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Measuring the Ethnocentric Tendencies of Iranian Consumers: An Assessment of Validity and Reliability of the CETSCALE

Soroush Sepehr^a & Azar Kaffashpoor^a

^a Faculty of Economics and Business Administration of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran

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Measuring the Ethnocentric Tendencies of Iranian Consumers: An Assessment of Validity and Reliability of the CETSCALE

Sorush Sepehr
Azar Kaffashpoor

ABSTRACT. Obtaining accurate information from markets is highly dependent on the use of valid and reliable scales. This study is intended to assess validity and reliability of the CETSCALE, a measure of consumers' ethnocentric tendencies, in the context of Iran. Data collected from 278 university students were used to examine the unidimensionality, internal consistency, discriminant validity, and nomological validity of the CETSCALE. The results confirmed the unidimensionality postulate of the scale; however, due to poor model fit, a more parsimonious scale was developed by removing 7 items. Reliability and discriminant validity of the CETSCALE were strongly supported by the data, although the support for nomological validity was not very strong.

KEYWORDS. CETSCALE, consumer ethnocentrism, willingness to buy foreign products, cosmopolitanism, Iran

INTRODUCTION

Globalization has significant impacts on markets around the world and has become one of the main challenges of companies nowadays (Ter Hofstede, Wedel, and Steenkamp 2002). Some authors suggest that cultures are becoming more and more integrated and differences between them are fading quickly (Levitt 1983; Ter Hofstede et al. 2002). Convergence of cultures and emergence of a global consumer culture have encouraged international marketers to adopt more standardized marketing strategies and activities (Walters 1997). However, mere reliance on convergence trends and global forces

can be misleading and costly, while there is abundant evidence indicating the impact of local tendencies in international markets (Cui and Adams 2002; Vida, Dmitrovic, and Obadia 2008). Thus, considering global and local forces simultaneously could lead to a more precise and realistic understanding of markets (Cleveland and Laroche 2007).

In order to gain accurate information about forces influencing consumer behavior in international markets, developing reliable and valid scales is of essential importance for international marketing practitioners and researchers (Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein 1991). One of the well-established scales in international

Sorush Sepehr is Researcher in Marketing and Azar Kaffashpoor is Assistant Professor of Marketing in the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran.

Address correspondence to Sorush Sepehr, No. 119 Vahdat St., Ershad Blvd., Mashhad, Iran, 9185873714. E-mail: so_se41@stu.um.ac.ir

marketing studies is the CETSCALE (Balabanis et al. 2001), which measures ethnocentric tendencies of consumers. Since its development by Shimp and Sharma in 1987, the CETSCALE has been used in many contexts, mainly in more developed countries, and its robustness has been demonstrated in most of them. However, due to the dearth of studies on consumer behavior in developing countries, there is not enough evidence to support validity and reliability of the CETSCALE in these countries (Kaynak and Kara 2002; Nadiri and Tümer 2010) and more specifically in a Middle Eastern country like Iran.

Iran, the third-most-populated country in the Middle East, with a population of more than 70 million, 70% of whom are under the age of 30 (Rahimi 2008), has one of the largest and more mature middle classes in the region (Ali 1999). With a GDP of US\$10,600 per capita (CIA 2010), Iran is considered a middle-income nation (Bahaei and Pisani 2009) and an attractive destination for international companies. Despite the strict sanctions of the United Nations Security Council, the United States, and the EU, Iranian retailers' shelves are full of imported products from different countries of origin such as China, the EU, and even the U.S. The most negative effect of these sanctions is probably on Iranian manufacturers and producers, which has caused them to fall behind their foreign rivals in various domestic markets. It seems that in this unequal competition they could or should only rely on stimulated nationalistic sentiments and consumer ethnocentrism rather than the quality of their products.

