated strongly agree. The items comprising this scale are seen in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Home and host ACI

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When I think of Australia (host country), I feel ... • When I think of home country, I feel ... 	Source: Watson et al. (1988); Glick et al. (2006)
1	Happy	Positive emotion
2	Excited	Positive emotion
3	Enthusiastic	Positive emotion
4	Admiration	Positive emotion
5	Respect	Positive emotion
6	Inspired	Positive emotion
7	Warmth	Positive emotion
8	Love	Positive emotion
9	Bored	Negative emotion
10	Indifferent	Negative emotion
11	Worried	Negative emotion
12	Envious	Negative emotion
13	Sentimental	Negative emotion
14	Sympathy	Negative emotion
15	Irritated	Negative emotion
16	Resentment	Negative emotion
17	Contempt	Negative emotion
18	Angry	Negative emotion
19	Afraid	Negative emotion
20	Ashamed	Negative emotion

Response format: 1=strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree

4.5.3 Measurement of consumer Identity

To measure ethnic and national consumer identity, following the works of Cleveland, Papadopoulos and Laroche (2011), and El Banna et al. (2018), this thesis adopted a three-dimensional 32-items scale, as follows:

1. The ethnic and national consumer identity scale [18 items – 9 items each, total 18 items],
2. The language usage scale [10 items],
3. The everyday lifestyle scale [4 items].

4.5.3.1 Ethnic consumer identity and national consumer identity

Research into ethnicity is abundant, but lacks consensus on the definition of structure, and ethnic consumer identity has often been confused with ethnic origin or race (Jafari & Visconti, 2015). Furthermore, most existing measures of ethnic consumer identity led by Phinney (1992) focused on specific ethnic behaviours (e.g., Ramadan) for specific ethnic groups (e.g., Muslim) – an approach that limits the ability to draw general conclusions about ethnic consumer identity. Accordingly, this thesis opted to measure consumer identity using nine items with and “Desire to Maintain ethnic Culture (IDMC)” adopted by Cleveland, Papadopoulos and Laroche (2011) and El Banna et al. (2018), which transformed Phinney’s (1992) scales into items that evaluate consumers' sense of belonging, emotions, attitudes to ethnicity, and importance of the ethnic culture. Cleveland, Papadopoulos and Laroche’s (2011) and El Banna et al.’s (2018) items were considered highly relevant to this thesis, since they appraised the factors of ethnic consumer identity identified in the literature using the IDMC scale allowed for measuring the ethnic consumer identity and the national consumer identity.

For each of these, respondents were able to select one value from a 7-point Likert range, where 1 indicated strongly disagree and 7 indicated strongly agree. The items comprising this scale are seen in Table 4.8 (ethnic consumer identity) and Table 4.9 (national consumer identity).

Table 4.8 Ethnic consumer identity measurement items

The following statements are about how strongly you relate to the country you were born in, or the home country of at least one of your parents, as compared to Australia.		Source: Cleveland, Papadopoulos, and Laroche (2011) El Banna et al. (2018)
1	It is very important to me to maintain my home country culture.	
2	I am very attached to all aspects of home country culture.	
3	I feel very proud to identify with home country culture.	
4	It is very important for me to remain close to home country culture.	
5	I believe that it is very important for children to learn the values of home country culture.	
6	I feel a part of home country culture very much.	
7	The acquisition and maintenance of home country family values are desirable.	
8	Home country culture has the most positive impact on my life.	
9	Participating in home country holidays and events is very important to me	

Response format: 1=strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree

Table 4. 9 National consumer identity measurement items

The following statements are about how strongly you relate to Australia (host country) compared to the country you were born in, or the home country of your parents.		Source: Cleveland, Papadopoulos, and Laroche (2011) El Banna et al. (2018)
1	It is very important to maintain my Australian (host country) culture.	
2	I am very attached to all aspects of Australian (host country) culture.	
3	I feel very proud to identify with Australian (host country) culture.	
4	It is very important for me to remain close to Australian (host country) culture.	
5	I believe that it is very important for children to learn the values of Australian (host country) culture.	
6	I feel very much a part of the Australian (host country) culture.	
7	The acquisition and maintenance of Australian (host country) family values are desirable.	
8	Australian (host country) culture has the most positive impact on my life.	
9	Participating in Australian (host country) holidays and events is very important to me.	

Response format: 1=strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree

4.5.3.2 Language

Language use (home vs. host country language) is a reliable measure of identity strength because language is a form of identity formation (Ten Teije, Coenders & Verkuyten, 2012). Previously, several scholars (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003; Modood et al., 1997; Phinney, 1996; Venkatesh, 1995) adopted the use of the language scale by Kim, Laroche and Lee (1990) to examine identity. However, Kim, Laroche and Lee's (1990) items did not reflect the use of new media such as the Internet. Cleveland, Papadopoulos and Laroche (2011) developed 13 items including Internet use. This thesis adopted the 13 items from Cleveland, Papadopoulos and Laroche (2011), but three similar questions were excluded from the questionnaire due to obvious semantic overlap, as inferable at face-value. The excluded items were *'I always use the (ethnic) language with my friends; I always speak (ethnic) with other family members; I speak (ethnic) regularly'*. For all retained items, respondents were able to choose one value in the 7-point Likert range. If a participant preferred home or host country language, they were able to choose a number between '1 - 3' towards either language. If a participant preferred both languages, they were able to choose '0', indicating an inclination toward dual identity. The items that make up this scale are shown in Table 4.10 and a visual representation is shown in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5 Language usage scale



Table 4.10 Language usage measurement items

Please indicate how these statements relate to your language usage		Source:
If you prefer mother tongue (home country language) then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards mother tongue.		Cleveland, Papadopouls and Laroche (2011)
If you prefer English (host country language) then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards English.		
If you prefer both languages, then choose '0'.		
1	I generally speak	
2	I mostly carry on conversations in ...every day.	
3	With my Vietnamese friends we mostly speak ...	
4	At family gathering I mostly speak in ...	
5	With my parents, I usually speak in ...	
6	I feel the most comfortable speaking in ...	
7	Most of the books that I read are in ...	
8	The magazines and/or newspapers that I read are ...	
9	The radio programs that I listen to are mostly in ...	
10	The Internet sites that I visit are mostly in ...	

Response format: 1=strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree

4.5.3.3 Everyday lifestyle

Nguyen and Von Eye (2002) provided insight into the appropriate measures of consumers' lifestyle and suggested that proper measuring should include everyday food, music, and house decoration style (e.g., Italian-style interior or Australian-style interior). This thesis used the same approach, as follows. Respondents could choose one value in the 7-point Likert range: if they preferred home country, they were able to choose a number between '1 - 3' towards the home country; if they preferred Australian, they were able to choose a number between '1 - 3' towards Australian; and if they had no preference, they were able to choose '0'. The items that make up this scale are shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Everyday lifestyle measurement items

Thinking about preferences with respect to home country as compared to Australian food, music, use of language everyday - please indicate your usual behaviour.	Source: Nguyen and Von Eye (2002)
If you prefer home country, then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards home country.	
If you prefer Australian, then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards Australian.	
If you have no preference, then choose '0'	
1	I like to eat () food.
2	I frequently eat () food.
3	I enjoy listening () music.
4	My house is decorated in () style.

Response format: 1=strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree

4.5.4 Measurement of PI toward home and host country

This thesis used a revision of existing PI items by Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch and Palihawadana (2011) and El Banna et al. (2018) based on face validity and ease of interpretation, as emerged from the pilot study. For example, "*I will purchase () goods in the near future*" was modified to "*In the near future, I would rate my general intentions to purchase home country's products and services.*"

The PI items of Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Palihawadana (2011) and El Banna et al. (2018) are the most common items used for general PI measurement in the CI studies. The study by Yelkur, Chakrabarty and Bandyopadhyay (2006) provided theoretical and empirical evidence that awareness of the home CI is an emotional path to achieving product evaluation and purchase decision-related goals. This is because subjective factors such as lack of understanding of the product, inability to access inaccurate information, and prejudice or prejudice against the country of origin do not always allow reasonable judgments or accurate estimates of products and services to be purchased by consumers. In this situation, consumers' prejudice and stereotypes about their home countries and host countries are known to affect the evaluation of products and services as external signals, such as the image of cognitive countries. Therefore, the images of the home country and the host country are important adjustment variables that can measure product

evaluation and PI and are considered to affect the reliability of consumers who make independent purchase decisions. In this thesis, respondents were able to select one value from a 7-point Likert range, where 1 indicated strongly disagree, and 7 indicated strongly agree. The items comprising this scale are presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 General intention to purchase home and host country products and services

This part asks you about your purchasing preferences when it comes to products and services from Australia as compared to home country.		Source: Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Paliwadana (2011) and El Banna et al. (2018)
In the near future, I would rate my general intentions to purchase ()		
1	Home country's products	
2	From home country's service providers	
When they are available, I will generally buy ()		Kim and Arthur (2003)
1	Home country's products	
2	From home country's service providers	

Response format: 1=strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree

4.5.4.1 Category specific PI

PI can be determined by consumers' personal beliefs regardless of the quality or accuracy of products and services (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003; Liu, 2011). The traditional measurement scales of consumer PI are based on items that investigate individuals' subjective beliefs, which is arguably linked with confidence in consumer judgments (Rogers & Bhowmik, 1970; Simpson et al., 2000). Other contributing factors to PI include control, domination, and recognition of positions of previous experiences by stereotype or bias (Laroche et al., 2005; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Cleveland, Papadopoulos and Laroche (2011) identified the recognition ability of an individual (e.g., making effective consumer decisions, including the ability to acquire and use information) as a factor that explains the degree of willingness of consumers to purchase. These factors are represented by three dimensions: willingness to buy, purchase

preference, and PI. The review of items on three dimensions could be expanded to personal beliefs and purchase trust by reflecting subjective knowledge of specific product categories (Adenan, Ali & Rahman, 2018; Ahmed et al., 2004; Aichner et al., 2016).

According to Stocchi, Wright and Fuller (2021), PI is usually anchored to individual items, like a specific brand or item. However, in consumer memory, a product category is a superordinate schema of consumer knowledge that is known to have a strong bearing on purchase decisions. It is also highly subjective, if not even autobiographical. By diversifying measurement of PI at the category level, it is therefore possible to get more information about theoretical links of interest. Accordingly, this thesis employed measurement scales by Cleveland, Papadopoulos and Laroche (2011) and Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009), who developed items to capture subjective beliefs (e.g., identity) and knowledge types (e.g., CI and cognitive learning) at product category level. The goal was to examine the extent that PI ethnic consumers have stored in their long-term memory about home and host country products. The final measurement scale consisted of six items per product and service. Respondents could choose one value in the 7-point Likert range; if they preferred home country, they were able to choose a number between '1 - 3' towards the home country; if they preferred Australian, they were able to choose a number between '1 - 3' towards Australian; and if they had no preferences, they were able to choose '0'. These questions are presented in Table 4.13 and Table 4.14. A visual representation is shown in Figure 4.6.

Figure 4.6 PI for buying grocery or financial advice

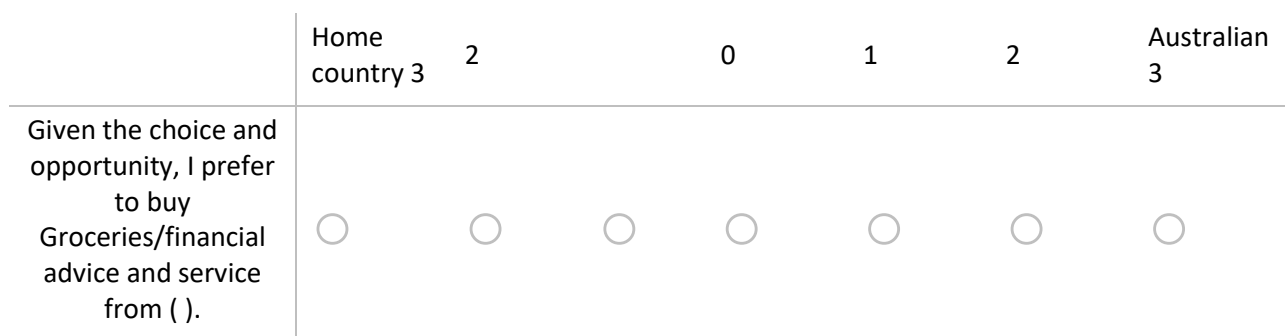


Table 4.13 PI for buying grocery measurement items

Please consider the following types of products and services and indicate whether, if they were available to purchase, you would prefer them sourced from home country or Australia (host country).

If you prefer home country, then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards home country.

If you prefer Australian, then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards Australian.

If you have no preference, then choose '0'.

Thinking about where you would go for buying Groceries, please indicate your preferences for your Groceries.

1	Given the choice and opportunity, I prefer to buy Groceries from ().
2	The thought of buying Groceries from () is appealing to me.
3	I especially try to buy Groceries from ().
4	Even if they are more expensive than others, I will buy Groceries from ().
5	I would consider buying Groceries from () in the short term.
6	I would consider buying Groceries from () in the long term.

Table 4.14 PI for financial advice and service measurement items

Please consider the following types of products and services and indicate whether, if they were available to purchase, you would prefer them sourced from home country or Australia (host country).

If you prefer home country, then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards home country.

If you prefer Australian, then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards Australian.

If you have no preference, then choose '0'.

Thinking about where you would go for seeking financial advice and services, please indicate your preferences for your financial advice and services.

1	Given the choice and opportunity, I prefer to seek financial advice from ().
2	The thought of seeking financial advice from () is appealing to me.
3	I especially try to seek financial advice from ().
4	Even if they are more expensive than others, I will seek financial advice from ().
5	I would consider seeking financial advice from () in the short term.
6	I would consider seeking financial advice from () in the long term.

4.5.5 Measurement of demographics

Along with basic demographic elements including gender, annual household income, age, education, and occupation, the questionnaire ended with a series of simple Yes/No questions to gauge where participants and their parents were born, and thus to distinguish generations. Respondents were also tasked to state how many years they lived in Australia, which was collected to measure changes in consumer identity over time.

A pilot study was conducted to test the measures to be used in the main study, as follows.

4.6 Pilot study (Stage 1)

The pilot study was conducted to evaluate the flow of the survey, the face-value of the questionnaire, and to pre-validate the measure. A pilot study can reveal any unexpected and important issues about the stimuli and items, and thus it is necessary before the main analysis. It also provides an invaluable opportunity to rectify any potential problems. The pilot study aimed to verify the validity and reliability of measure scale items for each latent variable (In, 2017; Steiner et al., 2004; Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002).

4.6.1 Sample profile (pilot study)

A total of 78 samples were collected from two consumer groups (Vietnamese and Iranians) who have lived in Australia for more than a year and are more than 18 years of age. To encourage online survey participation, the thesis author offered a chance to win an Amazon voucher (valued at \$50) through a prize draw. Respondents voluntarily participated in the survey through the online links

provided. The demographic profile of the characteristics of the respondents who returned the questionnaire included about 60% Iranians and just over 40% Vietnamese consumers, with slightly more female respondents (54%) and about 80% of respondents classifying as 'first generation' of ethnic consumers. The sample also included higher proportions of people in full time employment and with a high education level and income, given the natural self-selection resulting from voluntary participation.

4.6.2 Properties of measurement items

To test the scale consistency and the effectiveness of measurement scales, reliability and validity tests were conducted. Table 4.12 (see Appendix 1) reveals the results of the reliability analysis performed through Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliabilities (CR). Cronbach's Alpha values exceeded the suggested threshold of 0.7 for all constructs (e.g., CCI = 0.93, ACI = 0.97, ethnic identity = 0.95 and PI = 0.9). With regards to CR, all measures stood above the acceptable threshold of 0.6 (e.g., CCI = 0.89, ACI = 0.97, ethnic identity = 0.88, PI = 0.78). Moreover, all the measures of average variance extracted (AVE) exceeded 0.5 and stood below the corresponding CR values, confirming that the CR was valid, and ultimately confirming the independence of all constructs.

In terms of convergent validity, all factor loadings were greater than 0.7, thus all items yielded significant loadings (see Table 4.12 Appendix 1). Furthermore, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was greater than 0.7, and Bartlett's test stood above 0.05 (all showed $p < 0.001$), confirming that items appropriated for factor analysis were independent from one another. In summary, the outcomes of these tests confirmed that the measurement items were both appropriate and robust. Table 4.12 (see Appendix 2) also shows the results of descriptive analysis, where the average mean stood between 3 and 7, whereas the average standard deviation (SD) stayed around 2. This indicates

that participants were consistently scoped and distributed across all items, confirming that there was no response bias. Consequently, all variables were ready to be used in the main survey.

4.6.3 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis aims to provide insights concerning the overall level of relationship amongst the constructs included in the thesis’s conceptual framework. Correlation and relationships are necessary because they discover and explain the strength and direction of the relationship between the two variables presented in the study (Malhotra, 2002).

Tables 4.15 to 4.20 reveal the results of the Pearson correlation analysis. In Table 4.15 the highest correlation was observed between the host country's CCI and national consumer identity ($r = 0.730$, $p = 0.000$). In contrast, the correlation between host country CCI and ethnic consumer identity ($r = 0.312$, and $p = 0.056$) was the lowest. There was also a significant correlation between ACI of the host country and ethnic consumer identity ($r = 0.458$, $p = 0.004$), and national consumer identity ($r = 0.504$, $p = 0.001$). However, there was no significant correlation between CCI and ethnic consumer identity ($r = 0.312$, $p = 0.056$).

Table 4.15 Correlations between CI of host country and consumers’ identity

	Host CCI	Host ACI	Ethnic consumer identity	National consumer identity
Host CCI	-			
Host ACI	0.543**	-		
Ethnic consumer identity	0.312	0.458**	-	
National consumer identity	0.730**	0.504**	0.272	-

$P < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, $P < 0.001^{***}$

Similar results were found for the assessment of the correlation between home CI and the other study constructs (see Table 4.16). There was a significant correlation between ethnic consumer identity and ACI ($r = 0.380$, $p = 0.05$), and CCI ($r = 0.553$, $p = 0.01$). There was also significant correlation between national consumer identity and ACI ($r = 0.555$, $p = 0.000$), and CCI ($r = 0.5580$, $p = 0.01$). The correlation between the home country's ACI and national consumer identity correlation ($r = 0.555$, $p = 0.000$) was the highest, whereas the correlation between home country's ACI and ethnic consumer identity ($r = 0.380$, and $p = 0.019$) was the lowest.

Table 4.16 Correlations between the CI of home country and consumers' identity

	Ethnic consumer identity	National consumer identity	Home ACI	Home CCI
Ethnic consumer identity	-			
National consumer identity	0.272	-		
Home ACI	0.380*	0.555***	-	
Home CCI	0.553**	0.464**	0.580**	-

$P < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, $P < 0.001^{***}$

Table 4.17 reports the results of the Pearson correlation analysis between language usage and consumers identity, where a significant and positive association was evident between language usage and ethnic consumer identity ($r = 0.142$, $p = 0.05$); and between language usage and national consumer identity ($r = 0.223$, $p = 0.01$).

Table 4.17 Correlations between language and consumers' identity

	Language usage	Ethnic consumer identity	National consumer identity
Language usage	-		
Ethnic consumer identity	0.142*	-	
National consumer identity	0.223**	0.078	-

$P < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, $P < 0.001^{***}$

Table 4.18 indicates that there was a significant and relatively high correlation between PI and ethnic consumer identity ($r = 0.553$, $p = 0.01$) and national consumer identity ($r = 0.311$, $p = 0.05$).

Table 4.18 Correlations between PI and consumers' identity

	Ethnic consumer identity	National consumer identity	PI
Ethnic consumer identity	-		
National consumer identity	0.272	-	
PI	0.553**	0.311*	-

$P < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, $P < 0.001^{***}$

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to identify the relative influence of the stimulus and consumers identities (see Table 4.19). There was a significant correlation between ethnic consumer identity and buying groceries ($r = -0.48$, $p = 0.05$), and national consumer identity and financial advice ($r = 0.318$, $p = 0.05$). Yet, there was no significant correlation between ethnic consumer identity and financial advice ($r = -0.21$, $p = 0.1$), and between national consumer identity and buying groceries ($r = 0.309$, $p = 0.14$).

Table 4.19 Correlations between stimulus and consumers' identity

	Ethnic consumer identity	National consumer identity	Grocery	Financial advice
Ethnic consumer identity	-			
National consumer identity	0.272	-		
Grocery	-0.48*	0.309	-	
Financial advice	-0.21	0.318*	0.630**	-

$P < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, $P < 0.001^{***}$

Similar results were found for the association between the CI and PI (see Table 4. 20). In more detail, there was a significant correlation between home ACI and grocery ($r = 0.328$, $p = 0.05$), home CCI and financial advice ($r = 0.360$, $p = 0.05$). Concerning host CI, a significant correlation emerged

between CCI and financial advice ($r = 0.348$, $p = 0.05$), and between ACI and buying groceries ($r = 0.3156$, $p = 0.05$). The highest correlation was observed between the home country's CCI and financial advice ($r = 0.360$, $p = 0.05$). On the contrary, the correlation between home ACI and buying groceries ($r = 0.328$, $p = 0.05$) was the lowest. There was also no significant correlation between home ACI and financial advice ($r = 0.172$, $p = 0.18$); home CCI and buying groceries ($r = 0.125$, $p = 0.223$); host CCI and buying groceries ($r = 0.250$, $p = 0.28$); and host ACI and financial advice ($r = 0.1274$, $p = 0.193$).

Table 4.20 Correlations between stimulus and CI of home and host county

	Home ACI	Home CCI	Host CCI	Host ACI	Grocery	Financial advice
Home ACI	-					
Home CCI	0.580*	-				
Host CCI	0.589*	0.373*	-			
Host ACI	0.769*	0.545*	0.543*	-		
Grocery	0.328*	0.125	0.250	0.356*	-	
Financial advice	0.172	0.360*	0.348*	0.274	0.63**	-

$P < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, $P < 0.001^{***}$

Overall, the correlation analysis confirmed a significant correlation between the image of the home country and the host country, and consumer identity and PI. First, there was a relatively high correlation between CI and consumer identity, especially between host CCI/ACI and national consumer identity, and between home CCI/ACI and ethnic consumer identity. These correlations suggest that, in line with the hypotheses of this thesis, it is reasonable to assume that the CI of the source country (home vs. host) can play a role in shaping consumers' identity. Second, there was a relatively high correlation between consumer identity and PI of products and services in their home country. This outcome forms an important foundation for performing a more advanced analysis (e.g., SEM) aimed at exploring the relationship between consumer identity (ethnic vs national) and PI. In particular, the correlation between ethnic consumer identity and buying groceries is relatively

high, allowing consumers with a high level of ethnicity to predict that they may be more active in purchasing groceries in their home countries rather than the host country. With respect to PI, it was confirmed that there was a correlation between the home and host CI and the empirical context (grocery and financial advice). This is consistent with the existing CI studies which show a close relationship between CI and PI, especially with PI for home CI and home country products, and the cited literature predicts the impact direction and results of major attributes (see Brijs, 2006; Han, 1989; Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Verlegh, 2001; Wang & Lamb, 1980, 1983; Wegapitiya & Dissanayake, 2018).

In conclusion, the results of the correlation analysis offered insights concerning the overall level of relationship amongst the constructs included in the thesis's conceptual framework, and also the strength and direction between two variables; the results provide a basis for proceeding with more advanced analyses of the relationships between these constructs.

4.7 Chapter summary

This chapter provided details of the quantitative methodology with respect to sampling methods and the development of the data collection instruments. This chapter also explained the development of the questionnaire, including a detailed discussion and justification of the measures used. Subsequently, before conducting the main analysis (Chapter 5), the pilot study (Stage 1) included correlation analyses along with an evaluation of the properties of the measurement items, paving the way for this thesis's main study and hypotheses testing. Finally, this chapter provided the demographic profiles of respondents used in the main analysis.

The next chapter is devoted to presenting the details of the main study of this thesis, including all steps undertaken for data analysis and results extraction.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter four described the methods used to conduct quantitative analyses and validation tests as part of the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) run for this thesis. SEM is a powerful method to demonstrate theory testing in marketing research, which allows for less rigorous sample distribution assumptions (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013; Steenkamp, Batra & Alden, 2003). SEM typically starts with path analysis, followed by the analysis of any anticipated mediation and moderation effects, multi-groups analyses, and checks of control variables. Accordingly, this chapter details the analytical steps undertaken to test the hypotheses, describing the causal relationships that emerged between home and host CI, consumer identity and PI. The chapter then addresses the mediating role of ethnic and national consumer identities in the relationship between home and host CI and PI. Subsequently, the chapter discusses the moderating role of language usage, generations and empirical context (buying groceries and financial advice). Finally, the chapter includes the outcome of the tests conducted for the relevant control variables.

