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Antecedents and Consequences of Consumer Ethnocentrism Across Russia's Three Sub-Cultures

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Antecedents and Consequences of Consumer Ethnocentrism across Russia's Three Sub-Cultures

by

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ABSTRACT

Shimp and Sharma (1987) extended the concept of ethnocentrism to commercial products with the development of a 17-item Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale [CETSCALE]. Consumer ethnocentrism is the belief that purchasing imported products harms the local economy, increases unemployment, and is morally wrong (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Shimp and Sharma (1987) called for studies to determine antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism and to apply the CETSCALE across geographic and regional segments. This dissertation addresses a void in the literature by examining antecedents; Inglehart's Materialism/Post Materialism (1977) and Holbrook's Nostalgia (1993), and outcome variables; product purchase preference, of consumer ethnocentrism across sub-cultures postulated to exist in Russia today.

This research considers the Russian market to be multidimensional with parallel, although significantly different, markets. These markets are three co-existing cultures: Traditional Russian Culture, The Industrial Sub-Culture, and The Emerging Technocratic Culture (Mikheyev 1996). These sub-cultures are defined by differing levels of temperament, sociopolitical mentalities, and access to different forms of power (Mikheyev 1996).

Structural Equations Modeling and Hierarchical Linear Modeling were used to test ten main hypotheses. In total, five hundred surveys were collected, evenly split among Russia's three sub-cultures.

This research contributes to literature by furthering an understanding of the CETSCALE and refining research techniques in Transitional Economies. There are four main contributions. First, this research identifies that although antecedents may appear to be significant throughout an entire nation they actually are significant in select sub-cultures while being insignificant in other sub-cultures. Second, significant differences for product purchase preference (imported versus domestically-produced) exist between various product groups. Third, product purchase preference (imported versus domestically-produced) for product groups differs among sub-cultures throughout Russia. Fourth, the CETSCALE itself differs in its ability to explain product purchase intent for different product groups and among sub-cultures.

This research expands the understanding of the CETSCALE by identifying antecedents and linking the predictability power of the CETSCALE to product purchase intent of different product types. In addition, it has also identified that in transitional economies sharp differences exist among sub-cultures regarding the interpretation of various constructs and the strength of the relationships between those constructs.

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CHAPTER 1: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The collapse of communist rule in Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union initiated a transition from centrally-planned to market-driven economies for the countries of that region. This transition has taken power away from central economic planning boards that previously dictated consumer consumption and now, for the first time in decades, allows consumers the right to choose the products they desire. In order to speed market development in the former Soviet-Bloc nations, increased levels of market research are needed (Springer and Czinkota 1999). However, research concerning Russian consumer markets, is both scarce and undeveloped (Griffin et al. 2000; Money and Colton 2000; Auzan 1995; Shama 1992; Leonidou 1992).

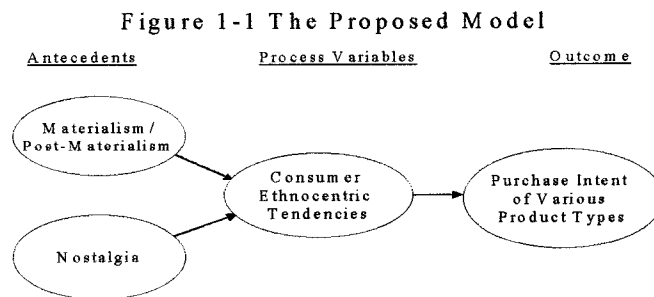
Consumer ethnocentrism is the belief that purchasing imported products harms the local economy, increases unemployment, and is morally wrong (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Ethnocentric consumers are less likely to purchase foreign-made products, therefore affecting a nation's level of international trade. A limited number of studies have addressed consumer ethnocentrism in Russia (Durvasula et al. 1997; Good and Huddleston 1995; Huddleston et al. 2000) with comparative studies consisting of American and Russian students (Durvasula et al. 1997) and consumers from Poland and Russia (Good and Huddleston 1995). Huddleston, Good, and Stoel (2000) expanded the research of consumer ethnocentrism in Russia by testing antecedents and moderators based upon a previously existing model (Sharma et al. 1995).

The original study (Sharma et al. 1995), which employed a Korean sample, examined the constructs of “openness to foreign cultures,” “patriotism,” “conservatism,”

and “collectivism” as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism (Sharma, Shimp, and Shin 1995). Moderating factors tested as affecting attitudes toward the acceptability of importing specific products included "perceived product necessity," "perceived personal economic threat," and "perceived domestic economic threat." Further expanding the comprehension of consumer ethnocentrism Clarke et al. (2000) assessed materialism, values, and demographics as antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism across four countries: Australia, France, Mexico and the United States. Materialism (Richins and Dawson 1992) and the List of Values External Dimension (Kahle 1983) were positively linked with consumer ethnocentrism. Balabanis et al. (2000) assessed the impact of demographic variables, nationalism, patriotism, and internationalism as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism in the Czech Republic and Turkey. They concluded that in different countries different demographic variables as well as psychometric variables serve as antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism. Along this theme, it is equally conceivable that different psychometric variables may serve as antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism across different segments within the same culture or country.

Shimp and Sharma (1987) called for studies to determine antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism and to apply the CETSCALE across geographic and regional segments. This dissertation addresses a void in the literature by examining antecedent and outcome variables of consumer ethnocentrism across sub-cultures postulated to exist in Russia today. As seen in Figure 1, values of Russian consumers, measured by Inglehart's (1977) Materialism/Post Materialism Scale [emphasis on societal values] and Holbrook's (1993) Nostalgia Scale [longing for the past] are posited to be linked with consumer ethnocentric

tendencies, measured by the CETSCALE (Shimp and Sharma 1987), and then in turn to expressed purchase intentions for various domestically-produced products.



Previous research addressing consumer ethnocentrism in Russia used limited sample populations. The sample surveyed by Durvasula et al. (1997) was limited to 60 students from two undisclosed Russian universities. Good and Huddleston (1995) and Huddleston, Good, and Stoel (2000) employed a larger Russian sample, 314 respondents, however solely from Moscow. The sample members were patrons of two large stores, one Russian [Detskii Mir] and the other foreign [Le Monti], both located in the center of Moscow. The proposed research expands beyond the confines of Moscow and considers the Russian market to be multidimensional with parallel, although significantly different, markets. These markets are three simultaneously co-existing cultures: Traditional Russian Culture, The Industrial Sub-Culture, and The Emerging Technocratic Culture (Mikheyev 1996). These multiple sub-cultures are defined by differing levels of temperament, sociopolitical mentalities, and access to different forms of power (Mikheyev 1996 p. 206). Russia's climate, geography, social environment, and economic development have disparately affected each of the three identified sub-cultures.

Purpose of research

The purpose of this research is to empirically test the proposed construct linkages displayed in Figure 1. This research has three primary objectives. The first objective is to

determine the strength of the relationship of the antecedents: materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] and nostalgia to the process variable: consumer ethnocentrism. The second goal is to determine if expressed purchase intentions, the outcome measure, for various domestically-produced goods are related to differing levels of consumer ethnocentrism. The third aim is to assess differences in the strengths of the linkages among constructs across separate co-existing cultures theorized to be present in Russia today.

Antecedents: Nostalgia and Materialism/Post-Materialism

Nostalgia

Holbrook defined nostalgia as "a longing for the past, yearning for yesterday, or a fondness for possessions and activities associated with days of yore" (1993 p. 245). In his research, Holbrook (1993) concluded that nostalgia-related preferences are a function of two non-confounded factors: chronological age and nostalgia proneness. This suggests that nostalgia proneness, a personal characteristic independent of the chronological aging process, operates jointly with the aging process to shape consumer preferences (Holbrook 1993; Holbrook and Schindler 1994, 1996).

Holbrook and Schindler (1994) suggested that "strong positive emotions" experienced during a period in an individual's life may "imprint" on the stimuli experienced during that time. Therefore, individuals, who view the past in Russia positively and associate the availability of imported goods as a break from that past, are expected to express higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism. Steenkamp et al. (1999) found both high levels of consumer ethnocentrism and nostalgia to be negatively related

to consumer innovativeness. The premise of this research is that recent events in Russia stimulate nostalgia as an antecedent to consumer ethnocentrism.

Materialism/Post Materialism: A Measure of Societal Values

The materialism-post materialism scale hierarchically ranks which societal values are most important to individuals. In this manner, it is comparable to the work performed by Kahle (1983, 1986) and Rokeach (1968, 1973). However, the materialism/post materialism scale is not a measure of personal values but a measure of societal values perceived as being important by individuals. Highly materialistic individuals regard societal values that provide physical sustenance and safety as being important while highly post-materialistic individuals regard societal values that provide belonging, self-expression, and quality of life as important (Inglehart 1981).

Materialists and post-materialists have strikingly different opinions on social issues such as "attitudes towards poverty", "women's rights", "foreign policy", and "importance placed on jobs" (Inglehart 1981, p.885). When posed with the question "Are you proud to be your nationality?" 52% of the materialists and 38% of the post-materialists across 40 societies [nations] were "very proud" (Inglehart et al. 1998). The difference in level of national pride in Moscow and Russia, among materialists and post-materialists, is 30% and 11% and 33% and 11% respectively. It is expected that materialistic individuals, who possess more national pride than those who are post-materialists, will transfer this national pride to the purchase of products and will exhibit higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism.

Process Variable: Consumer Ethnocentrism

Shimp and Sharma (1987) extended the concept of ethnocentrism to commercial products with the development of a 17-item CETSCALE. The term “consumer ethnocentrism” describes the “beliefs held by [American] consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign made products” (Shimp and Sharma 1987 p. 280). Ethnocentric consumers feel the purchase of foreign-made products is a threat to both their own well-being and that of the society as a whole. The purchase of imported goods, symbolic of out-groups, is an unpatriotic act and harmful to the economy (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Sharma et al. (1995) built upon the previous definition of consumer ethnocentrism and assigned the following three characteristics: 1) love for one’s country and fear of losing economic control, 2) a desire not to purchase foreign-made products, and 3) a prejudice against imported products. The authors also found that consumer ethnocentric tendencies were not universal across all products. This research assesses product purchase intention, domestic versus imported, of select products.

Outcome Variable: Purchase Intent by Product

It is important to understand consumer ethnocentrism at the product class level, (Durvasula et al. 1997). As a result, the present research measures respondent likelihood to purchase domestically produced versus imported products from the following representative product types: kitchen appliances, food, personal hygiene products, household electronics, fashion items, entertainment products, technology goods, automobiles, alcohol, and medicine. Sharma et al. (1995) and Huddleston et al. (2000) researched product ethnocentrism for 10 different products using perceived necessity and threat of various imported goods by Korean and Russian consumers, respectively. Both

studies concluded that the level of consumer ethnocentrism associated with a product was significantly related to the level of individual and societal importance associated with that product. In addition, consumers were less likely to purchase an imported product if it posed a perceived personal or domestic economic threat. That research, while valuable, did not assess consumer purchase intention. Watson and Wright (2000) performed similar research and concluded that New Zealanders with high levels of consumer ethnocentrism favored domestically-produced refrigerators over those imported from select countries. That research used four countries with varying degrees of cultural similarity as the source for the products.

This research investigates which products Russian consumers prefer to purchase, domestically-produced or imported, rather than which ones they consider threatening, "immoral or unethical" to purchase. The construct assessed is the outcome of consumer ethnocentrism at the product level, measured by expressed purchase intent, with the domestic country as the country of origin. It is expected that consumers will express differing levels of purchase intention based upon differing levels of consumer ethnocentrism.

The Russian Experience in the Last Decade

The transition from a centralized planning system over the past decade has been tumultuous for Russia and her nearly 145 million newborn consumers. During this time Russia's GDP contracted an estimated 45%, the inflation rate was 86% in 1999 and 40% of the market currently lives below the poverty level (CIA Homepage, 2000). Recent economic development in Russia, although improving, is characterized by 10% unemployment and 18.6% monthly inflation in July 2000 (Business Central Europe

2000). A large and growing gap exists between the richest 20% of citizens that earn 48.6% and the poorest 20% that earn a mere 6.1% of the national income (Agence France Presse/Russia Today 1-Nov-00). Russia also faces health and social concerns due to the economic decline of the past decade. In that period, the average life expectancy for Russian males declined from 62 to 58, and suicides increased by 60% (Ciment 1999).

The average Russian has been forced to focus on survival due to the substantial decrease in the standard of living resulting from the 10-year economic decay. Russians view "values needed for survival" [e.g., maintaining order and fighting rising prices] as most important to their society, as opposed to such concerns as freedom of speech and giving people more say in important decision making (Inglehart et al. 1998; Bashkirova 2000). Consequently, Russians are more materialistic than post-materialistic (Inglehart et al. 1998, Bashkirova 2000). The statement "man does not live by bread alone," particularly when he has plenty of bread" (Inglehart 1977, p.43) describes the situation for a substantial percentage of the population in Russia that are presently living below the official poverty level--literally they do not have enough bread. Inglehart (1977) hypothesized that values have shifted from materialistic to post-materialistic in Western nations due to positive socio-economic changes, unprecedented prosperity, and an absence of total war. Conversely, Russia has experienced economic and social degeneration as well as two minor wars during the past decade thus Russia may have experienced an opposite movement in values.

This research addresses the potential impact of materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] as an antecedent to consumer ethnocentrism. A high-materialistic country, such as Russia, that

has experienced a sharp increase in poverty attributed to decreased output (The World Bank 2000) appears likely to possess high levels of consumer ethnocentrism. It seems logical that a society in which more than 63% [of the Russian population] believe it is wrong for employers to hire immigrants when jobs are scarce (Inglehart et al. 1998), would view purchasing imports as being inappropriate when basic sustenance needs, defined as a stable economy, economic growth, and fighting rising prices, are in jeopardy.

Nostalgia, most likely brought about by the societal decline, appears to be increasing among the general population in Russia today (Bashkirova 2000). While younger Russians may be in favor of greater market reforms (East European Markets 1997b), more than half of the Russian population wants to turn back the clock since they feel life was better under Stalin than under Gorbachev (The Economist 28-Nov-98). In a study of Russian values, 55% of the respondents evaluated the former communist system positively, while only 13.5% rated the former system negatively (Bashkirova 2000). Being given access to democracy and to global products, it would seem that Russian citizens would be more optimistic about the present. The following quote provides insight into why present-day life is not perceived to be better than that of yesterday in Russia:

"... democracy makes people healthy, happy, tolerant, and trusting, and it instills post-materialist values (at least in the younger generation). This interpretation is extremely appealing. It provides a powerful argument for democracy and implies that we have a quick fix for most of the world's population: Adopt democratic institutions and live happily ever after.

Unfortunately, the example of the people of the former Soviet Union does not support this interpretation. Since their dramatic move towards democracy in 1991, they haven't become healthier, happier, more trusting, more tolerant, or more post-materialist. For the most part, they have gone in exactly the opposite direction" (Inglehart 2000, p.94 Culture Matters: How Values Shape Human Progress, Harrison and Huntington, eds.).

Before taking the path to a free-market, Russians were certainly healthier (Ciment 2000) and happier (Inglehart and Klingemann 2000). Consequently, it is logical that a positive relationship exists in Russia between nostalgia and consumer ethnocentrism. The tool used for assessing nostalgia is the abbreviated version of Holbrook's and Schindler's (1994) Nostalgia Scale adopted by Steenkamp et al. (1999) in their assessment of antecedents of consumer innovativeness across 11 European countries.

Most recently, Russia has experienced economic growth and the reemergence of a small but growing middle class (Starobin with Kravchenko 16-Oct-2000, Concise Consumer 3-Nov-2000) that virtually disappeared after the 1998 financial crisis. That growing middle class is more prevalent and richer in Moscow and St. Petersburg than in other locations in Russia (Starobin with Kravchenko 16-Oct-2000, Concise Consumer 3-Nov-2000). Russia's GDP increased 9 percent in August, an estimated 6.2 percent in July, and 7.3 percent through the first seven months of 2000 over the previous year (RFE/RL NEWSLINE 27-Sep-00). In 1999, Russian trade totaled an estimated \$123.6 billion and GDP grew an estimated 3.2%. Foreign investment into Russia totaled \$11.777 billion in 1998 with about 50% of that going to the city of Moscow (U.S. State Department Commercial Guide, 2000). Moscow has traditionally been the political and financial center of Russia with many considering St. Petersburg to be the intellectual capital. In each of these cities, it is possible to find modern hotels, fine restaurants, imported luxury cars, and the latest fashions. In the case of Moscow, nearly all amenities are within walking distance of Lenin's Mausoleum.

In other regions of Russia, available amenities and market conditions have changed insignificantly since the collapse of the Soviet state. This highlights a reality of market

development in Russia: some groups have progressed faster and benefited more than others from Russia's transition away from communism. The GINI Coefficient¹, a measure of income distribution for per capita income, substantially increased in Russia from .26 in 1987-1990 to .47 in 1996-1999 (The World Bank 2000) indicating an increase in income inequality. The GINI coefficient is sensitive to changes in the middle of the income distribution (The World Bank 2000). It appears that wage differences are one of the leading factors contributing to the inequality of poverty across different regions in Russia: "Using previously unavailable data from the Russian Labor Force Surveys, Lehman, Wadsworth and Yemtsov (2000) conclude that the main contributor to total inequality in Russia, among all explanatory variables, is regional location" (The World Bank 2000, p. 151). Economic data appear to support Mikheyev's (1996) position that Russia is developing into subcultures based upon geographic location. This research addresses whether these sub-cultures hold significantly different values and tendencies.

Contribution

The contribution of this research is three-fold. First, it assesses the strength between values [materialism/post materialism and nostalgia] and consumer tendencies [consumer ethnocentrism] in a transitional economy; one that has experienced economic degeneration. Second, it evaluates consumer ethnocentrism at the product class level as opposed to "imported products" as a general term. Third, the research examines differences among co-existing cultures within Russia.

Each construct and the linkages between constructs can be examined at the demographic, regional, and national levels, thus providing a comprehensive overview of

¹ Developed by Italian statistician Corrado Gini to provide a mathematical expression of the degree of concentration of wealth or income. A Gini coefficient of approximately 0.400 is normal for most developed economies. Athabasca University - Online Dictionary

the Russian market. The level of materialism, nostalgia, consumer ethnocentrism, [or the strength of linkages between these constructs], may be higher/lower among certain demographic or geographic groups. Any intra-country variances among the constructs or links between the constructs at the demographic or regional levels, provide valuable insight for practitioners in regard to developing market entry, product roll-out, and promotional campaigns in Russia.

This study also provides academics and business leaders with knowledge of Russian markets. It is anticipated that this increased knowledge of the Russian marketplace will be used to hasten economic development and promote further studies of Russian market development and consumer behavior. Studies such as this one will also serve to eliminate the lacunas in understanding of business practices between international and Russian managers.

Organization of this Dissertation

The purpose of Chapter One is to introduce the constructs, regions under investigation, and provide a brief snapshot of the economic situation in Russia. Chapter Two presents a review of the literature concerning marketing and market developments in Russia, materialism/post materialism, nostalgia, and consumer ethnocentrism. A series of hypotheses concerning these constructs are also offered in Chapter Two. Chapter Three describes the measures, their translation, sample selection, and statistical techniques to empirically test the hypotheses. Chapter Four presents the analysis and results of the data. Finally, Chapter Five discusses the findings, managerial implications, limitations, and suggestions and directions for future research.

of the Social Sciences (<http://datadump.icaap.org/cgi-bin/glossary/SocialDict/SocialDict>)

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter contains a review of the literature pertinent to Russian consumer markets, posited antecedents, process variable, and outcome variables. A series of hypotheses are offered concerning the relationship among consumer ethnocentrism, product purchase intention, materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values], and nostalgia across Russia's three sub-cultures.

Initially, a review of both the academic and practitioner literature addressing Russian behavior in the marketplace and attitudes towards imported and domestic products is presented. Literature and information are offered chronologically in order to provide a background for the transformations that have occurred recently in the Russian market. Where appropriate the impact of market transitions on constructs under study will be emphasized. This is followed by a review of consumer ethnocentrism literature concerning its history and development, international application, contribution to studies of international consumer behavior, and interaction with product choice determinants [the outcome variable]. A review is then offered of the antecedents posited to be relevant in a transitional economy: levels of materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] and nostalgia.

Overview of Russian Consumer Markets

The Consumer in Soviet Society

The former Soviet system provided citizens with low cost or free access to social services, shopping, recreation, vacation spots, and rent (Price Waterhouse 1994). The Soviet central planning boards also decided what consumers wanted, when they wanted

it, and how they wanted it packaged and priced. In short, consumer demand did not influence offerings in the marketplace (Kostecki 1985). During Soviet industrialization throughout the 1950s, consumers would purchase whatever size, color, style, or quality of goods distributed, due to the lack of choice. The focus of the central planning system during Stalin's time was on capital investment rather than on consumer consumption (Skurski 1983). The Soviet Ministries were able to manage consumer demand, although poorly from recipients' standpoint, through control over all aspects of the economy. Shortages in some areas and overages in others were common throughout the Soviet system due to inefficiencies in centralized planning.

During the 1960s and 1970s, the Soviet system evidenced steady growth, and by 1978 the Soviet GNP was 59% of that of the United States and per capita income was greater than that of Italy, Greece, or Spain, and comparable to that of the United Kingdom. Along with the increase in wealth, Soviet citizens became more aware of Western consumer trends, and greater pressure was placed upon Soviet Ministries for consumer goods (Skurski 1983). Inefficiencies in the system, inflexible planning boards, and several years of bad harvests resulted in a series of negative growth years (Skurski 1983; Greer 1973). In an effort to control the ebbing tide of economic development, the central planning boards reasserted lost power and control over product offerings re-emphasizing the industrial goods production over consumer goods. The Soviet system as a whole discouraged consumer goods consumption on all fronts; the press criticized those consumers who were СТИЛЯГА [style-conscious] (Greer 1973). The desires of the central-planning boards won out over those of consumers (Skurski, 1983, Greer 1973) through propaganda and the control of resources.

The more adventurous consumer could always turn to the "black market" to acquire desired products. The black market provided access to foreign-made goods or Russian products that were difficult to obtain. Foreign-made goods were sought not only for their style, but also for their quality and durability. The desire for foreign-made goods came with a price: anyone found selling or purchasing non-sanctioned foreign products was sentenced to hard labor. Despite this threat, foreign visitors were asked by passersbys to sell their stylish personal possessions (Greer, 1973). There are accounts that affluent or adventuresome Soviet consumers were aware of brands such as Levis, Marlboro, and Grundig and could acquire these branded items on the black market (Golden et al. 1994, Greer 1973). This interest and desire for foreign goods, despite the risks involved, indicated that imported goods were held in high regard and demand during Soviet times.

In the late 1980s, shortly before the collapse of the Soviet Union, it became possible for Soviet citizens to legally buy imported goods. In 1990, Ettenson (1995) performed one of the very first pan-national surveys of country-of-origin in the communist-bloc. Russian, Polish, and Hungarian consumers were asked their opinion of products from the United States, Japan, West Germany, the Soviet Union, Poland, and Hungary. The sample from the Soviet Union was drawn solely from Moscow. The most significant attributes for Russians in making a product purchase decision were country-of-origin [chosen by 75% of respondents], brand name [chosen by 51% of respondents], and remote control [chosen by 50% of respondents]. Russians perceived domestically-made TV sets comparable to Hungarian, better than Polish, but less desirable than Japanese, American, or West German TVs (Ettenson 1995). Polish and Hungarian products were available for Soviet consumers before the economic reforms in the late

1980s due to their status as Communist states. The ranking of country-of-origin is not surprising and fits the pattern established before the Soviet/Russian market opened-up; goods from capitalistic countries were desired over products from communist countries (Ettenson 1995; Skurski 1983; Greer 1973).

The Collapse of the Soviet System

In 1991 the central planning system was abandoned, price constraints were eliminated, and the Soviet Union collapsed. Consumers and firms who operated legitimately during Soviet times were inexperienced and ill-trained for operating in a free-market system. Russian firms, traditionally supplied with resources and production targets by Soviet Ministries, were now on their own (Shama, 1994). Some firms adjusted, stopped looking to Government Ministries for guidance and turned to the marketplace for direction. Overall, many firms had difficulty adjusting to the decrease in product demand and increasingly selective consumers. During this period, Russians significantly lost purchasing power due to 3,000 percent inflation and a 25 percent decline in Gross National Product (Shama 1994). Russian consumers demanded imported products that they could not afford and producers manufactured products that consumers did not desire.

The Soviet mentality did not disappear with the advent of free-trade. Russian consumers still waited for two or more hours in queues at state stores for certain goods when they could simply buy the same items at a free-market location. The difference in prices, the free market good being more expensive, amounted to what the consumer could earn in two hours working as opposed to queuing-up (Auzan 1995). The queue, representative of Soviet society, had become engrained in the consumer mind and behavior. This mindset would change, slowly, as the Russian economy evolved.

Russian consumers were inexperienced with the new environment and needed to acquire the skills to function at a higher level of market sophistication. Entrepreneurial street markets increased greatly in 1992; however, the products purchased at these markets did not come with guarantees or warranties, as was the case in the state stores. Imported products found in the street markets were on occasion unsafe, poisonous, and substandard counterfeit versions of global brands. Russian consumers learned the lesson of *caveat emptor* arduously and evolved into more discerning shoppers (Auzan 1995).

The newfound Russian "consumers" valued quality as the most important consideration when purchasing a product (Leonidou 1992; Sapozhnikov 1998). However, they did not always associate price with quality. Price and quality as product attributes were unrelated during Soviet times. Additional consumer considerations such as availability, appearance, and country-of-origin were important priorities often based upon the product class. Issues such as packaging, product variety, and brand/advertising were found to be less important. Although brand awareness was low among the general population, younger and more affluent Russian consumers were aware and desired international brands (Leonidou 1992). This probably was an outgrowth from Soviet times when illegally imported goods were found to be highly desirable.