This study is intended to assess dimensionality, reliability, discriminant validity, and nomological validity of the CETSCALE in Iran to provide a valid and reliable instrument for foreign and domestic marketing practitioners and researchers. Meanwhile, the relationship of consumer ethnocentrism with willingness to buy foreign products, ethnocentrism, and cosmopolitanism of Iranian consumers was investigated, and the theoretical and practical implications of the findings are discussed. First, a brief review of the literature on consumer ethnocentrism is presented and then the study's hypotheses, methodology, and findings are provided.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Ethnocentrism refers to "the universal proclivity for people to view their own group as the center of the universe, to interpret other social units from the perspective of their own group, and to reject persons who are culturally dissimilar while blindly accepting those who are culturally like themselves" (Shimp and Sharma 1987, 280). From its first introduction in 1906 as a sociological concept, ethnocentrism has attracted the attention of many social science researchers (Neuliep 2002) from different disciplines such as psychology, political science, and marketing (Hammond and Axelrod 2006).

In marketing, researchers had borrowed the concept and measures of ethnocentrism from sociology (Luque-Martínez, Ibáñez-Zapata, and Barrio-García 2000; Puzakova, Kwak, and Andras 2010). The scales of Adorno and others (1950), Chang and Ritter (1976), and Warr, Faust, and Harrison (1967) had been used to investigate the relationship between ethnocentrism and relevant marketing concepts. However, since the classic measures of ethnocentrism are not directly relevant to the study of consumer behavior (Shimp and Sharma 1987), they turned out to be inappropriate for measuring consumers' ethnocentric tendencies (Luque-Martínez et al. 2000). Schooler (1971) mentioned the concept of consumer ethnocentrism, but Shimp and Sharma (1987) were the first to conceptualize and operationalize consumer ethnocentrism in a way that is useful for marketing researchers. They used the term *consumer ethnocentrism* "to represent the beliefs held by American consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products" (Shimp and Sharma 1987, 280). Consumer ethnocentrism attempts to explain how consumers develop the sense of belongingness to their ingroups through acceptable purchase behavior (Shimp and Sharma 1987) and how they develop negative tendencies against products made by outgroups (Luque-Martínez et al. 2000).

Shimp and Sharma (1987) operationalized consumer ethnocentrism by constructing the CETSCALE, a scale intended to measure consumers' ethnocentric tendencies. They characterized the scale as a measure of tendency

rather than attitude “because the latter term suggests a greater degree of object specificity than the CETSCALE is intended to capture” (p. 281). After a series of reliability assessments and construct validation, Shimp and Sharma opted for a 17-item and 1-factor structure for CETSCALE.

Consumer ethnocentrism has been frequently used by researchers in relation with many other international marketing and consumer behavior constructs. For instance, it has been found that there is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and “attitudes towards buying foreign products” (Durvasula and Lysonski, 2006; Sharma, Shimp, and Shin 1995), “intention and willingness to buy foreign products” (Ishii 2009; Klein, Ettenson, and Morris 1998; Orbaiz and Papadopoulos 2003), “evaluation of foreign products” (Bandyopadhyay, Wongtada, and Rice 2011; Nijssen and Douglas 2004), “familiarity with global brands” (Vida and Damjan 2001), “cultural openness and cosmopolitanism” (Cleveland, Laroche, and Papadopoulos 2009; Sharma et al. 1995) and “consumer innovativeness” (Steenkamp, Ter Hofstede, and Wedel 1999). On the other hand, the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and “willingness to buy domestic products” (Olsen, Granzin, and Biswas 1993; Vida and Damjan 2001; Wang and Chen 2004), “national identity and nationalism” (Vida et al. 2008), and “patriotism” (Balabanis et al. 2001; Sharma et al. 1995) has been found to be significantly positive.

Shimp and Sharma emphasized the need for testing the CETSCALE in other countries, cultures, and languages to investigate whether it is applicable in distinct circumstances. Subsequently, some authors have attempted to examine the validity and reliability of the scale in different contexts, mainly in more developed and industrialized countries such as France, Japan, Germany (Netemeyer et al. 1991), Sweden (Hult, Keillor, and Lafferty 1999), Spain (Luque-Martínez et al. 2000), Russia (Durvasula, Andrews, and Netemeyer 1997; Klein, Ettenson, and Krishnan 2006), China (Klein et al. 2006), and rarely in less-developed countries like Ghana (Saffu and Walker 2006), North Cyprus (Nadiri and Tümer 2010), and Mozambique (John and Brady 2011). The expected difference between reac-

tions of consumers in developing and developed countries to foreign products (Klein et al. 2006) underlines the need for more thorough investigations of the psychometric properties of the CETSCALE in developing countries.