5.2 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

As previously indicated, this thesis used SEM to examine the proposed relationships amongst variables included in Figure 5.1 (see § 5.2.3). Specifically, the SEM analytical process begins with scale validation to examine the validity and reliability of the constructs using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Subsequently, SEM analysis entails checking for the potential threat of Common Method Bias (CMB) using Harman's single factor test and

Common Latent Factor (CLF), before estimating the research model fit and reliability (the fit index). Finally, the SEM process implies path analyses, which in this thesis involved assessing the direct impacts of CCI and ACI of home and host countries on ethnic and national consumer identity and PI (home vs. host country products and services).

5.2.1 Scale validation

The data collected in the main survey were analysed using the following statistical tools: SPSS version 27 and AMOS version 27. This section presents the steps undertaken to i) decide the number of factors to be retained for each variable, ii) the extraction method used, and iii) a rotation component matrix. The section also discusses the results of the measures considered for the initial reliability assessment of all scales, such as Cronbach's Alpha coefficients and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's tests.

Home and Host CI

The communalities represent the sum of square factor loadings and provide important information about the correlations amongst all measurement items (Cortina, 1993). The initial communalities are an estimate of the variance of each variable described by all components or factors, whereby the extraction value represents the proportion of variances in each variable that can be explained by the residual factor. In general, it is recommended that the item extraction is higher than 0.20 (Child, 2006; Waqas et al., 2019). When measuring validity, items with communalities values smaller than 0.2 do not fit well with the factorial solution and should be excluded from the analysis (Cortina, 1993). Table 5.4 (see Appendix 4) shows the communalities values of the latent constructs, including home and host CCI, home and host positive ACI, and home and host negative ACI. In the home CCI, five items such as mass-produced products, a high level of indoctrination, a good level of education,

a stable economic environment, and an exporter of agricultural products, and five items (bored, indifferent, envious, sentimental and sympathy) were removed from the home negative ACI. In the host CCI, eight items (products, living, technology, economic environment, welfare, industrial and ass products) and three items (irritated, indifferent, and sympathy) from the host negative ACI were removed. After removing the low community variable (less than 0.2), a clean pattern matrix close to the ideal communalities value was reached (Cortina, 1993).

In this thesis, as recommended by Field (2013), the maximum likelihood method and Promax rotation are used using the default parameter settings. Values less than 0.6 are not shown for better visibility (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). Table 5.5 (see Appendix 5) shows that all items appropriately load onto their respective constructs. Results show the rotated component matrix for the three key constructs. Factor structure refers to the intercorrelations among the variables being tested in the EFA (Field, 2013). Table 5.5 indicates the rotated component matrices of three latent constructs: home and host CCI, home and host positive ACI, and home and host negative ACI. Results indicate that there are no scale items with a commonality lower than 0.2; thus, all the items are retained.

The initial step in the validation process is to test for internal reliability by determining the Cronbach's Alpha (Alpha) coefficient for each measure (see Table 5.21). A validation process is a form of data cleaning, typically by examining the accuracy and quality of the collected data that is performed before processing (Eastman, Goldsmith & Flynn, 1999; Kozanhan & Yildiz, 2021; Zea, et al., 2003). Data validation ensures that the data is complete and unique (including unique values that are not replicated) and that the range of values matches expectations. Therefore, data validation helps to verify that the results are accurate when performing analysis. The home and host CI results indicated that alpha (α) showed satisfactory internal consistency ranging from 0.846 to

0.939, well above the recommended cut-off value of 0.70 (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt ,2011, 2013), indicating acceptable reliability.

Table 5. 21 Reliability assessment of measurement scales for home and host CI

Home country	Reliability coefficients	Alpha
CCI	N of items = 14	0.939
Positive ACI	N of items = 8	0.900
Negative ACI	N of items = 12	0.846
Total N = 261	Alpha = 0.866	
Host country		
CCI	N of items = 14	0.923
Positive ACI	N of items = 8	0.918
Negative ACI	N of items = 12	0.869
Total N = 261	Alpha = 0.915	

The next step of the reliability process entails the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s tests. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s tests explain the suitability of the data for structure detection (Shrestha, 2021). The KMO is a statistic that represents the proportion of variance of variables that can be caused by the underlying factor. Factor analysis is suitable if the value of the KMO is close to 1, and unsuitable if the value is less than 0.5 (Williams, Osman & Brown 2010). Table 5.7 (see Appendix 6) shows the test results of KMO and Bartlett. Considering that KMO = 0.923 and the Bartlett test has a p-value less than 0.05, the reliability of the data measurement and suitability for further tests are supported.

Ethnic consumer identity vs. national consumer identity

Table 5.8 (see Appendix 7) shows the communalities values of the study’s key constructs, including ethnic consumer identity and national consumer identity. Results indicate that there are no scale items with a commonality lower than 0.2, and thus, all the items are retained. Table 5.9 (see Appendix 8) shows the rotated component matrix for the two key constructs- i.e., ethnic and national consumer identity. The maximum likelihood method and Promax rotation are used using the default parameter settings (Field, 2013). Values less than 0.6 are omitted, for clarity (Guadagnoli

& Velicer, 1988). The results reveal that all items appropriately "load" onto their respective constructs. Table 5.22 shows the results of the reliability analysis of consumer identity. The results indicated that Alpha values for ethnic consumer identity = 0.942, national consumer identity = 0.948 constructs were greater than the suggested value of 0.7 (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013), indicating acceptable reliability.

Table 5. 22 Reliability coefficients of identity

Identity	Reliability coefficients	Alpha
Ethnic consumer identity	N of items = 9	0.942
National consumer identity	N of items = 9	0.948
Total N =261	Cronbach's Alpha = 0.932	

Table 5.11 (see Appendix 9) shows that the value of KMO and Bartlett's test is 0.919 and is significant at the $p < 0.05$ level. This indicates that the measurement items of consumer identity are suitable for EFA.

PI

Table 5.12 (see Appendix 10) shows the communalities values of PI and the empirical context. Results indicate that there are no scale items with a commonality lower than 0.2; thus, all the items are retained. Table 5.13 (see Appendix 11) shows the rotated component matrix for the three key constructs such as general PI and empirical context. The maximum likelihood method and Promax rotation are used using the default parameter settings (Field, 2013). The general PI measure consists of 4 items relating to how ethnic consumers evaluate their home and host country products and services. Then, 12 items, six each, were measured to identify consumers' purchasing intentions using specific products and services. In addition, the identity measure consisted of a total of 18 items, nine for each type of identity. The results reveal that all items appropriately "load" onto their respective constructs. Values smaller than 0.6 are not shown for ease of interpretation (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). Table 5.23 shows measures of the reliability of the latent variable used. It is evident

that for all key constructs the reliability coefficient exceeds the suggested value of 0.7 (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013), indicating acceptable reliability.

Table 5. 23 Reliability coefficients of scales for general PI

	Reliability Statistics	Alpha
PI	N of items = 4	0.880
Buying groceries	N of items = 6	0.948
Financial advice	N of items = 6	0.879
Total N = 261	Cronbach's Alpha = 0.902	

Table 5.15 (see Appendix 12) shows the test results of KMO and Bartlett. Considering that KMO = 0.885 and the Bartlett test has a p-value less than 0.05 ($p=0.000$), the reliability of the data measurement and suitability for further tests are supported.

5.2.1.1 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

To estimate the degree to which observed variables represent the underlying latent variables, the compositional reliability of the scales used in the thesis was examined through CFA (Byrne 2016). Table 5.24 indicates that the obtained loadings for all latent variables (i.e., CI, consumer identities and PI) stood above the suggested value of 0.6 with no cross-loading measures exceeding 0.6. Table 5.24 also shows the descriptive measures of the main constructs. Respondents are consistently distributed across each construct, indicating that there is no response bias.

In examining the convergent and discriminant validity, the thesis assessed the psychometric attributes of the included constructs and their respective measurement items. The CFA results also confirmed the internal consistency, indexed by composite reliability scores (see Appendix 13 Table 5.17). The CR measures ranged from 0.85 to 0.95, and all items exceeded the recommended threshold value of 0.70 (Chin, 1999). Furthermore, the average variance extracted (AVE) measures

were greater than 0.5 (e.g., negative affective CI, ethnic consumer identity = 0.647, and national consumer identity = 0.700), indicating that the variance explained by the items was greater than the variance due to measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Concerning convergent validity, AVE measures of each latent construct surpassed the construct's highest squared correlation score with any other latent constructs. This revealed a strong discriminant validity for the measurement items (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013).

Table 5. 24 Measurement items, factor loadings, and descriptive analysis

First Order Constructs	First Order components Item statements	Factor Loading
Home CCI (mean = 4.77; std dev = 1.97)		
	Highly developed economy	0.81
	Highly democratic system	0.82
	Government free of military influence	0.66
	High labour costs	0.80
	Free-market system	0.78
	Excellent welfare system	0.85
	Producer of high-quality products	0.84
	High standard of living	0.75
	High level of technological research	0.73
Home positive ACI (mean = 4.78; std dev = 1.77)		
	Happy	0.81
	Excited	0.76
	Enthusiastic	0.76
	Admiration	0.78
	Respect	0.72
	Inspired	0.66
	Warmth	0.68
	Love	0.69
Home negative ACI (mean = 3.76; std dev = 1.89)		
	Worried	0.84
	irritated	0.81
	Resentment	0.82
	Contempt	0.77
	Angry	0.73
	Afraid	0.61
	Ashamed	0.66
Host CCI (mean = 4.48; std dev = 1.46)		
	Australia economy	0.75
	Australia democratic	0.73
	Australia military	0.69
	Australia labour costs	0.72

First Order Constructs	First Order components Item statements	Factor Loading
	Australia agricultural	0.62
	Australia market	0.62
Host positive ACI (mean = 4.54; std dev = 1.74)		
	Australia Happy	0.85
	Australia Excited	0.86
	Australia Enthusiastic	0.80
	Australia Respect	0.74
	Australia Inspired	0.74
	Australia Warmth	0.75
	Australia Love	0.80
Host negative ACI (mean = 3.18; std dev = 1.87)		
	Australia Bored	0.91
	Australia Worried	0.90
	Australia Sentimental	0.81
	Australia Resentment	0.81
	Australia Contempt	0.63
	Australia Angry	0.60
	Australia Afraid	0.62
	Australia Ashamed	
Ethnic consumer identity (mean = 5.37; std dev = 1.64)		
	Maintain culture	0.86
	Attached culture	0.76
	Proud culture	0.83
	Close culture	0.81
	Children learn culture	0.84
	Part of culture	0.78
	Acquisition family values	0.84
	Positive impact on my life.	0.72
	Participating events	0.71
National consumer identity (mean = 4.69; std dev = 1.72)		
	Maintain Australian culture	0.89
	Attached Australian culture	0.88
	Proud Australian culture	0.88
	Close Australian culture	0.86
	Children learn Australian culture	0.68
	Part of Australian culture	0.87
	Acquisition Australian family values	0.81
	Positive impact	0.84
	Participating in Australian events	
Home PI		
	Purchase ethnic products as	0.68
	Purchase from ethnic service providers as	0.76
	I will generally buy ethnic products	0.83
	I will generally buy from ethnic service providers	0.90
Host PI		
	Purchase host country products as	0.84
	Purchase from host country service providers as	0.88
	I will generally buy host country products	0.77

First Order Constructs	First Order components Item statements	Factor Loading
	I will generally buy from host country service providers	0.79

With respect to discriminant validity, all the AVE values exceed the squared inter-construct correlations, confirming that constructs are independent of one another (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013). The maximum shared variance (MSV) values were greater than AVE (e.g., EI: MSV = 0.219 < AVE 0.647), and thus the items have discriminant validity. The MSV measures the degree of overlap of two or more variables, showing the amount the variations of the multi variables tend to vary together (Hair et al., 2006). Table 5.17 (see Appendix 13) illustrates an excellent factor structure in which convergent and discriminant validity is supported by the significant loadings within factors and no evident major cross-loadings between factors. In summary, the results of these tests confirmed that the proposed model was both appropriate and robust.

5.2.2.2 Common method bias (CMB)

The Common Method Bias is an error that can occur when the independent variable and the dependent variable are measured by the same measurement tool and respondent; as such, it can jeopardise the validity of the measurement, increasing or decreasing the strength of the relationship between variables in the research model, distorting the research results (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). For example, when collecting survey data from one source (e.g., online), participants are consciously likely to respond in the same direction (e.g., all select "strongly agree or strongly disagree"). Also, the question's external environment (e.g., bias or knowledge) may have influenced a given response. Therefore, the correlation between the two variables can be further exaggerated, which is the phenomenon called common method bias (CMB).

CMB occurs when a response change occurs by an instrument rather than the actual tendency of the respondent to grasp. To test for any possible CMB, the thesis employed a full collinearity assessment approach, such as Harman's single factor test and common latent factor (CLF) and examine the model for the existence of collinearity.

Harman's single factor test

One way to assess the presence of CMB is using Harman's single factor test, where all items are loaded into one common factor (Aguirre-Urreta & Hu, 2019; Fuller et al., 2016). Total variance of less than 50% for a single factor indicates that CMB is not present. Table 5.18 (see Appendix 14) indicates Harman's single factor test values is 23.36%, which is well below the threshold of 50%, revealing that CMB is not an issue.

Common Latent Factor (CLF)

Following Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff's (2012) suggestion, the thesis also included an unmeasured latent method factor technique to check for CMB and more specifically, Common Method Variance. The results (see Appendix 14 Table 5.19) revealed non-significant differences between the standardised regression weights (differences were smaller than 0.2), suggesting that the model is not unduly/significantly influenced by CMB.5.2.2.3 Model fit statistics

The thesis used the items obtained from CFA to generate and analyse the structural model. Specifically, the results of covariance-based SEM analysis (see Table 5.29, a summary of model fit measures) show that the proposed conceptual framework has an acceptable model fit. The CMIN/DF index yielded approximately 1.894 and the p-value is 0.000 (see Table 5.25); thus, the suggested model CMIN/DF is excellent. CMIN represents the likelihood ratio statistic, the most

basic statistic used to determine the model fit with the data (Bollen, 1989; Byrne, 2016). This statistic is equal to $(N-1)$ and is distributed as a central chi-square with a degree of freedom equal to $1/2 (p) (P+1)-t$ (p = number of observing variable, t = number of parameters to be estimated) (Bollen 1989). The chi-square test simultaneously tests the extent to which the factor loadings, variance and covariance, and error variances for the model being studied are valid (Byrne 2016). Generally, the smaller the value of chi-square/DF, the better the model fits the data, although there is no cut-off value for a model to be accepted (Gerbing & Anderson, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1995). Table 5.25 indicates the CMIN/DM index of the model.

Table 5. 25 CMIN/DF index

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	90	1233.033	651	0.000	1.894
Saturated model	741	0.000	0.000		
Independence model	38	7638.491	703	0.000	10.866

The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) is an absolute fit index that measures the relative variance and covariance matrices of the sample data. This index is described as the variance, covariance matrix for the hypothesis model. The index values range between zero to one, where values close to 1 are appropriate (Barrett, 2007; Enders & Tofighi, 2008). Table 5.26 indicates that $GFI = 0.804$, which is less than suggested > 0.95 ; in contrast, the $AGFI = 0.778$, which is just below the suggested threshold of > 0.80 , yet borderline acceptable (Barrett, 2007; Enders & Tofighi, 2008).

Table 5. 26 Goodness of fit index (GFI)

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	0.210	0.804	0.778	0.707
Saturated model	0.000	1.000		
Independence model	1.022	0.197	0.156	0.187

The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) values range between 0 to 1, where higher values represent a well-fitting model and 0.9 is the recommended threshold (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013). As per the results included in Table 5.27, CFI = 0.929; therefore, the model fit is acceptable.

Table 5. 27 Comparative Fit Index (CFI)

Model	CFI
Default model	0.929
Saturated model	1.000
Independence model	0.000

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is one of the most valuable statistics in modelling structural equations; it assesses how far a hypothesised model is from a perfect model (Byrne 2016). RMSEA measures the discrepancy and expresses it via degrees of freedom; thus, it is an absolute fit index (Bollen et al., 1992). Values less than 0.06 indicate a good fit; values between 0.06 to 0.08 indicate a reasonable fit, whereas values greater than 0.08 indicate a poor fit (MacCallum, Browne & Sugawara, 1996). It should be noted that RMSEA tends to over-reject accurate population models when the sample size is small (Byrne, 2016). Table 5.28 shows that RMSEA = 0.054 indicating a good fit while the p of Close Fit (PCLOSE) has a value of 0.081, which is more than the suggested threshold of 0.05.

Table 5. 28 RMSEA and PCLOSE index

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	0.054	0.049	0.059	0.081
Independence model	0.196	0.192	0.199	0.000

Table 5.29 provides a summary of the model fit measurements. The values of all indices stood within the suggested thresholds, indicating that the conceptual model has a good global fit.

Table 5. 29 Summary of model fit measures

Measure	Estimate	Threshold	Interpretation
CMIN/DF	1.894	Between 1 and 3	Excellent
CFI	0.929	> 0.95	Acceptable
SRMR	0.065	< 0.08	Excellent
RMSEA	0.054	< 0.06	Excellent
PCLOSE	0.081	> 0.05	Excellent

5.2.3 SEM outcomes

The value of the R² is between 0 (or 0%) and 1 (or 100%). The higher the correlation between the dependent and independent variables, the closer to 1. In other words, a regression model with a coefficient of determination near zero is less useful, while a larger coefficient of determination is more useful. Figure 5.7 presents the R-squared value of the model. It is important to note that all the main constructs in the thesis are interchangeable, and all measures are reflective constructs. The reflective constructs explain that all indicators have a relatively high correlation with latent variables (Preacher, Zhang & Zyphur, 2011; Preacher, Zyphur & Zhang, 2010). The results of path analysis indicate that the R-squared values are relatively high for all dependent latent constructs. In more detail, R-squared values of both ethnic consumer identity (0.24) and national consumer identity (0.36) substantially surpasses the suggested cut-off value of 0.10 (Falk & Miller, 1992). Regarding PI, the R-squared values were also significant (PI of home country = 0.32, PI of host country = 0.31).

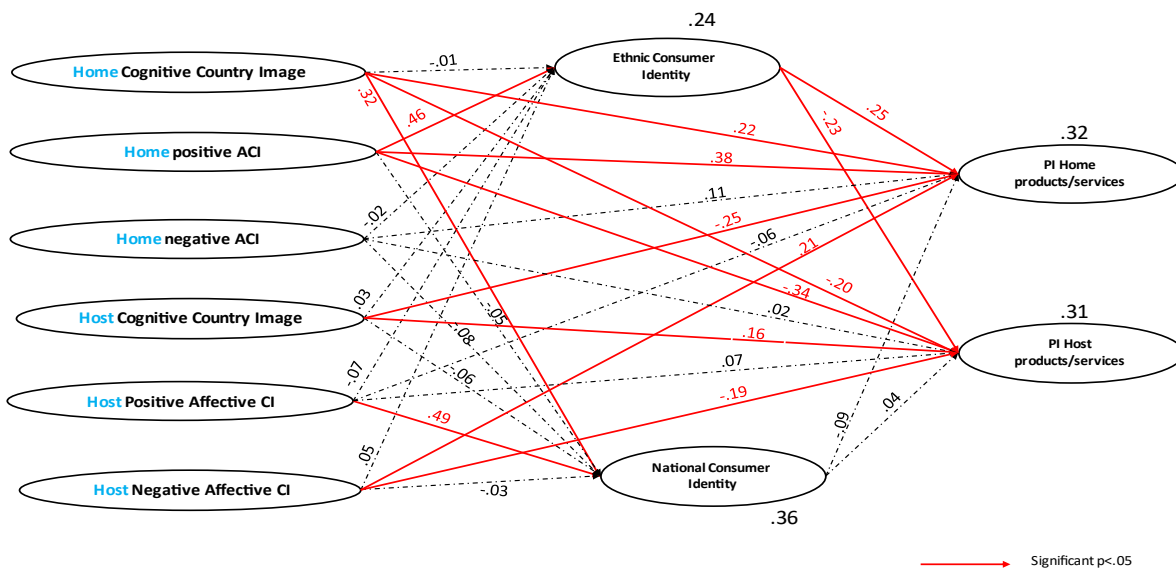


Figure 5.7 SEM path model

To test the stated hypotheses, path analysis and standardized coefficients were used (see Table 5.30). Table 5.30 shows the path coefficients of the structural equation model Estimate, standard error (SE), critical ratio (CR) and P-value. CR is generally a value calculated by dividing the mean difference between the two sets of scores by the standard error of the difference. If the CR value is greater than 1.0, it is ideal; if it is less than 1.0, the performance deteriorates. SE is the approximate standard deviation of a sample population and measures the sample distribution's accuracy representing the population using the standard deviation. What now follows is a summary of test results against hypotheses (see Table 5.30).

Table 5. 30 SEM analysis results (Standardized Regression Weights)

	Direct paths	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P-value	
H1a	Home CCI→PI Home	0.215	0.090	2.216	0.027*	Sig.
H1b	Home CCI-- > PI Host	-0.203	0.103	-2.129	0.033*	Sig.
H1c	Home CCI-- > ECI	-0.008	0.090	-0.089	0.929	
H1d	Home CCI-- > NCI	0.318	0.090	3.627	0.000*	Sig.
H2a	Home positive ACI-- > PI Home	0.384	0.103	3.742	0.000*	Sig.
H2b	Home positive ACI-- > PI Host	-0.344	0.117	-3.948	0.000*	Sig.
H2c	Home positive ACI-- > ECI	0.463	0.102	5.602	0.000*	Sig.
H2d	Home positive ACI-- > NCI	-0.045	0.089	-0.641	0.516	
H3a	Home negative ACI-- > PI Home	0.109	0.500	0.218	0.876	
H3b	Home negative ACI-- > PI Host	0.022	0.580	0.256	0.798	
H3c	Home negative ACI-- > ECI	-0.018	0.530	-0.207	0.785	
H3d	Home negative ACI-- > NCI	-0.081	0.583	-0.873	0.290	
H4a	Host CCI-- > PI Home	-0.252	0.150	-1.679	0.031*	Sig.
H4b	Host CCI-- > PI Host	0.164	0.174	1.784	0.04*	Sig.
H4c	Host CCI-- > ECI	0.030	0.157	0.335	0.742	
H4d	Host CCI-- > NCI	-0.058	0.152	-0.691	0.490	
H5a	Host positive ACI-- > PI Host	0.073	0.129	0.712	0.469	
H5b	Host positive ACI-- > PI Home	-0.055	0.111	-0.528	0.598	
H5c	Host positive ACI-- > ECI	-0.071	0.108	-0.755	0.434	
H5d	Host positive ACI-- > NCI	0.488	0.110	5.310	0.000*	Sig.
H6a	Host negative ACI-- > PI Home	0.208	0.121	2.158	0.031*	Sig.
H6b	Host negative ACI-- > PI Host	-0.193	0.105	-2.014	0.044*	Sig.
H6c	Host negative ACI-- > ECI	0.046	0.109	0.478	0.605	
H6d	Host negative ACI-- > NCI	-0.028	0.105	-0.314	0.761	
H7a	ECI-- > PI Home	0.247	0.067	3.471	0.000**	Sig.
H7b	ECI-- > PI Host	-0.233	0.076	-3.362	0.000*	Sig.
H8a	NCI-- > PI Host	0.044	0.079	0.585	0.558	
H8b	NCI-- > PI Home	-0.087	0.068	-1.155	0.248	

*significant at p<0.05 (two -sided)

The results show that home CCI does not impact ethnic consumer identity ($\beta = -0.008$, p-value = 0.929), rejecting H1c, However, it significantly and positively impacts national consumer identity ($\beta = 0.318$, p-value = 0.00), confirming H1d. Furthermore, home CCI demonstrates a direct and significant impact on both PI of home country products and services ($\beta = 0.215$, p-value = 0.027) and PI of host country products and services ($\beta = -0.203$, p-value = 0.033); thus, H1a and H1b are supported.

The results reveal that home positive ACI does not significantly impact national consumer identity ($\beta = -0.045$, p-value = 0.516), leading to the rejection of H2d. In contrast, a significant positive impact

on ethnic consumer identity is visible ($\beta = 0.463$, $p\text{-value} = 0.00$); thus, H2c is confirmed. Furthermore, home positive CCI affects both the PI of home ($\beta = 0.384$, $p\text{-value} = 0.00$) and host country products and services ($\beta = -0.344$, $p\text{-value} = 0.00$). Thus, H2a and H2b are supported.