The "new" Russian consumers appeared to be schizophrenic during this time. They held on to some of the habits from Soviet times, had limited incomes, but evolved into more sophisticated shoppers with a desire for world brands.

The Post Soviet Russian Consumer

During the mid-1990s the Russian market experienced erratic growth. Marketplace behavior changed rapidly during this period, especially in large cities such

as Moscow and St. Petersburg. A growing and affluent teenage market with earnings of \$200/month or more was identified in Russia with the wealthiest living in Moscow and St. Petersburg (Arnold 1998). Moscow's per capita income reached almost \$7,000/year in 1996, three times the national average (BISNIS: Russian Business & Trade Connections 1997). Meanwhile, consumers in provincial cities, such as Samara, "could expect little choice among brands or variety within product classes" (Griffin et al. 2000 p. 36). Despite the hardships in the provincial marketplaces, Griffin et al. (2000) found hedonic and utilitarian shopping values to be more highly correlated among Russian shoppers than among their American counterparts. Russian shoppers, especially those in the provinces, do not consider the hardships they faced to acquire goods as significant- they considered them normal: *ЭТО ЖИЗНЬ* [That's life].

During this time Russian consumers were found to be innovative and willing to try new products but never developed loyalty to particular brand names. In one survey, 31% of the respondents indicated that they were always looking for new products. This exceeded 33% for women and 50% for women under the age of 24 (Emerging European Markets 1997). It is unclear whether the influx of new products caused this anomaly or whether it was something endemic to the Russian character.

In spite of the cost differential between domestic and imported automobiles, Russians still preferred the imported ones due to higher perceived quality. This was a concern to foreign automobile manufactures looking to invest in partnerships with Russian firms. Kia's marketing director, Mr. Skoptsov, stated that Russian consumers equated exceptionally low prices with poor quality (Emerging European Markets 1997). This indicated a change in Russian consumer behavior from Soviet and post-Soviet eras.

A study (Strutton et al. 1995) conducted in St. Petersburg and Ivanovo assessing country-of-origin impact on ten product-characteristics produced mixed results. The countries evaluated included Russia, the United States, Germany, and Japan. Significant differences were realized for all ten product evaluated. Russian products ranked lower on the following characteristics: quality, good investment, reliability, well-made, durability, high style, and were perceived to be made of lower quality materials and poor imitations of better products. However, Russians perceived their own products to be items of higher craftsmanship and less expensive than products originating from all three of the other countries (Strutton et al. 1995). Despite the overall sense of inferiority regarding their own manufactured products, Russians believed domestically-produced artisan products were of higher quality than products from more economically-advanced countries. Unfortunately, this research did not indicate whether differences were detected between the consumers in St. Petersburg and Ivanovo.

Russian consumers were experts at "origin hunting", a residual talent learned due to product inconsistency from Soviet times. An item may have had the same Soviet "brand name" but was manufactured in one of several different factories of varying quality standards. Identifying the factory would signal the product's quality level. Consumers incorporated these skills again on a global basis. Country-of-brand did not impress Russians as much as country-of-origin. Goods manufactured in industrialized countries were viewed as higher quality than those manufactured in developing countries and Eastern Europe despite country-of-brand label. Consumers made it a point to ask where something was made rather than which company made it (Mellow 1997, Raferty 1998). Overall, imported goods were regarded as higher quality than locally-made

products. This was especially true with consumer durables and designer items such as shoes, perfume, cosmetics, and fashion items (Singer 1997, Mellow 1997). This desire for imports did not appear consistent across all product types. Russian food products showed a revival during this period due to their perceived freshness and appeal to Russian tastes. This may be due to the problems consumers experienced in street-markets following the collapse of the Soviet Union.

Since The (Latest) 1998 Financial Crisis

The Russian government declared its inability to service its domestic and foreign debt on August 17, 1998, and chaos ensued. This started a chain reaction of events including the stock market crashing 90% and the ruble devaluing from 6.7 to 17.5 rubles/dollar in thirty days (Taylor and Wilkerson 2000, OANDA, Inc. 11-Nov-99). Foreign investors lost hundreds of millions of dollars; many expatriates were recalled or reassigned, and local staff was laid-off (Taylor and Wilkerson 2000, Aris 1999). The situation in the marketplace also became chaotic.

The decrease in the value of the ruble increased the market price of imported goods, and the state of consumer markets and imports changed once again in Russia. Prices for imported food such as chicken parts [*HOЖКИ БУЛГА*: Bush legs] doubled in the space of one week. Russia's addiction to imported products, which constituted 48% of all goods on the shelves, proved costly as prices climbed 67% between August and December of 1998 (World Trade 1998). Rumors concerning the availability of goods spread throughout Russia resulting in the hoarding of staple items (Reynolds 2-Sep-98). Consumer preferences for high-end imported products shifted to less desirable imports or domestically-made substitutes. Whereas value was desired before the crisis, available and

affordable became appealing after the crash (Aris 1998). However, the crisis and the devalued ruble proved to be advantageous for local manufacturers.

The crash caused consumers to lose buying power but increased the competitiveness of Russian firms in domestic and international markets. This shift to domestic goods benefited local manufacturers (Tavernise 9-OCT-00; The Economist 28-Nov-98). Locally-made products, such as toothpaste and detergents, increased in sales as Western brands lost market share (Taylor and Wilkerson 2000). Russian firms found it advantageous to launch low-end products to round out their product lines while many Western firms could not compete in the low-end market (The Economist 28-Nov-98, The Economist 14-Aug-99).

However, the impact of the financial crisis did not appear to be universal across all of Russia. Shortly after the crash, A.C. Nielsen reported that imported butter did not lose as much market share in Moscow as it did in the rest of Russia (Aris 1999). Moscow was able to maintain a higher level of income than the provinces after the crash.

The Russian Market Today

The Russian market today shows sign of recovery as the ruble has remained stable for over a year and the economy is growing. The impact of a positive trade balance, estimated at \$25 billion in 1999 (CIA Homepage 2000), along with an expanding economy has brought about an increased standard of living (Starobin with Krabvchenko 16-Oct-00).

The expanding economy has perpetuated the growth of a middle-class that was virtually wiped-out during the 1998 financial crisis. The middle-class is estimated to comprise 8% to 20% of Russia's population, controlling some 30% of the Gross

Domestic Product (Starobin with Krabvchenko-a 16-Oct-00). The largest concentration of middle-class consumers are located in Moscow and St. Petersburg (Starobin with Krabvchenko-b 16-Oct-00) thus emphasizing regional economic differences throughout Russia. Recent reports from out Moscow indicate that consumer expenditures among Muscovites have returned to levels comparable to those prior to the 1998 crisis (Concise Consumer 7-Aug-00). Unfortunately, no such reports are available for the rest of Russia.

The economic growth has resulted in an increase in the purchase of select high-end imported goods (Concise Consumer 7-Sep-00a). Italian shoe manufacturers reported that exports of spring shoes to Russia doubled from 1999 to 2000. The value of those shoes are higher than other export markets: average wholesale price of the shoes ordered by Russian traders was \$27.50, which is \$11.00 and \$17.00 more expensive than shoes ordered by Americans or Germans, respectively (Concise Consumer 7-Aug-00a).

However, demand for imported products is not consistent across all product types. Russians continue their preference for domestically-produced toothpaste (Concise Consumer 7-Sep-00) as well as food products (Concise Consumer 7-Aug-00b). This can be attributed to the pride that Russians feel in their food and drink products (Wall Street Journal 16-Jan-01). This may be directly linked to the belief that Russian products are made without chemicals and preservatives, a feature that some Russian firms have capitalized on in their advertisements.

Most recently, nostalgia, patriotism, and the Russification of brand names are sweeping the Russian market. Just as Russia has reinstated the music, but not the words, of the Soviet national anthem, several Soviet brands have been revived in order to appeal to consumers who favored products from this era. In addition, firms, both domestic and

international, have been adopting Russian names, as opposed to having products seem as "foreign" as possible, to appeal to the rising level of nostalgia and patriotism among Russian consumers (Wall Street Journal 16-Jan-01). Patriotism can be found in advertising as metro placards for "Russian Butter" tout ВЫБИРАЙТЕ РУССКОЕ [choose Russian]. It is undetermined if this indicates a rising level of consumer ethnocentrism or a demand on the part of Russian consumers to have products, both domestic and imported, appear more Russian.

It is unclear whether the demand for different domestic product classes is due to preference, nostalgia, patriotism or financial constraints. It would seem reasonable that a market that demands expensive imported shoes could afford lower cost imported goods. Russian consumer markets continue to exhibit schizophrenic demand for imported goods, and the true drivers of Russian consumer behavior remain a mystery.

National/Cultural Distinctions and Regional Divides

There existed a powerful ruling class in the Soviet Union despite the propaganda that it was a classless society (U.S. Department of State 1999). Membership in the communist party often meant access to roomy apartments, summer homes, recreational facilities, special stores, schools and hospitals. The *nomenklatura* of Soviet times have done well in post-Soviet Russia. They make up 60% of Russia's millionaires and 75% of the political elite (Library of Congress, 2000). In addition to the unofficial inequality that took place in the Soviet Union due to political connections, there existed government-sponsored differences in salaries. These differences were to foster development in Russia's outer regions (Kumo 1997).

Production facilities were placed throughout Russia based upon four principles of policy development: "1) equalization among regions, 2) resource-oriented industrial location, 3) centralization of production, and 4) regional specialization" (Kumo 1998, p.1 citing Saushkin 1969 [translated from Russian]). Economic efficiency did not guide where to construct factories. The principle of equalization among the regions served as a logistical guideline (Kumo 1998). Therefore, in order to promote economic growth in frontier locations factories were constructed in Western and Eastern Siberia, the North, and the Far East. In order to attract workers to these less-hospitable locations the government enticed workers and their families with higher salaries (Kumo 1997). Eventually the Soviet government changed the policy of regional equalization due to transportation inefficiencies. After the collapse of the Soviet Union, Russia has tried to use some financial incentives to maintain populations in these locations but the amounts paid have been diminished by inflation (Kumo 1998). Russia's limited use of incentives to control migration has been relatively ineffective (Kumo 1998). In spite of the government's inability to control migration it is not easy and simple to pick-up and move in Russia today. Every citizen in Russia has in his or her internal passport a *propiska* [living permit] for a particular city or region. The 'living permit' indicates where someone is registered to live and receive social benefits. Many people in Russia live in locations other than what is stated on their 'living permit.' However, residence in a location other than indicated by the 'living permit' forbids someone from medical care, schooling for their children, and the right to vote [local or national elections] in their adopted location.

It is possible to move to another location and receive a living permit for the new location. This usually involves buying property in the new location or having someone in

that location putting you on his or her place of residence. They can do this if they can prove that they have adequate space in their domicile to accommodate an additional resident. If someone is living in an area of the country that is not economically prosperous, it is difficult for him or her to buy property in one of the more wealthy and prosperous locations. Consequently, those in depressed areas may be stuck in those locations. Hirschman (1987) concludes that the feeling of immobility can increase the "tunnel effect" [jealousy brought about by unequal economic improvement between groups] experienced by the have-nots. Hirschman (1987) was referring to social immobility but the same principle can be extended to geographic mobility if it is difficult to leave an impoverished area. An individual's present level of economic prosperity controls his or her potential for future growth.

Netemeyer et al. (1991) in their assessment of the CETSCALE's validity and reliability across four countries indicated that the scale could be used to "assess the level of ethnocentrism across countries, as well as across segments within countries" (p. 326). It is the intention of this research to assess consumer ethnocentrism levels across segments within Russia. Whereas the majority of the research concerning differences in economic progress has been at the regional level [oblast, krai, okrug, and republic], it is the intent of this research to assess differences prescribed by Mikheyev (1996). However, it would be remiss not to provide mention of the more prevalent approach to assessing regional differences in Russia.

The cities of Moscow and St. Petersburg are considered separate administrative locations within Russia's federal structure. The city of Moscow is completely independent of the Oblast [state] of Moscow [the same relationship exists for St.

Petersburg and Leningrad Oblast]; whereas, other cities such as Vladimir and Nizhny Novgorod are the largest cities within regions of the same name. Therefore, any reported data or comparisons of regions within Russia treat Moscow and St. Petersburg as independent regions.

Hanson and Bradshaw (2000) provide a comprehensive review of literature, both Russian and foreign, addressing regional [oblast, krai, okrug, and republic] differences in economic growth across Russia. They conclude that regions least negatively affected by Russia's decline are "resource-based" and "export-oriented", or "hub" and "gateways" regions. Although the majority of their work is in the comparison of regional differences they acknowledge, but do not significantly address, that substantial variations within regions exist. In a comparison of real income [a proxy measure calculated by dividing average income by regional subsistence minimum] of the richest and poorest locations within Russia it was identified that inter-regional inequality accounts for 33% of overall inter-household inequality while 67% of the difference is intra-regional (Hanson and Bradshaw 2000). In the conclusion of this analysis of real income by region in Russia, they cite that "inequality within regions nonetheless greatly exceeded inequality between regions" (Hanson and Bradshaw 2000, p.73). The richest regions were identified as Moscow, Tyumen' [located in a resource rich area of Siberia and may be a candidate for Russia's Technocratic culture], and St. Petersburg with the poorest being numerous smaller regions.

Although Hanson and Bradshaw (2000) recognize that intra-regional differences in real income exceed that of inter-regional differences, their book focuses on the latter. It is quite conceivable, though outside the scope of this research, that transformation within

Russia is simultaneously taking place at the segment [traditional, industrial, and technocratic] level nested within regions. Common to both streams of research is the identification of three simultaneous transitions within Russia's borders: 1) political, 2) economic, and 3) social.

The segments assessed in this research are the three co-existing sub-cultures found in Russia today: Traditional Russian Culture, The Industrial Culture, and The Emerging Technocratic Culture (Mikheyev 1996, p. 206). Traditional Russian Culture is agricultural, while the Industrial Sub-Culture is represented by two-dozen or so Soviet-style cities that exist in Russia today. Finally, the Emerging Technocratic Russia is comprised of Moscow and St. Petersburg where the lifestyle is significantly different than that found in either of the other two sub-cultures.

The Traditional Russian Sub-Culture can be described as an agrarian state where peasants live close to the soil and depend upon the elements for their survival. The climate and geography promote characteristics such as cycles of *taedium vitae* [weariness of life], spasms of energy, strength, impatience, short-term outlook, and contempt for materialism (Mikheyev 1996). Traditional Russia has not experienced either the economic technical revolution that Moscow and St. Petersburg have in the last ten years or the industrial revolution that took place under communism in the large cities (Mikheyev 1996). The values of those living in these locations are expected to be different from the other locations.

The Industrial Culture, found in large cities, remains from the Soviet industrialization policies that began in the 1930's and continued until the demise of the Soviet Union. This led to large industrial complexes that emphasized cradle-to-grave care

for its workers and a commitment to the idea of "bigger is better". Traces of this remain in Russia today; e.g., factories owning hospitals, apartment complexes, and kindergartens to meet the needs of workers (Mikheyev 1996).

Even today, despite a decline in stature, there is evidence that large cities positively impact the economic development of their regions. The existence of a large city within a region contributes significantly to the real per capita personal income of that region (Hanson and Bradshaw 2000). Industrial production has greatly declined after the break-up of the Soviet Union. Three reasons help explain this decline: 1) domestic demand has decreased, 2) some products have sourced from overseas, and 3) competition [foreign] has replaced domestic industries (Hanson and Bradshaw 2000). Large cities whose economies depend on production have been most affected by this decline in industrial output.

In the last ten years, Moscow and St. Petersburg have distinguished themselves from other areas of Russia by attracting the majority of foreign investment, tourism, and business activity (U.S. Department of State 2000). The combined population of Moscow and St. Petersburg, 16.5 million, exceeds 11% of Russia's overall population (U.S. Department of State 1999). Moscow is home to 20% of Russia's large enterprises and 40% of these firms' capital (Hanson and Bradshaw 2000). Muscovites live better than their counterparts in the regions with an average income being 5.8 times that of the local subsistence minimum, while regions such as Tuva exist with average incomes being 0.69 of minimum subsistence (Hanson and Bradshaw 2000). Business activity continues to gravitate to Moscow as its total share of Russia's retailing activity has increased from 12 percent to 29 percent from 1990 to 1998 (Hanson and Bradshaw 2000).

In addition to economic differences, there appear to be social and consumption differences among those in Technocratic and the other Russias. Examples cited include the following. Muscovites and other Russians consume ice cream differently (Feifer May 1999), with Muscovites consuming ice cream at home while those in the provinces consume ice cream with friends in public. In addition, Muscovites are more aggressive, skeptical, and self-conscious when participating in focus groups than other Russians (Feifer May 1999).

Hirschman (1987) posited that negative aspects of the "tunnel effect" may be exasperated by foreign involvement. The tolerances for growth, if identified with foreign involvement, may only add to the irritation felt by those who are left behind. This may result in resentment towards foreign goods or towards individuals in society who can purchase foreign goods; especially if those foreign goods are considered status symbols. Those economically disenfranchised in Traditional and Industrial Russia may experience animosity not only towards residents of Technocratic Russia [due to the uneven economic development] but also towards the imported goods that residents of Technocratic Russia are privileged to purchase [either through wealth or opportunity]. This could potentially increase their levels of consumer ethnocentrism.

Resultant of the uneven economic and social transformation found among Russian consumer sub-cultures, it is expected that each group will possess differing levels of nostalgia, materialism/post materialism, and consumer ethnocentrism. It is necessary for academics and practitioners to recognize that changes in transitional economies do not benefit everyone equally. Moreover, if as suggested by Mikheyev (1996) three cultures do exist in Russia, as they may in other transitional economies, researchers and

practitioners need to study consumer behavior in each of the sub-cultures before understanding the country as a whole.

Antecedents: Materialism/Post-Materialism & Nostalgia

Materialism/Post Materialism: A Value Scale

The Materialism/Post Materialism Scale is an assessment of societal values rather than of pecuniary materialism and possession satisfaction. The continuum of materialist/post-materialist values works in conjunction with other values. The materialist/post-materialist values when combined with Rokeach's Value Scale are "clearly recognizable" and several of Rokeach's items load onto the post-materialist dimension (Barnes et al. 1979). Therefore, Inglehart's materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values], despite its name, should be thought of as a value scale and not a "traditional" marketing materialism scale.

Materialism and possession scales (Tashchian, Slama, and Tashchian 1984; Richins 1987; Belk 1984,1985; Moschis and Churchill 1978; Richins and Dawson 1992) assess the degree to which possessions play a role in one's life (Belk 1984, 1985), that products mean a happy life (Richins 1987), or that possessions and money equate to personal happiness (Moschis and Churchill 1978). While each of the aforementioned scales has value in its own right, they may be difficult to administer in Russia. Russians believe that by suffering and enduring inconvenience/discomfort [НЕУДОБСТВО], they have been lifted above the "petty materialism" of other nations (Layard and Parker 1996). While responding to a survey, Russians may alter their responses to fit "Russian character" as opposed to expressing their true beliefs, realizing that many of the questions

are about personal materialism. The use of a scale such as the Materialism/Post-Materialism Scale, which taps into societal values, allows responses to be societal rather than personal in nature.

Individual and Societal Values

The Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] Scale is less personal in nature than other values scales (Rokeach 1968, 1973; Kahle 1983; and Herche 1994). This is very important considering the low level of individualism² found in Russia. Although Russia was not included in the initial 1980 IBM/Hermes study performed by Hofstede, Bollinger (1994) applied Hofstede's dimensions to Russia and found that Russians are low-individual/high-collective with a score of 26 [Countries with high individualism scores, U.S. and Australia, rank in the 90s]. Scales that have respondents rank or rate values of personal importance (Rokeach 1968, 1973; Kahle 1983; and Herche 1994) may not be as effective in Russia as the Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] Scale that requests respondents to rank "aims of the country over the next ten years" (Inglehart 1977, p. 40). Being low individualist, thus placing more emphasis on integration of group values over personal values, Russians may not respond as openly to questions concerning personal values as they would to questions about societal values.

² Individualism/Collectivism- "the degree of integration of individuals within groups"
IRIC Homepage http://cwis.kub.nl/~fsw_2/iric/index2.htm

Values and Value Systems

"Value" derives from the Latin word *valere*, which means "to be worth" or "to be strong" (Kahle 1983). Rokeach (1973) offers one of the most widely used definitions of values and value systems:

A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence.

A value system is an enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance. (P. 5)

Values are enduring beliefs that reference conduct, and that reflect either personal or social preferences. Values need to be stable in order to allow a continuance of humanity. If values were completely unstable, personalities and societies would self-destruct (Rokeach 1973).

Maslow (1970) posited that values are hierarchical in nature and that the values at the lower end of the hierarchy need to be fulfilled before moving up the scale. Values are preferences that are compared to other values within the value system. Some values are preferable over others thus creating a value hierarchy. The hierarchy of values one holds represents what the individual views as desirable. What is not known is how or if these values apply equally to the individual and others (Rokeach 1973). The value system may be purely for self-direction or it could be used as an evaluative tool.

Values are the determinants of behavior (Rokeach 1973; Kahle et al. 1988). They provide standards that are influential in forming attitudes on social issues and favoring one ideology over another (Rokeach 1973). Individual values and values systems are influenced by events from one's culture and society. Rokeach (1973) assumed that culture, institutions, and society are antecedents of human values and that values are noticeable in all observable facts worthy of investigation. Based upon these assumptions,

select aspects contained in the antecedents of human values can be directly or indirectly observable in all human behavior.

Values systems themselves change over time and are influenced by variations in personal, societal, and cultural experiences. Values operate as indicators of needs; therefore, changes in values reflect a change in the respondent's needs (Rokeach 1973). Events influence individuals' value systems and the stability of value systems (Rokeach 1973). Changes in values may develop reactively to changes in the environment, or individuals may change their social environment to meet their values (Kahle 1983). It is the position of this research that differences in experiences over the past ten years in the three sub-cultures of Russia, some impacted more negatively than others, have produced different sets of needs thus creating disparate values within each sub-culture.

Values, Beliefs and Attitudes

Beliefs are instrumental in determining whether an action is desirable or undesirable. Values and beliefs are principal mechanisms in determining actions, initiating emotions, and instilling "proper behavior" (Rokeach 1973) and have been shown to lead to corresponding behaviors (Kahle 1983). Attitudes and values are "abstract generalizations about psychological adaptation to life" (p. 45), but values are more abstract to the point that they cannot be assigned to a specific reference or object (Kahle 1983, Homer and Kahle 1988).

Values are better determinants of human behavior than attitudes. Attitudes are more easily changed because they have a shorter life span than values (Rokeach 1973). Values differ from attitudes in that attitudes are a combination of beliefs about a specific situation, experience, or event (Rokeach 1968). Attitudes are formed as a result of

interaction with specific items and circumstances and may number in the thousands while an individual may only have a few values (Rokeach 1973).

Value Scales

The most predominant value scales used in marketing are those developed by Rokeach (1968, 1973), Kahle (1983), and Schwartz (1992). A relatively new value scale is the Multi-Item Measures of Values: MILOV (Herche 1994). The MILOV Scale, an extension of Kahle's (1983) LOV scale, was developed in cooperation with the Marketing Science Institute and has only been published in their working paper series and in the Handbook of Marketing Scales, 2nd Edition (Bearden and Netemeyer 1999).

Rokeach (1968) developed the Rokeach Value Survey, RVS, for assessing individuals' values. The survey consisted of two sets of values: terminal values and instrumental values, each consisting of 18 items (Please reference table one). Instrumental values concern desirable modes of conduct while terminal values concern end-states of existence (Rokeach 1973). It would be easy to assume that there is a theoretical relationship between individual instrumental and terminal values. Rokeach (1973) cautioned against assuming the existence of a one-to-one relationship between any one instrumental and terminal value. There may be multiple and network relationships between instrumental and terminal values.

Rokeach (1973), drawing upon the work of White (1959), Heider (1958) and Kohler (1938), indicated that instrumental values can be divided into moral and competence values. Moral values addresses modes of behavior more than end-states of existence and are interpersonal in nature. Competence values are rooted in a personal sense of morality (Rokeach 1973). Terminal values were divided into personal and social

values. Terminal values may be "self-centered or society-centered, intrapersonal or interpersonal in focus" (Rokeach 1973, p. 7).

Table 2-1 - The Rokeach Value Survey: RVS (Rokeach 1968, 1973)	
<i>Terminal Values</i>	<i>Instrumental Values</i>
A comfortable life (i.e., a prosperous life)	Ambitious (i.e., hard working, aspiring)
An exciting life (i.e., a stimulating, active life)	Broad-minded (i.e., open minded)
A sense of accomplishment (i.e., a lasting contribution)	Capable (i.e., competent, effective)
A world of peace (i.e., free of war and conflict)	Cheerful (i.e., lighthearted, joyful)
A world of beauty (i.e., beauty of nature and the arts)	Clean (i.e., neat, tidy)
Equality (i.e., brotherhood, equal opportunity for all)	Courageous (i.e., standing up for your beliefs)
Family security (i.e., taking care of loved ones)	Forgiving (i.e., willing to pardon others)
Freedom (i.e., independence free choice)	Helpful (i.e., working for the welfare of others)
Happiness (i.e., contentedness)	Honest (i.e., sincere, truthful)
Inner harmony (i.e., freedom from inner conflict)	Imaginative (i.e., daring, creative)
Mature love (i.e., sexual and spiritual intimacy)	Independent (i.e., self-reliant, self-sufficient)
National security (i.e., protection from attack)	Intellectual (i.e., intelligent, reflective)
Pleasure (i.e., an enjoyable, leisurely life)	Logical (i.e., consistent, rational)
Salvation (i.e., saved, eternal life)	Loving (i.e., affectionate, tender)
Self-respect (i.e., self-esteem)	Obedient (i.e., dutiful, respectful)
Social recognition (i.e., respect, admiration)	Polite (i.e., courteous, well-mannered)
True friendship (i.e., close companionship)	Responsible (i.e., dependable, reliable)
Wisdom (i.e., a mature understanding of life)	Self controlled (i.e., restrained, self disciplined)
<i>Source: Handbook of Marketing Scales Second Edition</i>	

Kahle (1983) built upon the work of Maslow (1970) and Rokeach (1973) to develop the List of Values (LOV) Scale. Kahle (1983) incorporated four items from Rokeach (1968, 1973) but was able to reduce the LOV Scale to a total of nine items versus 36 for Rokeach. Initially there were two dimensions identified within the nine items. The first dimension is the "external dimension" which encompasses items such as fun-enjoyment-excitement and sense of belonging. The second dimension is the "internal dimension" and includes items such as self-fulfillment and being well respected (Please reference table 2).