HYPOTHESES

Dimensionality and Reliability

First, dimensionality and internal consistency of the CETSCALE are examined. Shimp and Sharma (1987) postulated a unidimensional factor structure with 17 items for the CETSCALE. Many subsequent studies have confirmed this assumption in different environments (Durvasula et al. 1997; Hult et al. 1999; Luque-Martínez et al. 2000; Netemeyer et al. 1991). However, there have been a few studies that reported the CETSCALE as a bidimensional scale (e.g., Bawa 2004; Chrysochoidis, Krystallis, and Perreas 2007; Saffu and Walker 2005, 2006), and there have even been some attempts to conceptualize these dimensions. Chrysochoidis and others (2007), for example, used the term “hard ethnocentrism” for the factor that encompasses drastic attitude against imported products and foreign countries, and “soft ethnocentrism” for the factor that contains statements with relatively more temperate meaning.

According to the conceptualization and operationalization of consumer ethnocentrism by Shimp and Sharma (1987), and the findings of previous studies, it is expected that the CETSCALE will demonstrate a unidimensional factor structure in the context of the current study.

H1: The CETSCALE has a unidimensional factor structure in the context of Iran.

Shimp and Sharma (1987) reported a high level of reliability for the CETSCALE. In the vast majority of previous studies, the CETSCALE has also indicated consistent performance across different environments. The CETSCALE has rarely been criticized for issues related to its internal consistency. In one of the few cases, for instance, Nielsen and Spence

(1997) stated that the CETSCALE appears to be stable over time when the population is viewed as a whole; however, it is not when viewed by specific subgroups. Despite such claims, considering a substantial body of empirical evidence, it could be expected that the CETSCALE will also be a reliable measure in the context of the current study.

H2: The estimated reliability of the CETSCALE is high in the context of Iran.

Discriminant Validity

The GENE, a measure assessing “ethnocentrism,” is adapted to examine if the CETSCALE is a unique construct and “not simply a reflection of other variables” (Peter and Churchill 1986, 4). Generalized Ethnocentrism (GENE) is an instrument developed by Neuliep and McCroskey (1997) to measure ethnocentrism of an individual, regardless of his/her cultural, ethnic, religious, or regional background. Ethnocentrism refers to the tendency of people to put their own group in a position of centrality and creating and reinforcing negative attitudes and behaviors toward outgroups (Neuliep and McCroskey). It is more likely that ethnocentric individuals would be inclined toward ingroup products while developing negative attitudes toward products produced by outgroups. Therefore, as “a unique economic form of ethnocentrism” (Shimp et al. 1995, 27), it is believed that the CETSCALE should be positively correlated with the GENE, while they are measuring two separate and distinct constructs.

H3: The CETSCALE and the GENE measure two correlated, yet distinct, constructs.

Nomological Validity

Nomological validity addresses the issue of whether the measure produces the pattern of relationships anticipated with related constructs (Peter and Churchill 1986), and it comes in the last step of a construct-validation process (O’Leary-Kelly and Vokurka 1998; Peter and Churchill 1986). In this research, willingness to

buy foreign products and cosmopolitanism are selected to examine nomological validity of the CETSCALE. To measure the former, we asked respondents about their willingness to purchase the products of Western countries. Previous studies have assessed consumers’ willingness to purchase products of a specific country; for example, Klein and others (1998) measured willingness of Chinese consumers to buy Japanese products. Considering the economic and political specifications of Iran, in the current study it was decided to apply a set of countries that are known as Western countries instead of a certain country.