Home negative ACI, as the results show, does not affect ethnic consumer identity ($\beta = -0.018$, $p\text{-value} = 0.836$) or national consumer identity ($\beta = -0.081$, $p\text{-value} = 0.383$), which leads to the rejection of H3c and H3d. Similarly, home negative ACI does not directly influence either of PI of home ($\beta = 0.109$, $p\text{-value} = 0.828$) and host country products and services ($\beta = 0.022$, $p\text{-value} = 0.798$), confirming that H3a and H3b are also not supported.

The results show that host CCI does not affect either of ethnic consumer identity ($\beta = 0.03$, $p\text{-value} = 0.738$) or national consumer identity ($\beta = -0.058$, $p\text{-value} = 0.489$), rejecting H4c and H4d. However, host CCI significantly and positively impacts both PI of home country products and services ($\beta = -0.252$, $p\text{-value} = 0.03$), and PI of host country products and service ($\beta = 0.164$, $p\text{-value} = 0.04$); thus, H4a and H4b are supported.

The results show that host positive ACI does not affect ethnic consumer identity ($\beta = 0.071$, $p\text{-value} = 0.45$), leading to the rejection of H5c. However, it significantly and positively impacts national consumer identity ($\beta = 0.488$, $p\text{-value} = 0.00$); thus, H5d is supported. Furthermore, host positive ACI does not impact either of PI of home country products and services ($\beta = -0.055$, $p\text{-value} = 0.598$) and PI of host country products and service ($\beta = 0.073$, $p\text{-value} = 0.479$); thus, H5a and H5b are not supported.

Host negative ACI, as the results show, does not impact ethnic consumer identity ($\beta = 0.046$, $p\text{-value} = 0.633$) or national consumer identity ($\beta = -0.028$, $p\text{-value} = 0.753$); hence, H6c and H6d are not supported. Nonetheless, host negative ACI has a direct and significant impact on both the PI of home

country products and service ($\beta = 0.208$, p-value = 0.031), and PI of host country products and services ($\beta = -0.193$, p-value = 0.044); thus, H6a and H6b are supported.

The direct impact of ethnic consumer identity on PI, as the results show, has a direct and significant impact on both PI of home country products and services ($\beta = 0.247$, p-value = 0.00), and PI of host country products and services ($\beta = -0.233$, p-value = 0.00), confirming H7a and H7b, respectively.

Finally, the results show national consumer identity does not impact PI of home country products and services ($\beta = 0.044$, p-value = 0.558) or PI of host country products and service ($\beta = -0.087$, p-value = 0.248). Thus, H8a and H8b are not supported.

5.3 Mediation role of ethnic and national consumer identity

Table 5.31 illustrates the outcomes of the analysis of the mediation role of ethnic and national consumer identity in the relationship between CI and PI. Bootstrapping is used for 2,000 resamples with bias-corrected confidence intervals of 95 (Hair et al., 2006; Preacher, Zhang & Zyphur, 2011; Preacher, Zyphur & Zhang, 2010).

Table 5. 31 Mediation role of ethnic and national consumer identity

Indirect paths	Estimate	Boot SE	P-value
Home CCI --> ECI --> Home PI	0.213	0.003	0.016*
Home positive ACI --> ECI --> Home PI	0.450	0.003	0.006*
Home Negative ACI --> ECI --> Home PI	0.017	0.003	0.968
Home CCI --> ECI --> Host PI	-0.310	0.008	0.043*
Home positive ACI --> ECI --> Host PI	-0.332	0.006	0.006*
Home negative ACI --> ECI --> Host PI	0.012	0.004	0.862
Host CCI --> NCI --> Home PI	-0.075	0.003	0.363
Host positive ACI --> NCI --> Home PI	-0.032	0.003	0.580
Host negative ACI --> NCI --> Home PI	-0.066	0.003	0.173
Host CCI --> NCI --> Host PI	0.108	0.007	0.696
Host positive ACI --> NCI --> Host PI	0.101	0.005	0.617
Host negative ACI --> NCI --> Host PI	0.193	0.004	0.260

NOTES: ECI = ethnic consumer identity; NCI= national consumer identity; PI = purchase intentions; SE = Standard Error; CR = Critical ratios; BootSE = bootstrap standard error; *significant at p<0.05 (two -sided)

The results (see Table 5.31) reveal that ethnic consumer identity mediates the relationships between home CCI and PI of home country products and services (bootstrapping estimate = 0.213, bootstrap lower-level confidence intervals (LLCI)=-0.095, bootstrap upper-level confidence intervals (ULCI)= 0.525, p-value = 0.016). It also mediates the relationships between home positive ACI and PI of home country products and services (bootstrapping estimate = 0.450, LLCI = 0.117, ULCI = 0.816, p-value = 0.003); between home CCI and PI of host country products and services (bootstrapping estimate = -0.310, LLCI = -0.6, ULCI = -0.01, p-value = 0.043); and between home positive ACI and PI of host country products and services (bootstrapping estimate =-0.332, LLCI = -0.682, ULCI = 0.033, p-value = 0.006). Nonetheless, ethnic consumer identity does not mediate the relationship between home negative ACI and PI of home country products and services (bootstrapping estimate = 0.017, LLCI = -0.31, ULCI = 0.293, p-value = 0.968), or between PI of host country products and services (bootstrapping estimate = 0.012, LLCI = -0.261, ULCI = 0.284, p-value = 0.862).

In terms of national consumer identity, the results did not support any mediation effect.

5.4 Moderation effects

The moderation variable is a catalyst-like variable that interacts with the independent variable to reduce or strengthen the relationship between the independent and dependent variable (Byrne, 2016). The moderation variables considered in this thesis are generation and language usage. In more detail, this section begins with the analysis of how generation differences (1st generation vs. 2nd generation) moderate the relationships amongst consumer identities (ethnic vs. national consumer identity) and home and host CI. Then, this section examines how consumers' language

usage (e.g., mostly speak ethnic or English) moderates the relationships between CI (home vs. host CI) and consumer identity.

5.4.1 Generation

Table 5.32 shows that generation significantly weakens the relationship between home CCI and ethnic consumer identity (estimate measure = -0.485, p-value = 0.002), confirming H9a. At the same time, in line with H9b, generation significantly strengthens the relationship between home positive ACI and ethnic consumer identity (estimate measure = 0.515, p-value = 0.001). However, generation does not moderate the relationship between home negative ACI and ethnic consumer identity (estimate measure = -0.15, p-value = 0.101), leading to the rejection of H9c.

Generation also significantly strengthens the relationship between host positive ACI and national consumer identity (estimate measure = 0.754, p-value = 0.018), which confirms H10b. Yet, it does not moderate the impact of host CCI and host negative ACI (estimate measure = -0.168, p-value = 0.48) on national consumer identity (estimate measure = -0.129, p-value = 0.817) leading to the rejection of H10a and H10c.

Table 5. 32 Moderation roles analysis - Generation

	Hypothesised Paths	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P-value
H9a	Home CCI-- > ECI	-0.485	0.240	1.090	0.002*
H9b	Home positive ACI-- > ECI	0.515	0.178	1.401	0.001*
H9c	Home negative ACI-- > ECI	-0.150	0.011	-1.640	0.101
	Host CCI-- > ECI	-0.044	0.318	-0.734	0.463
	Host positive ACI-- > ECI	0.011	0.187	0.031	0.975
	Host negative ACI-- > ECI	-0.224	0.196	-0.873	0.032*
	Home CCI-- > NCI	-0.654	0.238	-1.594	0.001*
	Home positive ACI--> NCI	0.109	0.176	0.323	0.747
	Home negative ACI--> NCI	0.017	0.010	2.093	0.360
H10a	Host CCI- -> NCI	-0.129	0.315	-0.231	0.817
H10b	Host positive ACI-- > NCI	0.754	0.184	2.374	0.018*
H10c	Host negative ACI-- > NCI	-0.168	0.194	-0.707	0.480

Notes: ECI= ethnic consumer identity; NCI= national consumer identity; SE= Standard Error; CR= Critical ratios; *significant at p<0.05 (two -sided)

5.4.2 Language usage

Table 5.33 shows that language usage is a strong moderator between host ACI and national consumer identity, and a weak moderator of the relationship between home CCI and ethnic consumer identity.

With respect to home CI, the results suggest that ethnic language usage significantly strengthens the relationship between home positive ACI and ethnic consumer identity (estimate measure = 0.589, p-value = 0.00*) and home CCI and national consumer identity (estimate measure = 0.347, p-value = 0.01*). More usage of ethnic language makes a strong path between home positive ACI and ethnic consumer identity, and more usage of English (or host country language) makes a strong path between home CCI and national consumer identity.

In terms of host CI, language usage significantly strengthens the relationship between host CCI and national consumer identity (estimate measure = -0.195, p-value = 0.028*); host positive ACI and national consumer identity (estimate measure = 0.663, p-value = 0.00*); and host negative ACI and national consumer identity (estimate measure = -0.224, p-value = 0.045*). More usage of English makes a strong path between host CCI, host negative ACI and national consumer identity; however, more usage of ethnic language makes a strong path between host positive ACI and national consumer identity.

Table 5. 33 Moderation roles analysis - Language

Paths	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P-value
Home CCI-- > ECI	-0.034	0.152	-0.256	0.798
Home positive ACI-- > ECI	0.589	0.127	4.763	0.000*
Home negative ACI-- > ECI	0.077	0.131	0.748	0.454
Host CCI-- > ECI	0.082	0.179	0.460	0.646
Host positive ACI-- > ECI	0.038	0.146	0.275	0.783
Host negative ACI-- > ECI	0.024	0.145	0.224	0.823
Home CCI-- > NCI	0.347	0.161	2.564	0.010*
Home positive ACI-->NCI	-0.071	0.134	-0.557	0.577
Home negative ACI-- > NCI	0.073	0.138	0.686	0.492
Host CCI-- > NCI	-0.195	0.190	-1.067	0.028*
Host positive ACI-- > NCI	0.663	0.154	4.643	0.000*
Host negative ACI-- > NCI	-0.224	0.154	-2.002	0.045*

Notes: ECI = ethnic consumer identity; NCI- national consumer identity; SE= Standard Error; CR = Critical ratios; *significant at p<0.05 (two -sided)

5.5 Multi group analysis

Multiple group analyses (MGA) are typically used to test and determine the existence of significant differences between the groups (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011, 2013). In the specific instance of this thesis, multi-group analysis examines the differences in the significance of the causal paths when the data is split based on i) different ethnic consumer groups, ii) different types of questionnaires (i.e., regarding the language) participants chose to complete, iii) different generations, and iv) empirical context. The results were as follows.

5.5.1 Generational differences

Levene's test is used to test the estimated statistics that assess the equality of variance for variables calculated for two or more groups before comparing means. If the resulting p-value for Levene's test is less than 0.05, it can be concluded that there is a difference between the variances in the population, and that the differences from the sample variances are less likely to be based on random samples of the population with equal variances. Levenes' test results (see Appendix 21 Table 5.37)

show that the p-value of generation is less than 0.05 (e.g., host CCI = 0.017*, home CCI = 0.00*, home positive ACI = 0.001*, ethnic consumer identity = 0.039* and PI of home country products and services = 0.005*). The results indicate that samples have sufficient variance to account for the possible mean difference.

The thesis uses a nonparametric test to determine how the home and host CI, consumer identity, and PI differ between the generation difference (see Table 5.34). The results reveal a significant difference between the home CCI, home positive ACI and home negative ACI and host CCI of mean rank. There is also a significant difference in the mean ranks between ethnic consumer identity and PI of home products and services. However, the PI of the home was not significant between the host positive ACI and the host negative ACI. In more detail, the first generation has a higher mean rank of home negative ACI, host negative ACI and PI of host products and services than the second generation. The second generation has a higher mean rank of home CCI, home positive ACI, ethnic and national consumer identity and PI of home products and services.

Table 5. 34 Comparison of means of generation difference

Latent construct	Generation	Mean	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Sig. (2-tailed)
Home CCI	1st	3.2163	118.51	25479	2259	25479	-5.782	0.000*
	2nd	4.3152	189.39	8712				
Home positive ACI	1st	4.6605	123.8	26616	3396	26616	-3.336	0.001*
	2nd	5.3342	164.67	7575				
Home negative ACI	1st	3.8465	136.98	29451	3659	4740	-2.768	0.006*
	2nd	3.3043	103.04	4740				
Host CCI	1st	5.3123	125.7	27026.5	3806.5	27026.5	-2.451	0.014*
	2nd	5.6941	155.75	7164.5				
Host positive ACI	1st	5.1395	130.27	28009	4789	28009	-0.336	0.737
	2nd	5.144	134.39	6182				
Host negative ACI	1st	3.0326	134.83	28987.5	4122.5	5203.5	-1.771	0.077
	2nd	2.8333	113.12	5203.5				
ECI	1st	5.277	126.4	27176	3956	27176	-2.132	0.033*
	2nd	5.7319	152.5	7015				
NCI	1st	4.6424	128.04	27528	4308	27528	-1.372	0.170*
	2nd	4.9396	144.85	6663				
PI Home	1st	4.2593	126.78	27257.5	4037.5	27257.5	-1.958	0.050*
	2nd	4.750	150.73	6933.5				
PI Host	1st	3.6837	134.16	28844.5	4265.5	5346.5	-1.473	0.141
	2nd	3.2609	116.23	5346.5				

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

For the first-generation consumers (see Table 5.35), home positive ACI directly and significantly impacts ethnic consumer identity (estimate = 0.554, p-value = 0.00*). In the case of national consumer identity, host positive ACI (estimate = 0.331, p-value = 0.016*) and home CCI (estimate = -0.403, p-value = 0.00*) directly and significantly impacts national consumer identity. Furthermore, ethnic consumer identity directly and significantly impacts both PI home (estimate = 0.193, p-value = 0.008*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.216, p-value = 0.011*). Finally, home positive ACI directly and significantly impacts the PI of home country products and services (estimate = 0.395, p-value = 0.00*) and PI of host country products and services (estimate = -0.479, p-value = 0.00*).

With respect to the second-generation consumers, home positive ACI directly and significantly impacts ethnic consumer identity (estimate = 0.670, p-value = 0.002*). Host positive ACI directly and significantly impacts national consumer identity (estimate = 0.359, p-value = 0.000*). Concerning ethnic consumer identity, the results show that it directly and significantly impacts both PI home (estimate = 0.251, p-value = 0.041*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.217, p-value = 0.043*). For national consumer identity, the results show that it directly and significantly impacts both PI home (estimate = -0.314, p-value = 0.016*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.271, p-value = 0.014*). Regarding home CI and PI, home CCI directly and significantly impacts both PI of home country products and services (estimate = 0.411, p-value = 0.004*), and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.288, p-value = 0.005*). At the same time, home positive ACI directly and significantly impacts both PI of home (estimate = 0.365, p-value = 0.00*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.233, p-value = 0.001*); and home negative ACI directly and significantly impacts both PI of home (estimate = -0.312, p-value = 0.005*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = 0.300, p-value = 0.006*). Lastly, host CCI, host positive and negative ACI directly and significantly impacts both PI of home and host country products and services (see Table 5.35)

Table 5. 35 Model estimation of generations

	1st generation		2nd generation		
	Estimate	P	Estimate	P	z-score
Home CCI-- > PI Home	0.186	0.092	0.411	0.004*	2.161**
Home CCI-- > PI Host	-0.197	0.126	-0.788	0.005*	-1.917*
Home CCI-- > ECI	-0.028	0.794	-0.119	0.769	-0.216
Home CCI-- > NCI	-0.403	0.000*	-0.126	0.763	-1.227
Home positive ACI-- > PI Home	0.395	0.000*	0.365	0.000*	0.084
Home positive ACI-- > PI Host	-0.479	0.000*	-0.633	0.001*	-1.230
Home positive ACI-- > ECI	0.554	0.000*	0.670	0.002*	1.230
Home positive ACI-- > NCI	-0.008	0.936	-0.064	0.841	-0.169
Home negative ACI-- > PI Home	-0.084	0.615	-0.312	0.005*	-2.674***
Home negative ACI-- > PI Host	0.088	0.655	0.700	0.006*	2.444**
Home negative ACI-- > ECI	-0.035	0.844	0.314	0.273	1.038
Home negative ACI-- > NCI	0.050	0.755	-0.422	0.168	-1.367
Host CCI-- > PI Home	-0.096	0.621	-0.698	0.000*	-2.811***
Host CCI-- > PI Host	0.127	0.579	0.467	0.000*	1.273*
Host CCI-- > ECI	0.065	0.750	0.396	0.375	0.673
Host CCI-- > NCI	0.133	0.477	0.408	0.375	0.553
Host positive ACI-- > PI Host	0.100	0.555	0.600	0.005*	1.824*
Host positive ACI-- > PI Home	-0.059	0.680	-0.696	0.004*	-2.240**
Host positive ACI-- > ECI	0.093	0.536	0.274	0.137	0.764
Host positive ACI-- > NCI	0.331	0.016*	0.359	0.000*	0.036
Host negative ACI-- > PI Home	0.151	0.208	0.446	0.000*	1.902*
Host negative ACI-- > PI Host	-0.191	0.176	-0.317	0.000*	-1.389*
Host negative ACI-- > ECI	0.092	0.465	0.065	0.810	-0.090
Host negative ACI-- > NCI	-0.085	0.457	0.319	0.263	1.317
ECI-- > PI Home	0.193	0.008*	0.251	0.041*	0.405
ECI-- > PI Host	-0.216	0.011*	-0.217	0.043*	-0.006
NCI-- > PI Host	0.088	0.341	-0.314	0.016*	2.465**
NCI- > PI Home	-0.122	0.127	0.271	0.014*	-1.887**

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

The z-score illustrates the differences between the two groups, and the table shows significant differences between the two groups (see Table 5.35). There is a significant difference between the national consumer identity and PI of home (z-score = 2.465**) and host country products and services (z-score = -1.887*). The first generation showed no effect on home and host country products and services PI, while the second generation presented different PI according to the national consumer identity.

Results show that there is a significant difference between home CCI and PI home (z-score = 2.161**), and home negative ACI and both PI home (z-score = -2.674***) and host PI (z-score =

2.444**). However, only positive feelings toward their home country influenced PI in the first generation, while in the second generation, CCI and negative feelings of their home country also affect PI.

Regarding the host CI and PI of home country products and services, there is a significant difference between host CCI (z-score = -2.811***), positive ACI (z-score = -2.24**), negative ACI (z-score = -1.902*). Host CI and PI of host country products and services are also significantly different between host CCI (z-score = 1.273*), positive ACI (z-score = 1.824*), negative ACI (z-score = -1.389*). In the first generation, the host CI did not affect the PI at all, while in the second generation, cognitive and emotional factors for the host country influence the PI.

5.5.2 Different consumer groups

Since more than 100 of the recruited samples are Vietnamese and Iranian consumer groups, this section compares and analyses only those two consumer groups. Levenes' test results (see Appendix 17 Table 5.29) show that the p-value of the Vietnamese and Iranian consumer groups are less than 0.05 (e.g., host CCI = 0.029, host negative ACI = 0.013, home negative ACI = 0.001 and ethnic consumer identity = 0.011). The results indicate that samples have sufficient variance to account for the possible mean difference.

Using mean ranks, the thesis compared how home and host CI, consumer identity and PI differ across the two consumer groups. The results (see Table 5.36) show significant differences between the home and host CI, ethnic vs. national consumer identity and PI. However, in terms of positive emotions about the home and the host country, results revealed no differences between the two consumer groups, suggesting that consumers are not as clear in their minds or consistent in their thinking with respect to judging positive emotions. Moreover, when looking at the differences in

mean ranks with respect to the type of home CI, it is evident that Vietnamese consumers have the highest home CCI, whereas their Iranian counterparts showed the highest home negative ACI. In terms of host country, Vietnamese consumers show a higher mean rank than Iranian consumers for host CCI and host negative ACI. Also, the mean rank of Vietnamese consumers on ethnic consumer identity and national consumer identity is higher than Iranian consumers. Further, Vietnamese consumers show greater PI for products and services from the home country, while Iranian consumers show greater PI for goods and services from host country.

Table 5. 36 Comparison of means on different ethnic consumer groups

Latent construct	Ethnic groups	Mean	Mean rank	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Sig. (2-tailed)
Home CCI	Vietnam	3.5858	129.62	2260.5	7411.5	-6.84	0.001*
	Iran	2.5165	73.38				
Home positive ACI	Vietnam	4.7079	108.22	4422	9573	-1.635	0.102
	Iran	4.4196	94.78				
Home negative ACI	Vietnam	3.1741	68.8	1798	6949	-7.953	0.001*
	Iran	4.4464	134.2				
Host CCI	Vietnam	5.3876	111.91	4049	9200	-2.532	0.011*
	Iran	5.0757	91.09				
Host positive ACI	Vietnam	4.9406	95.22	4466.5	9617.5	-1.528	0.127
	Iran	5.1089	107.78				
Host negative ACI	Vietnam	3.2013	112.71	3968.5	9119.5	-2.727	0.006*
	Iran	2.8523	90.29				
ECI	Vietnam	5.4202	112.19	4020.5	9171.5	-2.602	0.009*
	Iran	4.9285	90.81				
NCI	Vietnam	4.8768	115.79	3657.5	8808.5	-3.476	0.001*
	Iran	4.1782	87.21				
PI Home	Vietnam	4.6337	114.77	3760.5	8911.5	-3.233	0.001*
	Iran	3.8738	88.23				
PI Host	Vietnam	3.3663	87.52	3689	8840	-3.422	0.001*
	Iran	4.1262	115.48				

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

Table 5.37 further shows the specific results of the path analysis. For the Vietnamese consumer, only home positive ACI affects the ethnic consumer identity (estimate = 0.408, p-value = 0.00). However, national consumer identity is underpinned by host positive ACI (estimate = 0.343, p-value = 0.011), host negative ACI (estimate = -0.452, p-value = 0.003), home CCI (estimate = 0.29, p-value

= 0.02) and home negative ACI (estimate = 0.23, p-value = 0.01). In addition, home positive ACI positively impacts PI of home country products and services (estimate = 0.227, p-value = 0.032) and has a negative impact on PI of host country products and services (estimate = -0.34, p-value = 0.022). Finally, host CCI significantly influences the PI of host country products and services (estimate = 0.367, p-value = 0.015).

In terms of the Iranian consumer group, home positive ACI affects the ethnic consumer identity (estimate = 0.413, p-value = 0.00) and host negative ACI (estimate = 0.234, p-value = 0.001), but only the host positive ACI impacts national consumer identity (estimate = 0.637, p-value = 0.00). Ethnic consumer identity positively impacts PI of home country products and service (estimate = 0.237, p-value = 0.011) and negatively impacts PI of host country products and services (estimate = -0.241, p-value = 0.014). Home CCI (estimate = 0.399, p-value = 0.012) and home positive ACI (estimate = 0.314, p-value = 0.003) both have a positive impact on PI of home country products and services.

In addition, host CCI (estimate = -0.255, p-value = 0.016), host positive ACI (estimate = -0.312, p-value = 0.02) and negative ACI (estimate = 0.341, p-value = 0.023) impact PI of home country products and services. Concerning the PI of host country products and services, home CCI (estimate = -0.419, p-value = 0.012), home positive ACI (estimate = -0.349, p-value = 0.002), host CCI (estimate = 0.341, p-value = 0.02), host positive ACI (estimate = 0.392, p-value = 0.039) and host negative ACI (estimate = -0.376, p-value = 0.017) all demonstrate impact.