In a subsequent study concerning natural food shopping, a third dimension appeared (Homer and Kahle 1988). The first factor included many of the items from the "internal dimension" previously identified but appeared to represent individual as

opposed to internal values. The second factor contained the identical items previously determined to be part of the "external dimension." The third factor included the items "fun and enjoyment in life" and "relationships with others" representing an "interpersonal dimension" (Homer and Kahle 1988). It was determined that "situational factors may cause different dimensions to be important in different contexts" (Homer and Kahle 1988, p. 639). Researchers must be aware that values may not change rapidly, but the manner in which they align may reflect environmental pressures placed on the respondent.

Table 2-2 - List of Values: LOV (Kahle 1983)		
<i>Variable</i>	<i>Kahle 1983 Dimensions</i>	<i>Homer and Kahle 1988 Dimensions</i>
Self-fulfillment	Internal Values	Individual Values
Excitement	Internal Values	Individual Values
Sense of accomplishment	Internal Values	Individual Values
Self-respect	Internal Values	Individual Values
Sense of belonging	External Values	External Values
Being well-respected	External Values	External Values
Security	External Values	External Values
Fun and enjoyment	Internal Values	Interpersonal Values
Warm relationships	Internal Values	Interpersonal Values
<i>Sources: Kahle 1983; Homer and Kahle 1988</i>		

In a longitudinal study, it was found that values change very little over a ten-year period. However, during the time of the study, from 1976 to 1986, it was found that the "security" value decreased by four percent. The decrease was found to be greater for those in the 30-39 and 40-49 age groups with decreases of 8.6% and 6.6%, respectively. The decrease in "security" as a concern was attributed to the decrease in crime, inflation, and unemployment during this period. Values change to reflect changes in the environment. Although not stated, it is conceivable and indeed likely that an increase in social and economic problems would influence value rankings.

Herche (1994) created a multi-item version of the Kahle (1983) LOV Scale. The MILOV scale contains 44-items scored on a 9-point Likert scale. Herche (1984) extended

the LOV Scale to include items in order to overcome problems associated with ranking of values: possible ties between dimensions and the difficulty of measuring constructs [e.g., Security Dimension, Self Respect, etc.] using a single item (Herche 1984). This extension of the LOV Scale allows for the "assessment of reliability, unidimensionality, and certain aspects of construct validity" not available with the LOV Scale (Herche 1994 p.8).

Schwartz (1992) assessed universals in value content and structure by testing eleven value types, comprising 56 motivations, across 20 countries and eight religions. The respondents from the 20 countries consisted primarily of teachers and university students. Schwartz (1992) was able to confirm 10 types of values that were considered to be universal (Please reference table 3). The one value type hypothesized by Schwartz that did not appear as a universal value was spirituality. Spirituality may not be a guiding principle for all population groups and may manifest itself as different values for different groups.

Table 2-3 Schwartz's Value Types (1992)	
<i>Value Type</i>	<i>Motivational Goals (adopted from pages 5-13)</i>
Benevolence	Welfare of close others in everyday interactions
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protections for the welfare of all people and for nature.
Self-Direction	Independent thought and action
Stimulation	Organismic needs for variety and stimulation to maintain activation
Hedonism	Organismic needs and the pleasure derived from satisfying them
Achievement	Demonstrating competence according to social standards
Power	Attainment of social status and prestige
Security	Safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self
Tradition	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of customs and ideas
Conformity	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses

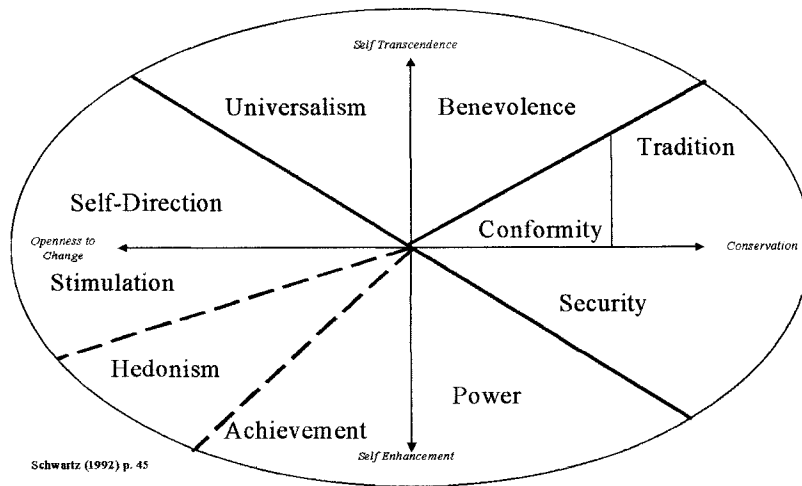
Schwartz (1992), prior to confirming the existence of the ten value types, hypothesized their interrelated structures. The first hypothesis concerned the relationship among value types according to the interest served by their realization. It was expected,

and subsequently realized, that those values identified as serving individual interests [power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction] and collective interest [benevolence, conformity, tradition] would emerge adjacent to each other, thus creating separate regions [Please reference Figure 3]. The mixed interests [universalism, security] serve as a border between the individual and collective interests.

The second hypothesis posited by Schwartz (1992) was that certain values are compatible and appear as adjacent regions in the schema. In a substantial [88%] number of the samples, the following pairs did appear adjacent as hypothesized: benevolence and universalism, self-direction and universalism, self-direction and stimulation, tradition and conformity, conformity and security, and power and achievement. The following pairs of values were considerably supported [70%]: hedonism and achievement, hedonism and stimulation, and security and power.

In addition to compatible values, Schwartz (1992) expected that certain groups of values would be in conflict with other groups. The first dimension is *openness to change versus conservation*. *Openness to change* consists of stimulation and self-direction while *conservation* consists of security, conformity, and tradition values. This continuum orders individuals with unpredictable intellectual and emotional interest on one end and adherence to status quo on the other end. The second continuum is labeled *self-enhancement versus self-transcendence*. *Self-enhancement* consists of power, achievement, and hedonism while *self-transcendence* consists of universalism and benevolence. This dimension arrays individuals with personal interests on one end and promotion of the welfare of others on the other extreme. Please reference Figure 2.

Figure 2-1 Universals in Value Content and Structure



Values found near the dividing lines express an amalgamation of motivational goals. Motivational behaviors could be construed as shared by more than one value. Decisions of convenience were made when establishing borders thus, a partitioned line indicates the division between stimulation/hedonism and hedonism/achievement. The position of motivational goals provides support for the premise that "motivational differences between values types can be seen as continuous rather than discrete" (p. 46).

The existence of the various structures hypothesized and consequently proven across multiple population groups supports the universality of the ascribed values. Schwartz (1992) acknowledges that the values themselves were formed based upon arbitrary division of motivational goals and that another partitioning with superior theoretical support and predictive powers may eventually supercede them.


Materialism/Post-Materialism Scale

The Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] Scale is similar to the work of Schwartz (1992) in that a continuum of motivational goals comprises compatible and conflicting

values. Inglehart initially developed a four-item Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] ranking scale in which respondents are positioned as materialist, post-materialist, or mixed. In an effort to have a more comprehensive scale Inglehart (1981) developed a 12-item scale that encompassed a greater number of goals. The expanded Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] Scale is loosely based upon Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Maslow initially identified the following hierarchy of needs: Physiological Needs, Safety Needs, Belongingness and Love Needs, Esteem Needs, and Need for Self Actualization (Maslow 1970). The physiological needs are the most important, and if none of an organism's physiological needs are satisfied, it will be dominated with thoughts of these needs and all other needs are non-existent (Maslow 1970) (Please reference table 4). More directly stated:

For the man who is extremely and dangerously hungry, no other interests exist but food. He dreams food, he remembers food, he thinks about food, he emotes only about food, he perceives only food, and he wants only food. (Maslow 1970 p. 37)

Table 2-4 - Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1970)	
Highest	Need for Self-Actualization
	Esteem Needs
	Belongingness and Love Needs
	Safety Needs
Lowest	Physiological Needs
Source: Maslow 1970	

Gratification of the physiological needs means that they no longer exist as determinants of behavior, and this allows for an individual to concentrate on more social needs (Maslow 1970). Building directly upon the work of Maslow, Inglehart (1981) stated that physiological needs [safety and sustenance], expressed as materialistic societal

values, must be satiated prior to progressing to social and self-actualization needs [belonging & esteem, intellectual, and aesthetic], expressed as post-materialistic societal values. Inglehart's 12-item scale emphasizes societal values as opposed to Belk's (1984, 1985) and Richins' (1987) scales that emphasize personal attachment and gratification experienced through physical possessions.

Inglehart's 12-item scale incorporated the original four-item scale and maintained the materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/ psychologically-oriented society values] construct but expanded this concept into five sub-categories. Although the Materialism/Post Materialism Scale addresses 12 values, it actually measures only two constructs: materialism and post-materialism (Inglehart 1981) [Please reference figure 3]. The use of a 12-item scale allows for greater distinction among levels of materialism and post-materialism. The four-item scale is still utilized for longitudinal studies, but the 12-item scale has been used for specific research projects.

Figure 2-2
Hierarchy of Needs

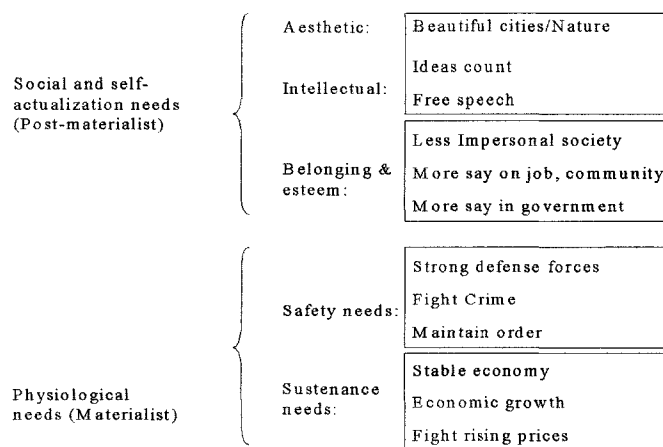


Figure 2-1 Inglehart 1977 p. 42

Inglehart (1981) hypothesized that materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] values are conceptually rooted in Scarcity Hypothesis and Socialization Hypothesis. The scarcity hypothesis posits that the socioeconomic environment influences individuals' priorities with an emphasis placed on those items that are in short supply. The socialization hypothesis states that one's basic values are formed in their pre-adult years. Experiences during the formative years appear to shape values (Inglehart 1981) even as the respondent grows older and more prosperous. The scarcity hypothesis states that prosperity and post-materialism are related, but this relationship is moderated by the socialization hypothesis.

The materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] construct addresses priorities of values. Those emphasizing post-materialist values also appreciate materialistic values; however, they are no longer a priority when these materialistic values are satisfied. Materialists place importance on post-materialistic values but do not prioritize them because they are preoccupied with fulfilling materialistic values first (Inglehart 1997). A "peaceful, smoothly running, stable, good society ordinarily makes its members feel safe" (Maslow 1970 p. 41). The materialists do not live in a stable society; therefore, they value materialistic goals. Post-materialists have the luxury of not having to worry about materialistic concerns and can concentrate on post-materialistic goals. This is not to say that post-materialists are not found in countries that host an overwhelming number of materialists. Wealth, which has been linked to post-materialist values, has the capability to shield one from materialistic needs (Inglehart 1997).

In 18 of 20 countries examined, there are indications that economic growth is complemented by a shift from materialism to post-materialism (Inglehart 1977). The shift from materialism to post-materialism in Western nations can be attributed to two factors: prosperity experienced since WWII and the lack of total war in any of these nations (Inglehart 1977). The trend from materialism towards post-materialism is not a guaranteed movement: period-effects affect values. Inglehart (1981) found that values change among cohorts as their economic situation changes, therefore supporting the position that, although rare, "adult's value priorities are [not] totally immutable" however "they are relatively difficult to change" (Inglehart 1981, p. 882). During times of economic and social insecurity, values can shift among population cohorts from post-materialistic to materialistic even though the overall living conditions are better than they were for previous generations.

During the 1970's, Italy showed a reverse trend with a decrease in post-materialism and an increase in materialistic values. This same trend was detected in 15-24 year olds across six European nations despite older cohorts being more post-materialistic (Inglehart 1981). Post-materialistic values are reflective of one's sense of security (Inglehart 1981). The 70's were a time of economic instability with higher levels of inflation and petroleum shortages. This decrease in post-materialism and increase in materialism felt by those in their pre-adult years is reflective of the decrease in security experienced during their socialization period. Values reflect changes in the environment and are adaptable and malleable to the changing environment (Rokeach 1968, 1973; Kahle 1983; Kahle et al. 1988; Inglehart 1981).

Materialism/Post Materialism and Consumer Ethnocentrism

In general, individuals prefer a safe, orderly and organized environment as opposed to that of chaos, unpredictability, and constant threat of danger. Those who feel that their safety needs are not being met include the economically or socially disadvantaged, and those subjected to revolution and social chaos (Maslow 1970). The economically disadvantaged are exposed to physical and economic insecurity therefore have a tendency to favor more materialistic values while the wealthy can shield themselves from such insecurities and favor post-materialistic values (Inglehart 1997).

Although it is impossible to turn back time and determine Russia's ranking on the Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] Scale during Soviet times, subjective well-being can be used as a proxy. Although not a one-to-one relationship, there appears to be a strong correlation between post-materialism and perceived well-being. The feeling of well-being is not exclusively related to existing income and security levels but is formed based upon customary levels of income and security. Countries of the former USSR rank lower in subjective well-being in comparison to India despite the incomes being several times higher (Inglehart 2000). The perception of well-being in Russia has substantially decreased in the last decade as income and security have substantially decreased (Inglehart and Klingemann 1995). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that there were a greater number of post-materialists in Russia in the past and that the number of materialists has increased during Russia's economic decline.

Politically, "insecurity is conducive to xenophobia, a need for strong decisive leaders and deference to authority" (Inglehart 2000, p.218). This same sense of insecurity appears to affect materialists' views on economic issues. In non-socialist countries there

is greater support for government involvement and direction of industry by post-materialists, while in 12 countries of the former USSR, Eastern Europe, and The Peoples' Republic of China materialists are more supportive of state-run business and industry than post-materialists (Inglehart 1997). It is reasonable to posit that if materialists in former socialist countries desire more government control over the economy, they would want more control over imported goods. This research hypothesizes that transitional economies, especially those with high levels of materialistic values such as Russia, will exhibit higher consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Based upon this reasoning the following hypothesis is postulated:

H1: THE MORE MATERIALISTIC AN INDIVIDUAL, THE HIGHER HIS/HER LEVELS OF CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM.

Materialism/Post Materialism across Sub-Cultures

Research into regional differences has been performed in the past, but this is the first known study that addresses value differences in the three Russian sub-cultures posited by Mikheyev (1996). Testing for differences in values across regions in a country is not without precedent. Kahle (1986) tested differences in values [LOV] across regions in North America. In that study Kahle divided North America according to Garreau's (1981) nine regions posited in "*The Nine Nations of North America*" and according to the U.S. Bureau of Census' identified nine regions. Kahle (1986) found significant differences among regions as defined by the Bureau of Census but failed to find significant differences among the regions according to Garreau's definition. In a follow-up to this research, it was found that four different regions in the United States [East, West, South, and Mid-West] contained significant differences in their ranking of the LOV Scale (Kahle, Liu, and Watkins 1992). This research expects to find differences in

materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] among the Mikheyev's (1996) three sub-cultures.

There are substantial differences in the number of materialists and post-materialists found in Russia and Moscow according to the 1990-93 World Values Survey (Inglehart et al. 1998). Inglehart et al. (1998), utilizing the four-item scale, found 39% materialists and 6% post-materialists in Russia and 27% materialists and 13% post-materialists in Moscow, the remainder being mixed. Moscow and the rest of Russia behave as two separate countries for this value. Moscow locates near the middle when comparing its materialism and post-materialism levels with the other 42 countries surveyed, while Russia ranks near the extremes with a highest percentage of materialists and a lowest percentage of post-materialists. The other countries split into two sample groups, West Germany/East Germany and Ireland/Northern Ireland, did not exhibit as great of a difference between locations for materialist values [less than 3%] and post-materialist values [5%].

While both Moscow and the rest of Russia are overwhelmingly materialistic, there appears to be an appreciable difference in the number of materialists; twelve percentage points between them. As indicated earlier, materialists in the former socialist countries favor more government involvement in the economy. Therefore, it is expected that those outside of the Technocratic Culture [Moscow and St. Petersburg] will exhibit higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism with Traditional Russia exhibiting the highest levels of materialistic values. This suggests the hypotheses:

H2: MATERIALISTIC VALUES ARE SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT ACROSS RUSSIA'S THREE CO-EXISTING CULTURES.

H2A: MATERIALISTIC VALUES ARE EXPECTED TO BE HIGHEST IN AGRICULTURAL RUSSIA, FOLLOWED BY INDUSTRIAL RUSSIA, THEN TECHNOCRATIC RUSSIA.

Nostalgia

Nostalgia is derived from two Greek words: "nostos" meaning a return to one's homeland and "algos" meaning pain or suffering (Daniels 1985). First mentioned in medical literature by James Hofer in 1688 (Holak and Havlena 1992; Baker and Kennedy 1994), nostalgia is thought of as a powerful marketing construct that directly influences consumer behavior (Holbrook and Schindler 1991). Holbrook and Schindler (1991) expanded the meaning of nostalgia to include the liking of objects no longer regularly experienced. Holak and Havlena (1992) built upon this to include people, intangibles, holidays, and personal events. However, the explanation put forth by Hirsch (1992) that "nostalgia, unlike a screen memory, does not relate to a specific memory, but rather to an emotional state" (p. 390) provides the broadest understanding of the power it has in motivating behavior. Emotions are very powerful in influencing individual judgments and actions.

"Nostalgia is the ability to remember yesterday's prices while forgetting yesterday's wages" (source unknown, Baker and Kennedy 1994, p.170). As the Russian populace remembers the benefits of the Soviet system while forgetting the oppressiveness associated with it, nostalgia is on the rise (Bashkirova 2000; Inglehart and Klingemann 2000). There continues to be romanticism towards Soviet times, even to the period when Stalin was in charge (The Economist 28-Nov-98).

Nostalgia and Consumer Ethnocentrism

Davis (1979) stated that nostalgia is intertwined with nationalism and patriotism and serves as a safety valve for disappointment felt due to loss. Russia as a country and

Russians as a people have lost economic power, national identity, influence, and international standing in the last decade. Patriotism appears to be a strong national trait among Russians as newlyweds have pictures taken in front of national monuments, veterans wear their war medals everyday, and one of the largest holidays is "Day of Victory" which commemorates the end of WWII [Great Patriotic War].

Dissatisfaction with the present and fear of the future are prerequisites for nostalgia (Davis 1979). The Russian population appears to be increasingly more dissatisfied with life. During the tumultuous last days of the USSR in the early 1990s, 33% of the Russians surveyed were disappointed with their "subjective well-being" while in 1995 this percent increased to a majority of the population, 51% (Inglehart 1997). Due to the relative dissatisfaction Russians feel with life in comparison to the past, it is believed that they will score high on the nostalgia scale.

Steenkamp et al. (1999) assessed both consumer ethnocentrism and nostalgia as antecedents to consumer innovativeness in a pan-European study. Their research determined that a high level of consumer ethnocentrism and a favorable attitude towards the past were negatively associated with consumer innovativeness. Transitional economies, especially one such as Russia that has experienced economic as well as social decline (CIA Homepage 2000; Agence France Presse/Russia Today 1-Nov-00; Ciment 1999; The World Bank 2000; Harrison and Huntington 2000; Inglehart and Klingemann 2000), will place nostalgia as an antecedent to consumer ethnocentrism. It is expected that the higher the levels of nostalgia, the higher the levels of consumer ethnocentrism. Therefore the following hypothesis is offered:

H3: HIGHER LEVELS OF NOSTALGIA WILL RESULT IN INCREASED LEVELS OF CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM.

Nostalgia can be decomposed into three orders (Davis 1979): 1) simple nostalgia is the basic belief that life was better before; 2) reflexive nostalgia that does not so much romanticize the past as much as it critically analyzes it; 3) and interpreted nostalgia which is when the individual realizes the nostalgic experience and examines it. Baker and Kennedy (1994) described three levels of nostalgia: 1) real nostalgia being representative of a period which includes a personal experience; 2) simulated nostalgia being representative of a period in which there is no direct but only an indirect personal experience and; 3) collective nostalgia being representative of a "culture, nation or generation." Baker and Kennedy (1994) posited that drastic life-role changes, perceived quality of life issues, and satisfaction levels with current economic conditions affect individuals' levels of nostalgia. Nostalgia affects consumer behavior especially during hard economic times (Baker and Kennedy 1994).

The drastic changes in Russia in the last decade have resulted in the development of three parallel cultures divided by economic, as well as social development (Mikheyev 1996). Those areas benefiting the least by the economic changes in Russia, the traditional and industrial societies, are most susceptible to "collective" "simple" nostalgia. In comparison to Technocratic Russia, they have experienced the greatest collective decline in well-being and living standard (Mikheyev 1996). Therefore, the following propositions are offered:

H4: NOSTALGIA IS SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT ACROSS RUSSIA'S THREE CO-EXISTING CULTURES.

H4A: NOSTALGIA LEVELS ARE EXPECTED TO BE HIGHEST IN AGRICULTURAL RUSSIA, FOLLOWED BY INDUSTRIAL RUSSIA, THEN TECHNOCRATIC RUSSIA.

Process Variable: Consumer Ethnocentrism

Initially, a brief history of ethnocentrism and various ethnocentrism scales is offered. This is followed by a review of consumer ethnocentrism including its development, cross-national applications, evaluation of antecedents, and previous research concerning consumer ethnocentrism in Russia. Where appropriate throughout this section, the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and product purchase intention, the outcome variable in this dissertation, is emphasized.

Ethnocentrism

William Sumner (1906) has been attributed with coining the term “ethnocentrism.” He related ethnocentrism to the interaction between members of the in-group, who are mutually similar, and members of the out-group, those dissimilar to the in-group (Levine and Campbell 1972; Cooper 1976). Adorno et al. (1969) interpreted Sumner’s work on ethnocentrism to reflect “provincialism or cultural narrowness” (p. 102), and individuals who are ethnocentric as rigid in the acceptance of culturally “alike” and rejection of culturally “unlike” objects, ideas, or people. Those in the in-group not only believe their ways and manners are superior to the out-group, but they actually view the ways and manners of the out-group as inferior. Members of the in-group have a tendency to intensify and exaggerate those ways and manners that differentiate themselves from out-groups, thus strengthening those unique behaviors (Levine and Campbell 1972, interpretation of Sumner 1906). This group centeredness can manifest itself into a sense of group narcissism (Levine and Campbell 1972), thus capable of developing into an endless circle of reinforcement of unique ways and manners that set the in-group apart from out-groups.

Ethnocentrism is not limited to cerebral interpretation but also includes a wide range of emotions and sensations that become attached to objects and symbols representative of the in-group (Levine and Campbell 1972). Societies and groups are conditioned to take pride in, love, and be emotionally involved with symbols that represent their in-group, be it a flag, religious symbols, music, or products. Conversely, members of the in-group may be conditioned to detest symbols of out-groups (Levine and Campbell 1972). Consumer ethnocentrism is an extension of this dislike for commercial products developed and manufactured by an out-group.

Measures of Ethnocentrism

There have been numerous measures to capture levels of ethnocentrism through the use of scales. Adorno et al. (1950) developed a series of scales related to ethnocentrism including: Anti-Semitism [A-S Scale], Ethnocentrism Scale [E-Scale], Anti-Democratic Scale [F-Scale], and Political-Economic Conservatism [PEC]. The Anti-Semitism Scales were designed to assess negative opinions, hostile attitudes, and moral values considered anti-Jewish. It contained a series of sub-scales including: "offensive," "threatening," "attitudes," "seclusive vs. intrusive," and "neutral" making-up two different Anti-Semitism Scales. The Ethnocentrism Scale [E-Scale] was designed to assess overall prejudice with three subscales being used to insure a broad coverage of ethnocentric tendencies. The three subscales were: "Negro," "Minority," and "Patriotism." Each of the sub-scales, as well as the E-Scale, was highly correlated with the A-S Scale.

The Political-Economic Conservatism Scale, designed to assess to which ideological trends the respondents ascribe, while not containing any sub-scales, did contain items designed to tap into the following: "Support for the American Status Quo",

"Resistance to Social Change", and "Support of Conservative Values." Several different versions of the PEC-Scale were developed, which contained from 5 to 16 items. Therefore, it is possible to evaluate a construct using different size scales that include the same or similar questions. The next scale Adorno et al. (1950) developed was the Fascism Scale [F-Scale], which assesses anti-democratic tendencies. This scale was composed of the following subcomponents: "conceptualism," "authoritarian," "submission," "authoritarian aggression," "anti-intraception," "superstition and stereotype," "power and toughness," "destructiveness and cynicism," "protectively," and "sex." Initially there were 77 items generated for the F-Scale, but the number was reduced to approximately 40-50 items based upon the form of the scale being used. The E and F-Scales were highly correlated; however, this does not indicate that they actually measure the same thing. The high correlation among these scales indicates that individuals who rate high on the F-Scale will very likely also rate high on the E-Scale. This indicates that there may be a shared belief or attitude that manifests itself when measured by these two scales. In fact, two-thirds of those who scored high on one scale also scored high on the other (Adorno et al. 1950, p. 264).