Consumer ethnocentrism contains the intention or willingness not to purchase foreign products. Ethnocentric consumers believe that purchasing foreign products is wrong since it hurts domestic economy and causes job loss. For extremely ethnocentric consumers, purchasing imported products is not only an economic issue but also a moral problem, which may lead to preferring domestic products over high-quality imported products (Shimp et al. 1995). On the other hand, nonethnocentric consumers evaluate foreign products based on their quality and value and not just where they are made (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Therefore, it is likely that there would be a negative correlation between the CETSCALE and willingness to buy foreign products. Previous studies also provide support for a relatively high negative relationship between these two constructs (e.g., Ishii 2009; Klein et al. 1998; Orbaiz and Papadopoulos 2003; Parker, Haytko, and Hermans 2011; Yoo and Donthu 2005).

H4: There is a significant negative correlation between CETSCALE and willingness to buy foreign products.

Cosmopolitanism derives from the Greek words *cosmos* (“world”) and *polis* (“citizen”), meaning “citizen of the world,” and refers to “a specific set of qualities held by certain individuals, including a willingness to engage with the other (i.e., different cultures), and a level of competence towards alien cultures” (Cleveland and Laroche 2007, 4). Cosmopolitans are much more open to cultural differences and new

ideas. As consumers, they are more focused on functional features of products rather than their sociocultural influence (Cannon et al. 1994, cited in Riefler and Diamantopoulos 2009). Cosmopolitan consumers perceive themselves as less provincial and more international, and presumably they would less likely be biased toward locally produced products and more likely be inclined toward products from other cultures (Cleveland et al. 2009).

Despite some equivocal results, (e.g., Balabanis et al. 2001; Riefler and Diamantopoulos 2009), previous empirical evidence illustrates a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and cosmopolitanism (Cleveland et al. 2009; Sharma et al. 1995; Vida, Dmitrovic, and Reardon 2005; Vida and Reardon 2008); however, considering the correlation coefficient values, it is expected that this relationship would not be very strong.

H5: There is a significant negative correlation between CETSCALE and cosmopolitanism; however, this correlation would not be as strong as the correlation with willingness to buy foreign products.

METHODOLOGY

Instrument

The questionnaire was first constructed in English and then translated into Persian by the author and an English-language expert. Back-translation from Persian to English was done by a lecturer educated in the U.S., which led to some minor adjustments to enhance the accuracy of the translation.

Participants indicated their agreement with statements regarding four constructs, namely consumer ethnocentrism, ethnocentrism, willingness to buy foreign products, and cosmopolitanism, using 7-point scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). In order to fulfill the main purpose of this study, the original 17-item CETSCALE was included in the questionnaire (see the appendix). Ethnocentrism was measured through 5 items borrowed from Generalized Ethnocentrism (GENE), provided

by Neuliep and McCroskey (1997). Klein and others' (1998) 6-item scale of willingness to buy foreign products is used to measure respondents' willingness to purchase products of Western countries. Cosmopolitanism was measured using a 6-item scale adapted from Cleveland and Laroche (2007).

Sample

The data were collected from students of two universities located in Mashhad, the second-largest city of Iran. Questionnaires were distributed among 300 students. After eliminating incomplete questionnaires, 278 usable responses remained. Of the total, 59% of respondents were female, 82% were undergraduate students, and 15% were married. The age range of participants was between 18 and 32; 79% of them were between 19 and 23 years old.

RESULTS

Dimensionality and Reliability

Both exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) could be used to assess the dimensionality of a measure (O'Leary-Kelly and Vokurka 1998). In this study we applied both methods. First, exploratory factor analysis is used to examine the unidimensionality assumption of the CETSCALE. The Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sample adequacy were carried out to evaluate the pattern of correlations in the dataset and show whether factor analysis is appropriate for the study (Hair et al. 2010). The KMO was estimated to be 0.945, and the Bartlett's test was significant (chi-square of 2.502 with 136 degree of freedom), which shows that conducting factor analysis is appropriate. A correlation analysis was performed between items of the CETSCALE. Results indicate that all correlations are significantly positive, with correlation coefficients ranging from 0.317 to 0.642. Principal component analysis results to 1 component with eigenvalue greater than 1, suggesting a 1-factor solution for the CETSCALE, which confirms the unidimensionality assumption of

TABLE 1. Goodness-of-Fit Indices

	17-Item Model	10-Item Model
Chi-square ^a	336.575	72.905
Chi-square/df	2.828	2.083
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	0.873	0.949
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	0.836	0.919
Comparative-fit index (CFI)	0.910	0.970
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	0.898	0.961
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	0.081	0.063

^aBoth are significant at .000 level.

the scale. The extracted factor accounted for 49.67% of the total explained variance.