Table 5. 37 Model estimation between consumer groups

	Vietnam		Iran		
	Estimate	P	Estimate	P	z-score
Home CCI-- > PI Home	0.099	0.406	0.399	0.012*	1.516
Home CCI-- > PI Host	-0.206	0.226	-0.419	0.012*	-0.898
Home CCI-- > ECI	-0.043	0.729	-0.129	0.445	-0.412
Home CCI-- > NCI	0.290	0.020*	0.144	0.322	-0.759
Home positive ACI-- > PI Home	0.227	0.032*	0.314	0.003*	0.583
Home positive ACI-- > PI Host	-0.340	0.022*	-0.349	0.002*	-0.053
Home positive ACI-- > ECI	0.408	0.000*	0.413	0.000*	0.036
Home positive ACI-- > NCI	-0.087	0.400	0.037	0.683	0.904
Home negative ACI-- > PI Home	0.083	0.535	0.141	0.295	0.306
Home negative ACI-- > PI Host	0.085	0.657	0.174	0.224	1.082
Home negative ACI-- > ECI	0.133	0.345	-0.026	0.862	-0.779
Home negative ACI-- > NCI	0.230	0.010*	-0.088	0.490	-1.666*
Host CCI-- > PI Home	-0.170	0.235	-0.255	0.016*	1.821*
Host CCI-- > PI Host	0.367	0.015*	0.341	0.020*	0.501
Host CCI-- > ECI	-0.148	0.327	0.140	0.488	1.144
Host CCI-- > NCI	-0.189	0.213	0.086	0.621	1.192
Host positive ACI-- > PI Host	0.171	0.356	0.392	0.039*	-2.120**
Host positive ACI-- > PI Home	0.123	0.34	-0.312	0.020*	-1.968**
Host positive ACI-- > ECI	0.067	0.615	-0.056	0.756	-0.549
Host positive ACI-- > NCI	0.343	0.011*	0.637	0.000*	1.425
Host negative ACI-- > PI Home	0.036	0.807	0.341	0.023*	1.450
Host negative ACI-- > PI Host	-0.028	0.895	-0.376	0.017*	1.317
Host negative ACI-- > ECI	-0.109	0.473	0.234	0.001*	-0.571
Host negative ACI-- > NCI	-0.452	0.003*	-0.094	0.493	2.656***
ECI-- > PI Home	0.104	0.267	0.237	0.011*	1.004
ECI-- > PI Host	-0.135	0.314	-0.241	0.014*	-0.638
NCI-- > PI Host	-0.153	0.103	-0.070	0.507	0.587
NCI-- > PI Home	0.001	0.996	0.069	0.538	0.392

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

The z-score illustrates the differences between the two groups, and the results show significant differences between the two groups (see Table 5.37). There is a significant difference between the two groups regarding the host negative ACI and national consumer identity (z-score = 2.656***). The Vietnamese group is strongly influenced by the host country's negative ACI when deciding the national consumer identity, while the impact is not significant for the Iranian group. Furthermore, the Iranian group is strongly influenced by home negative ACI when deciding national consumer identity, while the Vietnamese group is not (z-score = -1.666*). Similarly, the Iranian group is

strongly influenced by host CCI when purchasing home country produces and services, while their Vietnamese counterparts are not (z-score = 1.821*). The Iranian group is also strongly influenced by host positive ACI when purchasing home country produces and services, while the impact is not significant for the Vietnamese group (z-score = -1.968*). Finally, the Iranian group is strongly influenced by host positive ACI when purchasing host country produces and services, the Vietnamese group's purchase decisions are not influenced by that factor (z-score = -2.12**).

5.5.3 Selecting survey language

Levenes' test results (see Appendix 19 Table 5.33) show that the p-value of the survey language selection is less than 0.05 for the following variables: home CCI = 0.012*, home positive ACI = 0.041*, host positive ACT = 0.003. The results indicate that samples have sufficient variance to account for the possible mean difference.

The thesis uses a nonparametric test to determine how the home and host CI, consumer identity, and PI differ between the selected survey languages (see Table 5.38). The results indicate a significant difference between the home and host positive ACI and home and host CCI. However, the difference between the host CCI and host negation ACI, PI of the home are not significant. In more detail, consumers who chose the English version of the questionnaire have a higher mean rank of home CCI and home positive ACI than consumers who chose the ethnic language version. In addition, consumers who chose the English version of the questionnaire have a high mean rank of host positive ACI. The mean rank difference in PI shows similarities for PI of home country products and services between the selected English or ethnic language surveys. However, the average PI of products and services from the host country for consumers choosing the English questionnaire is higher than those who did not.

Table 5. 38 Comparison of means on different selected questioner type

Latent construct	Survey type	Mean	Mean rank	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Sig. (2-tailed)
Home CCI	English	3.5983	141.77	6703.5	13373.5	-2.714	0.007*
	Ethnic	3.1797	116.29				
Home positive ACI	English	4.9319	139.83	6984	13654	-2.249	0.025*
	Ethnic	4.5859	118.73				
Home negative ACI	English	3.6414	124.03	7399	17984	-1.559	0.119
	Ethnic	3.8761	138.66				
Host CCI	English	5.4187	130.82	8290.5	14960.5	-0.078	0.938
	Ethnic	5.3391	130.09				
Host positive ACI	English	5.2767	138.68	7151	13821	-1.972	0.049*
	Ethnic	4.963	120.18				
Host negative ACI	English	2.9891	128.13	7994	18579	-0.571	0.568
	Ethnic	3.021	133.49				
ECI	English	5.469	136.66	7445	14115	-1.485	0.138
	Ethnic	5.2155	122.74				
NCI	English	4.81	134.76	7720	14390	-1.026	0.305
	Ethnic	4.57	125.13				
PI Home	English	4.3741	130.72	8305.5	14975.5	-0.053	0.958
	Ethnic	4.3304	130.22				
PI Host	English	3.6552	132.84	7998	14668	-0.568	0.570
	Ethnic	3.5304	127.55				

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

Table 5.39 shows the results of the path analysis's coefficient estimate (Estimate) and P-value for each survey language selection. For consumers who complete the questionnaires in their ethnic languages, home positive ACI positively and significantly impacts ethnic consumer identity (estimate = 0.381, p-value = 0.001). In the case of national consumer identity, host positive ACI (estimate = 0.354, p-value = 0.001) and home CCI (estimate = -0.328, p-value = 0.001) affect national consumer identity. Furthermore, ethnic consumer identity significantly impacts both PI home (estimate = 0.213, p-value = 0.003) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.24, p-value = 0.004). Finally, home CCI (estimate = 0.207, p-value = 0.002) and home ACI (estimate = 0.245, p-value = 0.002) significantly impact on PI host country products and services, and home CCI (estimate = -0.236, p-value = 0.023) and home positive ACI (estimate = -0.291, p-value = 0.002) significantly influence the PI of host country products and services.

For the group selecting the English survey, home positive ACI directly and significantly impacts ethnic consumer identity (estimate = 0.627, p-value = 0.001). In the case of national consumer identity, host CCI (estimate = 0.216 p-value = 0.039), host positive ACI (estimate = 0.877, p-value = 0.001), host negative ACI (estimate = -0.312, p-value = 0.009) and home negative ACI (estimate = 0.738, p-value = 0.001) positively and significantly impact national consumer identity. Concerning ethnic consumer identity, the results show a significant impact on both PI home (estimate = 0.179, p-value = 0.04) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.40, p-value = 0.003). For national consumer identity, results show only a significant impact on PI of host country products and services (estimate = 0.219, p-value = 0.049). Host positive ACI significantly impacts both PI of home country products and services (estimate = 0.219, p-value = 0.049) and PI host country products and services (estimate = 0.176, p-value = 0.028). Finally, home positive ACI (estimate = -0.219, p-value = 0.01), home negative ACI (estimate = 0.307, p-value = 0.00) and host CCI (estimate = 0.336, p-value = 0.0214) significantly impact PI of host country products and services.

Table 5. 39 Model estimation of survey language selection

	Ethnic language		English		z-score
	Estimate	P	Estimate	P	
Home CCI-->PI Home	0.207	0.020*	0.007	0.935	1.686*
Home CCI-->PI Host	-0.236	0.023*	-0.156	0.374	0.396
Home CCI-->ECI	0.068	0.413	-0.146	0.472	-0.976
Home CCI-->NCI	-0.328	0.001*	-0.120	0.164	-2.840***
Home positive ACI-->PI Home	0.245	0.002*	0.138	0.119	-0.900
Home positive ACI-->PI Host	-0.291	0.002*	-0.219	0.010*	0.415
Home positive ACI-->ECI	0.381	0.001*	0.627	0.001*	1.495
Home positive ACI-->NCI	-0.008	0.914	-0.051	0.719	-0.274
Home negative ACI-->PI Home	-0.087	0.276	0.112	0.295	1.490
Home negative ACI-->PI Host	0.111	0.236	0.307	0.000*	-1.923*
Home negative ACI-->ECI	0.015	0.847	0.004	0.986	-0.054
Home negative ACI-->NCI	0.031	0.682	0.738	0.001*	3.749***
Host CCI-->PI Home	-0.035	0.768	-0.234	0.047*	-1.079*
Host CCI-->PI Host	0.066	0.635	0.336	0.014*	1.001
Host CCI-->ECI	0.056	0.629	-0.110	0.502	-0.809
Host CCI-->NCI	0.109	0.336	0.216	0.039*	0.380
Host positive ACI-->PI Host	0.045	0.731	0.176	0.028*	0.625
Host positive ACI-->PI Home	-0.020	0.858	-0.053	0.542	-0.231
Host positive ACI-->ECI	0.045	0.676	0.043	0.756	-0.011
Host positive ACI-->NCI	0.354	0.001*	0.877	0.001*	3.102***
Host negative ACI-->PI Home	0.119	0.211	0.039	0.665	0.617
Host negative ACI-->PI Host	-0.151	0.173	-0.084	0.619	-0.336
Host negative ACI-->ECI	-0.007	0.938	-0.020	0.294	-0.912
Host negative ACI-->NCI	-0.023	0.796	-0.312	0.009*	1.626**
ECI-->PI Home	0.213	0.003*	0.179	0.040*	-0.297
ECI-->PI Host	-0.240	0.004*	-0.400	0.003*	-1.008
NCI-->PI Host	-0.111	0.123	-0.089	0.228	0.941
NCI-->PI Home	0.075	0.369	0.219	0.049*	-1.873*

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

The z-score illustrates the differences between the two groups (see Table 5.39). Accordingly, there is a significant difference between the two groups between the host positive ACI (z-score = 3.102***), and home negative ACI (z-score = 3.749***) and national consumer identity. The group selecting the English survey is strongly influenced by the host country's positive and negative ACI regarding national consumer identity, while the group selecting the ethnic language survey is not. Moreover, the group selecting the English survey type is strongly influenced by host negative ACI when deciding national consumer identity, while the group selecting the ethnic language survey type is not. Also, between national consumer identity and PI of home country products and services,

the group that chose the questionnaire in their ethnic language significantly influences (z-score = 1.941*) the PI of home country products and services, while the group selecting the questionnaire in English significantly impacts the PI of the host country products and services (z-score = -1.873*). Similarly, between home CCI and PI of home country products and services, the group that chose the ethnic language questionnaire significantly influences (z-score = 1.686*) the PI of home country products and services. In addition, between the host CCI and PI of home country products and services, the group that chose the English questionnaire significantly influences PI of home country products and services (z-score = -1.079*). Finally, between home negative ACI and PI of host country products and services, the group that chose the English questionnaire has a more significant impact on the c PI of host country products and services than the group that chose the ethnic language questionnaire (z-score = -1.923*).

5.5.4 Empirical context

Levenes' test results (see Appendix 23 Table 5.41) show that the p-value of buying groceries and financial advice is less than 0.05 (e.g., home CCI = 0.042, home positive ACI = 0.007, host CCI = 0.015 and host positive ACI = 0.003). The results indicate that samples have sufficient variance to account for the possible mean difference.

A nonparametric test was used to determine how the home and host CI, consumer identity, and PI differ in the empirical context (see Table 5.40). The results indicate a significant difference between the home negative ACI and host negative of the mean rank. However, the mean rank difference in PI shows similarities for PI of home and PI host country products and services between empirical contexts.

Table 5. 40 Comparison of means on different empirical contexts

	Empirical context	Mean	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Sig.(2-tailed)
Home CCI	Grocery	3.750	126.89	7836.5	13831.5	-0.657	0.010*
	Financial	4.4657	133.1				
Home positive ACI	Grocery	5.1023	128.73	8036.5	14031.5	-0.323	0.047*
	Financial	5.2721	131.78				
Home negative ACI	Grocery	3.2071	135.41	7694	19170	-0.895	0.371
	Financial	2.973	126.95				
Host CCI	Grocery	5.5606	134.05	7842.5	19318.5	-0.647	0.018*
	Financial	5.8782	127.94				
Host positive ACI	Grocery	5.125	130.17	8193.5	14188.5	-0.060	0.020*
	Financial	5.3088	130.74				
Host negative ACI	Grocery	3.1591	129.99	8173.5	14168.5	-0.094	0.250
	Financial	2.5294	130.87				
ECI	Grocery	5.6263	126.35	7777	13772	-0.758	0.044*
	Financial	5.9118	133.5				
NCI	Grocery	4.6229	128.54	8016	14011	-0.357	0.072
	Financial	5.3464	131.91				
PI Home	Grocery	4.7576	131.25	8147.5	19623.5	-0.137	0.010*
	Financial	4.3382	129.96				
PI Host	Grocery	2.9545	129.87	8160.5	14155.5	-0.116	0.080
	Financial	3.7059	130.96				

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

Table 5.41 shows the specific results of the SEM path coefficients (β) and P-value of the different empirical contexts. For buying groceries, ethnic consumer identity significantly impacts PI home country products and services (estimate = 0.275, p-value = 0.01*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.293, p-value = 0.008*). Home CCI significantly impacts PI home country products and services (estimate = 0.298, p-value = 0.01*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.324, p-value = 0.007*). Additionally, home positive ACI significantly impacts PI home country products and services (estimate = 0.395, p-value = 0.02*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.376, p-value = 0.001*). Results indicate that host CCI significantly impacts PI home country products and services (estimate = -0.178, p-value = 0.05*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = 0.179, p-value = 0.031*). Finally, host positive ACI significantly

impacts PI home country products and services (estimate = -0.171, p-value = 0.022*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.181, p-value = 0.021*).

With respect to financial advice, ethnic consumer identity significantly impacts PI home country products and services (estimate = 0.247, p-value = 0.003*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.265, p-value = 0.007*). Home positive ACI significantly impacts PI home country products and services (estimate = 0.188, p-value = 0.04*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = -0.254, p-value = 0.00*). At the same time, home negative ACI significantly impacts PI home country products and services (estimate = -0.157 p-value = 0.011*) and PI host country products and services (estimate = 0.248, p-value = 0.00*). Regarding host CCI, results indicate that host CCI significantly impacts PI host country products and services (estimate = 0.67, p-value = 0.001*). Lastly, host positive ACI significantly impacts PI host country products and services (estimate = 0.47, p-value = 0.001*).

Table 5. 41 Model estimation of empirical context

	Buying groceries		Financial advice		z-score
	Estimate	P	Estimate	P	
ECI-- > PI Home	0.275	0.010*	0.247	0.003*	-0.209
ECI-- > PI Host	-0.293	0.008*	-0.265	0.007*	0.188
NCI-- > PI Home	-0.140	0.150	-0.027	0.750	0.883
NCI-- > PI Host	0.148	0.141	-0.070	0.496	-1.516*
Home CCI-- > PI Home	0.298	0.010*	0.070	0.498	-1.464*
Home Positive ACI-- > PI Home	0.359	0.002*	0.188	0.040*	-1.180
Home Negative ACI-- > PI Home	0.101	0.382	-0.157	0.011*	-1.695*
Host CCI-- > PI Home	-0.178	0.050*	-0.009	0.946	0.786
Host Positive ACI-- > PI Home	-0.171	0.022*	-0.033	0.796	-1.065
Host Negative ACI-- > PI Home	0.020	0.885	0.033	0.758	-0.305
Home CCI-- > PI Host	-0.324	0.007*	-0.051	0.693	1.561*
Home Positive ACI-- > PI Host	-0.376	0.001*	-0.254	0.000*	0.751
Home Negative ACI-- > PI Host	-0.125	0.300	0.248	0.000*	2.178**
Host CCI-- > PI Host	0.179	0.031*	0.670	0.001*	-0.468
Host Positive ACI-- > PI Host	0.181	0.021*	0.470	0.001*	1.056
Host Negative ACI-- > PI Host	-0.032	0.820	0.058	0.663	0.465

*Significant at p < 0.05 (two-sided)

The z-score illustrates the differences between the two groups, and the table shows significant differences do exist between the two groups (see Table 5.41). There is a significant difference between the national consumer identity and PI of host country products and services (z-score = -1.516*). National consumer identity is strongly influenced by buying groceries, while the impact is insignificant for financial advice. There is a significant difference between home CCI and PI of home (z-score = -1.464*), and PI of host country products and services (z-score = 1.561*). The home and host CCI strongly influence when buying groceries, while the impact is insignificant for financial advice. Finally, home negative ACI shows a significant difference between PI of home (z-score = -1.695) and PI of host country products and services (z-score = 2.178**). Home negative ACI strongly impacts determining financial advice while the impact is insignificant for buying groceries.

5.6 Control variable

Control variables are variables that increase internal validity and help establish a correlation or causal relationship between variables. Failure to control for relevant external variables may affect SEM results and disprove the impact of the independent variables (Becker, 2005; Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016). Therefore, control variables are independent variables that are not part of a study, but that should not be overlooked due to their potential impact (Becker, 2005).

The control variables considered in this thesis are age, gender, occupation, and household income. Demographic factors such as age, gender, occupation, and household income have been used as control factors in consumer behaviour studies (e.g., Darley & Smith, 1995; Nigg, Lippke, & Maddock, 2009; Shrum, Cheek Jr & MacD, 1988). Table 5.42 (see Appendix 24) shows the SEM model when all control variables are included. The results reveal no significant difference between the model's fit when no control variables were included vs. when they are included. However, the inclusion of

control variables resulted in a slight change in coefficient beta values of a few constructs, as follows:

i) host CCI and PI of home country products and services (from -0.252** to -0.151), ii) host CCI and PI of host country products and services (from 0.164** to 0.145), and iii) host negative ACI and PI of host country products and service (from -0.193** to -0.310**).

5.7 Summary of all results

Table 5.42 provides a summary of all hypothesised relationships and the outcome of the analyses, along with the results obtained for the mediation effects, moderation effects, multi-groups analysis and control variable tests.

Table 5. 42 Summaries of the hypothesis (S= supported and NS= not supported)

Hypotheses	Outcome
H1. Home CCI significantly and a) positively influences home PI, b) negatively influences host PI, c) positively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) negatively influences national consumer identity.	Supported Supported Not Supported Supported
H2. Home positive ACI significantly and a) positively influences home PI, b) negatively influences host PI, c) positively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) negatively influences national consumer identity.	Supported Supported Supported Not Supported
H3. Home negative ACI significantly and a) negative influences home PI, b) positively influences host PI, c) negatively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) positively influences national consumer identity.	Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported
H4. Host CCI significantly and a) negatively influences home PI, b) positively influences host PI, c) negatively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) positively influences national consumer identity.	Supported Supported Not Supported Not Supported
H5. Host positive ACI significantly and a) negatively influences home PI, b) positively influences host PI, c) negatively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) positively influences national consumer identity.	Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported Supported
H6. Host negative ACI significantly and a) positively influences home PI, b) negatively influences host PI, c) positively influences ethnic consumer identity, and d) negatively influences national consumer identity.	Supported Supported Not Supported Not Supported
H7 Ethnic consumer identity significantly and a) positively influences home PI, and b) negatively influences host PI.	Supported Supported
H8. National consumer identity and a) positively influences host PI, and b) negatively influences home PI.	Not Supported Not Supported
H9 Generation effect (home) significantly moderate a) the relationship between home CCI and ethnic consumer identity, b) the relationship between home Positive ACI and ethnic consumer identity, and c) the relationship between home Negative ACI and ethnic consumer identity.	Supported Supported Not Supported
H10. Generation effect (host) significantly moderate a) the relationship between host CCI and national consumer identity, b) the relationship between host positive ACI and national consumer identity, and c) the relationship between host negative ACI and national consumer identity.	Not Supported Supported Not Supported

5.8 Chapter summary

This chapter provided a detailed description of the results of hypotheses testing for this thesis, i.e., the path analysis results for CI, identity, and PI, including relevant validation results performed on measurement and analysis instruments. First, the chapter presented the results of the tests of the reliability and validity of the measurement items, which were carried out through exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Second, the chapter provided the results of structural equation modelling (SEM) conducted to explore the relationship between CI and PI, and the effects of ethnic and national consumer identity as mediation variables between CI and PI. The next section discussed the results for generation differences and language usage as moderators of the relationship between CI, identity, and PI. Subsequently, the chapter presented the outcomes of the multi-group analyses, performed to explore potential differences between ethnic consumer groups living in Australia, the types of questionnaires selected in the survey, generations, and the empirical contexts. Finally, this chapter confirmed the effect of the control variable (age, gender, education, household income and occupation) to help establish the correlation or causal relationship between variables

In summary, the results show the power and ability of positive emotions toward the home country and the host country to provide clues to predict consumer identity with some flow on influences to purchase preferences. The identity of ethnic consumers affects the purchase of goods in their home country, while national consumer identity does not affect the purchase of goods in the host country, so the importance and utility level of national consumer identity cannot be confirmed. However, the negative image of the home country and the positive image of the host country does not influence PI (Home negative ACI does not affect PI; Home and Host positive ACI did not affect PI

Host). Hence, the positive CI of the host country is not completely discounted when consumers decide to buy and is more powerful than the impact of the negative image of their home country.

Consistency of the results is important when consumers' participation differs (e.g., generations, selected languages, and ethnic groups). In this regard, it emerged that the positive ACI of the home country strongly affects the consumer's identity and PI to the home country regardless of variables. In addition, ethnic consumer identity has a significant effect on determining consumers' PI, while national consumer identity does not significantly affect consumers' PI.

The following chapters describe the conclusions drawn from the results, and the theoretical and practical implications of the thesis findings.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1 Introduction

Chapter five provided a detailed description of the results of the hypotheses tests for this thesis. The description comprised the path analysis results for country image, consumer identity and purchase intentions; the results of the mediations, moderations, and controls analyses; and the relevant validation outcomes for all measurement instruments. This chapter brings together all these findings, linking them to the aims of this thesis. It provides a detailed discussion of how the results obtained have addressed the stated primary research objectives and questions of the thesis. It also provides an overview of the important contributions to theory and practice emerging from the thesis. Among the major theoretical contributions of this thesis, this chapter explains the new knowledge created about the theoretical relationship between country image dimensions and consumer identities (ethnic and national), with flow-on effects on purchase intentions. Regarding the contributions to management, this chapter translates the results of this thesis into a series of strategies for marketing experts targeting ethnic consumers. Finally, this chapter is dedicated to outlining a series of potential limitations of this thesis, with the resulting avenues for future research. In discussing the overall limitations of the thesis, a distinction is made between limitations arising from the methodology vs. limitations that may have emerged from the theoretical development undertaken. The future research approaches discussed are planned to overcome these limitations.

6.2 Discussion of findings

In line with its research objectives, this thesis has **revealed a wide range of cognitive factors (e.g., country image, generations, language usage) and affective factors (e.g., feelings toward a home and host country) as the driving force behind consumer identity (ethnic or national), with a follow-on effect on purchase intentions for products and services (e.g., from the home vs. host country).**

More specifically, this thesis achieved the first research objective by exposing the influence of the image cues of the home country and host country on consumer identity and the mechanism by which identity then shapes purchase intention. The second and fourth research objectives were met by identification of the power of various factors (i.e., country images, product types, and attributes) in predicting ethnic consumers' purchase intentions based on differences in country images and experiential context. Finally, the third research objective was achieved by the finding that the generational difference of consumers must be considered when exploring the relationship between consumer identity (ethnic and national) and purchase intention.

In essence, this thesis improves the understanding of factors influencing consumer identity and subsequent behaviour. The thesis confirms that it is possible to explain how the consumers' identity relationship is formed via country image. This is a new conceptual and empirical approach that significantly expands country image literature which is one of marketing most developed areas of research. In addition, this thesis makes many other contributions in the form of novel findings, reconciliation of previously inconclusive results and indirect contributions to other areas of research. To better illustrate these aspects, the next sections discuss the major findings one by one, identifying each resulting contribution. The chapter then presents a summary of the resulting theoretical and managerial contributions.

6.2.1 Home and host country images, and ethnic and national consumer identity

Positive affective home and host country image exert the most powerful influence on consumer identities (see Table 6.43). Results of this thesis reveal that a positive affective country image is more powerful in explaining one's consumption identity than a cognitive country image or negative affective country image. More specifically, positive feelings for the home country drive the ethnic consumer identity, and positive feelings for the host country had a positive and strong influence on national consumer identity. This finding is partly in line with Papadopoulos, Heslop and IKON Research Group (2000) and Cleveland, Papadopoulos and Laroche (2011), both showing positive affective country image of the home country influences consumers' intentions or behaviours (e.g., identity or purchasing). This finding also confirms that ethnic consumers respond strongly to positive emotions, without considering negative emotions toward their home country and host country when choosing or maintaining their identity. Another important outcome of this thesis in relation to this aspect is that the cognitive country image of the home country is slightly less important than the positive affective country image, but it still has significant implications for embracing a new identity (national consumer identity).

In line with the above, a first and major contribution of this thesis to marketing research lies in **establishing and explaining the link between country image (affective country image and cognitive country image) and consumer identity (ethnic and national)**, especially the images of ethnic consumers' home country and host country. Specifically, this thesis expands country image research with **a new paradigm of consumer identity formation**. The paradigm is based on evidence that country image, especially positive affective country image, shapes an immigrant's identity. This new knowledge can explain which factors strengthen or mitigate consumer identity, moving forward research linking country image and national identity research. In this regard, this thesis significantly

adds to the limited number of studies that explored the effects of components of country image on consumer identity (ethnic and national) as it includes a more comprehensive range of country image factors (e.g., cognitive country image, positive and negative affective country image).