Warr et al. (1967), in an attempt to develop up-to-date and non-Americanized ethnocentrism scales, developed a "British Ethnocentrism Scale." This indicates that elements included in an ethnocentrism scale may have to be adapted to the local population. The authors believed it necessary to develop a scale suited for the British people. Warr et al. (1967) developed a scale appropriate for Britain that may or may not be effective in other locations. Chang and Ritter (1976) developed a Black Ethnocentrism Scale and applied it in the United States. The indication here was that scales might have

to be adapted to various population segments within a single country. Contained within the Black Ethnocentrism Scale were two subscales: Pro-Black Scale and Anti-White Scale. There was a significant correlation between these two sub-scales. From this it followed logically that within a single scale there may exist multiple dimensions that tap into the same construct. Thus scales that assess different aspects of ethnocentrism, as indicated by those mentioned, are complex and multidimensional.

Consumer Ethnocentrism

Shimp and Sharma (1987) developed the CETSCALE, Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale, to assess the degree to which individuals extend their ethnocentrism towards the purchase of imported products. Shimp and Sharma (1987) explained that the term "tendency" is used instead of "attitude" in order to capture individuals' disposition to act when evaluating products. Attitude would provide an assessment of their feelings and not their affectation. Consumer ethnocentrism at the individual level is predominately determined by socialization experiences (Shimp 1984), and domestically-made products provide the framework for which imported products are evaluated (Shimp and Sharma 1987). The ethnocentric consumer has been conditioned to evaluate products based upon country-of-origin, while the non-ethnocentric consumer has been conditioned to evaluate products based upon their merits, e.g. price and quality (Shimp and Sharma 1987).

In the initial research, consumer ethnocentrism was expected to be one of seven constructs that measured consumer orientation towards foreign products. These seven constructs were developed based upon an examination and evaluation of responses to open-ended questions which asked American consumers if it was appropriate to purchase foreign made goods. However, six of the constructs: 1) price-value perceptions, 2) self-

interests concerns, 3) reciprocity norms, 4) rationalization-of-choice, 5) restrictions-mentality, and 6) freedom-of-choice views, did not meet psychometric requirements and were eliminated (Shimp and Sharma 1987).

In developing and testing the seven constructs, Shimp and Sharma (1987) used a four-stage purification process. In the initial stage a judgment panel assigned 180 items to one of seven conceptual dimensions. In order to retain an item five of the six judges needed to choose the same category. One hundred twenty-five items met this guideline, while 25 were eliminated for redundancy. The purpose of the second and third stages was item purification. In the first round of item purification the 100 items remaining from the panel screening plus 17 items from Adorno et al.'s patriotism and politico-economic conservatism scales [subscales of the classic fascism scale] were administered to 850 households. Fifty-four of the 117 Likert-type statements met the .5 decision rule and were retained for the second purification study. The 54-item scale was sent to approximately 4,000 households in Detroit, Denver, Los Angeles, and the two Carolinas. The 54 items were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis testing the dimensionality of the 5-factor structure. It was at this stage that the CETSCALE was recognized as the only viable construct among the seven constructs initially proposed. In the final stage, it was decided to concentrate on the 25 items remaining in the consumer ethnocentrism dimension from the first round of item purification. Results, regional and combined, indicated that 17 items consistently satisfied the 0.5 reliability criterion.

In order to assess reliability and construct validity, four different studies were performed. Those studies are the "four-areas study," the "Carolinas study," the "National consumer goods study," and the "Crafted-with-pride study." All four studies tested

internal consistency reliability resulting in coefficient alphas ranging from .94-.96. Test-retest reliability utilized the "Crafted-With-Pride" study resulting in a correlation of .77 between the two times in which the CETSCALE was administered. Based upon the results of these tests it was determined that the CETSCALE was reliable.

Discriminant validity was tested using the "Four-areas study," the "Carolinas study," and the "Crafted-with-pride study". In addition to the 17-item CETSCALE, these studies included three additional constructs: patriotism, politico-economic conservatism, and dogmatism. The 17-item CETSCALE was highly correlated with the additional constructs assessed. Shimp and Sharma (1987) attributed this high correlation among constructs to the common method in which data were collected [7-point Likert-type scale] and true covariation among like constructs. The "Four-areas study," the "Carolinas study" and the "National consumer goods study" were used to assess nomological validity [how well a construct works with other established constructs that are related but different (Hair et al. 2000)]. In addition to administering the 17-item CETSCALE, the "Four-Areas Study" and the "Carolinas Study," surveyed respondents' feelings towards buying imported goods, intent to purchase imported automobiles and attitudes towards owning imported automobiles. The administration of the 17-item CETSCALE, along with the collection of attitudes towards buying and owning foreign-made goods, confirmed the nomological validity of the CETSCALE. The "National consumer goods study" also provided support for nomological validity of the CETSCALE. It was determined that product origin becomes more important to consumers with increases in their level of consumer ethnocentrism. This provides further support for the nomological validity of the CETSCALE.

The four studies conducted by Shimp and Sharma (1987) are reviewed along with related research performed by others. The "Four-Areas Study" provided the foundation for the final 17-item CETSCALE. Consumer ethnocentrism was evaluated across Detroit, 322 respondents; Denver, 323 respondents; Los Angeles, 315 respondents; and the Carolinas, 575 respondents. Attitudes towards buying and owning foreign-made goods were found highly negatively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism. Higher consumer ethnocentrism was accompanied by a greater likelihood that respondents would own or intend to purchase a domestically-made automobile. Although the correlation between "attitude toward purchase of a foreign-made product" and consumer ethnocentrism was relatively consistent across the four regions, ownership or intent to purchase a domestically-made vehicle was substantially higher in Detroit than the other locations (Shimp and Sharma 1987). This is not surprising considering that Detroit is the hub of American automobile manufacturing. Therefore, in any regional study overall consumer ethnocentrism and product-specific ethnocentrism will most likely exist. These differences may originate from threats perceived due to the import of foreign produced goods at the regional level. The "Carolinas Study" *retrodicted* consumer ethnocentrism with general measures of purchase intentions (Washaw 1980) and cognitive structures and attitudes towards foreign-made automobiles (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975, 1980). Consumer ethnocentrism was weakly-correlated with "intent to purchase a foreign made car in the next 12 months" and "perceived affordability of foreign car". Consumer ethnocentrism was highly-correlated with "intent to purchase an imported vehicle in the next 12 months given a purchase is planned" and "desirability of foreign car". Consumer ethnocentrism was strongly correlated with the respondent's measures of automobile

characteristics [cognitive structure] and attitude towards foreign automobile purchase. Based upon this analysis it was determined that the CETSCALE is a valid instrument for predicting consumer purchase behavior with respect to imported versus domestic goods. Unfortunately, this research was limited to the Carolina's, and involved only one product type - automobiles.

The "Crafted with Pride Study" assessed the impact of advertising that supported the purchase of American goods on respondents' levels of consumer ethnocentrism. The CETSCALE was administered twice: initially and then five weeks later along with "Crafted-With-Pride" commercials for American-made apparel. The negative correlation between consumer ethnocentrism, attitudes towards foreign goods and general feelings towards foreign-made products was found to increase after viewing the commercials. Correlations between attitudes toward buying and intent to purchase American-made products and consumer ethnocentrism were strong and positive after viewing pro-American crafted-with-pride commercials. This indicated that consumer ethnocentrism is potentially influenced by exposure to patriotic messages.

In a similar study of patriotic effects on consumer ethnocentrism in the United States, Nielsen and Spence (1997) assessed consumer ethnocentrism before and after patriotic holidays expecting that consumer ethnocentrism would increase during this period. The main effects of age, income, and military enlistment [previous, present, or family member] of the respondent were expected to influence the respondent's level of consumer ethnocentrism.

In the first survey, taken before the patriotic holidays, it was determined that older and military respondent groups were significantly ($p=.002$ and $p=.015$ respectively) more

ethnocentric than other groups while level of consumer ethnocentrism for women was marginally significant ($p=.082$). Surprisingly, the military group showed a significant decrease in consumer ethnocentrism while the non-military group showed a moderate increase in consumer ethnocentrism during the patriotic period. Nielsen and Spence (1997) concluded that consumer ethnocentrism in the general population may appear stable, but fluctuations among specific demographic groups may be significant. This research contributed to the understanding of consumer ethnocentrism across a variety of demographic groupings; however, the results must be interpreted with caution due to the fact that the sample was drawn only from the state of South Carolina.

The "National Consumer Goods Study" assesses the viability of a reduced CETSCALE, 10-items, and considers the impact of product country/region-of-origin: the country being the United States and the regions Asia and Europe. The United States, as the country of origin, was more positively correlated with higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism, while Asia was more negatively correlated than Europe (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Although supporting the nomological validity of the CETSCALE, a potential weakness to the "National Consumer Goods Study" is the comparison of country-of-origin, the United States, to regions-of-origin Asia and Europe. It is more appropriate to compare region-to-region, North America to Asia and Europe, or country to country, e.g., the United States to Japan and Germany.

Shimp and Sharma (1987) assessed whether certain demographic variables might influence CETSCALE scores. They determined that socio-economic status affected consumer ethnocentrism with significant differences found between upper-middle, lower-middle, and upper-lower classes. Results indicated that the lower the socio-economic

level of the respondent, the more likely they would have higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism. Demographics can, in fact, influence consumer ethnocentrism levels if imports are perceived as a potential threat to respondents' well-being.

In a study similar to "Carolinas Study" and the "Four Areas Study" Herche (1992) assessed whether the CETSCALE is more fruitful than demographic variables in predicting consumer purchase behavior. He assessed purchase behavior across two product categories: automobiles and computers. Demographic variables included age, geographic region, union membership, gender, income, and education. The CETSCALE was the only variable that was significantly correlated with product purchase origin across both product categories. Therefore, the CETSCALE was found to be a better overall predictor of consumer behavior than demographic variables. However, the CETSCALE and geographic location were both significant factors for predicting purchase behavior of automobiles.

Cross-National Assessment of the CETSCALE

Netemeyer et al. (1991) assessed properties of the CETSCALE across four economically-advanced countries: the United States, France, West Germany, and Japan. Respondents were surveyed on their level of consumer ethnocentrism: the importance of buying domestically produced goods, attitudes toward buying imported goods, the belief about quality of foreign products, and ranking of products from the other three countries.

It was determined that the CETSCALE was positively and significantly correlated with the importance of buying domestic goods across all four countries. The correlation between the CETSCALE and attitudes toward purchasing imported goods in general was significant across three of the countries, with West Germany being the exception.

However, the correlation between the CETSCALE and attitude towards buying imported automobiles was significant only in the United States and Japan. This indicates that consumer ethnocentrism can be product-based in other countries besides the United States.

The correlation between the CETSCALE and the purchase of foreign products from each of the other three countries was significant, with limited exceptions. The CETSCALE was negatively correlated with general beliefs about the quality level of products from the other three countries. Overall, in seven of eight correlations, the CETSCALE was significant in determining respondents' preference rankings for two different products: cars and TVs. This suggests that consumer ethnocentrism can be a practical predictor of consumer choice at the product level.

The most significant contribution of Netemeyer et al.'s (1991) research was the cross-national applicability that was found for the CETSCALE. This paved the way for future studies assessing the international applicability of the CETSCALE (Sharma et al. 1995; Clarke et al. 2000; Hult et al. 1999; Klein and Ettenson 1999; Watson and Wright 1999; Durvasula et al. 1997; Good and Huddleston 1995; and Huddleston et al. 2000).

Antecedents, Moderators and Outcomes of Consumer Ethnocentrism

Sharma, Shimp and Shin (1995) tested various antecedents [openness to foreign cultures, patriotism, conservatism, and collectivism/individualism] of consumer ethnocentrism and moderators [perceived product necessity and economic threat - personal and domestic economy] of attitudes towards imported foreign goods in a study of Korean consumers. The authors hypothesized that views toward imported goods, those

perceived as being both necessary and non-necessary, were affected by the strength of consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

The theorized antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism included the following social-psychological factors: cultural openness, patriotism, conservatism, and collectivism/individualism. The demographic variables utilized, age, gender, education, and income, were expected to co-vary with consumer ethnocentrism levels. Attitude towards the purchase of imported goods was expected to be moderated by perceived product necessity and personally- and domestically-perceived economic threat.

The results tabulated from 667 respondents indicated that Korean consumers held higher CETSCALE scores than their American counterparts (Sharma, Shimp, and Shin 1995). Regarding social-psychological factors, consumer ethnocentrism was positively related to patriotism, conservatism, and collectivism, but negatively related to openness to foreign cultures. Concerning demographic characteristics, females were more ethnocentric than males and age did not affect consumer ethnocentrism. Those with higher levels of education and income were less consumer ethnocentric.

Moderating factors towards imported goods consisted of perceived product necessity, personal economic threat, and domestic economic threat. Perceived product necessity was determined by having respondents rate the necessity of ten different products. Products perceived as being unnecessary were subject to greater levels of consumer ethnocentrism, while the opposite was true for necessary products. It was also determined that imported products were perceived as more threatening, either personally or to the domestic economy, with increased consumer ethnocentric levels accordingly.

The sample group for this study consisted of respondents from two locations: Seoul metropolitan area and an unnamed South Korean city. Seoul is the largest and most economically advanced city in South Korea. The authors did not indicate whether any differences were found in the antecedents or moderating factors between the two locations. This would have provided an additional dimension to the study.

Klien and Ettenson (1999), in a subsequent study of the differences between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity, surveyed 2,255 registered American voters [selected using a random probability sampling technique] about their feelings towards Japan. Five broad categories of predictors of consumer ethnocentrism and animosity were evaluated: socioeconomic status, beliefs concerning personal and national economic well-being, prejudice towards Asians, patriotism, and personal demographics (Klien and Ettenson 1999). Education, income, occupation, union membership, belief that one is better off than in the past, and that the American economy is better off than in the past were found to be antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism but not consumer animosity. Those with higher education levels and income, and beliefs that their own well being and that of the country was better off were less consumer ethnocentric. Those who were members of the "working class" and union members were more ethnocentric.

A higher level of prejudice towards Asians and age were indicators of animosity towards Japan, but not of higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism. Patriotism was positively related to both consumer animosity and ethnocentrism while men held more animosity and women were more consumer ethnocentric (Klein and Ettenson 1999).

Klein and Ettenson's (1999) research adds to the consumer ethnocentrism antecedents identified by Sharma, et al. (1995). In addition to openness to foreign

cultures, patriotism, conservatism, and collectivism, identified by Sharma, Shimp and Shin (1995), occupation, union membership, attitudes towards the financial situation of the country and the respondent's own financial well-being were found to be potential antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism.

Clarke et al. (2000) in their study of consumer ethnocentrism across Australia, France, Mexico and the United States theorized country differences, materialism, and values as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism. Differences in economic development and cultural dimension were cited, but not measured, as sources for differences in levels of consumer ethnocentrism between countries. It was hypothesized that Mexico would be the most consumer ethnocentric due to its economic level and collectivist nature. The French ranked second, Australians third, and the Americans fourth based upon the same criteria. Significant differences were discovered among the countries with regard to consumer ethnocentrism. Mexico had the highest level of consumer ethnocentrism followed by France, Australia, and the United States. France ranking higher than Australia, which was an unexpected result, was attributed to Australia's isolation as opposed to France's position at the crossroads of Europe.

Materialism, the basic emphasis on material goods in one's life (Belk 1984, Richins and Dawson 1992), was posited by Clarke et al. (2000) to have a positive correlation with consumer ethnocentrism. Richins' Materialism 6-item Measure (Richins and Dawson 1992) was used to assess personal materialism. A positive correlation was found between materialism and consumer ethnocentrism across the four countries.

RICHINS' MATERIALISM MEASURE

(Richins 1987)

- 1) It is important to me to have really nice things.
- 2) I would like to be rich enough to buy anything I want.

- 3) I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.
- 4) It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I want.
- 5) People place too much emphasis on material things.
- 6) It's really true that money can buy happiness.

Clarke et al. (2000) hypothesized that both dimensions, Internal and External, of Kahle's (1983) nine-item List of Values are significant antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism. It was found that the Internal Dimension was not a significant antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism while the External Dimension was considered a significant antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism. The direction and strength of the relationship between the dimensions and consumer ethnocentrism varied across the four countries. What is undetermined from this research is whether the variance in the relationship between the LOV dimensions and consumer ethnocentrism across the four countries was due to cultural or environmental differences found in each of those countries.

The List of Values: LOV
(Kahle 1983)

The following is a list of things that some people look for or want out of life. Please study the list carefully and then rate each thing on how important it is in your daily life, where 1 = very unimportant, and 9 = very important.

	Very Unimportant					Very Important			
Sense of belonging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Warm relationships with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Self-fulfillment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Being well respected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Fun and enjoyment of life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Self-respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

In order to improve this study, Clarke et al. (2000) may want to consider the use of Hierarchical Linear Modeling [HLM]. HLM allows the assessment of covariates, individual level main effects, national level main effects and interaction effects.

Covariates include age, gender, education, and individual income with individual level main effects [level one in HLM] including materialism and values. These individual main effects are nested within national main effects, [level two in HLM] collectivism/individualism scores and purchasing power parity [PPP], by country. PPP permits a purer comparison of economic level than a simple conversion of all currencies into one common currency. Through the use of HLM, the relative effect size of the main effects, national and individual, cross-level interactions, and covariates can be determined.

In this research, HLM is utilized to determine the relative effect size of regional main effects, individual effects, cross-level interactions, and covariates. This is the first known study in which HLM is employed to assess consumer ethnocentrism. Due to the relative newness of this approach in marketing research and lack of literature indicating possible relative effect sizes for consumer ethnocentrism, the following hypotheses are based upon the results of previous research conducted by Steenkamp et al. (1999) for consumer innovativeness:

H5: INDIVIDUAL MAIN EFFECTS ARE EXPECTED TO SIGNIFICANTLY CONTRIBUTE TO CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM LEVELS.

H6: REGIONAL MAIN EFFECTS ARE EXPECTED TO SIGNIFICANTLY CONTRIBUTE TO CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM LEVELS.

H7: CROSS-LEVEL INTERACTIONS [MATERIALISM AND REGIONAL ECONOMIC LEVEL] ARE EXPECTED TO SIGNIFICANTLY CONTRIBUTE TO CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM LEVELS.

H8: COVARIATES ARE EXPECTED TO INSIGNIFICANTLY CONTRIBUTE TO CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM LEVELS.

Balabanis et al. (2000) tested the impact of age, gender, education, income, nationalism, patriotism, and internationalism as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism in the Czech Republic and Turkey. The purpose of their research included identifying the

differential effects of patriotism, nationalism, and internationalism [identified as political attitudes], on consumer ethnocentrism and if these antecedents have the same relative impact on consumer ethnocentrism across different countries. Turkey and the Czech Republic were chosen as countries of study for several reasons: 1) they are culturally and economically different from previous countries investigated, 2) both are nationalistic but for different reasons, 3) both are large importers, 4) there are substantial differences in their demographic and economic composition, and 5) these countries are culturally different from each other. Respondents for their research consisted of shoppers from the main streets, squares, and shopping districts in three large cities in Turkey [Istanbul, Ankara, and Izmir] and the largest city in the Czech Republic [Prague].

In order to determine the impact of patriotism, nationalism, and internationalism Balabanis et al. (2000) used a two-step hierarchical structural equation modeling procedure starting with demographic variables at the first stage and then adding the psychometric variables to assess the change in the amount of variance explained. In stage one of the analysis income, gender, and age [in order of significance] proved to be significant predictors of consumer ethnocentrism in Turkey, resulting in a R^2 of 0.086, while only income was significant in the Czech Republic, resulting in a R^2 of 0.018.

The addition of patriotism, nationalism, and internationalism in stage two of the analysis resulted in the R^2 for Turkey increasing to 0.150 and for the Czech Republic to 0.122. Patriotism ($p = 0.002$) was the only new significant variable for Turkey while nationalism ($p = 0.000$) was the only new significant variable for the Czech Republic. Internationalism was not significant in either population. Therefore, Balabanis et al. (2000) were able to conclude that "the manner in which demographic characteristics and

the patriotism, nationalism and internationalism measures are related to consumer ethnocentrism is fundamentally different" (p. 168) across the countries researched.

However, Balabanis et al. (2000) note that the variance in consumer ethnocentrism explained by patriotism, nationalism, and internationalism is moderate and that additional internal and external factors, e.g., psychological attributes or environment, may need to be present in order to generate a predisposition towards high levels of consumer ethnocentrism.

Despite the low level of variance in consumer ethnocentrism explained by Balabanis et al.'s (2000) research, their most significant contribution is that antecedents to a single construct vary across countries. Balabanis et al. (2000) sample population groups consisted of individuals from highly-populated cities and, in the case of the Czech Republic, only the capital city. Although not investigated, there is the possibility that antecedents to a single construct may vary across segments within a country. This research extends that of Balabanis et al.'s (2000) and assesses the impact of antecedents on consumer ethnocentrism across different segments within the same country. Various population segments across a country may possess different antecedents for a single construct. A population segment within one country may exhibit patterns more similar to that of population segments in other countries than with other segments within their own country.

Country-of-Origin and Consumer Ethnocentrism

Lantz and Loeb (1996) used conjoint analysis to assess the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and country-of-origin for mouse pads with a sample population drawn from American and Canadian undergraduate students. The three countries from

which products could originate for these products were the United States, Mexico, and Canada. It was necessary to choose a non-descriptive product, mousepads, in order to minimize country of image impact on the results. It was hypothesized that consumers would demonstrate a preference for domestic goods when the price is comparable to that of imported goods. However, as the price difference increased consumers would most likely choose products based upon criteria other than the country-of-origin. The product attributes used in the conjoint analysis were color, style, county of origin, and price.

Results for the Canadian group indicated that country-of-origin was considered the most important overall attribute, 34.53% for country and 32.03% for price, when making a purchase decision. However, among those with low levels of consumer ethnocentrism, price was the most important consideration and for those with high levels of consumer ethnocentrism, country-of-origin was most important. The utility difference between American and Canadian-made goods was insignificant for both high and low consumer ethnocentrism. A significant difference was found between consumer preference for Mexican- and Canadian-made products, thus lending support to Heslop and Wall's (1993) conclusions that the country-of-origin and product type are related.

The American sample group showed similar results to the Canadian group with regard to country effect and utility levels. Statistics concerning effect sizes were not provided for the American sample population. The most significant difference between the American and Canadian groups was the emphasis placed on country-of-origin even by the low consumer ethnocentric group. This was attributed to either respondents not accepting that quality levels were equal among all countries and/or that other social influences impacted the responses. Although this research provides insight, it has two

limitations: only one product is used and the survey sample population only involved undergraduate students.

Watson and Wright (1999) investigated the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and country-of-origin for consumers in New Zealand. The countries chosen were culturally similar, the United States and Germany, versus dissimilar countries, Italy and Singapore.

Watson and Wright (1999) assessed consumer attitudes towards two products not produced in New Zealand, cameras and TVs, and refrigerators, a product manufactured in New Zealand. Cultural distance between countries was determined based upon Schwartz's (1994) seven value types: 1) conservatism, 2) intellectual autonomy, 3) affective autonomy, 4) hierarchy, 5) mastery, 6) egalitarian commitment, and 7) harmony. Product evaluation was based upon willingness to buy and select attributes such as workmanship, prestige, value, technical advancement, price, and reliability.

It was found that New Zealand consumers with high levels of consumer ethnocentrism were most likely to rank attribute higher and purchase refrigerators manufactured in New Zealand. Refrigerators from Germany and the United States came next, with Italian and Singaporean products ranking last. Based upon the findings, Watson and Wright's (1999) hypothesis that respondents would rate products from culturally-similar countries higher than those from dissimilar countries was confirmed.

In the case of cameras and TVs, a product not produced in New Zealand, consumers appear more willing to purchase and rank products higher from culturally-similar countries than culturally-dissimilar countries. This once again supported Watson

and Wright's (1999) hypothesis concerning consumer ethnocentrism and cultural similarity.

A very striking and interesting discovery was that respondents with low levels of consumer ethnocentrism were likely to purchase refrigerators from New Zealand but evaluated those from Germany as having higher attributes. Respondents with low levels of consumer ethnocentrism were more likely to purchase and rate Singaporean cameras higher than respondents with high levels of consumer ethnocentrism. Similarly, respondents with low levels of consumer ethnocentrism rated all German products as having higher attribute scores than those with higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism. This indicates that cultural similarity may not affect consumer attitudes regardless of consumer ethnocentrism.

The strength of this research is in its use of Schwartz's values to classify culturally-similar and dissimilar countries. The weaknesses with this research include the limited number of products, the sample group residing in a geographically-isolated country, and the fact that it is unclear whether respondents were evaluating country-of-origin effects or attitudes towards particular countries (Watson and Wright 1999).

Consumer Ethnocentrism in Russia

Good and Huddleston (1995) compared ethnocentric tendencies of Polish and Russian consumers to assess whether the tendencies varied by country, demographic groups, or by store type. In addition, the relationship between ethnocentrism and product purchase decision, as related to country-of-origin, was investigated. As previously indicated, the Russian population sample was limited to patrons of two stores, state-owned and the other privately-owned, located in the center of Moscow. Good and

Huddleston (1995) hypothesized that consumer ethnocentrism levels between Polish and Russian sample groups would differ, that demographic characteristics and store type would not impact consumer ethnocentrism levels, and that there was no relationship between consumer ethnocentrism levels and shirt or sweater choice based upon country-of-origin. The countries chosen for the COO portion of the research included the home country [Poland/Russia], Germany, China, and the United States.

Poles were more consumer ethnocentric than their Russian counterparts. This difference was attributed to Poland having started its market reforms earlier than Russia, thus having a more advanced economy. Consequently, Polish consumers recognized the relationship between domestic production and opportunities in the world market. Education was negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism for both the Polish and Russian samples. Older, female, and lower-income Polish consumers were significantly more ethnocentric than their younger, male, and higher-income counterparts. Age, gender, and income did not influence consumer ethnocentrism in Russia.

No relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism levels and shirt or sweater choice by country-of-origin in Poland. Russian consumers with low levels of consumer ethnocentrism preferred German shirts and American sweaters, while those with high levels of ethnocentrism chose Russian-made shirts and sweaters. Russian consumers shopping at the state store, Destki Mir, were significantly more ethnocentric than their counterparts shopping at the privately-owned store, Le Monti. Although not mentioned by Good and Huddleston (1995), Detski Mir is a Russian name while Le Monti certainly is not. This may actually have some impact on consumer behavior at these locations.

In research closely related to that of Sharma, Shimp and Shin (1995), Huddleston et al. (2000) utilizing what appears to be data from the same Russian sample group as Good and Huddleston (1995) investigated perceived product quality differences based upon country-of-origin, product necessity, and consumer ethnocentrism.

Seven consumer products each from four countries [China, Russia, Germany, and the United States] were ranked according to their necessity to Russian consumers. It was expected that quality of products would be influenced by county of origin, level of ethnocentrism, and product necessity. The relationship was significant between perceived quality level and product, the product necessity, and for country-of-origin, but not for consumer ethnocentrism. This contradicts Netemeyer et al.'s (1991) finding that consumer ethnocentrism levels are negatively related to quality perceptions of products from different countries.

The research of Good and Huddleston (1995) and Huddleston et al. (2000) provides the first insight into consumer ethnocentrism in Russia however their research is limited to Moscow thus may not apply in other parts of Russia. The initial study highlighted differences between low and high consumer ethnocentric customer preferences for shirts and sweaters. In their second study quality perceptions were investigated for different products, but product purchase intent was not investigated. Quality perception and purchase perception are significantly different. As indicated in the research by Nijssen et al. (1999), consumers may rate the quality of a country's product as superior but still not be willing to purchase those products that are the essence of consumer ethnocentrism.

Durvasula et al. (1997) compared consumer ethnocentric tendencies of Russian and American students. The authors hypothesized that the CETSCALE would positively correlate with buying domestic products and negatively correlate with attitudes toward buying foreign products and quality from the "other" country. In addition to products in general, attitudes towards buying foreign cars were assessed. It was also expected that Russian students would be less ethnocentric than their American counterparts and that Americans would feel stronger about buying domestically-produced goods and not buying foreign goods.

Results indicated that in both countries CETSCALE scores were positively related to buying domestic goods, negatively related to purchasing foreign products especially automobiles in particular for both countries. The Russian sample population was negatively disposed to buying American-made products, but the reverse was not true for the American population and Russian goods. However, Americans were more ethnocentric than Russians, more supportive of buying domestic goods, and less likely to favor purchasing imported products.

The results from this research are tempered by the limitations inherent in a sample consisting of only 60 students. This sample does not provide the income range, occupation, experience, age, or geographic segmentation necessary draw solid conclusions about the Russian population in general. However, it does provide valuable background information for future studies of consumer ethnocentrism in Russia.

In summary, select research indicates that income and economic level can influence consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma 1987; Sharma, Shimp and Shin 1995; Klien and Ettenson 1999, Good and Huddleston 1995) while Good and Huddleston

(1995) reported an insignificant relationship between income and consumer ethnocentrism with their Russian sample. However, their sample population was limited to Moscow and some studies have indicated (Shimp and Sharma 1987; Herche 1992) that geographical differences can influence consumer ethnocentrism at the product level. It is the position of this research that geographical differences, when accompanied by substantial differences in income and other factors will impact consumer ethnocentrism.

There are substantial differences in culture (Mikheyev 1996), income (Thelen In press), economic and technical development (Mikheyev 1996), and exposure to international influences (U.S. Department of State 2000) between Russia's three sub-cultures. This research addresses the impact that sub-cultures in Russia, determined by geographic location, will have on consumer ethnocentrism levels. Technocratic Russia has the highest level of income, economic and technical development, and exposure to international influences. These differences, as underscored in the discussion of antecedents, are expected to affect the values held by residents in these sub-cultures. These values, materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] and nostalgia, are expected to operate as antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism in transitional economies. Therefore the following hypotheses are offered:

H9: CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM IS SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT ACROSS RUSSIA'S THREE CO-EXISTING CULTURES.

H9A: CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM LEVELS ARE EXPECTED TO BE HIGHEST IN AGRICULTURAL RUSSIA, FOLLOWED BY INDUSTRIAL RUSSIA AND THEN TECHNOCRATIC RUSSIA.

It is also expected that differences in levels of consumer ethnocentrism will influence consumer product purchase preferences. Differences in consumer ethnocentrism have been found to influence willingness to buy different products based

upon country-of-origin and/or perceived quality differences (Shimp and Sharma 1987; Netemeyer et al. 1991; Klein et al. 1998; Nijssen et al. 1999; Lantz and Loeb 1996; Watson and Wright 1999; Good and Huddleston 1995; and Huddleston et al 2000).

Ten products have been selected to represent the following product categories: kitchen appliances, food, personal hygiene products, household electronics, fashion items, entertainment products, technology goods, automobiles, alcohol, and medicine. Russian-made goods are positioned against imported goods regardless of country-of-origin or quality perceptions. The question asked Russian consumers is very simple, "which are you willing to choose, imported or domestically-produced of the following products" with a 7-point bi-polar scale anchored by definitely imported and definitely Russian-made. The purpose of the outcome variable is to determine if Russians consumer ethnocentrism levels are consistent across a wide array products or if there are products to which they hold more ethnocentric tendencies than others. It is also the purpose of this research to determine if the levels of consumer ethnocentrism by product are equal across Russia's three sub-cultures. This is due to the differences in the antecedent intensity, economic level, and exposure to international influences across the three locations. The following hypotheses are postulated:

H10: RUSSIANS WILL DEMONSTRATE DIFFERING LEVELS OF CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM [EXPRESSED AS PRODUCT PURCHASE INTENTION] ACROSS DIFFERENT PRODUCT TYPES.

H10A: DIFFERENCES WILL EXIST IN PRODUCT PURCHASE INTENTIONS ACROSS RUSSIA'S THREE SUB-CULTURES FOR DIFFERENT PRODUCTS.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The first two chapters introduced the research and discussed the Russian environment and literature concerning the antecedent variables, process variables, and outcome measures. Chapter 3 explains the methodologies proposed for analyzing Russia's three consumer societies, product purchase intentions, and relationships between constructs [Please reference figure 7]. In addition, questionnaire development and pre-testing procedures are reviewed. Finally, an explanation is provided of the sample group and data collection.

Russia's Three Consumer Societies

The position of this research is that Russia is diverging into three consumer societies: the Traditional Russian Culture, the Industrial Subculture, and the Emerging Technocratic Subculture (Mikheyev 1996). Regional differences within Russia have been recognized economically (U.S. State Department Commercial Guide 2000; The World Bank 2000; Hanson and Bradshaw 2000; Starobin and Kravchenko-b 16-Oct-00) and behaviorally (Feifer May 1999; Mikheyev 1996). This research provides support for the premise that there are significant differences across Russia's three consumer societies based upon select household variables: income, household expenditures, and asset ownership. Data for these select variables are drawn from the Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey [Round Eight 1998] database.

The Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey [RLMS] collects data from over 3,000 households. Data are collected from over 100 locations across 8 regions in Russia

on individual, household and community levels. The purpose of the household-based survey is to provide longitudinal as well as cross-sectional measures and analysis of the effects of economic reforms on the well-being of households and individuals (RLMS 2000). The sampling frame is representative at the national, regional, and oblast [state] levels. RLMS surveys are designed by interdisciplinary groups of Russian and American social scientists. This reduces the opportunity for cultural bias that could be present with questions developed by a completely American team. The RLMS successfully fills an informational void not addressed by Russian Federation statistics bureau [GOSKOMSTAT]. Although the major thrust of the RLMS survey is nutritional data (e.g., food consumption and health), data collected concerning income and ownership of physical assets are also contained in the database.

Income and household expenditures are presented in a continuous format; therefore, a series of one-way ANOVA's will be utilized to determine if there are significant differences among societies. Asset ownership is dichotomous with households reporting that they either own or do not own a particular asset. A Chi-square test will be used to determine if there is a significant difference in ownership of these assets among Russia's three consumer societies [Reference table 5].

In order to be relevant, the items included in the comparison of asset ownership and household expenditures are either directly or indirectly related to the products included as outcome variables. The RLMS collects data on nine of the ten outcome variables [toothpaste being the exception] examined in this research. If there are significant differences in asset ownership, household expenditures, and income among

the three population groups, as posited by this research, this provides support for the premise that Russia is economically diverging into three consumer societies.

Table 3-1: Household Asset Ownership, Income, and Expenditures			
<i>Item from RLMS</i>	<i>Dichotomous/Continuous</i>	<i>Measurement Tool</i>	<i>Related Outcome Variable</i>
Asset Ownership			
Refrigerator	Dichotomous	Chi-Square	Household Appliance
Freezer	Dichotomous	Chi-Square	Household Appliance
Washer	Dichotomous	Chi-Square	Household Appliance
Color Television	Dichotomous	Chi-Square	Household Electronic Device
VCR	Dichotomous	Chi-Square	Household Electronic Device
Hairdryer	Dichotomous	Chi-Square	Fashion Related
Computer	Dichotomous	Chi-Square	Technology Good
Household Expenditures			
Clothing	Continuous	ANOVA	Fashion Item
Fowl	Continuous	ANOVA	Food Product
Vodka	Continuous	ANOVA	Vodka
Household Appliances*	Continuous	ANOVA	Household Appliance
Tickets**	Continuous	ANOVA	Entertainment
Medicines (including vitamins)	Continuous	ANOVA	Medicine
Composite of 6 continuous variables		ANOVA	
Total Household Income			
Total Household Income	Continuous	ANOVA	

* Refrigerator, washing machine, vacuum cleaner, sewing machine, iron, food processor, etc. [purchased within 30 days of the survey].

**Theater, circus, movies, concerts, recreational parks, and other forms of entertainment [expended within 30 days of the survey].

Construct Reliability and Validity

The Nostalgia Scale

In order to measure the level of nostalgia held by individuals in each of Russia's three co-existing cultures, Steenkamp et al's. (1999) abbreviated version of Holbrook's Nostalgia Scale is adopted. Holbrook (1993), in a two-part study, introduced a 20-item nostalgia scale in an effort to determine whether nostalgia varied across persons of the same age and to assess age as a moderator in developing consumer tastes. Respondents' preferences for 62 movies, each an academy-award winner from their respective year, was the stimulus measure. In the first part of the study, an age-homogeneous sample population of 167 respondents was examined. The 20-item nine-point numerical scale, although unidimensional, exhibited disappointing single-factor results. Stepwise selection

was employed to reduce the scale to eight-items resulting in a Tucker Lewis reliability coefficient of 0.96; values greater than .90 indicate parsimony of fit for a model (Hair et al. 1995). The construct reliability of the factors and the Cronbach Alpha were each 0.78. These results exceed the acceptable levels of 0.90 for reliability and 0.70 for alpha (Hair et al. 1995). It was found that women were marginally more nostalgic than men and that no association existed between age and nostalgia.

In the second part of the study, the 8-item nostalgia scale [Please reference Appendix A part one.] developed in the first part was used to assess responses from 156 age-heterogeneous respondents. As in the first part of the study, the 62 academy award winning movies were used as the stimulus measure. The Tucker-Lewis reliability coefficient increased to 0.90 while the construct reliability and Cronbach Alpha dropped to 0.73; both acceptable levels. Consistent with the first study, women were marginally more nostalgic than men, and no significant correlation existed between age and nostalgia.

Holbrook and Schindler (1994) used the 20- and 8-item Nostalgia scales in assessing nostalgia's correlation with "movie star preference" as the stimulus measure. In this research, the 20-item scale failed to support a single factor model; therefore, the 8-item scale was used. The eight-item scale exhibited a Tucker-Lewis reliability of 0.85 and a construct reliability of 0.68. The lower reliability measure was attributed to fatigue, as the nostalgia scale items were located at the end of a lengthy questionnaire.

The three-fold purpose of the research was to determine whether: 1) age related peak preferences were present, 2) those with a more favorable attitude towards the past would shift to earlier star-specific ages, and 3) there is a difference between male and

female respondents' age-related peak. The results indicate that an age-related peak does exist, the timing of the peak relies on attitudes towards the past, and sex of the respondent and gender of the star does confound the results regarding star-specific age.

Holbrook and Schindler (1996) extended their previous research using the full 20-item scale to determine whether an age related shift also occurs in preference of movies as it does with movie stars. The most important development from those studies, as it pertains to this research, is that attitude towards stimuli is influenced by respondent attitude towards the past and not solely by age. Nostalgia proneness is an individual characteristic that may interconnect with psychographic variables or "other aspects of personality or lifestyle" (p. 36). It is the position of this research that consumer ethnocentrism is influenced by individuals' level of nostalgia.

In order to apply the nostalgia scale cross-nationally, Steenkamp et al. (1999) eliminated three items from Holbrook's original 8-item scale. The first item "They don't make 'em like they used to" was dropped due to difficulty with translating its meaning. The other two items that were eliminated were "History involves a steady improvement in human welfare" and "Steady growth in GNP has brought increased human happiness." The first of these two items was eliminated due to the differences experienced by European countries since the end of WWII. The elimination of this item would also be appropriate for any sample in Russia for the same reason. The second of these two items was eliminated due to the borderline loading (Holbrook and Schindler 1994; Holbrook's 1993). In addition, this item should be eliminated for use in Russia due to the decline in human welfare during the last ten years. Maintaining these items in the scale may result in confounding responses. Therefore, the five-item abbreviated scale initially adopted by

Steenkamp et al. (1999) is used in this research [Please reference Appendix A Part Two]. Steenkamp et al. (1999) eventually eliminated items three and five due to low loadings on the attitude towards the past across all countries. This research utilizes the five items initially identified by Steenkamp et al. (1999) for assessing nostalgia. After the data have been collected, the validity of individual items will be assessed.

Materialism/Post-Materialism

Values are difficult to measure but can be inferred through consistent emphasis on given types or goals (Inglehart 1981). In order to determine the efficiency of the Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] Scale, 749 candidates for the European Parliament responded to the twelve-item scale. It was expected that the materialistic and post-materialistic items would form two different dimensions. Through the use of factor analysis, six materialistic values cleanly loaded onto one factor while the six post-materialist values loaded onto a second factor (Inglehart 1981). Respondents ranking one materialistic goal high had a tendency to rank other materialistic goals high as well; the same is true for post-materialistic goals (Please reference table 6).

Table 3-2 Value Priorities of Candidate to the European Parliament, 1979 (First factor in principal components factor analysis)		
<i>Materialist/Post-Materialist</i>		
Post-materialist Goals	More say on the job	.660
	Less impersonal society	.478
	More say in government	.472
	Society where ideas count	.408
	More beautiful cities	.315
	Freedom of speech	.254
Materialist Goals	Control of inflation	-.436
	Fight against crime	-.442
	Stable economy	-.450
	Economic growth	-.566
	Maintain order	-.588
	Adequate defense forces	-.660
<i>Source: Inglehart 1981 p. 894 Table 7</i>		

The results from the 1979 survey of candidates for the European Parliament were nearly identical to those reported in the 1973 survey of 13,000+ respondents from nine member-nations of the European Community. However, variations among individual nations existed and were attributed to disparities in developmental levels among the countries (Inglehart 1977). Due to variations in the ranking of the materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] values, it was necessary to ascertain the Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] Scale's scalability. Inglehart (1977) addressed this issue by scaling "ten items for which both factor loadings and percentage distribution correspond to expectations derived from the needs-hierarchy model" [reference figure 2] (p. 52). Using data from the European sample each respondent was allowed two errors - meaning that they were allowed only two responses that did not fit the expected scalar pattern in order to be considered accurate. The results provided a Guttman Scale³ coefficient of reproducibility of .88, slightly below the .90 level considered acceptable. However, the resulting Guttman Scale coefficient of reproducibility of .88 should be regarded as rather high considering that the three "Economic" items [Fight rising prices, Economic growth, Stable economy] are virtually indistinguishable from one another (Inglehart 1977) and that the scale consists of only two constructs, materialism and post-materialism, measured by a series of values. An additional result is that the value ranking by respondents formed a scalar order

3 "Guttman Scales are ones in which the items constitute a unidimensional series such that an answer to a given item predicts the answers to all previous items in the series (e.g., in an arithmetic scale, correctly answering a subtraction item predicts a correct answer to a prior item on addition, but not necessarily a later item on multiplication). That is, a respondent who answers an item in a positive way must answer less difficult items also in a positive way." The coefficient of reproducibility measures how well we can predict any given set of responses from its position within the table; it should be at least .90" Institute for Objective Measurement [www.http://209.41.24.153/](http://www.iom.org/209.41.24.153/)

conforming to Maslovian expectations (Inglehart 1977). Therefore, the ranking of values shown in Figure 2 appears valid and reliable.

Previous researchers (Rokeach 1968, 1973; Kahle 1983; and Herche 1994) have used rating scales or rating-ranking scales to identify respondent values. The same has been suggested for the Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] Scale (Bean and Papadakis 1994a; Bean and Papadakis 1994b) however refuted (Inglehart 1994; Hellevik 1994) due to the differences in the objectives of rating and ranking scales: "rating indicates the absolute level of support, ranking the priorities among values with a similar level of support" (Hellevik p. 293). An argument for ranking scales is that in any decision-making exercise it is necessary for respondents to make choices between mutually-valued alternatives (Hellevik 1994). Specifically, respondents may highly value both materialism and post-materialism if given the opportunity to rate them, but will choose one over the other if forced to rank them. Therefore, this research will use a ranking of the materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] values to determine respondents' values [Please reference Appendix B] . In order to use the Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] Scale with selected analytical tools [SEM and HLM] it is necessary to convert the ranking scale into an integer. Inglehart (1997) illustrates a technique for developing an integer scale from the 12-item ranking scale. A value of zero to five is assigned based upon the number of post-materialism values ["More beautiful cities" was excluded due to inconsistency in ranking across cultures] ranked in the top five of the total 12-item Materialism/Post-Materialism

[physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] Scale. If none of the post-materialistic items receive high priority [included in the top five values] a value of zero is assigned; if all five post-materialistic values are given high priority a five is assigned.

This research uses a similar approach [reviewed by Inglehart 17-Nov-00] in which the following procedures are followed:

1. Respondents rank the 12 items, the ranking scores of the 6 materialistic items (Fight rising prices, Strong defense forces, Economic growth, Stable economy, Fight against crime, and Maintain order) are identified and assigned a value. If an item is ranked first it is assigned a 1; second a 2; and so on.
2. The materialistic items are summed and divided by 6. For instance, if a subject ranks the materialistic items second, third, fifth, sixth, tenth, and twelfth this would correspond to $(2+3+5+6+10+12)/6$ or 6.33333.
3. If all six materialistic items are ranked 1 through 6 this averages 3.5 thus indicating the polar extreme of materialism. If they are ranked 7 through 12 this would average 9.5 indicating the polar extreme of post-materialism. Reducing the whole scale by 2.5 gives us a 1 through 7 scale with respondents ranging being extremely materialism [1] and extremely post-materialism [7].
4. In the case of the example score from step two, $6.33-2.5= 3.83$ that is near the middle [4.0], indicates slight materialism.

The use of a ranking scale forces respondents to choose from among values and its subsequent conversion into an integer allows the results to be used with SEM and HLM.

Consumer Ethnocentrism

In their original development of the CETSCALE Shimp and Sharma (1987) rigorously assessed the scale's reliability and validity. Reliability was quite high with internal consistency ranging from .94 to .96 across the four studies used in the development of the CETSCALE. In only one of the studies, crafted-with-pride, was it possible to assess test-retest reliability with five-weeks passing between the first and second testing periods. The correlation between the two periods was .77 indicating further support for the CETSCALE's reliability.

The CETSCALE's discriminant validity was evident in all studies, with the exception of the national consumer good study. Three related constructs: patriotism,

politico-economic conservatism, and dogmatism were highly correlated with the CETSCALE. Shimp and Sharma (1987) stated that despite the moderate level of correlation between the constructs, the CETSCALE's discriminant validity was not compromised.

Nomological Validity was tested in all four studies containing questions concerning attitudes towards ownership of foreign-made products, respondent automobile ownership and purchase intent, desirability and affordability of domestic versus foreign automobiles, attitudes and intent to purchase American-made apparel, and bias based upon country/region of origin. In each of the studies the nomological validity of the CETSCALE was supported.

Netemeyer et al. (1991) assessed the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE cross-nationally. Composite reliability was found to be high and fairly consistent across the four countries under study with scores ranging from .91 to .95 [United States, .95; France, .92; Japan, .91; and West Germany, .94]. In addition to composite reliability, variance extracted, item loadings, and item-to-total correlations for collective scores also provided support for the internal consistency of the CETSCALE.

In order to assess discriminant validity Netemeyer et al. (1991) included a measure of attitude towards home country. The Φ correlation across the four countries ranged from .13 to .42 [United States, .14; France, .24; Japan, .42; and West Germany, .13]. The correlation between the two constructs significantly less than 1.0 provides evidence of the CETSCALE's discriminant validity cross-nationally.

Nomological validity, (Netemeyer et al. 1991) was assessed by surveying respondents' general attitude towards buying domestic products, buying foreign products,

buying a foreign car, and buying an imported car from each of the other countries in the study. Of the total 24 possible correlations 18 were significant and 22 moved in the predicted direction providing support for the CETSCALE's nomological validity. In addition, Netemeyer et al. (1991) assessed general beliefs about the quality of foreign products and preference rankings of domestic versus foreign products. In both cases most of the correlations moved in the predicted directions, and a majority were significant; thus, providing further support for CETSCALE's nomological validity cross-nationally.

Good and Huddleston (1995) and Durvasula et al. (1997) reported CETSCALE reliability and validity scores from their respective Russian sample groups. In both studies the 17-item CETSCALE was used to assess consumer ethnocentrism. Good and Huddleston (1995) reported a Cronbach alpha of .91 and Durvasula et al. (1997) a Cronbach alpha of .88 for their respective Russian samples. In order to test the discriminant validity of the CETSCALE, Durvasula et al. (1997) assessed attitude toward home country. Three measurements were employed to assess the CETSCALE's discriminant validity: fit of a two-factor model to that of a one-factor model, comparison of the variance extracted for the CETSCALE and attitude toward home country, and computed confidence variables. All three measures support the CETSCALE's discriminant validity with a Russian sample population.

Nomological validity was assessed by Durvasula et al. (1997) by comparing CETSCALE scores with those of responses to general beliefs about home country products, other country's products, attitude towards home country, attitude toward buying a foreign car, and quality of foreign products. It was determined that the CETSCALE exhibited nomological validity with a Russian sample population.

Product Purchase Intention

The outcome variable, product purchase intention of various products, has been included to assess whether the CETSCALE accurately predicts consumer purchase intention across a variety of products. Herche (1992) found that the CETSCALE was superior to demographic variables for predicting buyer purchase intentions [domestic versus imported products], however the power of that predictability may be product specific. This research extends Herche (1992) by including a greater number of products and assesses if consumer ethnocentrism is an accurate predictor of purchase intention across different consumer societies in Russia.

Tools for Analysis

Product Purchase Intent

Differences in respondents' product purchase intent, domestic versus foreign-made, will be assessed using ANOVA. Specific products to be evaluated include refrigerator, chicken [for dinner], toothpaste, television, clothing, movie, computer, vodka, automobile, and medicine. Differences will be assessed across the total population sample and with each consumer society. Path analysis will be used to determine if the CETSCALE is a significant predictor of purchase intention for each product across the entire sample population and with each consumer society.

Assessment of the Relationship Between Antecedents and Process Variables

In order to fully understand the relationships between the constructs across Russia's three consumer societies it will be necessary to use a combination of two powerful analytical techniques: hierarchical linear modeling [HLM] and structural equation modeling [SEM]. Whereas each of these techniques is powerful in its own right, the combination permits for the comprehensive examination of data. HLM is a significant

tool for evaluating multilevel theoretical models such as those found in educational research, organizational psychology, economics and marketing (Farmer 2000). Despite HLM's ability to assess relationships within and across different levels, it does not allow researchers to examine covariance models (Farmer 2000). SEM, on the other hand, allows researchers to perform confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis simultaneously (Kline 1998; Kelloway 1998).

HLM has three general research applications: 1) improved estimation of effects within individual units, 2) testing of hypothesis about cross-level effects and 3) the partitioning of variance and covariance components among levels (Bryk and Raudenbush 1992, p.3). This research concentrates primarily on the latter two applications. A hierarchy exists when lower-level observations are present and are influenced by higher-level observations (nested). Due to its capability to handle nested data HLM is a powerful tool for international research. An advantage of using HLM for international research is its capability to simultaneously estimate variables measured at the country level and assess how national variables impact relations at the individual or within country level (Craig and Douglas 2000). In addition, HLM can directly measure the effect of cross level interactions and effectively handle unequal sample sizes (Craig and Douglas 2000). This research uses individual variables [materialism/post-materialism, nostalgia, and consumer ethnocentrism] at the first level and regional variables [characteristics of Russia's three consumer societies derived from the RLMS] at the second level. Therefore, the use of HLM is appropriate in this research.

Structural equation modeling allows data to be subjected to path analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and multi-group analysis. Path analysis permits the

specification & testing of a priori assumption about causal effects among constructs (Kline 1998), while confirmatory factor analysis is used to appraise the relationship between indicators and latent factors (Kline 1998). Multi-group analysis looks for invariance in factor measurements and structural relationship patterns across different groups (Kline 1998; Durvasula et al. 1993; Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998). In the case of multinational groups these relationships can be assessed at the national level, multi-group level, and the pooled data level (Durvasula et al. 1993; Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998). Instead of having three separate countries, this research has three separate locations within one country; however, the data collected will be analyzed as if it were collected pan-nationally. Factor measurements and construct relationships will be assessed at the consumer society level, then assessed for invariance between group-levels, and finally pooled data analysis will be performed (Durvasula et al. 1993). This approach allows the assessment of cross-regional applicability of the model.