In addition, confirmatory factor analysis is conducted to examine the dimensionality of the CETSCALE based on goodness-of-fit indices, using the maximum likelihood process in AMOS 19. As can be seen in table 1, chi-square, chi-square/degrees of freedom (values less than 3 are acceptable), goodness-of-fit index (GFI; values close to 0.95 reflects a good fit), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI; values greater than 0.90 are recommended), comparative-fit index (CFI; values greater than 0.90 are recommended), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI; values close to 0.95 reflects a good fit), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; values smaller than 0.08 are recommended) were examined to evaluate model goodness of fit (Byrne 2010; Schumacker and Lomax 2004).

All factor loadings are significant ($p < .001$) with a minimum value of 0.588 for item 5 (table 2); however, as can be seen in table 1, GFI, AGFI, CFI, and TLI's values are less than the recommended minimum, and RMSEA is greater than the desired maximum, which implies a relatively poor fit to the data. Checking standardized residuals and modification indices (MIs) in order to identify the sources of misfit in the model indicates that large MIs argue for the presence of error covariances. These error covariances represent systematic measurement error, and they may derive from characteristics specific either to the items or the respondents (Byrne 2010). It seems that, in this case, the high

TABLE 2. Factor Loadings

	17-Item Model	10-Item Model
Item 1	0.637	
Item 2	0.709	
Item 3	0.708	0.682
Item 4	0.808	0.765
Item 5	0.588	
Item 6	0.629	0.615
Item 7	0.743	
Item 8	0.659	
Item 9	0.661	
Item 10	0.665	
Item 11	0.703	0.720
Item 12	0.662	0.689
Item 13	0.732	0.739
Item 14	0.719	0.759
Item 15	0.630	0.674
Item 16	0.695	0.700
Item 17	0.621	0.642

covariance between error terms stems from the high degree of overlap between item content in the CETSCALE. Therefore, in order to reach a better-fitted model we reestimated it by excluding 7 paths. Dropping paths was performed step-by-step considering changes in the fit indices, MIs, and also theoretical consideration until the desired level of fitness is reached.

Table 1 indicates the goodness-of-fit indices for the modified 10-item model, which implies improvements in all indices in comparison with the 17-item model. The second model yielded a good fit to the data with AGFI (0.919) and CFI (0.970) greater than 0.9, GFI (0.949) and TLI (0.961) close to 0.95, and RMSEA (0.063) less than 0.08. All factor loadings remained significant ($p < .001$) with values ranging from 0.615 to 0.765, and the 10-item factor accounted for 54.02% of the total explained variance. We therefore used the 10-item CETSCALE for analysis and discussions in the rest of the article.

Table 3 shows composite reliability (Cronbach's alpha coefficient) for the CETSCALE. Estimated coefficients are high for both 17-item (0.936) and 10-item (0.904) models, which is consistent with former studies. Results provided in this section support H1 and H2; however, the number of CETSCALE items reduced to 10 because of poor fit indices of the 17-item model.

TABLE 3. Reliability and Variance Extracted

	17-Item Model	10-Item Model
Composite reliability (Cronbach's α)	0.936	0.904
Variance extracted	49.67%	54.02%

Discriminant Validity

To assess discriminant validity, in the first step we examine whether and to what extent the CETSCALE is correlated to ethnocentrism (GENE, $\alpha = 0.696$). Not very high significant correlation between two constructs provides evidence of discriminant validity (Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillips 1991; Peter and Churchill 1986). The correlation between the CETSCALE and ethnocentrism was 0.352 ($p < .001$), which provides support for discriminant validity. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), if the average variance extracted by two constructs is greater than the square correlation coefficient between them, discriminant validity is achieved. The extracted variance estimates were 0.54 and 0.45 for the CETSCALE and GENE respectively, and the square correlation coefficient between them is 0.12, which indicates that they measure two distinct constructs.