Table 6. 43 Home and host country image and consumer identity

H1d. Home cognitive country image significantly influences national consumer identity.	Supported
H2c. Home positive affective country image significantly influences ethnic consumer identity,	Supported
H5d. Host positive affective country image significantly influences national consumer identity.	Supported

6.2.2 Home and host country images, and purchase intention

For purchase intention, the results obtained are broadly a confirmation of previous findings from the existing literature on country image (see Table 6.44), with some interesting new takes. First, the cognitive country images of the home country and the host country strongly and significantly influence the intention to purchase products and services of the home and the host country. This is in line with previous studies (e.g., Bilkey & Nes 1982, Wegapitiya & Dissanayake 2018) that showed that country image strongly influences purchase intention due to the *halo effect*. The halo effect explains that consumers use country image when evaluating products, affecting purchase intention (Han 1989, 1990). New to this thesis, is the finding that the **cognitive country image of the home country is the main determinant of the halo effect** (see also Han 1989). Put simply, the findings of this thesis demonstrate that the cognitive country image affects the consumer's purchase intention for both the home country and host country products and services - a duality that has been overseen in existing country image studies.

Second, the results of this thesis suggest that the positive affective country image of the home country has a positive and significant effect on the purchase intention of the home country's

products and services, while the positive emotion toward the host country does not affect the purchase intention of the host country's products and services. These findings partially support existing literature (e.g., Brijs, 2006; Laroche et al., 2005; Laroche et al., 2003; Papadopoulos, Heslop & IKON Research Group, 2000; Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987; Parameswaran & Pisharodi, 1994; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Verlegh, 2001). For example, according to Laroche et al. (2003), positive feelings toward home and host countries directly affect purchasing products from home countries or host countries. However, the results of this thesis show that positive emotions toward the home country influence purchase intention of home country products, not host country products. Furthermore, negative emotions toward the host country have a strong and negative effect on the intentions to purchase products and services of the host country but negative feelings toward the home country do not affect the intentions to purchase products and services of the home country. According to Li et al. (2014), negative emotions toward the source country negatively affect consumers' purchase intention, and positive emotions positively affect purchase intention. However, the results of this thesis indicate that only negative feelings toward the host country affected the purchase intention. These new findings contribute significantly to the understanding of the country image effect, suggesting a **stronger role of a positive affective country image**, as opposed to negative feelings.

Table 6. 44 Home and host country image and purchase intention

H1. Home cognitive country image significantly and a) positively influences home purchase intention, b) negatively influences host purchase intention,	Supported Supported
H2. Home positive affective country image significantly and a) positively influences home purchase intention, b) negatively influences host purchase intention,	Supported Supported
H4. Host cognitive country image significantly and a) negatively influences home purchase intention, b) positively influences host purchase intention,	Supported Supported
H6. Host negative affective country image significantly and a) positively influences home purchase intention, b) negatively influences host purchase intention,	Supported Supported

6.2.3 Consumer identities and purchase intention

One of the assumptions tested in this thesis was that ethnic consumer identity influences the purchase intention of products and services of the home country. Based on the empirical results of this thesis ethnic consumer identity has a positive effect on the purchase intention of home country products and services, and a negative effect on purchase intention of the host country products and services (see Table 6.45). This finding is in line with previous studies (Chand & Tung, 2011; Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998; Laroche et al., 2003; Shimp & Sharma, 1987), which showed that consumer identity has a strong influence on the purchase of products in the home country. In particular, the identity of ethnic consumers is strongly influenced by pride in ethnic culture, the idea of educating children about ethnic culture, and the need to preserve ethnic culture and protect its values (see Chapter 5 Table 5.10 and Appendix 8).

As already noted in § 6.2.1, positive emotions toward the home country greatly influence ethnic consumer identity. Furthermore, it appears that **ethnic consumer identity has a strong and significant influence on purchasing products and services of the home country**. This finding is in line with Laroche et al. (2003) and El Banna et al. (2018), who argued that consumers with ethnic homogeneity have positive purchase intention toward purchasing products from their home country. Furthermore, the ethnic consumer identity partially mediated the relationship between cognitive country image and purchase intention of the home country, and fully mediated between the positive affective country image and purchase intention of the home country products and services (see Table 6.45). Therefore, this thesis adds to literature exploring the link between ethnic identity and buying behaviour by showing that the **home country's positive emotions maintain the identity of ethnic consumers and connect closely with the purchase intention of the home country's products**. This finding improves the understanding of how consumers' affective evaluation

of home country products can predict affective responses to purchase intention and purchasing behaviour. From the perspective of consumer behaviour research, the results of this thesis simultaneously show that ethnic consumer identity is a key factor in triggering purchase intention for home country products and, among the affective factors that consumers relate to purchase intention, positive emotions lay the foundation for purchase intentions.

Conversely, this thesis indicates that national consumer identity does not affect purchase intention for products from home and host countries. Existing literature (e.g., El Banna et al., 2018; Laroche et al., 2003; Papadopoulos, Cleveland & Laroche, 2011) has demonstrated that consumers' identities affect purchase intention (e.g., British Canadians indicate purchase intention for British goods and French Canadians indicate purchase intention for French goods). However, the results of this thesis show, for the first time, that consumers who accept a new identity (national consumer identity) do not necessarily draw upon this identity when facing purchase decisions between home and host country products and services. In essence, consumers seem to prefer products and services from their home country more when they maintain their ethnic identity. This result adds to the theory of social identity, which notes that **what shapes or influences consumer identity may vary depending on the environment (e.g., live-in home country or host country) or conditions (e.g., generation differences, language usage or cultural background) which consumers are in** (Abrams & Hogg, 1988; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Ellemers, Spears & Doosje, 2002; Rubin & Hewstone, 2004; Salem & Salem, 2018). In line with this reasoning, this thesis' findings offer empirical ground to conclude that the factors affecting ethnic and national consumer identity differ, and these factors shape purchase intention for ethnic vs. national products and services as identity is strengthened or weakened.

Table 6. 45 Consumer identities and purchase intention

Key findings	H support
H7 Ethnic consumer identity significantly and a) positively influence home purchase intention	Supported
b) negatively influence host purchase intention	Supported

6.2.4 Generational differences

To identify and compare the effects of generational differences on consumer identity (ethnic or national), this thesis included moderation and multigroup analyses. First, it emerged that generation (first vs. second generation) moderates the relationship between country image and identity (see Table 6.46). In particular, the strongest moderation emerged between the cognitive country image / positive affective country image and ethnic consumer identity for the home country, and the host country's positive affective country image and national consumer identity (see Chapter 5 Table 5.32).

Table 6. 46 Generation differences

Key findings	H support
H9 Generation effect (home) significantly moderates	
a) the relationship between home cognitive country image and ethnic consumer identity,	Supported
b) the relationship between home positive affective country image and ethnic consumer identity,	Supported
H10. Generation effect (host) significantly moderates the relationship between host positive affective country image and national consumer identity	Supported

Second, it emerged that the factors influencing the identity of first and second-generation ethnic consumers are the positive affective country image of the home country and of the host country. Put simply, positive feelings toward a country (e.g., home vs. host), regardless of the consumer's generation, affect the identity of ethnic consumers. Based on this outcome, **this thesis adds empirical support to the claim that consumer identity or ethnicity can change across generations** (Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998; Quester, Karunaratna & Kee Goh, 2000; Redfield, Linton & Herskovits, 1936; Sam & Berry, 2006). This thesis shows that consumer identity or ethnicity can change with generations and the same factors (e.g., ethnic groups, use of language and religion) do not necessarily affect the identity of different generations of the consumer (Chand & Tung, 2011;

Laroche et al., 2003; Simpson et al., 2000; Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007). This result is a valuable insight into the ethnic consumers' generational difference that had not been explored before.

Regarding purchase intention, this thesis shows that the country image and purchase intention reveal different patterns by generation. For the first generation, only the affective country image of the home country has a strong and significant influence on the intentions to purchase products and services of the home country. For the second generation, the images of the home and host country both have a strong influence on the purchase intention of both home and host country products and services (see Chapter 5 Table 5.35). These findings add empirical support to existing literature claiming that **purchase intention may vary depending on the period of residence of the host country or generation difference** (see Bond, 2016; Cárdenas, Verkuyten, & Fleischmann, 2021; Poon, Evangelista & Albaum, 2010; Tung, 2008). This new knowledge significantly advances our understanding of country image effects and ethnic consumers of different generations. Thus, the combined findings of this thesis expand existing country image literature (e.g., Anderson, 2016; Bond, 2016; Poon, Evangelista & Albaum, 2010; Wimmer, 2004; Zhou & Gatewood, 2000) by emphasising the impact of country image on the identity and purchase intention of first and second-generation ethnic consumers.

6.2.5 Empirical contexts

The results of this thesis also show that consumers significantly rely on the home and host country images when buying groceries (Chapter 5 Table 5.41). First, the cognitive country image and positive affective country image of the home country have a significant influence on the purchase of the home country's groceries. Similarly, the cognitive country image and positive affective country image of the host country have a significant influence on purchasing the host country's groceries.

These results are in line with existing country image studies (Adenan, Ali & Rahman, 2018; Han, 1990; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Sevanandee & Damar- Ladkoo, 2018; Su, 2010; Wang et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2016), while emphasising that **cognitive country image and affective country image (positive vs. negative) have different structures when it comes to food buying**. In particular, the empirical findings of this thesis open a new chapter for country image research, providing strong support that negative affective country image does not influence buying groceries. However, consumers with ethnic consumer identity show positive purchase intention for home country's products and negative purchase intention for host country products. These findings are in line with previous studies (Gabaccia, 2000; Shange, 1998; Sutton & Papagaroufali, 2001; Williams-Forson, 2014) and empirically confirm that ethnic food is a mean for maintaining consumer ethnicity. Put simply, the literature (e.g., Gabaccia, 2000; Sutton & Papagaroufali, 2001; Williams-Forson, 2014) has already agreed that ethnic consumer identity increases purchase intention for products from home countries. This thesis offers empirical confirmation that this is the case and more depth to the understanding of the mechanisms through which consumers who maintain their ethnicity do so through their day-to-day choices of groceries.

The findings of this thesis also indicate that consumers rely on the home and host country images when consulting financial advice (Chapter 5 Table 5.41). With respect to home country images, the positive and negative affective country image has a significant influence on the use of the home country's financial services. This result is consistent with Pew Research Center's (2006) conclusions, and Li et al. (2014) that the affective country image of the home country goes beyond the cognitive country image. Regarding the host country image, the cognitive country image and positive affective country image of the host country have a significant influence on the use of the host country's financial services. This result is in line with Poon, Evangelista and Albaum (2010), Jin et al. (2018) and Wegapitiya and Dissanayake (2018). Taken together, another contribution of this thesis lies in

the provision of new empirical evidence that **for high involvement products like financial services, consumer choices are affected by cognitive country image**. In fact, this thesis significantly develops the understanding of the impact of country image factors on consumers' use of financial services and the understanding that the impact of each country image may differ depending on the difference between the home country and the host country. In terms of consumer identity, consumers with ethnic consumer identity express positive purchase intention for financial services in their home country, and negative purchase intention for financial services in the host country. These results indicate that financial institutions in many multicultural countries should actively engage in initiatives to attract ethnic customers (Paulson et al., 2006; Rhine, Greene & Toussaint-Comeau, 2006), and consumers' ethnicity plays an important role in the selection of services (see also Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Rogers & Bhowmik, 1970; Simpson et al., 2000).

6.2.6. Language usage effect

Language usage is one of the decisive factors influencing consumer identity. To identify and compare the **effects of language differences on consumer identity**, the thesis conducted moderation and multigroup analyses. The results obtained make the following contributions. First, it emerged that language usage moderates the relationship between country image and consumer identity. With respect to home country image, a strong moderation between positive affective country image and ethnic consumer identity and cognitive country image and national consumer identity emerged (see Chapter 5 Table 5.33). This result suggests that consumers who have positive feelings for their home country and are more active in using their ethnic language have a higher ethnicity than those who do not. This finding provides empirical support for claims within existing literature (Hui et al., 1997; Laroche et al., 2003; Modood et al., 1997; Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998) that more ethnic language speaking ethnic consumers would maintain their identity. Regarding the

host country image, the results of this thesis show a strong moderation between positive affective, negative affective and cognitive country image and ethnic consumer identity. These findings provide empirical support for existing literature that consumers who speak the language of the host country more frequently due to the high level of acculturation accept a new identity, for example, national consumer identity (Anderson, 2016; Bond, 2016; Hui et al., 1997; Laroche et al., 2003; Modood et al., 1997; Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998).

The thesis also tested whether the results could be different depending on the language chosen to complete the questionnaire. Interestingly, it was found that the image of the host country has a greater influence on the purchase intention for consumers who chose the questionnaire in English, while the image of the home country influences only participants who completed the questionnaire in the ethnic language (see Chapter 5 Table 5.39). These findings corroborate the "language use effect", whereby more frequently used language choices affect consumers' behaviour or identity (Douglas, 1976; Laroche, Kim & Clarke, 1997; Liu, 2011; Sojka & Tansuhaj, 1995). Hence, a smaller, secondary contribution of this thesis lies in the provision for future researchers of a basis for consideration of questionnaire **language choice when conducting research on ethnic vs. national identity**, which is an aspect seldom discussed in previous studies in the relevant research areas.

6.2.7 Consumer subgroup differences

Unlike previous studies, this thesis explored a greater number of ethnic consumer groups. This is a contribution to literature on ethnic vs. national identity as well as studies linking country image to ethnic consumer research. This detail of analysis resulted in the following additional theoretical contributions: there are **significant differences in the identity and resulting purchase intention patterns among dissimilar ethnic consumer groups** (see Chapter 5 Table 5.37). With respect to

Vietnamese consumers, a positive affective country image of their home country has a positive effect on ethnic consumer identity, and a positive affective country image of the host country has a positive and negative effect on national consumer identity. However, consumer identity does not lead to purchase intention for products or services from home and host countries. Regarding purchase intention, a positive affective country image of the home country has a strong influence on the purchase intention of the home country's products and services. Moreover, the results indicate that host cognitive country image strongly influences the purchase intention of the host country's products and services. For Iranian consumers, a positive affective country image of their home country and a negative affective country image of the host country influence their ethnic consumer identity; however, only a positive affective country image of the host country influences the national consumer identity. In addition, Iranian's ethnic identity leads to purchase intention for products and services of the home country. Also, purchase intention is immune to the negative affective country image of the home country.

Based on the ethnicity-specific results discussed here above, this thesis reveals that **different cultures imply that different factors (e.g., different country image components) will shape the identity and purchase intention of consumers**. To the best of the author's knowledge, this is a conclusion that has often been implicitly assumed in the literature, but not tested at this level of detail. In addition, the empirical evidence this thesis has produced strongly supports that **different ethnicities show different purchase intentions even if they live in the same host country**. This was an untested assumption mentioned in previous studies such as Podoshen (2009) and Chand and Tung (2011), who claimed to show different levels of purchase intention depending on ethnicity. Therefore, this new knowledge provides a basis for strengthening the country image literature, showing how to improve the accuracy in predicting national consumers' purchase intentions.

6.3 Summary of theoretical contributions

The thesis confirms the combined role of the home, and the host country images as the force behind the relationship between a consumer's identity (ethnic vs. national) and purchase intention (for products and services from the home vs. host country). This is a new conceptual advancement crucial to the expansion of country image literature, one of marketing's most established strand of research. Surprisingly, the relationship between the source country and the consumer, the consumer's identity and the purchase intention of the source country have been largely neglected or misunderstood prior to this thesis. In line with its aims, to remedy this knowledge void, this thesis introduced and tested an integrated framework showing how the image of the home country affects the consumer's identity and purchase intention when in a host country. This new knowledge finally reduces ambiguities arising when trying to understand and predict the intention to purchase products and services from home (imports) and host (local trade) countries based on consumers' images or feelings of their home and host countries, entrenched in their cultural backgrounds. As such, this thesis sets the stage for further development of country image research by filling the gaps of previous studies and by providing clear implications for ethnic consumers' purchase intentions.

When combining all results obtained in this thesis and the resulting implications of each, as discussed in the previous sections, it is clear that this thesis supports literature claims of the importance of consumers' existing thoughts and emotions about the country image and the necessity for strategies that utilise consumers' identity (ethnic and national) to get closer emotionally to consumers' purchase intention (Burton, 2000; Cui, 2001; El Banna et al., 2018; Laroche et al., 2003; Papadopoulos, El Banna & Murphy, 2017). In this regard, the key contributions are as follows.

First and foremost, **this thesis provides a generalisable theoretical ‘template’ to understand the ties between country image and purchase intention, taking account of the consumers’ identities in multicultural societies like Australia.** Recent studies (e.g., El Banna et al., 2018; McFayden, 2021; Papadopoulos, El Banna & Murphy, 2017) have focused on the identity of ethnic consumers living in multicultural countries. Previous research has shown that consumers’ identities are varied in their reliance on both language usage and culture as well as in their religion and social status (Anderson, 2016; Bond, 2016; Hui et al., 1997; Laroche et al., 2003; Modood et al., 1997; Nwankwo & Lindridge, 1998). Two intrinsic cues found by researchers to be used consistently in this process are language usage and ethnic identity measures (El Banna et al., 2018; Hui et al., 1997; Phinney, 1992). The results of this thesis confirm that the images of the home country and the host country, especially the affective state image, are the driving forces behind the development of consumer identity. Hence, providing a unique combination of positive affective country image associations between consumers and their home country, and the host country can lead to the establishment of a relationship between consumers and identity. However, social identity theory posits that consumer identity has the power to ignore (or change) according to the group to which the consumer belongs (e.g., home country or host country). While empirical evidence exists in relation to various aspects of these specific variables (e.g., language usage, ethnic identity and culture), several gaps remain in the literature about the combined effects on home and host country purchase intention. In this regard, this thesis contributes to the theory by **linking consumer identities (widely overlooked in existing studies) to country image, providing insights to meet the needs of ethnic consumers in multicultural nations.** In addition, from a broader theoretical point of view, this thesis illustrates a conceptual approach to explain how consumer perception of country image turns into affective feelings such as happiness or passion for the source state, expanding existing knowledge of the importance of country image as a mechanism leading to the development of relations as a factor in consumer identity formation.

Second, this thesis confirms that the generational difference of ethnic consumers does not act as a driving force for establishing consumer identity. Previous studies have found that different generations can significantly influence consumers' identity (e.g., Bond, 2016; Cárdenas, Verkuyten, & Fleischmann, 2021; Poon, Evangelista & Albaum, 2010; Tung, 2008; Verkuyten & Martinovic, 2012). However, this thesis returned little to no empirical evidence to support these studies findings. In contrast, the thesis results suggest that consumer identity generally results from positive affective country image of the home country and the host country regardless of generational differences. Therefore, this thesis shows that **a fundamental synergy exists between country image elements (e.g., cognitive and affective) and different generation consumers' identities (e.g., ethnic and national)**. Further, this thesis expands on existing literature by clearly delineating between home and host country images and purchase intention. It sheds light on how consumer identity mediates the relationship between country image and purchase intention. It also reveals that ethnic consumer identity mediates the image of the home country and the intention to purchase the home country's products and services. This are significant findings because previous studies associated purchase intentions with the external factor of the country image, especially cognitive country image (see Han, 1989; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Nagashima, 1970; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Wang et al., 2012). In comparison, this thesis establishes that consumer identity is an important feature mediating the interplay between ethnic consumer identity and purchase intention. This outcome further expands country image theory.

Third, this thesis highlights that language usage moderates the relationship between country image and consumer identity. This is consistent with the existing research trend that the language mainly used provides a platform for fostering strong relationships with ethnic consumers ' identities (Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Laroche et al., 2003). This result also confirms that if consumer identity (ethnic or national) coincides with language use, it is best to predict consumers'

purchase intention. However, given that language usage has a significant impact on consumer identity, there are several alternative paths that map how consumers connect emotionally to the language they use. In this regard, the novelty of this thesis lies in revealing how **language use strongly moderated the development of two factors between country image and consumer identity, elaborating the differences between cognitive and affective country images and purchase intention.**

Fourth, past research has established that consumers' positive affective country image of their home country leads to their intention to purchase products and services of their home country (Podoshen, 2009; Yelkur, Chakrabarty & Bandyopadhyay, 2006). Yet, the positive affective country image of the host country does not lead to the intention to purchase the host country's products, challenging the exiting evidence stating that positive affective country image affects the purchase intention (Laroche et al., 2003). Given this premise, it is not surprising that many consumers show strong purchase intention of their home products through exaggerated interpretations of their home country's positive affective country image. Moreover, previous studies highlighted that purchase intention uses cognitive country image cues more accurately and consistently than affective country image (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Han, 1989; Wegapitiya & Dissanayake, 2018). In line with this reasoning, the results of this thesis contribute to theory regarding the implications of country images for product purchase intentions and preferences, **emphasising the relationship between affective country images and purchase intentions, which have often been neglected in existing studies** (e.g., Han, 1990; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Su, 2010; Yelkur, Chakrabarty & Bandyopadhyay, 2006).

Fifth, this thesis confirms that ethnic consumer identity positively affects the intention to purchase the home country's products and services. More specifically, this thesis demonstrates that products with greater traditional values (e.g., ethnic groceries) and a more positive affective country image

are likely to increase purchase intention by affecting consumers' perceptions of home products and services. This outcome expands the conclusions of Laroche et al. (2003) and Licsandru and Cui (2019), **reinvigorating the scholarly debate on the importance of understanding and measuring consumer identity to influence purchase intentions**. In this regard, it is also worth keeping in mind the following. In existing country image studies, only one product or service was used to measure purchase intention (see Han, 1990; Jin et al., 2018; Li et al., 2014; Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Pappu, Quester & Cooksey, 2007). In contrast, this thesis clearly shows the path changes in consumer purchase intentions according to the characteristics of the goods (e.g., products or services) by measuring two empirical contexts at the same time. This result provides **a more thorough understanding of the theoretical dimension of the purchase intention for home and host-country products according to consumer identity**, including features that distinguish the other two concepts (ethnic identity and national consumer identity). The provision of this greater level of detail delivers a broader understanding of the implications of ethnic consumers – an outcome of value especially to researchers investigating brand relationships involving ethnic consumers and country images, paving the way for building new frameworks.

Finally, another contribution of this thesis concerns the advancement of our understanding of generational differences in association with consumers' identities and home and host country images. In more detail, to the best knowledge of the author, this thesis is the **first study to reveal the relationship between generation differences (1st vs. 2nd) and purchase intention in ethnic or national consumer identity for both the home country and the host country**. Hence, two important theoretical implications arise: i) this thesis's theoretical and empirical insights clearly document a fundamental difference between generation difference and purchase intention, namely, the product's origin has created a chain of possible effects that build ethnic customer and product loyalty relationships; ii) while existing studies of ethnic consumers mostly focused on the identity

and purchase intention of first-generation ethnic consumers (e.g., Bond, 2016; Rabby, Chimhundu, & Hassan, 2021; Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Hui et al., 1997; Laroche et al., 2003; Liu, 2011; Modood et al., 1997; Phinney, 1996), this thesis has focused more broadly on the theoretical mechanisms driving purchase intention for home and host country goods through components of country images from an ethnic consumer perspective.

A summary of the theoretical contributions of this thesis is presented below. Figure 6.8 provides an overview of the theoretical contributions.

i) Comprehensive clarification of the key underlying assumptions about how country image and consumer identity work necessary to improve the conceptualisation of purchase intention.

ii) Consideration of the country image elements (e.g., cognitive and affective) and different generation consumers' identities (e.g., ethnic and national) through the theoretical as well as empirical interpretation of results.

iii) Theoretical consideration of the suitability of various elements (e.g., language use, generational differences and cultural differences) and country image research stochastic process for describing purchase intention, analysing literature on the layers of the stochastic processes affecting consumer identity.

iv) Presentation and validation of a compounded country image, especially affective country image, and purchase intention paradigm as an interpretative framework.

v) Revitalising academic debate on the importance of understanding and measuring consumer identity to influence purchase intentions.