Questionnaire

Questionnaire Design

The constructs measured by this research have previously been applied in various languages, nations, and cultures. Therefore, concerns about individual construct reliability and validity in an international context is modest. However, this is first known study in which the constructs under investigation; materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values], nostalgia, consumer ethnocentrism, and product purchase intention are being used collectively. Consequently, there is concern that question order could influence respondents' answers hence the outcome and results of the overall study (Feldman and

Lynch 1988; Welch and Swift 1992; Hunt et al. 1982). A concern with question order is "that momentarily activated cognitions have disproportionate influence over judgment made about an object or on related behaviors performed shortly after their activations" (Feldman and Lynch 1988, p. 421). If the order of the questions changes responses in accordance with the proposed theory, the questionnaire is encouraging a phenomenon that Feldman and Lynch (1998) identify as *self-generated validity*. Researchers need to be assured that each construct measured is present in the mind of the respondent absent of the researcher's inquiry (Feldman and Lynch 1988).

Therefore, the following order was adopted for the questionnaire: ten-item consumer ethnocentrism scale, materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] ranking scale, product purchase intention questions [plus ranking of product importance to Russia], and nostalgia scale [Please reference Appendix D]. The two most related of these constructs are the ten-item consumer ethnocentrism scale and the product purchase intention questions. Feldman and Lynch (1988) posit that the influence from responses to an initial series of questions decays as a basis for the second set of questions as a function of the shared similarity of the two sets of questions. If two sets of highly similar questions [e.g., measuring the same construct] are separated by a series of unrelated questions, it is very likely that respondents will use the first set of questions as a basis for the second set of questions. However, if the two sets of questions are mildly similar [e.g., belief about an attribute of an object and overall evaluation of the same object (p. 426)] the likelihood of the respondent to use the first set of questions as a basis for the second set of questions is diminished by the size of the series of unrelated questions (Lynch and Feldman 1988). In

this case the interposing questions comprise the twelve-item materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] construct unrelated to either the preceding or succeeding constructs. In addition, the format in which the questions are answered changes: materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] is measured on a ranking scale while consumer ethnocentrism and product purchase intent are measured on a 7-point Likert scale. Therefore, items assessing consumer ethnocentrism are not expected to influence product purchase intention.

Translation

The translation process entails transferring meaning, the form of the language, from the source language to that of the receptor language (Larson 1984). Translation/back-translation technique (Brislin 1970, 1976; Larson 1984) was employed by having the questionnaire translated from English into Russian and then Russian to English. Two professional Russian/English- English/Russian translators, both Russian, were employed to translate and then back translate the questionnaire. The first bilingual translator translated the English version of the questionnaire into Russian. The second bilingual translator, who had never seen the English version, translated the Russian version of the questionnaire into Russian. The two English versions were compared and differences resolved. The use of bilingual translators creates some concern. Bilingual translators may adopt standard rules for translating certain terms (Craig and Douglas 2000). Therefore another step was taken to assure proper translation of item meaning.

Due to the richness and complexity of the Russian language it was of great concern that meanings, rather than exact words, were properly translated. Whereas

translation/back-translation is concerned with total accuracy of literal translations, marketing research is more concerned with equivalency in translation of meaning. Therefore, it may be preferable to use committees to check translations (Craig and Douglas 2000). A panel of three professional translators, based in Moscow, reviewed the questionnaire to assure proper translation of meaning. This was necessary due to the complexity of the Russian language and that the United States based bilingual translators, although fluent in both Russian and English, had both been out of the country for two years. New idioms or slang terms may have come about during that time. The three Moscow-based translators initially reviewed the translation independently but resolved differences as a panel. Several minor changes were made to improve the survey instrument. The final version of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix D.

Questionnaire Pre-testing

Pre-testing "is less time consuming and less expensive than rushing to the field with a questionnaire that does not answer the needs of the particular survey" (Blankenship 1946, p. 23). Planning for pre-testing was set-up with five basic goals in mind: 1) determine what was to be pre-tested, 2) determine how to conduct the pre-test, 3) determine who should conduct the pre-test, 4) determine which respondents should be involved in the pretest, and 5) how many respondents should be involved (Tull and Hawkins 1990). The questionnaire was pre-tested in five locations in Russia: Moscow, St. Petersburg, Nizhny Novogorod [Gorky], Vladimir, and Dalneye Constantinovo, in Winter 2000-01.

Matter that was pre-tested included the actual questionnaire itself [e.g., general layout, order of constructs, readability], specific questions contained in the survey [e.g.,

understandability, order of questions], and ease in which the data collected could be used for data analysis (Hunt et al. 1982). Questionnaires were administered in-person to respondents in groups as small as two to as large as eight. Smaller groups were interviewed in their homes or in public places; whereas, with larger groups the surveys were dropped-off and later picked-up from their workplaces. Approximately forty percent of the questionnaires were collected from respondents in person. This allowed a debriefing with respondents about the overall design of the questionnaire as well as specific questions contained in the questionnaire. Written responses were requested from those respondents who were not debriefed in person.

In the cases where the respondents spoke only Russian, a Russian native speaker conducted the pre-testing and debriefing. An American conducted pre-testing and debriefing in English for the limited number of the respondents [3] who were fluent in English. In the case where a debriefing was not held in person but written evaluations were requested, a native speaker of Russian or an American proficient in Russian handed out and retrieved the questionnaires. Only in one case was a reward given to a group after the questionnaire was filled - this consisted of a box of chocolates.

Questionnaires were pre-tested with 32 Russians ranging in age from early twenties to early sixties. An effort was made to collect information from individuals employed in a variety of professions including: entrepreneurs, engineers, scientists, homemakers, cleaning-staff, educators, and law enforcement professionals. It was difficult to collect income data from all of the respondents, but based upon the professions it is safe to assume that the incomes ranged from below the Russian national average to ten times the national average [information shared by one respondent].

Included in the pre-test sample were individuals from Technical Russia [Moscow/St. Petersburg], The Industrial Russian Sub-Culture [Nizhny Novgorod/Vladimir], and Traditional Russia [Dalneye Constantinovo]. Although it is always desirable to have more surveys, the representative nature of the pre-test sample allowed a comprehensive analysis and improvement of the survey instrument.

In addition, the survey instrument was presented to a professional research company, ROMIR, for their review. ROMIR is a political and market research firm based in Moscow, Russia and has collected data for Eurobarometer, The World Values Survey, and RISC. They offered suggestions about the physical layout of the questionnaire and specific wording of select items.

Sample and Data Collection

Data will be collected from each of Russia's three consumer subcultures. Every effort will be made to collect data from samples that are representative of their prospective sub-cultures. However, it may be difficult to guarantee a truly representative sample from each location due to Russians' feelings about disclosure. Goodwin et al. (1998) in their study of disclosure in former communist countries, found that Hungarians were more likely to disclose intimate information [politics, finances, personal feelings, and family problems] than Russians or Georgians. The exception was that Russians were most likely to discuss sex openly. Goodwin et al. (1998) concluded that younger people were most likely to disclose information than older people across their entire sample. This is not at all surprising in Russia. As an example, one of the older respondents participating in the pre-test was surprised that they did not have to disclose their internal

passport number along with their questionnaire. There still exists suspicion concerning the disclosure of personal information and opinions.

For this reason a professional research company, ROMIR, based in Moscow, Russia to collect data. At least 100 questionnaires will be collected from each of Russia's three consumer subcultures. This is the minimum needed for use with SEM (Kline 1998; Kelloway 1998). HLM has the capability of working with limited and uneven sample sizes (Kreft and De Leeuw 1998); therefore, the sample of 100 from each of Russia's subcultures will be adequate.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The purpose of Chapter 4 is to describe methods employed for analyzing data and to convey resultant findings. Initially, a brief review of the sample profile, data collection techniques, and questionnaire usability are presented. Then, the reliability and validity of scales employed along with results of the data analysis, including measurement invariance across Russian subcultures, are discussed. Finally, the results of the hypotheses tests are addressed.

Data Collection, Questionnaire Usability, and Respondent Profile

Five hundred surveys, consisting of the CETSCALE (Shimp and Sharma 1987), Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] ranking scale (Inglehart 1981), Nostalgia Scale (Holbrook and Schindler 1994, 1996), a series of questions concerning purchase preference of various products, and a series of demographic questions were administered. The surveys were collected in the summer of 2001 across Russia's Three Societies in ten geographic locations by a professional political and market research group research group, ROMIR [Russian Public Opinion & Market Research Group], headquartered in Moscow. The use of an experienced Russian political and market research firm addresses the difficulty of obtaining surveys from Industrial and Traditional Russia where residents may be less accustomed to participating in surveys.

The sample is not fully representative of Russia as a whole because the population of Russia is not equally divided among the three societies prescribed in this research. Surveys were administered in both cities that compose Technological Russia: Moscow

and St. Petersburg. Data collection in Industrial and Traditional Russia utilized a "stratified random cluster sample" technique from Russia's remaining 87 oblasts, krais, and republics, excluding those in the Russian Far North and Siberia since they are considered inaccessible. Locations in Industrial and Traditional Russia were randomly selected from administrative units (oblasts, krais, and republics) classified as either rural or urban population sampling units. Selection procedures at the individual household level differed within urban and rural administrative units. Voting districts were utilized in urban settlements [Industrial Russia], while randomly selected villages were employed in rural settlements [Traditional Russia]. Once the voting districts [urban settlement] or villages [rural settlement] were selected, then households were selected. In urban settlements a list of addresses was systematically chosen from each voting district, while in rural settlements households were selected from the household register [available in large villages] or from a list compiled by the interviewer [most common method in smaller villages due to a lack of household registration]. Interviewers visited a household a maximum of three times at different times of the day prior to eliminating it from the list and replacing it with another household. Once the interviewers entered the home, a respondent was drawn from a list of adult household members using the Kish procedure (Worcester and Downham 1986). Respondents were not compensated for their participation in the survey. Table 4-1 provides a breakdown of the sample population by society and location.

Technocratic Russia		Table 4-1 Sampling Locations		Traditional Russia	
City/Village	Sample	City/Village	Sample	City/Village	Sample
<i>Moscow</i>	100	<i>Nizhnii Novgorod City</i>	55	<i>Kortkerossky</i>	33
<i>St. Petersburg</i>	70	<i>Samara City</i>	55	<i>Volokolamsky</i>	33
		<i>Kurgan City</i>	55	<i>Ichalkovsky</i>	33
				<i>Anninsky</i>	33
				<i>Elansky</i>	33
Total	170	Total	165	Total	165

One hundred seventy surveys were collected from Technocratic Russia (Moscow 100 and St. Petersburg 70); 165 from Industrial Russia (Nizhnii Novgorod, Nizhnii Novgorod Oblast 55; Samara, Samaraskaya Oblast 55; Kurgan, Kurganskaya Oblast 55)- and 165 from Traditional Russia (Kortkerossky, Komi Republic 33; Volokolamsky, Moscovskaya Oblast 33; Ichalkovsky, Mordovia Republic 33; Anninsky, Voronezhskaya Oblast 33, and Elansky, Volgogradskaya Oblast 33).

Upon review of the surveys it was determined that 494 surveys [98.8%] were usable. Six surveys were eliminated due to extremeness (Nunnally 1970): respondents ranked Materialism/Post-Materialism [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values/ Psychologically-Oriented Society Values] values one through twelve in straight order, thus indicating that they did not review the values prior to responding. The final count included 169 surveys from Technocratic Russia, 164 from Industrial Russia, and 161 from Traditional Russia. The initial goal was to have a minimum of 300 hundred responses, 100 from each location, therefore it was deemed unnecessary to conduct a follow-up survey.

Sample characteristics are presented in Table 4-2. There are modest differences in the demographic profiles of the respondents across Russian subcultures with regard to gender, age, working status, and respondents' role as chief wage earner in the household.

Table 4-2 Sample Characteristics

Characteristic		Entire Sample		Technocratic		Industrial		Traditional	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Gender	Male	220	44.5	74	43.8	73	44.5	73	45.3
	Female	274	55.5	95	56.2	91	55.5	88	54.7
Age	18-24	65	13.2	22	13.0	24	14.6	19	11.8
	25-34	94	19.0	26	15.4	34	20.7	34	21.1
	35-44	99	20.0	33	19.5	31	18.9	35	21.7
	45-54	85	17.2	35	20.7	30	18.3	20	12.4
	55-64	77	15.6	26	15.4	24	14.6	27	16.8
	65+	74	15.0	27	16.0	21	12.8	26	16.1
	Average Age*	44.68		45.71		43.35		44.97	
Education	Elementary & less	38	7.7	8	4.7	8	4.9	22	13.7
	Incomplete Secondary	73	14.8	18	10.7	23	14.0	32	19.9
	Complete Secondary	192	38.9	57	33.7	67	40.9	68	42.2
	Specialized Secondary	92	18.6	33	19.5	34	20.7	25	15.5
	Incomplete Higher	24	4.9	10	5.9	8	4.9	6	3.7
	Higher	75	15.2	43	25.4	24	14.6	8	5
Monthly HH Inc	≤800rubles	34	6.9	4	2.4	9	5.5	21	13.0
	801-1200	40	8.1	3	1.8	15	9.1	22	13.7
	1201-1500	34	6.9	7	4.1	7	4.3	20	12.4
	1501-2000	70	14.2	7	4.1	18	11.0	45	28.0
	2001-3000	81	16.4	18	10.7	42	25.6	21	13.0
	3001-5000	78	15.8	32	18.9	29	17.7	17	10.6
	5001-10000	89	18.0	53	31.4	28	17.1	8	5.0
	10001-20000	9	1.8	8	4.7	1	.6	-	-
	20001+	3	.6	2	1.2	1	.6	-	-
	Refused to answer	56	11.3	35	20.7	14	8.5	7	4.3
Chief Wage Earner in HH	Yes	278	56.3	102	60.4	88	53.7	88	54.7
	No	214	43.3	67	39.6	74	45.1	73	45.3
	Don't Know	2	0.4	-	-	2	1.2	-	-
Working Status	Working	272	55.1	99	58.6	97	59.1	76	47.2
	Unemployed	32	6.5	7	4.1	5	3.0	20	12.4
	Retired/Disabled	144	29.1	46	27.2	43	26.2	55	34.2
	Student	29	5.9	11	6.5	14	8.5	4	2.5
	Homemaker	17	3.4	6	3.6	55	3.0	6	3.7
Occupation	Owner of business	10	2.0	4	2.4	3	1.8	3	1.9
	Manager of enterprise	9	1.8	6	3.6	2	1.2	1	0.6
	Division/department director	13	2.6	4	2.4	6	3.7	3	1.9
	Higher professional or specialist	44	8.9	22	13.0	15	9.1	7	4.3
	Professional or specialist	50	10.1	20	11.8	13	7.9	17	10.6
	Office worker	38	7.7	00	11.8	13	7.9	5	3.1
	Foreman, Technician	15	3.0	2	1.2	5	3.0	8	5.0
	Skilled Worker	174	35.2	59	34.9	63	38.4	52	32.3
	Semi-skilled/unskilled worker	66	13.4	18	10.7	23	14.0	25	15.5
	Military	6	1.2	2	1.2	2	1.2	2	1.2
	Manual Agricultural Worker	30	6.1	-	-	-	-	30	18.6
	Never worked	37	7.5	11	6.5	19	11.6	7	4.3
	Don't know	2	0.4	1	0.6	-	-	1	0.6

*Age was collected as a continuous variable and categorized for reporting purposes.

However, there are some noteworthy differences with regard to education, income, and occupation. Respondents living in Technocratic and Industrial Russia are more likely to hold/have held a "white collar" position, while respondents in Traditional Russia were more likely to hold/have held a position as a "farm worker." This is not surprising considering the inherent differences in the locations. Differences in education levels exist across the three populations with Technocratic Russia being the most educated, followed in turn by Industrial and Traditional Russia. The average income is higher in Technocratic Russia, followed respectively by Industrial Russia and Traditional Russia. However, any information concerning self-reported income in Russia must be considered cautiously - underreporting income is common. A total of 56 [11.3%] respondents refused to divulge their income [categorical response] with the majority of those residing in Technocratic Russia [35; 20.7% of the sample], followed by Industrial Russia [14; 8.5% of the sample] and then Traditional Russia [7; 4.3% of the sample]. The term "income" does not have a standard meaning in Russia and there exist multiple potential sources for income including an established monthly salary, a monthly bonus that may be equal to the monthly salary, pensions, stipends, alimony, government transfers and allowances [e.g., money to mothers of newborns], selling homemade products or agricultural goods, or working a second job. A household may receive money from one or more of the aforementioned sources, but only consider a limited number of them as actual "income." Considering the strength of the underground economy in Russia, it is also conceivable that respondents did not wish to divulge complete information about income "earned" through these means. It is also possible that the respondent may not be

aware of the total household income due to members of the family not sharing information about their "income" with other members of the family.

Multi-Group Factor Analyses

The goals of confirmatory factor analysis are to "estimate the parameters of the hypothesized model" and "determine the fit of the hypothesized factor model," i.e. the similarity of the estimated covariance matrix to the sample covariance matrix (Sharma 1996, p.148). It is the position of this research that the three Russian societies under study should be treated as separate groups. Therefore, it is necessary to perform multi-group confirmatory analysis at the society level to examine whether the factor model and corresponding fit are similar or different across groups. LISREL version 8.5 was employed to perform the multi-group confirmatory analysis on the CETSCALE and the Nostalgia Scale.

The Purchase Preference by Product construct is unique to this research and has not been applied in previous studies. Although it is possible to assess the relationship between the CETSCALE and Purchase Preference by Product for each product individually, it is more parsimonious to determine if the products themselves form factors. Therefore, SPSS 10.0 was employed to test for unidimensionality of the Purchase Intent by Product for the entire sample. The results were then subjected to multi-group confirmatory factor analysis.

It is not necessary to perform CFA on the Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] scale because it is a ranking scale. Basic statistics such as mean, standard deviation, maximum/minimum values, Levene statistic, and ANOVA are provided for the

Materialism/Post-Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] scale in the Results of Hypotheses Tests section.

Statistics used to assess absolute and comparable model fit for the CETSCALE, Nostalgia Scale, and Purchase Preference by Product are provided in Tables 4-3, 4-4, and 4-6. In this study, statistics employed to measure absolute fit include Chi-square, Relative Goodness-of-Fit Index [RGFI], Relative Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index [RAGFI], and Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual [SRMR]. Absolute model fit is concerned with the model's ability to reproduce the actual sample covariance matrix (Kelloway 1998). The Chi-square test is sensitive to moderate and large sample sizes rejecting what may otherwise be considered acceptable models (Bentler and Bonett 1980; Marsh et al. 1988). Sample size, the number of indicators, and degrees of freedom also impact GFI and AGFI. Maiti and Mukherjee (1990) developed the Relative Goodness-of-Fit Index [RGFI] and the Relative Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index [RAGFI] to adjust for this effect based upon the Expected Goodness-of-Fit Index [EGFI]. The EGFI takes into account degrees of freedom [df], number of indicators [p], and sample size [n] using the following formula: $1/[1 + (2df/pn)]$. Increases in the number of indicators results in an increase in df/p , thus an increase in EGFI, while an increase in p results in a decrease in EGFI (Sharma 1996). RGFI is calculated by taking $GFI/EGFI$ and RAGFI is calculated by taking $AGFI/EGFI$. Values exceeding .90 are normally recommended for GFI (Kelloway 1998) and for RGFI (Sharma 1996). The guideline for AGFI, thus RAGFI, is more flexible and researchers have employed .80 as a base level for acceptance (Sharma 1996). The final statistic employed to test absolute fit is the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual [SRMR]. The SRMR is the "standardized summary of the average

covariance residuals" (Kline p.129 1998). A good fit is indicated by an SRMR value of less than .05.

The comparative Fit Index [CFI] and the Incremental Fit Index [IFI] were employed to compare competing constructs to determine which of the constructs best fits the data (Kelloway 1998). A value of .90 or higher is recommended for both CFI (Bollen 1989) and IFI (Bentler 1990). In addition to measuring fit, construct reliability (Fornell and Larker 1981) was evaluated. Reliability measures the degree to which the indicators represent the construct. The desired minimum level for this reliability level is 70.

CETSCALE

A series of nested models were run for the CETSCALE, Nostalgia Scale, and Product Purchase Preference construct. Based upon RGFI, RAGFI, CFI, IFI, and Factor Construct Reliability statistics, the 10-item CETSCALE was acceptable in Technocratic Russia, borderline acceptable in Industrial Russia, and unacceptable in Traditional Russia [reference Table 4-3]. Review of the LISREL output indicated that two items, item one and item nine, loaded poorly onto the single construct. Their squared multiple correlations ranged from .04 to .34 across the three groups, far below the desired threshold of .50 (Sharma 1996). The wording of these two items [reference Appendix D] held overtones of isolationism and nationalism. Isolationism and nationalism are strong movements in Russia (Vasilenko and Vale 2000; Allensworth 1998). In addition, the modification indices linking these two items were strong, with scores exceeding 10, across all three groups. Therefore, it was decided to break these two items into a separate construct, thus creating two constructs. Although there were significant improvements in the Chi-Square statistic and acceptable RGFI and RAGFI statistics across all three

populations, the CFI and IFI were below acceptable levels in Traditional Russia, and Factor Construct Reliability for the two-item factor was below desired levels in Technocratic and Industrial Russia. Therefore, it was decided to eliminate the two-item factor and evaluate a single construct consisting of the remaining eight items. The single 8-item construct was determined to be the best overall construct based upon the resultant scores. The Chi-Square statistic and Factor Construct Reliability was the best across competing models and met acceptable RGFI, RAGFI levels across all samples. CFI and IFI statistics in Industrial Russia were slightly below desired levels [by .01]; however, not serious enough to eliminate this model considering the strength of the other statistics.

Table 4-3 - Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results
CETSCALE

Construct/ Location	df	χ^2	RGFI	RAGFI	CFI	IFI	SRMR	Factor Construct Reliability	Factor Construct Reliability
<i>All of Russia</i>									
10 Indicators	35	293.93	.90	.85	.88	.88	.06	.88	-
2 Factors	34	230.55*	.92	.86	.91	.91	.05	.64	.89
8 Indicators	20	178.97*	.93	.87	.91	.91	.05	.89	-
<i>Technocratic</i>									
10 Indicators	35	96.99	.94	.90	.90	.90	.06	.87	-
2 Factors	34	87.09*	.95	.91	.91	.92	.05	.50 +	.88++
8 Indicators	20	70.65*	.93	.88	.91	.91	.06	.88++	-
<i>Industrial</i>									
10 Indicators	35	130.20	.90	.83	.88	.89	.06	.89	-
2 Factors	34	115.08*	.92	.86	.90	.90	.06	.62 +	.90++
8 Indicators	20	98.19*	.90	.80	.89	.89	.06	.90++	-
<i>Traditional</i>									
10 Indicators	35	171.69	.86	.77	.81	.81	.09	.87	-
2 Factors	34	128.91*	.90	.83	.86	.87	.07	.83 +	.88++
8 Indicators	20	80.08*	.92	.85	.90	.90	.06	.88++	-

*Significant improvement over initial model. + 2-item factor. ++8 item factor.

Therefore, the items composing the final version of the CETSCALE construct are:

2. Russian products, first, last and foremost
3. Purchasing foreign-made products is being disloyal to Russia
4. It is not right to purchase foreign products
5. A true Russia citizen should always buy Russian-made products
6. We should purchase products manufactured in Russia instead of letting other countries get rich off of us
7. Russian citizens should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Russian businesses and causes unemployment
8. It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support (purchase) products made in Russia
10. Consumers in Russia who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow countrymen out of work

Nostalgia

A similar procedure was employed for the 5-item Nostalgia Scale construct. Overall, the fit indexes for the 5-item Nostalgia Scale were not particularly strong. Two of the items, item three and item five, had squared multiple correlations ranging from .00 to .11 across the three groups. Steenkamp et al. (1999) experienced similar results and eliminated these two items from their HLM model. The wording of these items was reexamined, and it was determined that two items, three and five [reference Appendix D], contained a common theme. They reference the future improving while the other three items address the past being better. Prerequisites of nostalgia can be dissatisfaction with the present and fear of the future (Davis 1979). Therefore, it was decided to decompose nostalgia into two constructs: one addressing fear of the future [NOSTFUT] containing items three and five and one addressing dissatisfaction with the present, or longing for the past, containing items one, two, and four [NOSTPAST]. The resulting scores for the two-factor nostalgia construct exceeded established thresholds for χ^2 , RGFI, RAGFI, CFI, IFI and SRMR; however, the construct reliability for the second factor was below desired levels in Industrial and Traditional Russia [reference Table 4-4]. Despite the low factor construct reliability of the second factor, the two-factor model was considered superior to the single-factor model due to the overall statistics. The final version of the Nostalgia construct [two factors] utilized in this research included:

FACTOR 1 LONGING FOR THE PAST/DISSATISFACTION WITH THE PRESENT

- 1. THINGS USED TO BE BETTER IN THE GOOD OLD DAYS**
- 2. PRODUCTS ARE GETTING SHODDIER AND SHODDIER**
- 4. WE ARE EXPERIENCING A DECLINE IN QUALITY OF LIFE**

FACTOR 2 - FEAR OF THE FUTURE

- 3. TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE WILL ENSURE A BRIGHTER FUTURE**
- 5. MODERN BUSINESS CONSTANTLY BUILDS A BETTER TOMORROW**

Table 4-4 - Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results Nostalgia
Nostalgia

Construct/ Location	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RGFI	RAGFI	CFI	IFI	SRMR	Factor Construct Reliability	Factor Construct Reliability +
<i>All of Russia</i>									
1 Factor	5	72.02	.94	.84	.82	.82	.09	.62	-
2 Factors	4	2.27*	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.01	.73+	.59++
<i>Technocratic</i>									
1 Factor	5	27.72	.95	.84	.82	.83	.10	.59	-
2 Factors	4	1.33*	1.01	1.03	1.00	1.02	.02	.76+	.70++
<i>Industrial</i>									
1 Factor	5	26.03	.95	.85	.86	.87	.09	.70	-
2 Factors	4	3.14*	1.00	1.01	1.00	1.00	.02	.77+	.62++
<i>Traditional</i>									
1 Factor	5	24.22	.95	.86	.74	.75	.09	.56	-
2 Factors	4	2.41*	1.00	1.02	1.00	1.02	.02	.62+	.58++

*Indicates significant improvement in model fit at .05 level based on change in χ^2 .
+NOSTPAST ++NOSTFUT

Product Purchase Intention

Purchase Preference at the Product level was initially subjected to Principle Component Analysis with Varimax rotation for the entire sample. Utilizing a factor loading cut-off of .35, appropriate for the sample size (Hair et al. 1995), two factors emerged that accounted for 44.83% of the total variance. Each item loaded solely and clearly onto one factor. The first factor accounted for 27.32% of the total variance and primarily consisted of manufactured items: Television, Computer, Refrigerator, Clothing, Automobile, and Medicine. The second factor accounted for 17.51% of the variance and primarily consisted of consumable items: Chicken, Toothpaste, Vodka, and Viewing a Film [reference Table 4-5 for descriptive statistics and loadings]. The final version of the Purchase Preference by Product construct [two factors] utilized in this research is:

Table 4-5 Product Factor Loadings			
	Item Loading	Mean*	Std. Deviation
Factor 1	Television	.780	3.10
	Computer	.744	2.91
	Refrigerator	.684	4.50
	Clothing	.666	4.28
	Automobile	.562	4.84
	Medicine	.362	4.89
Factor 2	Chicken	.770	6.40
	Toothpaste	.592	5.14
	Vodka	.557	6.39
	Film	.526	5.43

* Evaluated on a 1-7 Likert type scale with 1 indicating a desire to purchase imported goods while 7 indicating a desire to purchase domestically produced goods.