As another way of assessing discriminant validity, we used nested model comparisons to compare a model with two freely correlated factors with another model, which the correlation of two factors is constrained to equal 1 (O'Leary-Kelly and Vokurka 1998). If the former model significantly fit better than the latter, the evidence of discriminant validity is provided (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). The results indicate that the difference between two χ^2 values ($\Delta\chi^2$) is equal to 228 and is highly significant at the 0.000 level. Considering other fit indices such as GFI, CFI, and RMSEA also demonstrate that the model with unconstrained correlation between the CETSCALE and the GENE fit better than the constrained model (table 4).

Nomological Validity

Nomological validity was assessed by evaluating the relationship between the CETSCALE

TABLE 4. Discriminant Validity

	Unconstrained Model	Constrained Model
Chi-square ^a	166.371	394.345
Degree of freedom	91	92
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	.923	.817
Comparative-fit index (CFI)	.951	.805
RMSEA	.055	.109

^aBoth are significant at .000 level.

and two related constructs, namely, willingness to buy foreign products ($\alpha = 0.815$) and cosmopolitanism ($\alpha = 0.672$). Table 5 displays the results of correlation analysis. As was expected, there is a highly negative significant correlation between CETSCALE and willingness to buy foreign products (H4), which provides evidence of nomological validity for the CETSCALE. However, results do not support H5, as the correlation between the CETSCALE and cosmopolitanism is nonsignificant and the coefficient is equal to zero, which indicates that consumer ethnocentrism and cosmopolitanism are two independent constructs.

DISCUSSION

As the importance of developing countries in international marketing has risen, the need for gathering accurate and reliable information from these markets has increased. In this regard, validation of international marketing measures in developing countries could be very practical, especially since most of these scales have been constructed in developed countries and more specifically in the United States. In the current study, we assessed reliability and validity of the

TABLE 5. Nomological Validity

	Correlation	Significance
CETSCALE—Willingness to buy foreign products	-0.808	.001
CETSCALE—Cosmopolitanism	-0.001	.984

CETSCALE in the context of Iran. Results of an EFA confirmed the unidimensionality assumption of the CETSCALE, although performing a CFA showed that the 17-item and 1-factor structure model does not indicate acceptable fit. In order to obtain a better-fitted model, a more parsimonious version of the CETSCALE with 10 items was produced. The discrepancy between the results of EFA and CFA is not unexpected as CFA contains stricter and more objective interpretation of dimensionality than does EFA, which often leads to differences in conclusions about the unidimensionality of a measure (O'Leary-Kelly and Vokurka 1998).

Congruent with previous studies, the results of a composite reliability assessment proved that both 17-item and 10-item scales are highly reliable. Also, the results of the three approaches of assessing discriminant validity support H3 by indicating that the CETSCALE and the GENE measure two separate and distinct constructs. The distinction between general ethnocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism is a reaffirmation of conceptualization and operationalization of consumer ethnocentrism by Shimp and Sharma (1987).

In the case of nomological validity, findings were not quite as expected. The results showed that the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and cosmopolitanism was not significant. On the basis of previous studies, we envisaged a relatively weak relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and cosmopolitanism; however, the lack of a significant relationship between these two concepts has been preceded (i.e., Balabanis et al. 2001; Riefler and Diamantopoulos 2009). This finding is in contrast to the common belief that cosmopolitanism and local orientations stand at opposite ends of a continuum, and it confirms the claims regarding the orthogonality of cosmopolitan and parochial orientations (Cannon and Yaprak 2002; Cannon et al. 1994; Yoon, Cannon, and Yaprak 1996). In other words, the results of the current study indicate that consumers can be inclined to other cultures and ways of living, while being biased toward domestic products. The independence between cosmopolitanism and consumer ethnocentrism implies that consumers with high ethnocentric tendencies are more concerned

about the economic threats of foreign products than their cultural menace. Therefore, it is possible for a highly ethnocentric consumer to be keen to learn about other ways of living and to communicate with people from other cultures. Finally, the highly negative significant correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy foreign products provides support for the nomological validity of the CETSCALE.