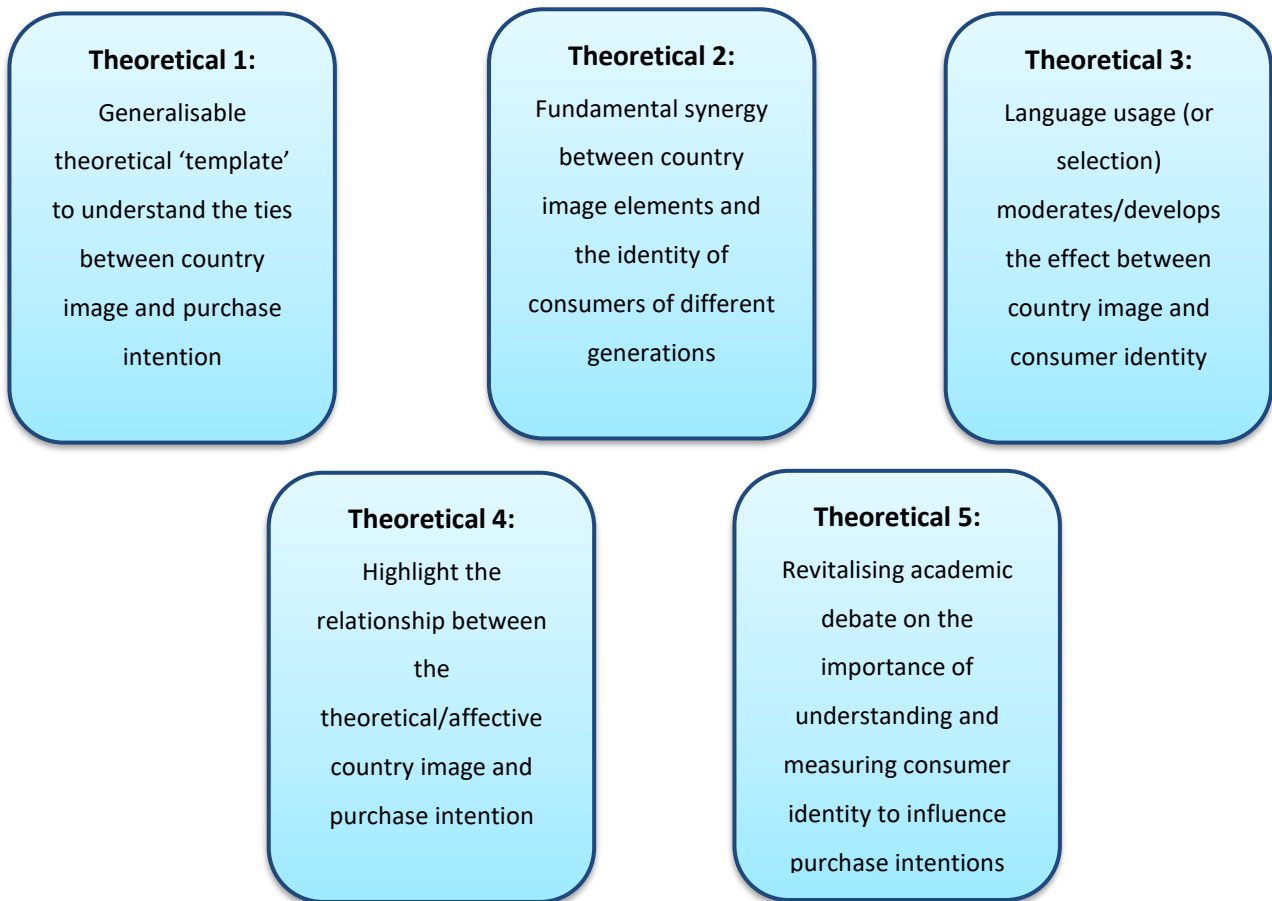


Figure 6. 8 Overview of the theoretical contributions

6.4 Summary of managerial implications

In terms of managerial implications, the results of this thesis translate into multiple practical insights, some of which are relevant to marketing managers while others are more closely linked to consumer policies. In a multicultural country like Australia, this can be an important consideration in marketing the most appropriate products and services to meet customer needs. In more detail, the implications of this thesis are as follows.

Firstly, it is critical that marketing managers understand the influence of country image (e.g., home and host) when assessing consumers' buying behaviour to ensure that marketing efforts are focused on enhancing those attributes most likely to influence consumer identity (ethnic or national) regarding purchase intention. Therefore, **international marketing managers need to monitor and profile the identities of the ethnic consumers.** This can be achieved by systematically analysing products to be launched, focusing on the individual interactions with the consumer identity (e.g., ethnic vs. national consumer identity). Multinational countries, such as Australia, classify a large percentage of the population as ethnic consumers, so understanding and serving these consumer needs are paramount. Otherwise, businesses may risk missing out on important sales opportunities and appear lagging behind the modern multi-cultural marketing playfields. According to the research results of this thesis, affective country images, regardless of consumer generation, play a major role in determining one's identity (ethnic or national), and this effect spreads to purchase intention, affecting product and service choices in the home and host countries. Therefore, it is important to include **mentioning positive emotions in marketing tactics for ethnic consumers - this strategy can be equally applied to promoting products and services imported, manufactured, and distributed nationally.** These connections are likely to influence consumer perceptions at a core psychological level due to an implicit alignment with their ethnic vs. national identity. An example of how this could be done in an advertising setting can be seen in Figure 6.9 for the Australian wine brand Jacob's Creek, which promotes positive associations between their product and the country image, especially among ethnic consumers (shown to be bringing this wine to social gatherings).

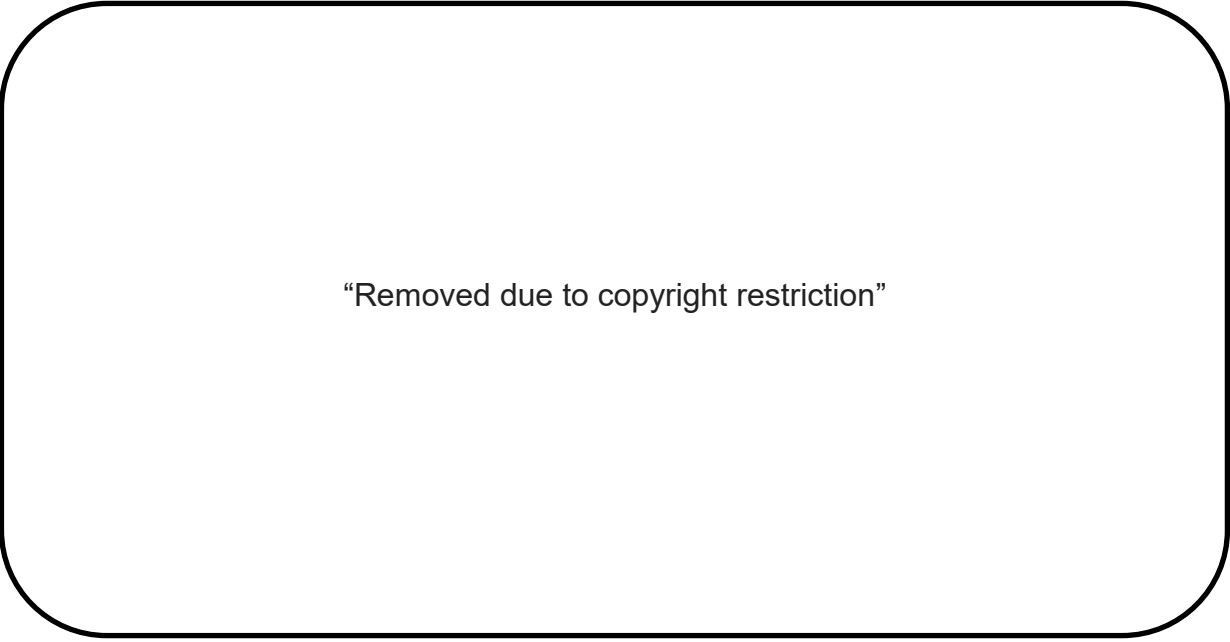


Figure 6. 9 Jacob's Creeks' project associated with their products and country image towards ethnic consumers

Second, this thesis's important managerial implication consists of providing a **template for measuring and understanding consumer ethnic identity in a marketing setting, linking it to buying predispositions**. In the case of the consumers surveyed, it was found that the influence of the home positive affective country image had a greater influence on the identity of consumers than the home negative affective country image. These results were determined even though the scope of consumer groups (e.g., Vietnamese, Iranian, Latvian and Italian) surveyed was considerably more comprehensive than in previous studies. The simplicity and accuracy of the proposed conceptual model make it particularly appealing for market research purposes. Understanding and providing consumers' needs better than other players is essentially a key competitive advantage, especially for discovering new market opportunities for international and national brands that want to export to multinational companies and grow domestic sales. In this regard, marketing practitioners could see value in researching and understanding ethnic consumers using the same (or a similar) protocol

to this thesis. Doing so will return simple indicators of consumer interests and predispositions as well as likely factors that must be considered to succeed.

The thesis also highlighted the critical role of consumers' identity with the country image in developing purchase intention. This corroborates key findings from the literature, where it has been argued that: i) the relationship with a purchase intention enables consumers to enhance ethnic or national identity, and ii) the ability of consumers to express their desired identity through the images of their home and host country is essential to maintaining strong purchase intention. Therefore, marketing managers are recommended to **create meaningful associations between their products and the country image components important to the consumer**. While consumers' purchase intention towards home or host country products holding a positive affective country image is quite straightforward, the implication of the negative affective country image is less clear-cut. Overall, consumers' purchase intention tends to be more favourable when associated with the more positive affective country image. Accordingly, marketing managers are recommended to focus more heavily on strategies based on creating experiences for the consumer filled with positive emotions of the target country to enable them to associate these emotions with the purchase intention. Therefore, marketers adapted a series of multicultural media strategy marketing to **boost value by linking products to the positive aspects of the target consumers' home country** (e.g., Coca-Cola - "America Is Beautiful", see Figure 6.10).



“Removed due to copyright restriction”

Figure 6. 10 Coca-Cola, "America Is Beautiful" campaign

The final practical implication of this thesis is that there is a likely difference in ethnic consumption of different products and services. For example, in the thesis, some differences emerged for everyday non-durable goods such as groceries vs. financial services; thus, a 'one-size fits-all' marketing approach to different products or services is unlikely to succeed. This conclusion resonates with the superordinate marketing principle of adaptation and its superiority vs. standardised tactics. In this regard, this thesis revealed that **adaptation strategies are multi-faceted**. That is, adaptations are going to be needed depending not only on the market being targeted or the consumer segment being targeted. These two layers of customisation need to be also crossed over with an element of adaptation resulting from different types of products or services due to their power to evoke pronounced **psychological responses springing from consumer ethnic and/or national identities**.

From the government and government agencies' perspective, an important reason for linking ethnic and/or national identities to marketing is to establish policies to protect consumers. The thesis

revealed that **ethnic consumers have specific needs embedded in their choice of products and services from the home vs. host country.** Therefore, the first implication of this research for consumer policy is that the marketing of products and services from home vs. host countries should be clearly labelled as such. Notations on the packaging or other cues set to influence consumer choice, such as point-of-sale advertising and, more generally, advertising, should indicate the country-of-origin more clearly (see Figure 6.11 clearly showing the product is made in Italy).

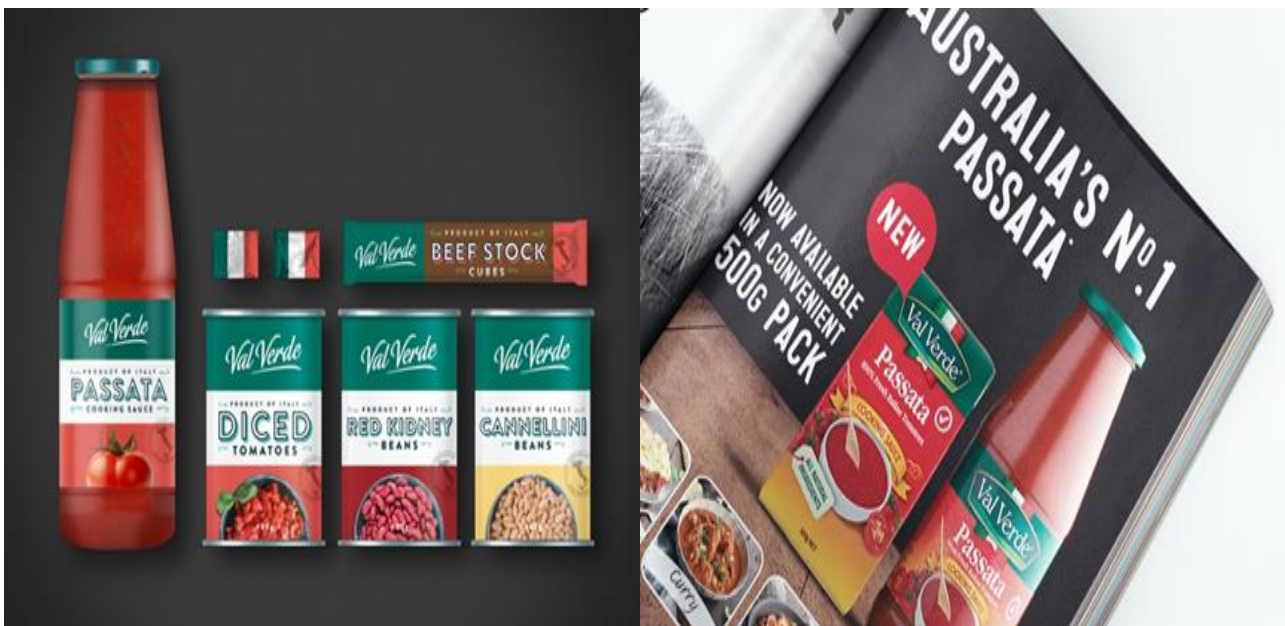


Figure 6.11 Val Verde Passata Sauce, country of origin clearly labelled

Another implication in terms of consumer policies resulting from this thesis is the importance of ensuring that ethnic consumers can easily access products and services from their country of origin at competitive prices. An example of success is the significant increase in sales of Asian groceries at Australia's leading supermarkets compared to a decade ago (see Figure 6.12 below of designated store areas for ethnic groceries in a leading supermarket chain), which is expected to expand further in the future with marketing strategies tailored to the growing needs of ethnic consumers. This could be achieved through **bilateral trade agreements** and special concessions to **promote the retailing**

of ethnic products and services for all ethnic minorities living in a multi-national country like Australia. At present, this is something that seems left to the initiative of individual businesses rather than initiated at the national level or industry level.



Figure 6. 12 Coles Asian groceries section

6.5 Thesis limitations

While this thesis offers important theoretical and managerial implications, several limitations are evident. These include limitations in terms of i) sample size and groups, ii) sampling methods, iii) survey approach. and iv) measurement.

Firstly, the type of sample group and the total number of samples can limit the ability to generalise results. The total number of samples used in this study was 261. Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, data collection was significantly slowed down and, at times, completely halted, due to repeated lockdowns. To solve this problem, the thesis author trialled different approaches to engage the target ethnic communities both virtually (e.g., emails and social media) and, where possible, face-

to-face but only a certain amount of data could be collected. The final sample size was robust enough to prove the hypothesis that home and host country images affect the purchase intention of ethnic consumers. While a larger sample including more ethnic groups would have yielded greater generalisability of the results, the number of ethnic groups considered in this thesis (Iranian, Vietnamese, Italian and Latvian consumers) is greater than in other studies (e.g., Bond ,2016; Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Cui, 1997, 2001; Laroche et al., 2003; Peñaloza, 2018). Nonetheless, given the overall size of the sample and, therefore, the sub-samples, larger samples of these ethnicities or additional samples from other ethnic groups are needed, to further extend the generalisability of this thesis results,

Secondly, another limitation of this thesis is the use of non-probability convenience sampling. Despite the advantages of this sampling method, including speed and lower recruitment costs (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016), it only captures a portion of the target population, particularly those who wish to participate and cooperate in the survey (Fricker, 2008). In addition, given that the author encouraged target respondents to distribute more web links of the survey to the network (to maximise the reach), this approach may have resulted in responses being skewed toward individuals with larger private networks, with further risk of selection bias (Heckathorn, 1997).

Thirdly, as with any research that uses an online survey as a key data collection tool, this thesis suffers from two methodological limitations: (i) the targeted population cannot be described, and (ii) respondents can make biased answers (e.g., all strongly agree or strongly disagree). Therefore, consideration should be given to issues such as whether survey participants accurately self-report and self-administer surveys and the limitations in using cross-sectional data (e.g., online surveys or self-administered questionnaires, see Bergmann et al., 2004; Kaplan, Sieber & Ganiats, 1997). For example, if incentives are weak, few people may respond to the survey. If there are too many

questionnaire questions, respondents can become fatigued, indifferent or completely negative, leading to their abandonment of the survey. Several steps discussed in Chapters 3 and 4 (including survey design and data collection methods) were taken to minimise these potential sources of error; however, the resulting limitation must be acknowledged and the validity of their SAQ survey responses cannot be 100% justified. The limitation of cross-sectional studies is that the temporal association between results and exposure cannot be determined because both results are investigated simultaneously (Bowen & Wiersema, 1999; Woodside, 2011). For this reason, cross-sectional studies should consider that findings may be subject to change when analysing behaviours over time.

Finally, there are limitations in terms of the way consumer identity and purchase intention are measured. While consumer identity is a combination of hundreds of country image cues, the measurement and methodology only allow examination of a limited number of these cues. In this thesis, only nine items were used to measure consumer identity and only a quantitative approach was used (see Chapters 2 and 4, Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; El Banna et al., 2018). Purchase intention was also measured using only four items (see Chapter 4, Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch & Palihawadana, 2011; El Banna et al., 2018). In addition, the only dependent variable in this thesis was purchase intention, and thus, the results cannot shed light on other important aspects of purchase behaviour, such as purchase decisions, by looking at actual purchases made by consumers, willingness to pay a premium price, and purchase involvement.

6.6 Directions for future research

The results of this thesis and its many implications provide the platform for future studies, including

- i) the development of frameworks to measure ethnic consumer identity using home and host

country image, ii) examining the differences between ethnic groups, especially the same ethnic groups living in different countries, and iii) re-testing some of the paths from the current research model.

First, it is important to keep the conceptualisation and measurement of consumer identity (e.g., ethnic, self-estimate, national, dual identity) relevant and up to date with the theoretical developments of country image research. In fact, the afore-mentioned limitation regarding existing measurement scales for national consumer identity and purchase intention suggests that introducing and adopting additional measurement items are significant challenges for future researchers. Moreover, given the diversity of consumer identity today (Cohen, 2003; Jaeger, Hedderley & MacFie, 2001), research needs to be replicated using other measurement scales of consumer identity to evaluate the potential impact of geographical or cultural differences. For example, combining consumer identity items such as self-identity, dual identity and social identity will support the generalisability of research results and provide more broadly applicable managerial implications. Importantly, to increase the validity of the scale, the identity measurement items should vary in terms of cultural diversity, attributes and the proportion and increase of the immigrant population.

Second, future research could replicate and compare the findings of this thesis in different cultural contexts. In particular, the results obtained from Iranian and Vietnamese consumers living in Australia could be compared with data to be gathered in countries with similar cultural characteristics, such as Turkey, Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Thailand, Indonesia, and Laos. It is also important to examine the differences between ethnic groups, especially the same ethnic groups living in different countries. For example, further research can compare the purchase intention toward the home country and host country of Korean Australians and Korean Americans. In doing

so, future studies could confirm differences in ethnic consumers' purchase intentions for their home and host countries' products and services. Given the importance of diversity in consumer studies raised by previous scholars (e.g., Cui, 1997, 2001; Cleveland, Papadopoulos & Laroche, 2011; Intharacks, Chikweche & Stanton, 2022; Peñaloza, 2018), future studies must include more information about ethnic demographics (including cultural and ethnic diversity) to enable a more effective comparison between different cultural contexts.

Finally, some of the paths hypothesised in this thesis's conceptual model (e.g., those in which affective country image did not affect purchase intention) were not confirmed, despite the support from existing literature (see Glick et al., 2006; Li et al., 2014; Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). Therefore, future studies are expected to expand or change the research model of this study to address the limitations of the paths assumed in this paper but not proven. This can be accomplished by changing the measurement items used in this thesis or using a new analysis method (e.g., PLS-SEM or qualitative methods).

6.7 Chapter and thesis summary

This thesis aimed to better understand and empirically evaluate how different purchasing behaviours related to products and services in the home and host countries arise for consumers with different identities (e.g., ethnic vs. national). The specific focus of this chapter was to recap the research objectives, discuss the key theoretical and managerial contributions of the thesis, and provide an overview of the limitations of the thesis and future research directions.

There are two major theoretical contributions from this thesis's findings in terms of the development of a new research framework. First, by providing a generalised theoretical 'template'

to understand the relationship between country image and purchase intention regarding consumer identity in multicultural societies such as Australia, this thesis makes a substantial contribution to theory on country image. It also adds to multiple related areas of research, including studies on consumer identity and, more broadly, research that has explored how consumer identity spills onto purchase intention. Specifically, the findings of this thesis have addressed the limitations of the country image literature (e.g., focus on cognitive country image rather than affective country image or country image elements not used to measure consumer identity) and provided insights into how ethnic consumers leverage country images for their home and host country product choice. More value was also added by this thesis through the provision of tools to account for differences in various factors (e.g., generation, language, empirical context, and cultural background) that could influence the product choice of ethnic consumers. It is expected that these outcomes will reinvigorate country image research, especially country image studies carried out through the social identity theory lens.

Regarding management implications, this thesis provides a variety of practical suggestions and powerful tools for managers to effectively target the growing cohort of ethnic consumers in multinational markets. For example, the simplicity and accuracy of the proposed conceptual model of this thesis are particularly attractive for market research purposes and for the design of advertising tactics. At the same time, this thesis yields some implications for consumer policies, for instance, in terms of cueing and labelling the country of origin of products and services, and the ease of access of ethnic products and services for all consumers irrespective of their ethnic background.

This chapter concluded with an overview of the limitations of the thesis and possible future research opportunities. Importantly, the possibility of overcoming these limitations has been discussed in

relation to replicating this research, by studying more product and service categories with more representative consumer samples and in more countries and/or cultures. Several additional directions for future research have also been presented, including i) further developments of this thesis's framework to measure ethnic consumer identity using home and host country image, and ii) iii) re-testing some of the theoretical links from the current research model.

In conclusion, it is hoped that this thesis has significantly improved our understanding of how ethnic consumers select products and services associated with their home and host country image, including how this differs across generations, ethnic backgrounds, and different products. Furthermore, the author hopes this framework will lay the foundation for further research, especially new empirical work investigating country image-related consumer diversity (e.g., ethnic or minority consumers) and purchase behaviour.