Note: There were no cross-loadings of items at the .350 level.

The two-factor Purchase Preference by Product construct was subjected to multi-group confirmatory analysis across the three populations. The two-factor model resulted in acceptable RFGI, RAGFI and Factor Construct Reliability statistics across the three population groups; conversely, the CFI, IFI, and SRMR statistics did not meet acceptable limits. A second model was tested in which a correlation was established between the two factors. The rationale is that respondents' desire to purchase one factor product-type is correlated with the desire to purchase the other factor product-type. The results indicated, as would be expected, a significant change in the Chi-square statistic, acceptable RFGI, RAGFI, CFI, and IFI statistics across all three populations, with the SRMR being acceptable in Technocratic Russia and marginal in Industrial and Traditional Russia [reference Table 4-6]. The Factor Construct Reliability statistic was acceptable for manufactured goods, but below the acceptable level for consumable items. Due to the strength of the other statistics, qualitative information gathered during pretesting, and the lack of evidence that a stronger factor-structure existed, it was decided to maintain the correlated two-factor construct structure.

Table 4-6 - Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results
Product Purchase Preference

Construct/ Location	<i>df</i>	χ^2	RGFI	RAGFI	CFI	IFI	SRMR	Factor Reliability (PIMANUF)	Factor Reliability (PICOSUM)
<i>All of Russia</i>									
2 Factors	35	173.00	.94	.92	.82	.82	.14	.75	.55
2 Correlated Factors	34	72.16*	.98	.97	.95	.95	.04	.75	.55
<i>Technocratic</i>									
2 Factors	35	70.38	.96	.94	.84	.84	.13	.76	.50
2 Correlated Factors	34	41.62*	.99	.98	.97	.97	.05	.76	.49
<i>Industrial</i>									
2 Factors	35	89.64	.94	.90	.80	.81	.14	.75	.55
2 Correlated Factors	34	59.90*	.97	.95	.91	.91	.06	.76	.55
<i>Traditional</i>									
2 Factors	35	93.68	.94	.90	.76	.76	.16	.74	.59
2 Correlated Factors	34	55.61*	.98	.95	.90	.90	.06	.74	.59

Measurement Invariance Across Subcultures

Construct loadings indicate the relationship in changes among latent and observed scores (Steenkamp et al. 1998). Metric invariance across groups allows for meaningful comparisons and indicates factor structure similarity across groups (Steenkamp et al. 1998, Durvasula et al. 1993). This research tests for metric, scalar, factor covariance, and measurement error invariance across groups.

Constraining the factor loadings equal across groups tests metric invariance. A construct achieving metric invariance, but lacking scalar and error invariance, is considered weakly invariant. It is possible to make comparisons across group with constructs that are weakly invariant. Scalar equivalence evaluates differences across groups in latent and observed means. Group means may experience additive bias, systematically upward or downward, although the construct is metrically invariant (Meredith 1993). In order to test metric invariance factor means are declared invariant across groups in addition to maintaining the constraint for metric invariance. Scalar

invariance indicates that the differences in items' means are due to the differences in the means of their respective constructs. Constructs exhibiting metric and scalar invariance but lacking error invariance are considered to be strictly invariant.

Factor covariance-invariance is tested by constraining the relationship among factors to be invariant across groups in addition to maintaining the constraints for metric and scalar invariance. Factor covariance-invariance tests whether correlations among factors are invariant across groups (Steenkamp et al. 1998). Constraining the measurement error across groups to be equal in addition to maintaining the constraints for metric, scalar, and factor covariance-invariance tests for measurement error invariance. If the model exhibits metric, scalar and error invariance, it is assumed that the construct is similar across-groups (Steenkamp et al. 1998), thus exhibiting strong invariance. Although the goal is to have each construct in the model exhibit strong invariance across groups, the concept of full metric invariance is considered a lofty goal that may not be fully realized (Horn et al. 1991).

Following Shimp and Sharma (1987), item four of the CETSCALE was fixed at one. Initially, the unconstrained model was estimated; then constraints were placed on the model testing for metric invariance, scalar invariance, factor covariance-invariance, and error invariance [reference Table 4-7]. Based upon the changes in Chi-square statistics, the CETSCALE exhibited metric invariance, indicating similarity in structure of the construct across groups, and scalar invariance, signifying a lack of bias in means across groups. Error invariance was not present across groups; therefore, the CETSCALE exhibits strict invariance but not strong invariance across groups; consequently, sufficient invariance is present for meaningful across group comparisons.

		Table 4-7 Invariance Across Groups				Significance Level
<i>CETSCALE</i>		<i>df</i>	χ^2	Δdf	$\Delta \chi^2$	
	Unconstrained	60	248.92			
	Metric Invariance Λ	74	260.74	14	11.82	Not Significant
	Scalar Invariance τ	90	274.86	16	14.12	Not Significant
	Factor Covariance Invariance Φ	92	279.41	2	4.55	Not Significant
	Error Variance Invariance Θ	108	338.00	16	58.59	Significant at 0.001 level

The Nostalgia construct was broken into two factors with the loading of the first item being fixed for the 3-item NOSTPAST factor [dissatisfaction with the present] and item five being fixed for the 2-item NOSTFUT factor [fear of the future]. Initially, an unconstrained model was estimated and then constraints were placed on the model, testing for metric invariance, scalar invariance, factor covariance-invariance, and error invariance [reference Table 4-8]. The Nostalgia construct exhibited metric, scalar, and factor covariance-invariance but there was a lack of error invariance. The absence of error invariance indicated that the measurement error was variant across groups; therefore, the items are not completely and equally consistent across groups. The presence of metric, scalar, and factor covariance-invariance indicates that the Nostalgia construct exhibited equal metrics, lacked additive bias, and that correlations between factors were invariant across groups. Therefore, the Nostalgia construct, similar to the CETSCALE, exhibited strict but not strong invariance across groups thus across-groups comparisons are viable.

		Table 4-8 Invariance Across Groups				Significance Level
<i>Nostalgia</i>		<i>df</i>	χ^2	Δdf	$\Delta \chi^2$	
	Unconstrained	15	10.24			
	Metric Invariance Λ	19	17.85	4	7.61	Not Significant
	Scalar Invariance τ	29	46.35	10	28.5	Not Significant
	Factor Covariance Invariance Φ	35	55.38	6	9.03	Not Significant
	Error Variance Invariance Θ	45	83.60	10	28.22	Significant at 0.005 level

As previously indicated, the Purchase Preference by Product construct was decomposed into two factors: one for manufactured items and the other for consumable items. Initially, the unconstrained model was estimated and then constraints were placed on the model testing for invariance [reference Table 4-9]. The Purchase Preference by Product construct lacked metric, scalar, and error invariance across groups thus across-group comparison is tenuous at best. The model does display factor covariance-invariance thus indicating invariance in the relationship between factors across groups (Steenkamp et al. 1998).

Table 4-9 Invariance Across Groups					
<i>Purchase Preference by Product</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>X²</i>	<i>Δ df</i>	<i>Δ X²</i>	
Unconstrained	102	157.13			
Metric Invariance Λ	118	189.75	16	32.62	Significant at 0.01 level
Scalar Invariance τ	138	272.36	20	82.61	Significant at 0.001 level
Factor Covariance Invariance Φ	144	276.03	16	3.67	Not Significant
Error Variance Invariance Θ	164	335.70	20	59.67	Significant at 0.001 level

Path Analysis and Invariance Across Groups

The structural aspect of the model was configured with paths indicating relationships among the antecedents, the process variable, and the outcome variables. The final model configuration is presented in Figure 4-1. Materialism/Post-Materialism [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values/ Psychologically-Oriented Society Values] is a single-item factor; therefore, it was necessary to fix the unique factor loading at 0.00 and the common factor loading at 1.00 in order to evaluate the fit of the full structural model (Kelloway 1998).

In order to initially test the strength of the structural relationships, an unconstrained model was run, then each path was individually constrained, and the change in the Chi-square statistic evaluated for significance. If the change in Chi-square was significant, this indicated that this particular path was different across groups

(Joreskog and Sorbom 1996). If an individual path was found to be different across groups, then pairs of groups were evaluated to determine whether the significant difference was among all populations or limited to only certain populations [reference Table 4-10]. The only significant difference was found between CETSCALE-PIMANUF for Technocratic-Industrial and Technocratic-Traditional Russia, but not for Industrial-Technocratic Russia. This finding indicates that the paths contained in the model are relatively stable among groups.

Table 4-10 Path Difference

	<i>df</i>	X^2	Δdf	ΔX^2	Significance
Unconstrained Model	733	1202.81			
GAMMA 1: NOSTPAST-CETSCALE	735	1203.66	2	.85	Not Significant
GAMMA 2: NOSTFUT-CETSCALE	735	1203.20	2	.39	Not Significant
GAMMA 3: M/PM-CETSCALE	735	1207.98	2	5.17	Not Significant
BETA 1: CETSCALE-PIMANUF	735	1208.81	2	8.28	Significant at .025
Technological & Industrial Free	489	830.60			
Technological & Industrial Constrained	490	837.80	1	7.20	Significant at .01
Technological & Traditional Free	489	777.83			
Technological & Traditional Constrained	490	783.24	1	5.41	Significant at .025
Industrial & Traditional Free	489	797.20			
Industrial & Traditional Constrained	490	797.26	1	0.06	Not Significant
BETA 2: CETSCALE-PICONSUM	735	1203.93	2	1.12	Not Significant

The strength of the paths was evaluated for the entire sample as well as for each of the three Russian societies: Technocratic, Industrial and Traditional [reference Figure 4-2a-d]. Review of the model for each society, and for all of Russia, indicates that the relationship among constructs, expressed as standardized coefficients, and the amount of variance explained in the constructs, expressed as squared multiple correlations for structural equations, varies across groups. The squared multiple correlations for structural equations are also known as the coefficient of determination and are interpreted the same as an R^2 value. Squared multiple correlations for structural equations express the amount of variance in the construct explained by the model. Results indicate that the variance explained for the CETSCALE by the model is one-third [.33] for All of Russia, and

almost one-half [.48] for Technocratic Russia, but less than one-third in either Industrial [.30] or Traditional [.30] Russia. This indicates that the model possesses varying degrees of explanatory capability for consumer ethnocentrism among different Russian societies. Likewise, the amount of variance explained in PIMANUF, purchase preference of manufactured goods, and PICONSUM, purchase preference of consumable goods, varies among populations within Russia. Although the model explains .37 of the variation for PIMANUF for All of Russia, the results vary from .23 for Technocratic Russia, .39 for Traditional Russia, to .49 for Industrial Russia. Similarly, the model explains .37 of the variation for PICONSUM for All of Russia, but the results vary from .29 for Traditional Russia, to .34 for Technocratic Russia, to .50 for Industrial Russia. This indicates that a model that explains approximately half of the variation in purchase preference in one population, Industrial Russia, but the model is not nearly as effective for Technocratic or Traditional Russia.

Figure 4-1

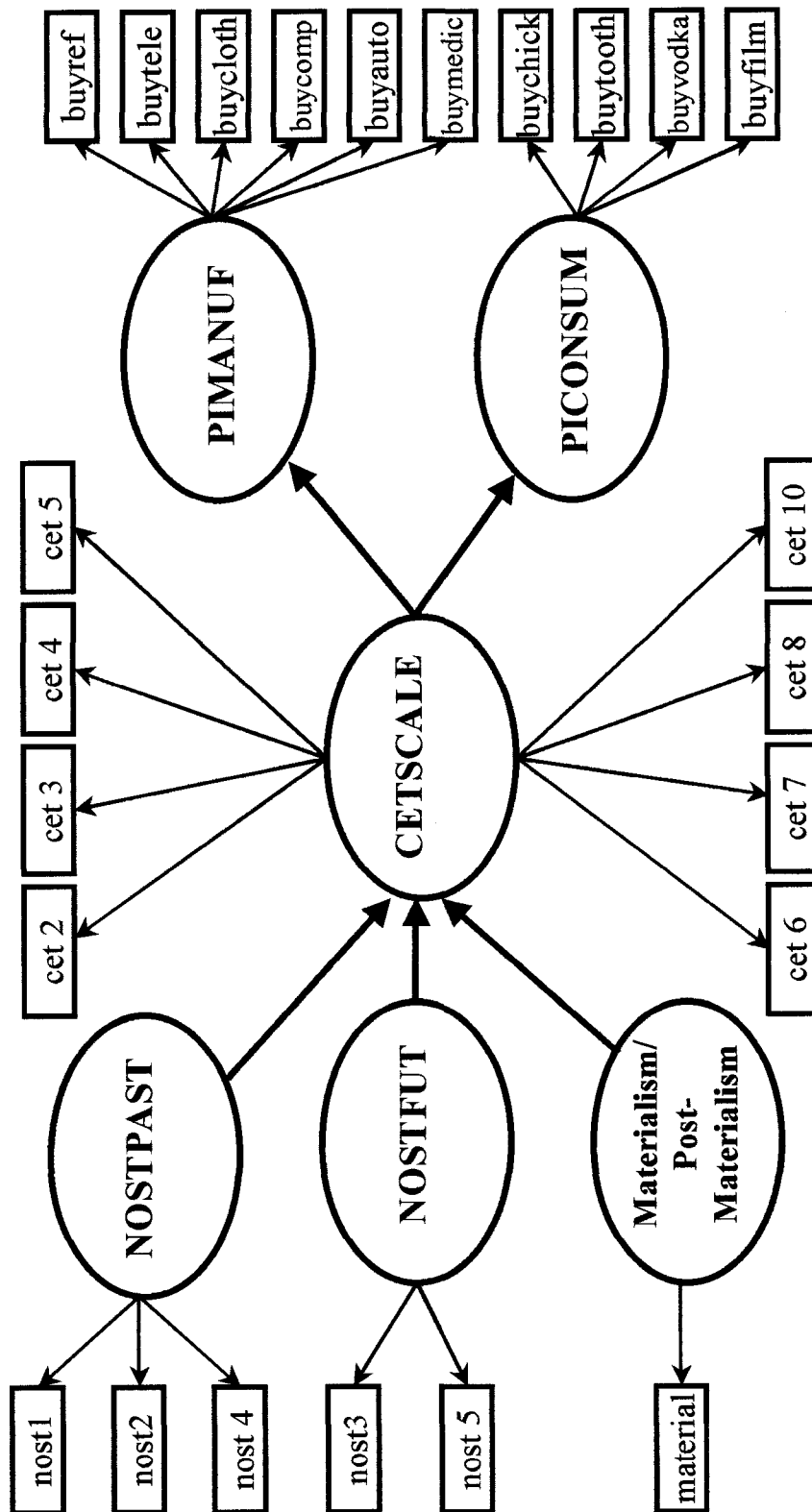
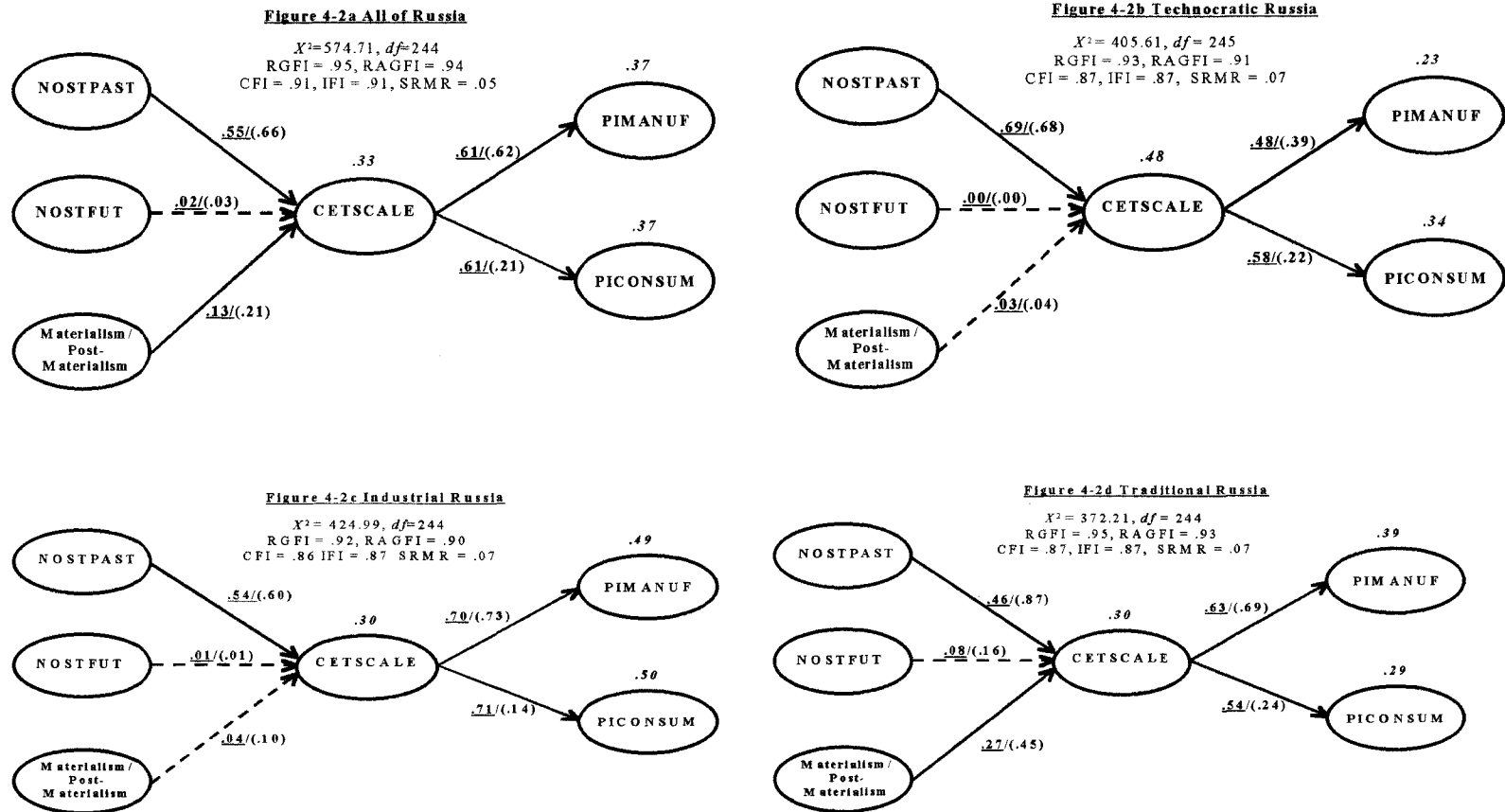


Figure 4-2 Comparison of Model among Russian Societies



Underlined values indicate standardized path estimates. **(Values in parenthesis)** indicate unstandardized path estimates. ***Italicized values*** indicate squared multiple correlations. Significant paths ($p \leq .05$) are indicated by a solid line. Insignificant paths are indicated by a dashed line.

Results of Hypotheses Tests

Hypothesis One [H_1] and Hypothesis Two [H_2 & H_{2a}] addressed the level of materialism [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values] across Russia's three societies and the strength of the relationship between materialism [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values] and the process variable, CETSCALE. H_1 posited that the more materialistic [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values] an individual the higher his or her level of consumer ethnocentrism. Results indicate that although Materialism/Post-Materialism [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values/ Psychologically-Oriented Society Values] is significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism for the entire Russian sample [$\beta^{31}=.21$, $t=2.97$] and for Traditional Russia [$\beta^{31}=.45$, $t=3.46$], it is insignificant for Technocratic [$\beta^{31}=.04$, $t=0.43$] as well as for Industrial Russia [$\beta^{31}=.10$, $t=0.60$]. Therefore, results for H_1 are mixed and are dependent upon where the model is applied.

H_2 and H_{2a} posited that significant differences existed among Russia's three societies and that Materialism scores would be highest in Traditional Russia followed by Industrial and then by Technocratic Russia. ANOVA, employing SPSS 10.0, was utilized to assess whether significant differences existed in mean averages for Russia's three societies. Based upon the results [reference Table 4-11] of the ANOVA [F-statistic, 1.150, significance level of 0.317], the difference in materialism levels across groups was not found to be significant. Consequently, H_2 was not supported. The highest level of Materialism [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values] was found in Industrial Russia, followed by Technocratic, and then by Traditional Russia, but again, none of these differences was found to be statistically significant. Therefore, H_{2a} was not supported.

Table 4-11 - Descriptives for Materialism			
<i>Society</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>Min-Max Scores</i>
Technocratic	2.04	1.12	1.00-6.67
Industrial	1.93	0.81	1.00-4.50
Traditional	2.09	1.08	1.00-6.67
All of Russia	2.02	1.01	1.00-6.67
ANOVA Materialism			
	<i>F-statistic</i>	<i>Significance level</i>	
Technocratic versus Industrial		.557	
Technocratic versus Traditional		.888	
Industrial versus Traditional		.301	

Hypothesis 3 [H_3] and Hypothesis 4 [H_4 & H_{4a}] addressed the level of Nostalgia across Russia's three societies along with the strength of the relationship between Nostalgia and the CETSCALE. The Nostalgia construct was split into two factors, NOSTPAST and NOSTFUT; therefore, Hypotheses 3 and 4 were tested individually for each factor. NOSTFUT was not significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism for each society: Technocratic [$\beta^{21}=.00$, $t=-0.06$], Industrial [$\beta^{21}=.01$, $t=0.11$] and Traditional [$\beta^{21}=.16$, $t=0.75$]. This was also found for Russia as a whole [$\beta^{21}=.03$, $t=0.39$]. Therefore, H_3 is not supported for NOSTFUT. NOSTPAST was found to be significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism for each society: Technocratic [$\beta^{11}=.68$, $t=6.43$], Industrial [$\beta^{11}=.60$, $t=5.13$], and Traditional [$\beta^{11}=.87$, $t=3.48$] as well as for All of Russia [$\beta^{11}=.66$, $t=8.45$]. Therefore, H_3 is supported for NOSTPAST.

In order to test H_4 and H_{4a} the factor means were subjected to a series of one-way ANOVAs for NOSTPAST AND NOSTFUT utilizing SPSS 10.0. Comparisons were made with two groups at a time, i.e., Technocratic versus Industrial, Technocratic versus Traditional, and Industrial versus Traditional Russia [reference Table 4-12].

Table 4-12 - Descriptives for Nostalgia						
<i>Society</i>	<i>Mean</i>		<i>Standard Deviation</i>		<i>Min-Max Scores</i>	
	<i>NOSTPAST</i>	<i>NOSTFUT</i>	<i>NOSTPAST</i>	<i>NOSTFUT</i>	<i>NOSTPAST</i>	<i>NOSTFUT</i>
Technocratic	13.96	4.26	5.03	2.39	3.00-21.00	3.00-14.00
Industrial	15.04	4.46	5.28	2.67	3.00-21.00	5.00-14.00
Traditional	15.63	4.52	4.64	2.88	3.00-21.00	2.00-14.00
All of Russia	14.86	4.41	5.03	2.65	3.00-21.00	2.00-14.00

ANOVA for Nostalgia

<i>Comparison</i>	<i>Significance Level</i>	
	<i>NOSTPAST</i>	<i>NOSTFUT</i>
Technocratic versus Industrial*	.057	.465
Technocratic versus Traditional**	.002	.381
Industrial versus Traditional	.281	.866

*Significant at the .05 level. ** Significant at .10 level.

Results for H₄ were mixed and vary based upon location and factor. H₄ is supported with significant differences between Technocratic and Industrial Russia [.057] and significant differences between Technocratic and Traditional Russia [.002] for NOSTPAST. Insignificant differences were present between Industrial and Traditional Russia for NOSTPAST and among all Russian societies for NOSTFUT. Overall nostalgia, NOSTPAST and NOSTFUT, was highest in Traditional Russia, followed by Industrial and then Technocratic Russia, thus providing support for H_{4a}. This support is at best weak due to insignificant differences between four of the six pairs.