Findings of this study have a number of theoretical and practical implications. In a dearth of empirical research in international marketing and consumer behavior in a country like Iran, this study provides evidence for the robustness of the CETSCALE. The findings of this study indicate whether and how consumer ethnocentrism is related to three other constructs, namely willingness to buy foreign products, cosmopolitanism, and general ethnocentrism. From a practical point of view, the strong negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and willingness of consumers to purchase products of Western countries indicates the possible effects of consumer ethnocentrism on marketing strategies of multinational corporations. In other words, in Iran, as a Middle Eastern country with all its structural problems in production and marketing, ethnocentric tendencies of consumers can play a very important role in acceptance or rejection of foreign-made products.

While there is an increasing trend toward segmenting global markets based on similarities of consumers regardless of their nationality, consumer ethnocentrism, along with other psychographic and behavioral variables, could be used as an effective criterion for cross-national consumer segmentation. Availability of the CETSCALE, which has been found valid and reliable in different environments, facilitates the use of consumer ethnocentrism as a segmentation criterion by international marketers. Iranian producers can also benefit from findings of this research, as in many domestic markets consumers' ethnocentrism and nationalism is considered to be one of the few remaining competitive advantages versus imported products.

Because of some limitations to the study, interpreting and generalizing the findings should

be done cautiously. The main limitation comes from the characteristics of the sample. Using students restricts representativeness of the sample to the general population. Another limitation is the sample size, which could impact on goodness-of-fit indices and other statistics. The nonprobabilistic nature of the sampling method also contributes to the generalizability of the results. Accordingly, it is recommended to use more representative samples with higher demographic and geographic diversity in future studies. In addition, assessing the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and a wider range of consumer behavior and international marketing constructs could provide stronger support for nomological validity of the CETSCALE.

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10. There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.
 11. Iranians should not buy foreign products because this hurts Iranian business and causes unemployment.
 12. Curbs should be put on all imports.
 13. It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Iranian products.
 14. Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.
 15. Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry to Iran.
 16. We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.
 17. Iranian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Iranians out of work.

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APPENDIX

CETSCALE, adapted from Shimp and Sharma (1987)

1. Iranian people should always buy Iranian-made products instead of imports.
2. Only those products that are unavailable in Iran should be imported.
3. Buy Iranian-made products. Keep Iran working.
4. Iranian products, first, last, and foremost.
5. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Iranian.
6. It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Iranians out of jobs.
7. A real Iranian should always buy Iranian-made products.
8. We should purchase products manufactured in Iran instead of letting other countries get rich off us.
9. It is always best to purchase Iranian products.

Willingness to Buy Foreign Products, adapted from Klein et al. (1998)

1. I would feel guilty if I bought a product made in Western countries.
2. I would never buy a product made in Western countries.
3. Whenever possible, I avoid buying products of Western countries.
4. Whenever available, I would prefer to buy products made in Western countries.
5. I do not like the idea of owning a product made in Western countries.
6. If two products were of equal quality, I would prefer to buy the Iranian product over the product made in Western countries.

GENE, adapted from Neuliep and McCroskey (1997)

1. My culture should be the role model for other cultures.
2. Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.
3. My culture should try to be more like other cultures.
4. People in other cultures could learn a lot from people in my culture.

5. I'm very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.

Cosmopolitanism, adapted from Cleveland and Laroche (2007)

1. I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.
2. I like to learn about other ways of life.

3. I like to try restaurants that offer food that is different from that in my own culture.

4. I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures or countries.

5. When travelling, I like to immerse myself in the culture of the people I am visiting.

6. When it comes to trying new things, I am very open.