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APPENDICES

A1. Tables

Appendix 1, Table 4.12 Properties of measurement items

	Factors loadings	CR	Cronbach α	Communalities	KMO and Bartlett's test	Mean	SD
Host CCI		0.89	0.93	0.63	0.89***	5.22	1.42
CCI host 1	0.82					5.30	1.38
CCI host 2	0.87					5.35	1.35
CCI host 3	0.73					4.85	1.68
CCI host 4	0.78					5.09	1.60
CCI host 5	0.76					4.57	1.45
CCI host 6	0.81					5.72	1.45
CCI host 7	0.81					5.06	1.42
CCI host 8	0.83					5.11	1.34
CCI host 9	0.82					5.38	1.32
CCI host 10	0.85					5.23	1.32
CCI host 11	0.83					5.56	1.24
CCI host 12	0.82					5.28	1.39
CCI host 13	0.84					5.66	1.35
CCI host 14	0.80					4.86	1.50
Host ACI		0.97	0.87	0.73	0.83***	3.49	1.89
ACI host 1	0.92					4.95	1.51
ACI host 2	0.80					4.96	1.62
ACI host 3	0.90					5.13	1.62
ACI host 4	0.92					3.43	2.04
ACI host 5	0.92					3.05	1.90
ACI host 6	0.89					3.19	2.00
ACI host 7	0.90					3.25	1.95
ACI host 8	0.89					4.03	1.89
ACI host 9	0.70					4.01	1.98
ACI host 10	0.79					2.72	2.01
ACI host 11	0.76					3.08	2.09
ACI host 12	0.83					3.25	1.90
ACI host 13	0.88					2.52	1.99
ACI host 14	0.70					2.53	1.89
ACI host 15	0.89					2.27	1.94
ACI host 16	0.87					4.95	1.5
ACI host 17	0.74					4.96	1.62
ACI host 18	0.96					5.13	1.6
ACI host 19	0.98					3.43	2.04
ACI host 20	0.92					3.05	1.90
Home CCI		0.96	0.95	0.70	0.92***	3.25	1.92
CCI home 1	0.90					2.99	1.96

CCI home 2	0.82					2.61	2.05
CCI home 3	0.77					3.59	1.99
CCI home 4	0.81					2.7	2.03
CCI home 5	0.84					3.54	1.90
CCI home 6	0.72					2.87	1.92
CCI home 7	0.70					4.72	1.70
CCI home 8	0.85					3.23	1.90
CCI home 9	0.83					2.58	1.75
CCI home 10	0.84					2.43	1.81
CCI home 11	0.70					4.1	1.99
CCI home 12	0.85					3.76	2.02
CCI home 13	0.81					2.89	1.92
CCI home 14	0.73					3.43	1.87
Home ACI		0.95	0.82	0.67	0.80***	4.34	2.02
ACI home 1	0.86					4.53	1.92
ACI home 2	0.77					4.52	1.86
ACI home 3	0.86					4.75	1.82
ACI home 4	0.77					4.37	1.96
ACI home 5	0.72					4.78	1.98
ACI home 6	0.77					4.48	1.83
ACI home 7	0.75					5.57	1.43
ACI home 8	0.81					5.81	1.67
ACI home 9	0.94					2.59	2.06
ACI home 10	0.98					3.03	2.15
ACI home 11	0.76					4.91	2.27
ACI home 12	0.70					3.09	2.13
ACI home 13	0.82					5.19	1.86
ACI home 14	0.80					5.13	1.88
ACI home 15	0.89					4.11	2.16
ACI home 16	0.80					4.03	2.25
ACI home 17	0.70					4.08	2.25
ACI home 18	0.96					4.09	2.27
ACI home 19	0.85					4.15	2.30
ACI home 20	0.92					3.67	2.23
Language usage		0.95	0.96	0.73	0.91***	3.67	2.60
Language usage 1	0.76					3.72	2.61
Language usage 2	0.75					4.23	2.58
Language usage 3	0.83					2.42	2.59
Language usage 4	0.70					2.4	2.55
Language usage 5	0.74						2.47
Language usage 6	0.85						2.62
Language usage 7	0.70						2.78
Language usage 8	0.70					4.79	2.57
Language usage 9	0.70					4.71	2.74
Language usage 10	0.70					5.13	2.39
Ethnic consumer identity		0.88	0.95	0.67	0.92***	5.24	1.72
Ethnic consumer identity 1	0.90					5.46	1.70
Ethnic consumer identity 2	0.77					4.86	1.80
Ethnic consumer identity 3	0.85					5.51	1.65
Ethnic consumer identity 4	0.82					5.29	1.72
Ethnic consumer identity 5	0.83					5.65	1.44
Ethnic consumer identity 6	0.84					5.12	1.84

Ethnic consumer identity 7	0.83					5.29	1.73
Ethnic consumer identity 8	0.73					5.03	1.69
Ethnic consumer identity 9	0.71					4.97	1.85
National consumer identity		0.82	0.93	0.61	0.90***	4.50	1.65
National consumer identity 1	0.80					4.6	1.48
National consumer identity 2	0.81					3.96	1.59
National consumer identity 3	0.88					4.32	1.71
National consumer identity 4	0.73					4.77	1.55
National consumer identity 5	0.70					5.44	1.54
National consumer identity 6	0.82					4.14	1.81
National consumer identity 7	0.81					4.41	1.70
National consumer identity 8	0.72					4.46	1.63
National consumer identity 9	0.75					4.44	1.75
Everyday lifestyle		0.84	0.92	0.75	0.81***	3.33	2.31
Everyday lifestyle 1	0.91					2.92	2.28
Everyday lifestyle 2	0.97					2.99	2.27
Everyday lifestyle 3	0.78					3.76	2.34
Everyday lifestyle 4	0.79					3.65	2.37
Purchase intention of home country's products and services		0.78	0.9	0.68	0.65***	4.25	1.83
PI of home 1	0.74					4.47	1.79
PI of home 2	0.88					4.04	1.87
PI of home 3	0.71					4.36	1.82
PI of home 4	0.92					4.13	1.82
Purchase intention of groceries		0.90	0.95	0.76	0.88***	4.28	2.25
PI of groceries 1	0.92					4.44	2.27
PI of groceries 2	0.88					3.97	2.30
PI of groceries 3	0.91					4.34	2.22
PI of groceries 4	0.84					4.21	2.09
PI of groceries 5	0.70					4.38	2.32
PI of groceries 6	0.94					4.34	2.29
Purchase intention of financial advice		0.96	0.98	0.89	0.885	4.67	2.18
PI of financial advice 1	0.96					4.66	2.25
PI of financial advice 2	0.95					4.68	2.24
PI of financial advice 3	0.98					4.65	2.18
PI of financial advice 4	0.93					4.77	2.07
PI of financial advice 5	0.86					4.52	2.22
PI of financial advice 6	0.95					4.77	2.16

P<0.05*, p<0.01**, p<0.001***

Appendix 2 Table 4. 20 Classification of occupations

Occupations	Frequency	Percent (%)
I Professional occupations	58	50
II Managerial and Technical occupations	18	15
III Skilled occupations	18	15
IV Partly skilled occupations	15	13
V Unskilled occupations	8	7
Total	117	100
Student (full & part-time)	144	

Appendix 3 Table 5. 3 Descriptive statistics of questionnaire items (N=261)

	Mean	Std. Deviation		Mean	Std. Deviation
Home CCI			Host CCI		
Economy	3.25	1.818	Australia economy	5.45	1.46
Democratic	2.87	1.897	Australia democratic	5.53	1.332
Mass-produced	3.70	1.803	Australia Mass-produced	4.76	1.564
Military	2.87	1.942	Australia military	5.16	1.551
Industrialisation	3.57	1.671	Australia industrialisation	4.78	1.567
Labour costs	2.81	1.739	Australia labour costs	5.77	1.328
Education	4.68	1.667	Australia education.	5.33	1.402
Free- market	3.41	1.849	Australia market	5.36	1.327
Welfare	2.74	1.712	Australia welfare	5.60	1.328
Economic environment	2.87	1.827	Australia economic environment	5.49	1.279
Agricultural	4.26	1.832	Australia agricultural	5.56	1.319
Quality products	3.89	1.854	Australia products	5.45	1.431
Living	3.22	1.817	Australia living	5.8	1.298
Technological	3.59	1.72	Australia technological	5.28	1.457
Home positive ACI			Host positive ACI		
Happy	4.6	1.843	Australia Happy	5.46	1.429
Excited	4.3	1.878	Australia Excited	4.54	1.746
Enthusiastic	4.62	1.712	Australia Enthusiastic	5.15	1.412
Admiration	4.47	1.849	Australia Admiration	5.17	1.357
Respect	4.86	1.813	Australia Respect	5.43	1.4
Inspired	4.3	1.835	Australia Inspired	5.07	1.53
Warmth	5.38	1.619	Australia Warmth	5.13	1.459
Love	5.71	1.547	Australia Love	5.18	1.516
Home negative ACI			Host negative ACI		
Bored	2.63	1.867	Australia Bored	3.15	1.919
Indifferent	2.97	1.983	Australia Indifferent	3.18	1.839
Worried	4.64	2.125	Australia Worried	3.18	1.873
Envious	2.84	1.931	Australia Envious	2.87	1.82
Sentimental	5.28	1.781	Australia Sentimental	4.38	1.691
Sympathy	4.98	1.825	Australia Sympathy	4.04	1.803
Irritated	3.89	2.08	Australia Irritated	2.81	1.907
Resentment	3.58	2.225	Australia Resentment	2.61	1.796
Contempt	3.51	2.23	Australia Contempt	2.83	1.898
Angry	3.68	2.191	Australia Angry	2.28	1.663
Afraid	3.89	2.192	Australia Afraid	2.42	1.638
Ashamed	3.13	2.056	Australia Ashamed	2.21	1.672
Ethnic consumer identity			National consumer identity		
Maintain culture	5.52	1.595	Maintain Australian culture	4.72	1.676
Attached culture	4.89	1.812	Attached Australian culture	4.21	1.741
Proud culture	5.56	1.608	Proud Australian culture	4.65	1.786
Close culture	5.48	1.597	Close Australian culture	4.79	1.646

Children learn culture	5.69	1.499	Children learn Australian culture	5.51	1.553
Part of culture	5.31	1.641	Part of Australian culture	4.55	1.813
Acquisition family values	5.47	1.55	Acquisition of Australian family values	4.57	1.743
Positive impact on my life.	5.14	1.718	Positive impact	4.61	1.734
Participating events	5.16	1.728	Participating in Australian events	4.63	1.83
General purchase intention					
Purchase intention to ethnic products	4.500	1.814	Generally buy ethnic products	4.340	1.720
Purchase intention to ethnic service	4.280	1.821	Generally buy ethnic services	4.260	1.747
Purchase intention of buying grocery			Purchase intention of financial advice and services		
Given the choice and opportunity, I prefer to buy Groceries from ().	4.000	1.888	Given the choice and opportunity, I prefer to seek Financial advice and services from ().	4.800	2.013
The thought of buying Groceries from () is appealing to me.	3.810	1.903	The thought of seeking financial advice and services from () is appealing to me.	4.840	1.963
I especially try to buy Groceries from ().	4.110	1.837	I especially try to seek financial advice and services from ().	4.850	1.976
Even if they are more expensive than others, I will buy Groceries from ().	3.980	1.686	Even if they are more expensive than others, I will seek financial advice and services from ().	4.890	1.813
I would consider buying Groceries from () in the short term.	4.040	1.839	I would consider seeking Financial advice and services from () in the short term.	4.790	1.936
I would consider buying Groceries from () in the long term.	4.090	1.869	I would consider seeking Financial advice and services from () in the long term.	4.860	1.927

Appendix 4 Table 5. 4 Communalities of home and host country image

	Initial	Extraction		Initial	Extraction
Home CCI			Host CCI		
Home CCI 1	0.708	0.695	Host CCI 1	0.624	0.588
Home CCI 2	0.746	0.724	Host CCI 2	0.641	0.617
Home CCI 3	0.575	0.536	Host CCI 3	0.521	0.457
Home CCI 4	0.490	0.488	Host CCI 4	0.405	0.355
Home CCI 5	0.625	0.622	Host CCI 5	0.594	0.534
Home CCI 6	0.655	0.623	Host CCI 6	0.596	0.581
Home CCI 7	0.728	0.710	Host CCI 7	0.465	0.341
Home CCI 8	0.740	0.705	Host positive ACI		
Home CCI 9	0.612	0.573	Host ACI 1	0.78	0.752
Home positive ACI			Host ACI 2	0.521	0.423
Home ACI 1	0.633	0.631	Host ACI 3	0.743	0.729
Home ACI 2	0.550	0.497	Host ACI 4	0.679	0.639
Home ACI 3	0.583	0.579	Host ACI 5	0.639	0.592
Home ACI 4	0.569	0.525	Host ACI 6	0.666	0.572
Home ACI 5	0.585	0.597	Host ACI 7	0.622	0.572
Home ACI 6	0.537	0.535	Host ACI 8	0.726	0.657
Home ACI 7	0.554	0.521	Host negative ACI		
Home ACI 8	0.545	0.572	Host ACI 9	0.54	0.466
Home negative ACI			Host ACI 10	0.557	0.422
Home ACI 9	0.489	0.402	Host ACI 11	0.422	0.347
Home ACI 10	0.437	0.429	Host ACI 12	0.455	0.337
Home ACI 11	0.682	0.701	Host ACI 13	0.702	0.676
Home ACI 12	0.642	0.645	Host ACI 14	0.558	0.378
Home ACI 13	0.629	0.666	Host ACI 15	0.777	0.800
Home ACI 14	0.614	0.605	Host ACI 16	0.674	0.665
Home ACI 15	0.546	0.566	Host ACI 17	0.711	0.676

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Appendix 5 Table 5. 5 Rotated component matrices for home and host country image

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6
Home CCI						
Home CCI 1	0.789					
Home CCI 2	0.783					
Home CCI 3	0.735					
Home CCI 4	0.788					
Home CCI 5	0.757					
Home CCI 6	0.820					
Home CCI 7	0.791					
Home CCI 8	0.825					
Home CCI 9	0.778					
Home positive ACI						
Home ACI 1		0.671				
Home ACI 2		0.720				
Home ACI 3		0.769				
Home ACI 4		0.673				
Home ACI 5		0.723				
Home ACI 6		0.609				
Home ACI 7		0.761				
Home ACI 8		0.853				
Home negative ACI						
Home ACI 9			0.634			
Home ACI 10			0.663			
Home ACI 11			0.826			
Home ACI 12			0.805			
Home ACI 13			0.808			
Home ACI 14			0.814			
Home ACI 15			0.748			
Host positive ACI						
Host ACI 1				0.828		
Host ACI 2				0.814		
Host ACI 3				0.753		
Host ACI 4				0.753		
Host ACI 5				0.749		
Host ACI 6				0.712		
Host ACI 7				0.683		
Host ACI 8				0.680		
Host negative ACI						
Host ACI 9					0.868	
Host ACI 10					0.834	
Host ACI 11					0.810	
Host ACI 12					0.758	
Host ACI 13					0.685	
Host ACI 14					0.646	
Host ACI 15					0.642	

Host ACI 16	0.677
Host CCI	
Host CCI 1	0.822
Host CCI 2	0.803
Host CCI 3	0.764
Host CCI 4	0.633
Host CCI 5	0.608
Host CCI 6	0.683
Host CCI 7	0.676
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.	
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.	
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.	

Appendix 6 Table 5. 7 KMO and Bartlett's test for home and host country image

KMO's Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.923
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4028.101
	df	276
	Sig.	0.000

Appendix 7 Table 5. 8 Communalities of ethnic and national consumer identity

	Initial	Extraction
Ethnic consumer identity		
Maintain ethnic culture.	0.762	0.779
Attached ethnic culture.	0.702	0.672
Proud ethnic culture.	0.729	0.728
Close to ethnic culture.	0.695	0.687
Children learn ethnic culture.	0.722	0.733
Feel ethnic culture.	0.673	0.656
Ethnic family values culture.	0.728	0.730
Ethnic positive life culture.	0.623	0.581
Participating ethnic holidays and events	0.624	0.556
National consumer identity		
Maintain Australian culture.	0.784	0.782
Attached Australian culture.	0.757	0.759
Proud Australian culture.	0.749	0.748
Close to Australian culture.	0.743	0.706
Children learn Australian culture.	0.507	0.484
Feel Australian culture.	0.74	0.70
Australian family values	0.728	0.735
Australian culture positive life.	0.665	0.638
Participating in Australian holidays and events	0.718	0.673
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.		

Appendix 8 Table 5. 9 Pattern Matrix of consumer identity

Factor	1	2
Ethnic consumer identity		
Maintain ethnic		0.895
Attached ethnic		0.790
Proud ethnic		0.845
Close to ethnic		0.813
Children learn ethnic		0.855
Feel ethnic		0.820
Ethnic family values		0.863
Ethnic positive life.		0.758
Participating in ethnic holidays and events		0.691
National consumer identity		
Maintain Australian culture.	0.914	
Attached Australian culture.	0.829	
Proud Australian culture.	0.836	
Close to Australian culture.	0.836	
Children learn Australian culture.	0.718	
Feel Australian culture.	0.797	
Australian family values	0.861	
Australian culture-positive life.	0.795	
Participating in Australian holidays and events	0.826	
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.		
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.		
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		

Appendix 9 Table 5. 11 KMO and Bartlett's Test of consumer identity

KMO and Bartlett's Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.919
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5254.832
	df	300
	Sig.	0.000

Appendix 10 Table 5. 12 Communalities of purchase intention

	Initial	Extraction
General purchase intention		
Purchase ethnic products as ().	0.741	0.699
Purchase from ethnic service providers as ().	0.781	0.781
When they are available, I will generally buy ethnic products	0.758	0.622
When they are available, I will generally buy from ethnic service providers	0.748	0.636
Purchase intention of buying grocery		
Given the choice and opportunity, I prefer to buy Groceries from ()	0.675	0.665
The thought of buying Groceries from () is appealing to me.	0.690	0.640
I especially try to buy Groceries from ().	0.736	0.742
Even if they are more expensive than others, I will buy Groceries from ().	0.606	0.586
I would consider buying Groceries from () in the short term.	0.450	0.440
I would consider buying Groceries from () in the long term.	0.720	0.699
Purchase intention of financial advice and services		
Given the choice and opportunity, I prefer to seek Financial advice and services from ().	0.866	0.866
The thought of seeking Financial advice and services from () is appealing to me.	0.845	0.848
I especially try to seek Financial advice and services from ().	0.910	0.933
Even if they are more expensive than others, I will seek Financial advice and services from ().	0.830	0.814
I would consider seeking Financial advice and services from () in the short term.	0.787	0.758
I would consider seeking Financial advice and services from () in the long term.	0.824	0.761
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.		

Appendix 11 Table 5. 13 Pattern Matrix of purchase intention

	Factor		
	1	2	3
General purchase intention	0.844		
Purchase ethnic products as	0.888		
Purchase from ethnic service providers as	0.743		
When they are available, I will generally buy ethnic products	0.802		
When they are available, I will generally buy From ethnic service providers			
Purchase intention of buying grocery			
Given the choice and opportunity, I prefer to buy Groceries from ().		0.802	
The thought of buying Groceries from () is appealing to me.		0.793	
I especially try to buy Groceries from ().		0.849	
Even if they are more expensive than others, I will buy Groceries from ().		0.758	
I would consider buying Groceries from () in the short term.		0.679	
I would consider buying Groceries from () in the long term.		0.842	
Purchase intention of financial advice and services			
Given the choice and opportunity, I prefer to seek Financial advice and services from ().			0.934
The thought of seeking Financial advice and services from () is appealing to me.			0.916
I especially try to seek Financial advice and services from ().			0.979
Even if they are more expensive than others, I will seek Financial advice and services from ().			0.890
I would consider seeking Financial advice and services from () in the short term.			0.842
I would consider seeking Financial advice and services from () in the long term.			0.868
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.			
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.			
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.			

Appendix 12 Table 5. 15 KMO and Bartlett's Test for general PI

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.885
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	7888.873
	df	561
	Sig.	0.000

Appendix 13 Table 5. 17 CFA and Validity measurements (Squared Correlations)

Latent Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	Max. Reliability (H)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Home negative ACI	0.89	0.628	0.114	0.9	0.792									
Home CCI	0.93	0.62	0.327	0.934	-0.34	0.79								
Home positive ACI	0.88	0.553	0.327	0.889	-0.33	0.57	0.8							
Host CCI	0.84	0.476	0.383	0.85	0.147	0.69	0.75	0.769						
Host positive ACI	0.92	0.591	0.383	0.929	0.145	0.62	0.77	0.744	0.6					
Host negative ACI	0.9	0.558	0.161	0.925	0.054	-0.35	-0.4	0.747	0.25	0.66				
Ethnic consumer identity	0.94	0.647	0.219	0.947	-0.14	0.28	0.47	0.804	0.12	0.53	0.63			
National consumer identity	0.95	0.7	0.154	0.951	-0.18	0.39	0.23	0.221	0.34	-0.35	-0.3	0.56		
PI of Home country	0.87	0.636	0.078	0.897	0.169	0.8	0.34	0.252	-0.36	0.29	0.18	-0.22	0.56	
PI of Host country	0.89	0.674	0.123	0.9	-0.24	-0.41	-0.36	0.116	-0.41	0.17	0.17	0.01	0.62	0.64

Appendix 14 Table 5. 18 Harman's single factor test

Total Variance Explained							
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	
1	14.483	23.36	23.36	14.483	23.36	23.36	
2	6.298	10.159	33.518				
3	5.469	8.821	42.339				
4	4.864	7.845	50.184				
5				

Appendix 15 Table 5. 19 Common method bias analysis results

	Estimate CLF	NO Estimate CLF	Delta
Home cognitive CI --> Highly developed economy.	0.706	0.718	0.012
Home cognitive CI --> Highly democratic system.	0.692	0.752	0.06
Home cognitive CI --> Free of military influence.	0.786	0.837	0.051
Home cognitive CI --> High labour costs.	0.80	0.846	0.046
Home cognitive CI --> Free-market system.	0.732	0.785	0.053
Home cognitive CI --> Excellent welfare system.	0.744	0.795	0.051
Home cognitive CI --> Producer high-quality products.	0.585	0.645	0.06
Home cognitive CI --> High standard of living.	0.784	0.822	0.038
Home cognitive CI --> High level of technology	0.773	0.806	0.033
Home positive ACI --> Happy	0.595	0.693	0.098
Home positive ACI --> Excited	0.568	0.677	0.109
Home positive ACI --> Enthusiastic	0.548	0.663	0.115
Home positive ACI --> Admiration	0.651	0.719	0.068
Home positive ACI --> Respect	0.710	0.776	0.066
Home positive ACI --> Inspired	0.675	0.751	0.076
Home positive ACI --> Warmth	0.676	0.76	0.084
Home positive ACI --> Love	0.764	0.798	0.034
Home negative ACI --> Worried	0.569	0.657	0.088
Home negative ACI --> irritated	0.507	0.609	0.102
Home negative ACI --> Resentment	0.657	0.728	0.071
Home negative ACI --> Contempt	0.676	0.769	0.093
Home negative ACI --> Angry	0.753	0.819	0.066
Home negative ACI --> Afraid	0.739	0.809	0.070
Home negative ACI --> Ashamed	0.771	0.836	0.065
Ethnic consumer identity --> Maintain culture	0.783	0.869	0.086
Ethnic consumer identity --> Attached culture	0.703	0.762	0.059
Ethnic consumer identity --> Proud culture	0.752	0.844	0.092
Ethnic consumer identity --> Close culture	0.721	0.816	0.095
Ethnic consumer identity --> Children learn culture	0.746	0.845	0.099
Ethnic consumer identity --> Part of culture	0.693	0.788	0.095
Ethnic consumer identity --> Acquisition family values	0.743	0.845	0.102
Ethnic consumer identity --> Positive impact on my life.	0.639	0.728	0.089
Ethnic consumer identity --> Participating in events	0.611	0.725	0.114
National consumer identity --> Maintain Australian culture	0.781	0.857	0.076
National consumer identity --> Attached Australian culture	0.806	0.87	0.064
National consumer identity --> Proud Australian culture	0.80	0.866	0.066
National consumer identity --> Close Australian culture	0.710	0.807	0.097
National consumer identity --> Children learn Australian culture	0.566	0.651	0.085
National consumer identity --> Part of Australian culture	0.796	0.846	0.05
National consumer identity --> Australian family values	0.782	0.852	0.07
National consumer identity --> Positive impact Australian culture	0.732	0.785	0.053
National consumer identity --> Participating in Australian cultural events	0.726	0.810	0.084

Host CCI --> Australia economy	0.603	0.616	0.013
Host CCI --> Australia democratic	0.609	0.618	0.009
Host CCI --> Australia military	0.709	0.716	0.007
Host CCI --> Australia labour costs	0.679	0.689	0.01
Host CCI --> Australia agricultural	0.728	0.733	0.005
Host CCI --> Australia market	0.745	0.755	0.01
Host positive ACI --> Australia Happy	0.728	0.739	0.011
Host positive ACI --> Australia Excited	0.732	0.739	0.007
Host positive ACI --> Australia Enthusiastic	0.585	0.589	0.004
Host positive ACI --> Australia Respect	0.788	0.798	0.01
Host positive ACI --> Australia Inspired	0.849	0.857	0.008
Host positive ACI --> Australia Warmth	0.862	0.846	-0.016
Host negative ACI --> Australia Love	0.625	0.630	0.005
Host negative ACI --> Australia Bored	0.803	0.809	0.006
Host negative ACI --> Australia Worried	0.804	0.809	0.005
Host negative ACI --> Australia Sentimental	0.794	0.798	0.004
Host negative ACI --> Australia Resentment	0.906	0.912	0.006
Host negative ACI --> Australia Contempt	0.744	0.753	0.009
Host negative ACI --> Australia Angry	0.787	0.796	0.009
Host negative ACI --> Australia Afraid	0.589	0.596	0.007
Host negative ACI --> Australia Ashamed	0.611	0.618	0.007
PI Home--> Purchase ethnic products	0.685	0.720	0.035
PI Home -> Purchase from ethnic service providers	0.759	0.783	0.024
PI Home --> Generally buy ethnic products	0.831	0.853	0.022
PI Home --> Generally buy from ethnic service providers	0.90	0.903	0.003
PI Host --> Purchase host country products as	0.837	0.843	0.006
PI Host --> Purchase from host country service	0.883	0.891	0.008
PI Host --> Generally buy host country products	0.766	0.775	0.009
PI Host --> Generally buy from host country service	0.794	0.801	0.007

Appendix 16 Table 5. 28 Descriptive statistics

	Ethnic groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Home CCI	Vietnam	101	5.3876	1.01842	0.10134
	Iran	101	5.0757	1.00279	0.09978
Home positive ACI	Vietnam	101	4.9406	1.12286	0.11173
	Iran	101	5.1089	1.17881	0.1173
Home negative ACI	Vietnam	101	3.2013	0.9906	0.09857
	Iran	101	2.8523	0.9872	0.09823
Host CCI	Vietnam	101	3.5858	1.13898	0.11333
	Iran	101	2.5165	0.95996	0.09552
Host positive ACI	Vietnam	101	4.7079	1.30543	0.1299
	Iran	101	4.4196	1.38627	0.13794
Host negative ACI	Vietnam	101	3.1741	1.02056	0.10155
	Iran	101	4.4464	1.02018	0.10151
Ethnic consumer identity	Vietnam	101	5.4202	1.33024	0.13236
	Iran	101	4.9285	1.39811	0.13912
National consumer identity	Vietnam	101	4.8768	1.37598	0.13691
	Iran	101	4.1782	1.35255	0.13458
PI Home country products and services	Vietnam	101	4.6337	1.5389	0.15313
	Iran	101	3.8738	1.4507	0.14435
PI Host country products and services	Vietnam	101	3.3663	1.5389	0.15313
	Iran	101	4.1262	1.4507	0.14435

Appendix 17 Table 5. 29 Levene's test for equality of variances

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Host CCI	Equal variances assumed	0.273	0.602	2.193	200	0.029*	0.31188	0.14222
	Equal variances not assumed			2.193	199.952	0.029*	0.31188	0.14222
Host positive ACI	Equal variances assumed	0.003	0.956	-1.039	200	0.30	-0.16832	0.16199
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.039	199.529	0.30	-0.16832	0.16199
Host negative ACI	Equal variances assumed	0.26	0.611	2.508	200	0.013*	0.34901	0.13916
	Equal variances not assumed			2.508	199.998	0.013*	0.34901	0.13916
Home CCI	Equal variances assumed	3.579	0.06	7.214	200	0.001*	1.06931	0.14822
	Equal variances not assumed			7.214	194.424	0.001*	1.06931	0.14822
Home positive ACI	Equal variances assumed	0.581	0.447	1.522	200	0.13	0.28837	0.18947
	Equal variances not assumed			1.522	199.282	0.13	0.28837	0.18947
Home negative ACI	Equal variances assumed	0.087	0.769	-8.861	200	0.001*	-1.27228	0.14359
	Equal variances not assumed			-8.861	200	0.001*	-1.27228	0.14359
Ethnic consumer Identity	Equal variances assumed	0.567	0.452	2.561	200	0.011*	0.49175	0.19203
	Equal variances not assumed			2.561	199.507	0.011*	0.49175	0.19203
National consumer Identity	Equal variances assumed	0.263	0.609	3.639	200	0.001*	0.69857	0.19199
	Equal variances not assumed			3.639	199.941	0.001*	0.69857	0.001
PI Home country's products and services	Equal variances assumed	1.719	0.193	3.611	200	0.001*	0.76	0.21044
	Equal variances not assumed			3.611	199.31	0.001*	0.76	0.001
PI Host country's products and services	Equal variances assumed	1.7	0.19	-3.60	200	0.001*	-0.759	0.21044
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.60	199.307	0.001*	-0.759	0.21044

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

Appendix 18 Table 5. 32 Descriptive statistics

	Selecting survey language	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Home CCI	English	145	3.5983	1.31522	0.10922
	Ethnic Language	115	3.1797	1.32759	0.1238
Home positive ACI	English	145	4.9319	1.32378	0.10993
	Ethnic Language	115	4.5859	1.38021	0.12871
Home negative ACI	English	145	3.6414	1.19385	0.09914
	Ethnic Language	115	3.8761	1.30088	0.12131
Host CCI	English	145	5.4187	0.88515	0.07351
	Ethnic Language	115	5.3391	1.10935	0.10345
Host positive ACI	English	145	5.2767	1.13175	0.09399
	Ethnic Language	115	4.963	1.21711	0.1135
Host negative ACI	English	145	2.9891	1.18208	0.09817
	Ethnic Language	115	3.021	1.10575	0.10311
Ethnic consumer Identity	English	145	5.469	1.32051	0.10966
	Ethnic Language	115	5.2155	1.39705	0.13028
National consumer Identity	English	145	4.81	1.37318	0.11404
	Ethnic Language	115	4.57	1.53018	0.14269
PI Home products and services	English	145	4.3741	1.54311	0.12815
	Ethnic Language	115	4.3304	1.54485	0.14406
PI Host products and services	English	145	3.6552	1.64625	0.13671
	Ethnic Language	115	3.5304	1.80556	0.16837

Appendix 19 Table 5. 33 Levene's test for equality of variances

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Home CCI	Equal variances assumed	0.503	0.479	2.538	258	0.012*	0.41857	0.16491
	Equal variances not assumed			2.535	243.667	0.012*	0.41857	0.16509
Home positive ACI	Equal variances assumed	0.649	0.421	2.054	258	0.041*	0.34603	0.16845
	Equal variances not assumed			2.044	239.922	0.042*	0.34603	0.16926
Home negative ACI	Equal variances assumed	1.857	0.174	-1.513	258	0.131	-0.23471	0.15512
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.498	234.374	0.135	-0.23471	0.15667
Host CCI	Equal variances assumed	2.226	0.137	0.643	258	0.52	0.07959	0.12368
	Equal variances not assumed			0.627	214.828	0.531	0.07959	0.1269
Host positive ACI	Equal variances assumed	0.37	0.544	2.147	258	0.033*	0.31368	0.14613
	Equal variances not assumed			2.129	236.074	0.034*	0.31368	0.14736
Host negative ACI	Equal variances assumed	0.354	0.552	-0.223	258	0.824	-0.03193	0.14347
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.224	251.039	0.823	-0.03193	0.14237
Ethnic Identity	Equal variances assumed	0.002	0.963	1.498	258	0.135	0.25351	0.16918
	Equal variances not assumed			1.489	238.137	0.138	0.25351	0.17029
National Identity	Equal variances assumed	1.97	0.162	1.33	258	0.185	0.23991	0.18039
	Equal variances not assumed			1.313	231.398	0.19	0.23991	0.18266
PI Home products and services	Equal variances assumed	0	0.998	0.227	258	0.821	0.0437	0.19278
	Equal variances not assumed			0.227	244.566	0.821	0.0437	0.19281
PI Host products and services	Equal variances assumed	1.711	0.192	0.581	258	0.562	0.12474	0.21458
	Equal variances not assumed			0.575	233.518	0.566	0.12474	0.21688

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

Appendix 20 Table 5. 36 Descriptive statistics

Group Statistics						
	Born in home country	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
Home CCI	1st Generation	216	3.2163	1.33306	0.09091	
	2nd generation	45	4.3152	0.89303	0.13167	
Home positive ACI	1st Generation	216	4.6605	1.35121	0.09215	
	2nd generation	45	5.3342	1.24081	0.18295	
Home negative ACI	1st Generation	216	3.8465	1.27372	0.08687	
	2nd generation	45	3.3043	1.00695	0.14847	
Host CCI	1st Generation	216	5.3123	1.01752	0.06939	
	2nd generation	45	5.6941	0.78154	0.11523	
Host positive ACI	1st Generation	216	5.1395	1.13096	0.07713	
	2nd generation	45	5.144	1.38468	0.20416	
Host negative ACI	1st Generation	216	3.0326	1.12162	0.07649	
	2nd generation	45	2.8333	1.26662	0.18675	
Ethnic Identity	1st Generation	216	5.277	1.36146	0.09285	
	2nd generation	45	5.7319	1.27562	0.18808	
National Identity	1st Generation	216	4.6424	1.39592	0.0952	
	2nd generation	45	4.9396	1.68259	0.24808	
PI Home products and services	1st Generation	216	4.2593	1.55522	0.10607	
	2nd generation	45	4.75	1.44434	0.21296	
PI Host products and services	1st Generation	216	3.6837	1.74548	0.11904	
	2nd generation	45	3.2609	1.56254	0.23038	

Appendix 21 Table 5. 37 Levene's test for equality of variances

Independent Samples Test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Home CCI	Equal variances assumed	10.011	0.002	-5.337	259	0.00*	-1.0989	0.20593
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.868	93.659	0.00*	-1.09894	0.16001
Home positive ACI	Equal variances assumed	1.42	0.234	-3.112	259	0.002*	-0.67377	0.2165
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.289	69.787	0.002*	-0.67377	0.20485
Home negative ACI	Equal variances assumed	2.492	0.116	2.71	259	0.007*	0.54216	0.20006
	Equal variances not assumed			3.152	79.133	0.002*	0.54216	0.17201
Host CCI	Equal variances assumed	1.175	0.279	-2.397	259	0.017*	-0.38181	0.1593
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.838	81.309	0.006*	-0.38181	0.13451
Host positive ACI	Equal variances assumed	2.594	0.108	-0.023	259	0.981	-0.00449	0.19152
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.021	58.512	0.984	-0.00449	0.21824
Host negative ACI	Equal variances assumed	3.131	0.078	1.068	259	0.286	0.19922	0.18651
	Equal variances not assumed			0.987	61.005	0.327	0.19922	0.20181
Ethnic Identity	Equal variances assumed	0.153	0.696	-2.079	259	0.039*	-0.45488	0.21881
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.169	68.749	0.034*	-0.45488	0.20975
National Identity	Equal variances assumed	4.342	0.038	-1.262	259	0.208	-0.29724	0.23552
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.119	58.96	0.268	-0.29724	0.26572
PI Home products and services	Equal variances assumed	0.39	0.533	-1.966	259	0.05*	-0.4907	0.24961
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.063	69.2	0.043*	-0.4907	0.23791
PI Host products and services	Equal variances assumed	0.718	0.398	1.518	259	0.13	0.42285	0.27862
	Equal variances not assumed			1.631	71.169	0.107	0.42285	0.25932

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

Appendix 22 Table 5. 40 Descriptive statistics

	Empirical Context	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Home CCI	Groceries	261	3.75	0.8878	0.15455
	Financial	261	4.4657	0.90967	0.15601
Home positive ACI	Groceries	261	5.1023	1.05302	0.18331
	Financial	261	5.2721	1.25434	0.21512
Home negative ACI	Groceries	261	3.2071	0.89635	0.15603
	Financial	261	2.973	0.79129	0.13571
Host CCI	Groceries	261	5.5606	0.89199	0.15527
	Financial	261	5.8782	0.59099	0.10135
Host positive ACI	Groceries	261	5.125	1.08208	0.18837
	Financial	261	5.3088	1.08504	0.18608
Host negative ACI	Groceries	261	3.1591	0.97146	0.16911
	Financial	261	2.5294	0.97093	0.16651
Ethnic consumer Identity	Groceries	261	5.6263	1.04039	0.18111
	Financial	261	5.9118	1.18974	0.20404
National consumer Identity	Groceries	261	4.6229	1.19442	0.20792
	Financial	261	5.3464	1.34528	0.23071
PI Home products and services	Groceries	261	4.7576	1.49149	0.25964
	Financial	261	4.3382	1.39789	0.23974
PI Host products and services	Groceries	261	2.9545	1.64109	0.28568
	Financial	261	3.7059	1.61018	0.27614

Appendix 23 Table 5. 41 Levene's test for equality of variances

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Home CCI	Equal variances assumed	0.259	0.611	-0.8	258	0.042*	-0.1344	0.16794
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.807	239.13	0.042*	-0.1344	0.16663
Home positive ACI	Equal variances assumed	0.319	0.573	-0.293	258	0.007*	-0.05005	0.17066
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.295	237.15	0.007*	-0.05005	0.16977
Home negative ACI	Equal variances assumed	1.507	0.221	0.547	258	0.058	0.08599	0.15718
	Equal variances not assumed			0.559	248.66	0.057	0.08599	0.1538
Host CCI	Equal variances assumed	0.806	0.37	0.651	258	0.015*	0.08121	0.12467
	Equal variances not assumed			0.657	239.73	0.012*	0.08121	0.12361
Host positive ACI	Equal variances assumed	0.149	0.7	-0.173	258	0.003*	-0.02566	0.14845
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.17	216.30	0.005*	-0.02566	0.15122
Host negative ACI	Equal variances assumed	1.628	0.203	-0.74	258	0.46	-0.10705	0.14472
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.761	252.33	0.44	-0.10705	0.14065
Ethnic Identity	Equal variances assumed	0.674	0.412	-0.53	258	0.007*	-0.09041	0.1706
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.534	238.98	0.004*	-0.09041	0.16931
National Identity	Equal variances assumed	3.263	0.072	-0.746	258	0.014*	-0.13627	0.18265
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.726	207.78	0.016*	-0.13627	0.18774
PI Home products and services	Equal variances assumed	0	0.983	0.314	258	0.001*	0.0612	0.19489
	Equal variances not assumed			0.313	231.41	0.001*	0.0612	0.19522
PI Host products and services	Equal variances assumed	0.252	0.616	-0.183	258	0.05*	-0.03943	0.21596
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.184	238.24	0.04*	-0.03943	0.21453

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

Appendix 24 Table 5.42 Control variable analysis results

	No control variable		With control variables	
	Estimate	P	Estimate	P
Home CCI-->PI Home	0.215	0.027*	0.247	0.011*
Home CCI-->PI Host	-0.203	0.033*	-0.239	0.011*
Home CCI-->ECI	-0.008	0.929	-0.018	0.845
Home CCI-->NCI	0.318	0.000*	0.318	0.000*
Home positive ACI-->PI Home	0.384	0.000*	0.344	0.001*
Home positive ACI-->PI Host	-0.344	0.000*	-0.333	0.000*
Home positive ACI-->ECI	0.463	0.000*	0.468	0.000*
Home positive ACI-->NCI	-0.045	0.516	-0.040	0.555
Home negative ACI-->PI Home	0.109	0.876	0.016	0.850
Home negative ACI-->PI Host	0.022	0.798	0.017	0.842
Home negative ACI-->ECI	-0.018	0.785	-0.029	0.743
Home negative ACI-->NCI	-0.081	0.290	-0.017	0.829
Host CCI-->PI Home	-0.252	0.031*	-0.151	0.102
Host CCI-->PI Host	0.164	0.040*	0.145	0.102
Host CCI-->ECI	0.030	0.742	0.017	0.851
Host CCI-->NCI	-0.058	0.490	-0.066	0.421
Host positive ACI-->PI Host	0.073	0.469	0.078	0.434
Host positive ACI-->PI Home	-0.055	0.598	-0.072	0.490
Host positive ACI-->ECI	-0.071	0.434	-0.092	0.318
Host positive ACI-->NCI	0.488	0.000*	0.498	0.000*
Host negative ACI-->PI Home	0.208	0.031*	0.214	0.028*
Host negative ACI-->PI Host	-0.193	0.044*	-0.310	0.023*
Host negative ACI-->ECI	0.046	0.605	0.062	0.512
Host negative ACI-->NCI	-0.028	0.761	-0.029	0.739
ECI-->PI Home	0.247	0.000**	0.240	0.000*
ECI-->PI Host	-0.233	0.000*	-0.228	0.000*
NCI-->PI Host	0.044	0.558	0.045	0.550
NCI-->PI Home	-0.087	0.248	-0.059	0.445

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ (two-sided)

A2. Questionnaire



Q00 Click on the drop box on the right to select a language.

Hello and Welcome! The purpose of the project is to understand the purchasing preferences of people living in Australia from different cultural backgrounds. We are particularly interested in your feelings about products and services imported or linked to your country of birth – or in the case of people born here – your feelings about the products and services from where your parent(s) were born.

You are invited to complete a brief survey answering a few questions regarding these preferences.

Participation is entirely voluntary and there are no risks to you and you may opt-out at any time. The survey will take no more than 15 minutes to complete. **It's easy! And I want you to use your PC to participate in this survey rather than using your cell phone. If you would like to participate, in recognition of your time, you will enter a draw to win one of 10 x \$50 gift vouchers from Amazon.**

Remember there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers to the questions asked in the survey - its only your personal expectations and opinions that matter.

By clicking 'next' you are consenting to participate in this survey and confirm that you are 18 years of age or older.

This research project has been approved by the Flinders University Social and Behavioural Research Ethics Committee in South Australia (Project number 2256). For queries regarding the ethics approval of this project please contact the Executive Officer of the Committee via telephone on +61 8 8201 3116 or email human.researchethics@flinders.edu.au

Q000 Click the link below to download the information sheet and consent form.
[Information sheet and consent.pdf](#)

Q1 Were you born in Vietnam/Iran/Latvia/Italy?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Q2 Please indicate if one or both of your birth parents were born in Vietnam/Iran/Latvia/Italy?

My birth mother (1)

My birth father (2)

Neither mother nor father (3)

Q3 How many years have you lived in Australia? (rounded to a nearest full year)

Q7 How old were you on your birthday last year?

Q6 What gender do you identify as?

Male (1)

Female (2)

LGBTQI (3)

Other (4) _____

I'd rather not say (5)

This question asks you about your beliefs regarding **Australia**, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements. There are no right or wrong answers. We are only interested in your opinions.

Q19 I believe **Australia** is / has a ...

	Strongly Disagree (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
Highly developed economy. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Highly democratic system. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mass-produced products. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Government free of military influence. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High level of industrialisation. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High labour costs. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Good level of education. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Free- market system. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excellent welfare system. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stable economic environment. (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Exporter of agricultural products. (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Producer of high -quality products. (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High standard of living. (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High level of technological research. (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q20 These statements are about your personal reactions when you think about Australia, as a country.
Please indicate your feelings related to the following descriptors.

When I think of Australia, I feel ...

	Strongly Disagree (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
Happy (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Enthusiastic (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Admiration (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Respect (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Inspired (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Warmth (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Love (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bored (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Indifferent (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Worried (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Envious (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sentimental (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sympathy (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Irritated (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Resentment (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Contempt (17)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Angry (18)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Afraid (19)

Ashamed (20)

Q143 This questions asks you about your beliefs regarding **Vietnam**, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements. There are no right or wrong answers. We are only interested in your opinions. Q21 I believe Vietnam /Iran/Latvia/Italy is / has a...

	Strongly Disagree (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
Highly developed economy. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Highly democratic system. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mass-produced products. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Government free of military influence. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High level of industrialisation. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High labour costs. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Good level of education. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Free- market system. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excellent welfare system. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stable economic environment. (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Exporter of agricultural products. (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Producer of high -quality products. (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High standard of living. (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
High level of technological research. (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q21 These statements are about your personal reactions when you think about Vietnam, as a country.
Please indicate your feelings related to the following descriptors.

When I think of **Vietnam** /Iran/Latvia/Italy, I feel ...

	Strongly Disagree (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
Happy (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Excited (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Enthusiastic (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Admiration (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Respect (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Inspired (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Warmth (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Love (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bored (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Indifferent (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Worried (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Envious (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sentimental (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sympathy (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Irritated (15)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Resentment (16)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Contempt (17)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Angry (18)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Afraid (19)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ashamed (20)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Australia is a multi-cultural society, with people from many diverse culture backgrounds. People vary in terms of how 'linked' they remain to the language and culture from their country of the country one or both of their parents were born. Please have a look at the statements about your feelings and common habits with respect to your cultural background and your life here in Australia - most of these statements relate to your use of English as opposed to **Vietnamese**/Iranian/Latvian/Italian.

Q14 Please indicate how these statements relate to your language usage. *If you prefer Vietnamese then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards Vietnamese. If you prefer English then choose number between '1 - 3' towards English. If you prefer both languages, then choose '0'.*

	Vietnamese 3 (1)	2 (2)	1 (3)	0 (4)	1 (5)	2 (6)	English 3 (7)
I generally speak (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I mostly carry on conversations in ...everyday. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
With my Vietnamese friends we mostly speak ... (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At family gathering I mostly speak in ... (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
With my parents, I usually speak in ... (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel the most comfortable speaking in ... (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most of the books that I read are in ... (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The magazines and/or newspapers that I read are ... (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The radio programs that I listen to are mostly in ... (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Internet sites that I visit are mostly in ... (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q15 The following statements are about how strongly you relate to the country you were born in, or the home country of at least one of your parents, as compared to Australia. Again, there are no 'right or wrong' answers - just answer as honestly as you can.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
It is very important to me to maintain my Vietnamese culture. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am very attached to all aspects of Vietnamese culture. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel very proud to identify with Vietnamese culture. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is very important for me to remain close to Vietnamese culture. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe that it is very important for children to learn the values of Vietnamese culture. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel very much a part of Vietnamese culture. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The acquisition and maintenance of Vietnamese family values are desirable. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vietnamese culture has the most positive impact on my life. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participating in Vietnamese holidays and events is very important to me. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q135 The following statements are about how strongly you relate to Australia compared to the country you were born in, or the home country of your parents. There are no 'right or wrong' answers - just answer as honestly as you can.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
It is very important to maintain my Australian culture. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am very attached to all aspects of Australian culture. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel very proud to identify with Australian culture. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is very important for me to remain close to Australian culture. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe that it is very important for children to learn the values of Australian culture. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel very much a part of the Australian culture. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The acquisition and maintenance of Australian family values are desirable. (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Australian culture has the most positive impact on my life. (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Participating in Australian holidays and events is very important to me. (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q128 The following questions are about your everyday lifestyle.

Thinking about preferences with respect to Vietnamese as compared to Australian food, music, use of language everyday - please indicate your usual behaviour.

*If you prefer Vietnamese/Iranian/Latvian/Italian then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards Vietnamese.
If you prefer Australian then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards Australian.*

If you have no preference, then choose '0'.

	Vietnamese 3 (1)	2 (2)	1 (3)	0 (4)	1 (5)	2 (6)	Australian 3 (7)
I like to eat () food. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I frequently eat () food. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy listening () music. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My house is decorated in () style. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

This part asks you about your purchasing preferences when it comes to products and services from Australia as compared to **Vietnam** /Iran/Latvia/Italy.

Q152 In the near future, I would rate my **general intentions** to purchase...

	Highly Unlikely (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	Highly Likely (7)
Vietnamese products as... (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
From Vietnamese service providers as ... (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q153

Thinking about your **general preferences** when it comes to purchasing - please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements.

When they are available, I will generally buy ...

	Strongly Disagree (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
Vietnamese products (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
From Vietnamese service providers (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q155 Please consider the following types of products and services and indicate whether, **if they were available to purchase**, you would prefer them sourced from Vietnam or Australia.

If you prefer Vietnamese /Iranian/Latvian/Italian. then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards Vietnamese.

If you prefer Australian then choose a number between '1 - 3' towards Australian.

If you have no preference, then choose '0'

Q147 Thinking about where you would go for buying **Groceries** please indicate your preferences for your **Groceries**.

	Vietnamese 3 (1)	2 (2)	1 (3)	0 (4)	1 (5)	2 (6)	Australian 3 (7)
Given the choice and opportunity, I prefer to buying Groceries from (). (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The thought of buying Groceries from() is appealing to me. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I especially try to buying Groceries from (). (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if they are more expensive than others, I will buy Groceries from (). (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would consider buying Groceries from () in the short term. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would consider buying Groceries from () in the long term. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q148 Thinking about where you would go for seeking **Financial advice and services** please indicate your preferences for your **Financial advice and services**.

	Vietnamese 3 (1)	2 (2)	1 (3)	0 (4)	1 (5)	2 (6)	Australian 3 (7)
Given the choice and opportunity, I prefer to seeking Financial advice and services from (). (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The thought of seeking Financial advice and services from () is appealing to me. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I especially try to seeking Financial advice and services from (). (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if they are more expensive than others, I will seek Financial advice and services from (). (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would consider seeking Financial advice and services from () in the short term. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would consider seeking Financial advice and services from () in the long term. (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q131 Please indicate which of the faiths listed below you most identify with - if any.

- Catholicism/Christianity (1)
- Judaism (2)
- Islam (3)
- Buddhism (4)
- Hinduism (5)
- Other (6) _____
- I don't identify with any faith in particular or at all. (7)
- I prefer not to answer (8)

Q132 Thinking about your current area of employment, please share with us what you do. If you have one or more jobs, please tell us where you work the most hours. For example: Fruit picker, Legal secretary. Restaurant manager, Secondary school, Registered nurse etc.

- I work as a (1) _____
 - I am currently not working (2)
 - I am a full-time student (3)
 - I prefer not to answer (4)
-

Q133 What is the highest degree or level of education you have completed?

- I didn't finish high school (1)
 - High school graduate (2)
 - Trade Qualification (3)
 - Bachelor's Degree (4)
 - Masters Degree (5)
 - PhD (6)
 - I prefer not to answer (7)
-

Q134 What is your average annual household income? (in AUD)

- \$20,000 or less (1)
- \$20,001 to 50,000 (2)
- \$50,001 to 100,000 (3)
- \$100,001 or more (4)
- I prefer not to answer (5)

Q136 Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. In appreciation to your contribution, by clicking the button here below you can submit your answers and enter a prize draw to win one of ten Amazon gift vouchers valued at \$50.

To enter the prize draw, please enter your preferred contact phone number or email address in the textbox below. This information will not be associated to your responses and all data remain de-identified. We will contact you if you have won one of the 10 x \$50 Amazon gift vouchers.

If you do not wish to enter the prize draw, just leave this blank.

- Phone number _____
- email address _____