Hypotheses Five [H₅] through Eight [H₈] were tested utilizing hierarchical linear modeling. As previously stated in Chapter 3, HLM has three general research applications: 1) improved estimation of effects within individual units, 2) testing of hypotheses about cross-level effects and 3) the partitioning of variance and covariance components among levels (Bryk and Raudenbush 1992, p 3). HLM analyzes data hierarchically by assessing the values of lower-level observations and how they are influenced by higher-level observations. Main effects at the regional level include average regional household income, average regional household expenditures, and average regional household ownership of select assets. Averaging the percent ownership

of selected assets for each region allows for the establishment of an affluence scale. If every household in a particular subculture owned the selected assets, the affluence level would be 100%. Main effects at the individual level include Materialism [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values], NOSTFUT and NOSTPAST scores. The covariates included such demographic information as gender, age and education.

The first step pursued in analyzing the impact of regional differences on consumer ethnocentrism levels was to determine whether a significant difference exists among societies with regard to higher-level effects, e.g., average household income, average household expenditures, ownership of household assets. Although it is optimal to use data from the original population when developing characteristics for higher-level effects, this is not possible due to the substantial percentage of respondents that refused to answer questions related to income [reference Table 4-2]. This was anticipated and data from a secondary database, the Russian Longitudinal Monitoring Survey [RLMS], was drawn upon to develop characteristics for each society. The RLMS includes approximately 1,900 households from over 30 locations, cities and villages in Russia. These locations were identified as being part of Technocratic, Industrial, or Traditional Russia. Societal characteristics employed as higher-level effects included average household income, average household expenditures, and percent ownership of select assets. These were calculated for each society. Differences among societies for average household income and average household expenditures were determined by utilizing ANOVA, while Chi-Square tests were employed to determine whether differences existed in household ownership of assets [reference Table 4-13].

Table 4-13 Descriptives for Three Russian Societies
Average Household Monthly Income* (ANOVA)

<i>Society</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>	<i>Min-Max</i>
Technocratic	194	4,570	4,256	0-28,000
Industrial	883	3,486	3,134	0-38,400
Traditional	838	2,289	3,536	0-49,734
All of Russia	1,915	3,072	3,520	0-49,374

ANOVA and Mean Difference for Household Income

<i>Comparison</i>	<i>Mean Difference</i>	<i>Significance Level</i>
Technocratic versus Industrial	1,084	.000
Technocratic versus Traditional	2,280	.000
Industrial versus Traditional	1,197	.000

Average Household Monthly Expenditures* (ANOVA)

	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>	<i>Min-Max</i>
Technocratic	194	3,664	4,125	30,833
Industrial	883	2,366	3,106	41,307
Traditional	838	1,362	2,086	29,583
All of Russia	1,915	2,058	2,930	41,307

ANOVA and Mean Difference for Household Expenditures

<i>Comparison</i>	<i>Mean Difference</i>	<i>Significance Level</i>
Technocratic versus Industrial	1,298	.000
Technocratic versus Traditional	2,303	.000
Industrial versus Traditional	1,004	.000

Percent Ownership of Assets

<i>Asset</i>	<i>Number/Percent Ownership by Society</i>						<i>Pearson Chi-square Significance</i>
	<i>Technocratic</i>	<i>Industrial</i>	<i>Traditional</i>	<i>Technocratic</i>	<i>Industrial</i>	<i>Traditional</i>	
Refrigerator	190	98%	849	96%	724	86%	.000
Washer	152	78%	713	81%	643	77%	.135
Television (color)	164	85%	744	84%	520	62%	.000
VCR	96	50%	334	37%	220	26%	.000
Hairdryer	111	57%	383	43%	152	18%	.000
Computer	34	18%	48	5%	5	<1%	.000
Freezer	13	6%	73	8%	24	3%	.000
Overall		56%		51%		39%	

*Expressed in rubles.

Statistical significances were found for average household income, average household expenditures, and average household ownership of six of the seven assets examined among Russian societies. Economic development was found to be statistically different between each society [reference Table 4-13].

HLM5 was employed to evaluate the model utilizing main individual effects, main regional effects, and covariates. The initial model was modified due to "near singularity" in level-2, regional level main effects, between asset ownership, average

income, and average expenditures. "Near singularity" is a result of collinearity or multicollinearity among the predictors. Average monthly household income was eliminated for the reasons previously discussed, i.e. general concern with accurate reporting of this variable. Average monthly household expenditures were eliminated due to concern that households may not accurately track spending and the fact that reported statistics were "guestimates." Alternatively, most individuals are aware of the physical assets in their household. Therefore, it was decided to utilize assets ownership as the only main effect at the regional level. The resultant models for Level-1 (Individual effects) and Level-2 (Regional Effects) are presented below:

Level-1 Model (Individual Level)

$$\text{CETSCALE} = \beta_0 + \beta_1(\text{MPM}) + \beta_2(\text{NOSTPAS}) + \beta_3(\text{NOSTFUT}) + \beta_4(\text{GENDER}) + \beta_5(\text{AGE}) + \beta_6(\text{EDUCATIO}) + r$$

Level-2 Model (Regional Level)

$$\beta_0 = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}(\text{ASSETS}) + u_0$$

$$\beta_1 = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}(\text{ASSETS}) + u_1$$

$$\beta_2 = \gamma_{20} + u_2$$

$$\beta_3 = \gamma_{30} + u_3$$

$$\beta_4 = \gamma_{40}$$

$$\beta_5 = \gamma_{50}$$

$$\beta_6 = \gamma_{60}$$

Substituting Level-2 equations into the Level-1 equation allows examination of the model tested by HLM 5.

$$\text{CETSCALE} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{10}(\text{MPM}) + \gamma_{20}(\text{NOSTPAS}) + \gamma_{30}(\text{NOSTFUT}) + \gamma_{01}(\text{ASSETS}) + \gamma_{11}(\text{ASSETS})(\text{MPM}) + \gamma_{40}(\text{GENDER}) + \gamma_{50}(\text{AGE}) + \gamma_{60}(\text{EDUCATIO}) + u_2 + u_3 + r$$

The model was executed and the results are presented in Table 4-14.

Table 4-14 Final estimation of Fixed Effects						
Fixed Effect	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-ratio	d.f.	P-value	
For INTRCPT1, B0						
INTRCPT2, G00	1.050156	0.493809	2.127	8	<i>0.066</i>	
ASSETS, G01	0.142482	0.049796	2.861	8	<i>0.022</i>	
For MPM slope, B1						
INTRCPT2, G10	0.176042	0.066595	2.643	8	<i>0.030</i>	
ASSETS, G11	-0.021800	0.008227	-2.650	8	<i>0.030</i>	
For NOSTPAS slope, B2						
INTRCPT2, G20	0.332525	0.043177	7.701	9	<i>0.000</i>	
For NOSTFUT slope, B3						
INTRCPT2, G30	0.037862	0.055108	0.687	9	0.509	
For GENDER slope, B4						
INTRCPT2, G40	-0.197327	0.126209	-1.563	485	0.118	
For AGE slope, B5						
INTRCPT2, G50	0.021606	0.004124	5.239	485	<i>0.000</i>	
For EDUCATIO slope, B6						
INTRCPT2, G60	-0.109193	0.048415	-2.255	485	<i>0.024</i>	
P-values $\leq .05$ are bolded while those between .05 & .10 are <i>bolded and italicized</i> .						

Based upon these results it was then possible to test hypotheses Five [H₅] through eight [H₈]. Hypothesis Five proposed that individual main effects significantly contributed to consumer ethnocentrism levels. Results for H5 varied with NOSTPAS being significant [.000], Materialism [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values] being significant [.030], and NOSTFUT being insignificant [.509]. Hypothesis Six [H₆] proposed that the Level-2 effect, average asset ownership, is significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism levels. This hypothesis is supported with a P-value of .022, thus indicating that regional differences impact CETSCALE levels. Hypothesis Seven [H₇] stated that the interaction of Average Asset Ownership and Materialism [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values] would significantly contribute to CETSCALE levels. H₇ was also supported with a .030 P-Value. Therefore, it can be stated that regional-level main effects significantly impact consumer ethnocentrism levels across Russia's three societies and through interaction with materialism [Physiologically-Oriented Society Values], which is a Level-1 effect. Hypothesis Eight [H₈] posited that age, gender, and education covariates significantly impact consumer ethnocentrism levels in Russia. The results for

H₈ were mixed indicating that age [.000], education [.024], and gender are insignificant [.118] predictors of consumer ethnocentrism levels.

Hypotheses Nine [H₉ & H_{9a}] addressed the level of consumer ethnocentrism found across Russia's three societies. H₉ posited that consumer ethnocentrism is significantly different across Russian societies, while H_{9a} stated that Traditional Russia possesses the highest CETSCALE score followed in turn Industrial and Technocratic Russia. In order to test H₉ and H_{9a}, factor means were subjected to a series of Oneway-ANOVAs for the reduced 8-item CETSCALE utilizing SPSS 10.0 [reference Table 4-15].

Table 4-15 - Descriptives for CETSCALE			
<i>Society</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>Min-Max Scores</i>
Technocratic	35.39	11.79	8.00-56.00
Industrial	36.02	13.78	8.00-56.00
Traditional	35.95	13.84	8.00-56.00
All of Russia	35.78	13.13	8.00-56.00

ANOVA for CETSCALE	
<i>Comparison</i>	<i>Significance Level</i>
Technocratic versus Industrial	.649
Technocratic versus Traditional	.689
Industrial versus Traditional	.961

Based upon the results neither H₉ nor H_{9a} were supported. A significant difference did not exist in CETSCALE scores among societies and the level of consumer ethnocentrism did not follow hypothesized patterns.

Hypothesis Ten [H₁₀] evaluated whether significant differences existed with regard to purchase preference by product type for all respondents throughout Russia. In order to determine purchase preference differences between product types mean factor scores, 4.09 for PIMANUF and 5.84 for PICONSUM [the higher the response the stronger the preference for Russian goods] were subjected to pairwise t-tests utilizing SPSS 10.0. Results indicated that despite a significant correlation [.465 correlation, .000 significance] between the two factors, there were significant differences [t-value -27.887,

significance level .000] between product purchase preferences for All of Russia [reference Table 4-16].

Hypothesis Ten 'A' [H_{10a}] evaluated if there were significant differences among Russian societies for product purchase preference. Mean factor scores for PIMANUF and PICONSUM were compared in a series of one-way ANOVAs among Russia's Three Societies. Results indicated that there were significant differences for PIMANUF for Technocratic versus Traditional [.000 level], Industrial versus Traditional [.027 level], and Technocratic versus Industrial Russia [at the .085 level]. Significant differences existed for PICONSUM for Technocratic versus Traditional [.020] and Technocratic versus Industrial [.025]; however, Industrial versus Traditional [.853] Russia was insignificant.

Table 4-16 - Descriptives for Product Factors						
<i>Society</i>	<i>Mean</i>		<i>Standard Deviation</i>		<i>Min-Max Scores</i>	
	<i>PIMANUF</i>	<i>PICONSUM</i>	<i>PIMANUF</i>	<i>PICONSUM</i>	<i>PIMANUF</i>	<i>PICONSUM</i>
Technocratic	3.78	5.66	1.39	1.07	1.00-7.00	2.50-7.00
Industrial	4.06	5.92	1.52	1.09	1.00-7.00	1.75-7.00
Traditional	4.44	5.94	1.55	1.18	1.00-7.00	1.75-7.00
All of Russia	4.09	5.84	1.51	1.12	1.00-7.00	1.75-7.00

ANOVA for Product Factors		
<i>Comparison</i>	<i>Significance Level</i>	
	<i>PIMANUF</i>	<i>PICONSUM</i>
Technocratic versus Industrial	.085	.025
Technocratic versus Traditional	.000	.020
Industrial versus Traditional	.027	.853

These analyses indicate that Russians prefer "homegrown" consumable goods [toothpaste, chickens, films, and vodka] over "homegrown" manufactured goods [refrigerator, automobiles, television, computer, clothing and medicine] and that there are significant differences in product preferences among Russian societies.

Provided in Table 4-17 is a recapitulation of the results of the hypotheses. A summary of the findings, discussion of the theoretical and managerial implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research are provided in Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations.

Table 4-17 Results of Hypotheses	
Hypothesis	Results
H1: The more materialistic an individual, the higher his/her levels of consumer ethnocentrism.	Entire sample & Trad Russia: Significant. Tech & Ind Russia: Insignificant
H2: Materialistic Values are significantly different across Russia's three co-existing cultures.	Insignificant
H2a: Materialistic Values are expected to be highest in Agricultural Russia, followed by industrial Russia, then technocratic Russia.	Insignificant.
H3: Higher levels of nostalgia will result in increased levels of consumer ethnocentrism.	NOSTPAST: Significant NOSTFUT: Insignificant
H4: Nostalgia is significantly different across Russia's three co-existing cultures.	NOSTPAST: Significant NOSTFUT: Insignificant
H4a: Nostalgia levels are expected to be highest in Agricultural Russia, followed by industrial Russia, then technocratic Russia.	Significant although weak support due to insignificant differences among societies.
H5: Individual main effects are expected to significantly contribute to consumer ethnocentrism levels.	NOSTPAST & Materialism: Significant. NOSTFUT: Insignificant.
H6: Regional main effects are expected to significantly contribute to consumer ethnocentrism levels.	Significant.
H7: Cross-level interactions [materialism and regional economic level] are expected to significantly contribute to consumer ethnocentrism levels.	Significant.
H8: Covariates are expected to insignificantly contribute to consumer ethnocentrism levels.	Age & Education: Significant. Gender: Insignificant.
H9: Consumer Ethnocentrism is significantly different across Russia's three co-existing cultures.	Insignificant.
H9a: Consumer ethnocentrism levels are expected to be highest in Agricultural Russia, followed by industrial Russia and then technocratic Russia	Insignificant.
H10: Russians will demonstrate differing levels of consumer ethnocentrism [expressed as product purchase intention] across different product types.	Significant.
H10a: Differences will exist in product purchase intentions across Russia's three sub-cultures for different products.	Technocratic v. Industrial & Technocratic v. Traditional : Significant. Industrial v. Traditional. Insignificant

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the findings, discuss theoretical and managerial implications of the results, identify limitations in the research, and provide recommendations for future research. The overall goals of this research, identified in Chapter 1: Statement of the Problem, are reiterated. The first objective was to determine the strength of the relationship of the antecedents: materialism/post-materialism [physiologically-oriented society values/psychologically-oriented society values] and nostalgia to the process variable: consumer ethnocentrism. The second goal was to determine if expressed purchase intentions, the outcome measure, for various domestically-produced goods are related to differing levels of consumer ethnocentrism. The third aim was to assess differences in the strengths of the linkages among constructs across separate co-existing cultures theorized to be present in Russia today.

Summary of the Findings

Previous research identified antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism in a single country (Sharma et al. 1995) and across countries (Balabanis et al. 2001; Good and Huddleston 1995; Clarke et al. 2000), but this is the first known effort to research to have evaluate antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism across recognized societies within a single country. Hypotheses One through Four addressed the impact select antecedents had on consumer ethnocentrism across Russia's three societies. Inglehart's (1977) materialism, which measures an individual's orientation towards physiologically-oriented society values over psychologically-oriented society values, was found to be significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism for All of Russia and for Traditional Russia, but not

for Technocratic or Industrial Russia. Materialistic values [physiologically-oriented society values] were highest in Industrial Russia followed in turn by Technocratic then Traditional Russia, but significant differences did not exist in mean scores among Russian societies. Consequently, it can be stated that a common societal value [materialism: physiologically-oriented society values] is shared across societies; however, only for Traditional Russia did this value manifest itself in higher levels of consumer ethnocentrism. This indicates that shared societal values may or may not significantly influence individual tendencies and that the environment impacts the relationships among constructs.

The significant relationship between materialism [physiologically-oriented society values] and consumer ethnocentrism in Traditional Russia skewed the results found for All of Russia. If Russia had not been separated into societies, as was the case with previous research addressing consumer ethnocentrism that used geographically specific samples to represent the entire country (Good and Huddleston 1995; Durvasula et al. 1997), false conclusions could have been drawn. Consequently, there would have been questions about the viability of materialism, or any other measure, as an antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism for select societies within Russia. This conclusion does not negate previous findings (Good and Huddleston 1995; Durvasula et al. 1997) but redefines results to the particular societies examined in that research.

In this study, nostalgia was decomposed into NOSTPAST, longing for the past, and NOSTFUT, belief that the future will be better. Belief among Russians that the future will be brighter, NOSTFUT, was similarly pessimistic across societies. This negativity towards the future may reflect the economic and social turbulence that Russia has

experienced in the past 15 years or it may be an endemic quality of the Russian character. Concern about the future did not result in higher CETSCALE scores since NOSTFUT failed to significantly predict consumer ethnocentrism. NOSTPAST was found to significantly influence CETSCALE scores for the entire sample, as well as for each of the three different Russian societies. Significant differences existed between Technocratic and Industrial Russia and between Technocratic and Traditional Russia with regard to NOSTPAST mean scores. Industrial and Traditional Russia were both found to possess a more favorable view of the past than Technocratic Russia. This can be attributed potentially to Moscow and St. Petersburg experiencing greater overall economic benefits from the transition from communism to free markets in Russia. Unlike the findings for materialism [physiologically-oriented society values] the relationship between NOSTPAST and consumer ethnocentrism was significant across Russian societies despite significant differences in NOSTPAST mean scores among Russian societies.

Hierarchical Linear Modeling was employed to assess the impact that societal effects [regional effects] have on consumer ethnocentrism levels in Russia for hypotheses Five through Eight. Instead of decomposing Russia into three separate societies and comparing models across groups [i.e., analysis employing structural equations modeling] HLM allows values to be assigned to different societies and evaluates the impact that nesting has on the outcome variable for the entire sample.

Hypothesis Five posited that individual effects would significantly contribute to consumer ethnocentrism levels. The HLM analysis found individual main effects, NOSTPAST and materialism, to be significant predictors of consumer ethnocentrism, while NOSTFUT was not found significant.

Assessed by using an affluence scale based upon ownership of select assets to represent the differences in economic levels among Russian societies, regional main effects were a significant predictor of CETSCALE scores. Therefore, overall economic development of the society does appear to impact consumer ethnocentrism levels found in these respective societies. Consequently, hypothesis Six was supported.

HLM also allows for cross-level interaction between societal and individual values. A cross-product term of materialism/society significantly impacted consumer ethnocentrism levels. This indicates that the impact of materialism on consumer ethnocentrism is stronger in a society with a lower affluence level - the poorer the society the stronger the impact materialism has on consumer ethnocentrism. Thus, hypothesis seven was also supported.

It was expected that covariates would be found to significantly contribute to consumer ethnocentrism levels [hypothesis eight]. Age and education were found to be significant predictors of consumer ethnocentrism, while gender was not. This differs from previous studies in Russia (Good and Huddleston 1995; Huddleston et al. 2000) in which age, gender, and income had no impact on consumer ethnocentrism levels. However, previous research included convenience samples limited to Moscow; whereas, this research employed a more representative Russian sample.

Hypothesis nine posited that CETSCALE mean scores would be significantly different across Russian societies and that consumer ethnocentrism would be highest in Traditional Russia followed in turn by Industrial and then Technocratic Russia. The basis for this ordering among Russian societies was their respective levels of affluence and the belief that increased economic development would result in decreased levels of consumer

ethnocentrism. When tested, the difference in CETSCALE mean scores among Russian societies was not significant. In addition, the ranking of mean scores did not follow the hypothesized order. However, evaluating the rank of different societies with regard to CETSCALE mean scores is less meaningful when statistical differences do not exist. Whereas previous international application of the CETSCALE (Sharma et al. 1995; Clarke et al. 2000; Hult et al. 1999; Klein and Ettenson 1999; Watson and Wright 1999; Durvasula et al. 1997; Good and Huddleston 1995; and Huddleston et al. 2000) resulted in significant difference across groups [or countries], this research found that Russia behaves uniformly with regard to consumer ethnocentric tendencies across societies.

Respondents expressed their purchase preference by product, domestically-produced versus imported, for ten different products. Factor analysis indicated that the ten products formed two factors: one containing primarily manufactured goods, PIMANUF, and the other primarily consumable items, PICONSUM. The moderate levels of consumer ethnocentrism exhibited by CETSCALE mean scores did not demonstrate itself at the product level. Russians significantly prefer domestically-produced consumable goods to domestically-produced manufactured goods. In addition, significant differences were found for preference of manufactured items among all three societies and between Technocratic versus Industrial and Technocratic versus Traditional Russia for consumable items. Domestically-produced products, both manufactured and consumable, were most preferred in Traditional Russia followed, respectively, by Industrial and Technocratic Russia. Although no hypothesis was offered regarding the order of product preference among Russian societies, the pattern mimics that of the hypothesized consumer ethnocentrism levels. Perhaps, product purchase preference

reveals consumer ethnocentric tendencies more accurately than overall CETSCALE scores in Russia. Firms need to evaluate consumer ethnocentrism at the product level rather than relying on the CETSCALE to understand how Russians feel about purchasing specific imported products.

In summary, the first objective of this research was to determine the strength of the relationships between the antecedents and the process variable. The results indicated that antecedents, NOSTPAST and materialism, were significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism. The second goal was to determine if the CETSCALE was an accurate predictor of product purchase intention. Examining the entire sample [reference Table 5-1] the coefficient of determination for PIMANUF and PICONSUM indicates that the CETSCALE explains more than one-third of the variance in these constructs. However, when assessing the strength of the CETSCALE for explaining variation in PIMANUF and PICONSUM for Russia's three societies [reference Table 5-1], the coefficient of determination varies from as high of .50 for PICONSUM in Industrial Russia to a low of .23 for PIMANUF in Technocratic Russia. The results for this goal vary, based upon product type and society.

This finding addresses the very essence of the third aim of this research: to assess differences in the strengths of the linkages among constructs across separate co-existing cultures in Russia today. An important finding of this research is the inconsistency in which the model behaves across Russian societies. The coefficients of determination differ for CETSCALE, PIMANUF, and PICONSUM among groups [reference Table 5-1]. This indicates that a model that has considerable explanatory power in one part of Russia may exhibit moderate explanatory power in other parts of Russia. This implies

that a model can be more or less effective based upon its application to particular societal or population segments. Ergo, the first step in international research is to identify major components of a population within a country that may respond to models differently. Then it is possible to evaluate a model across identified groups to determine the universal meaningfulness of the proposed model.

Table 5-1 Key Differences Among Russian Societies				
Variable & Strength of Relationship	All of Russia	Technocratic Russia	Industrial Russia	Traditional Russia
NOSTPAST/Std. Path Estimate	Significant/.55	Significant/.69	Significant/.54	Significant/.46
NOSTFUT/Std. Path Estimate	Insignificant/.02	Insignificant/.00	Insignificant/.01	Insignificant/.08
Materialism/Std. Path Estimate	Significant/.13	Insignificant/.03	Insignificant/.04	Significant/.27
Coefficient of Determination for CETSCALE	.33	.48	.30	.30
PIMANUF/Std. Path Estimate	Significant/.61	Significant/.48	Significant/.70	Significant/.63
Coefficient of Determination for PIMANUF	.37	.23	.49	.39
PICONSUM/Std. Path Estimate	Significant/.61	Significant/.58	Significant/.71	Significant/.54
Coefficient of Determination for PICONSUM	.37	.34	.50	.29

Implications

Theoretical

This research adds to the theoretical development of the CETSCALE by identifying antecedents not previously evaluated [reference table 5-1]. Previous research determined that consumer psychographics and demographics (Shimp and Sharma 1987; Netemeyer et al. 1991; Clarke et al. 2000; and Balabanis et al. 2001), as well as cultural influences (Sharma et al. 1995), are positively related to consumer ethnocentrism. Nostalgia, a powerful marketing construct that directly influences consumer behavior (Holbrook and Schindler 1991) and is related to an emotional state (Hirsch 1992) influences consumer ethnocentric tendencies. Emotions, which are very powerful influencers of behavior (Hirsch 1992), may be as strong in influencing an individual's level of consumer ethnocentrism as attitudes, interests, opinions, age, income, gender and cultural differences.

Materialism [physiologically-oriented society values] was most profoundly related to consumer ethnocentrism for Traditional Russia, the least economically developed of the three societies, notwithstanding the materialism level being comparatively equal across all three societies. In conclusion, the relationship between societal values and consumer ethnocentrism is moderated by environmental influences.

Similar to the relationship between materialism [physiologically-oriented society values] and consumer ethnocentrism the ability of the CETSCALE to predict consumer behavior at the product level is environmentally influenced. The CETSCALE has been linked to purchase preference of select products across countries (Netemeyer et al. 1991), across regions within a country (Shimp and Sharma 1987), and to product necessity and personal/national economic threat of imports (Sharma et al. 1995). However, this research expands the number of products being evaluated and identifies product groupings. Therefore, it is possible to hypothesize the relationship between the CETSCALE and the type of product, manufactured or consumable, across different societies within a country thus making product specific evaluation unnecessary. The CETSCALE is useful in predicting purchase intent not only for individual products, but also product types. However, the strength of this relationship may change across sample groups.

The most significant contribution of this research is the recognition that a model, or the relationship between constructs in a model, differs among segments within a particular country. Balabanis et al. (2001) reported antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism varied among countries. This research found that materialism was significant for explaining consumer ethnocentrism in one Russian society, but not in the

other two societies. Equally important is the inconsistency in which the model explained variance in the dependent constructs across different Russian societies. This indicates that if a model is not applied to a sample representing elements within the country, the interpretation of the results is limited to those segments of the population surveyed in that research. For this reason, any theory or construct developed or tested internationally requires application to a sample that represents the country. If not, the resultant theory or outcomes may be falsely attributed to the entire population of that country.

Managerial

The managerial implications of this research stem from the theoretical implications discussed in the previous section and may be transferable to other transitional economies. The identification of antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism assists firms in developing strategies and techniques to overcome consumer ethnocentric tendencies in the target market, thus improving the success likelihood of imported products.

This research identified nostalgia, or favorable opinion of the past, as being significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism. Consumers who are nostalgic will purchase domestically-produced goods over imported goods. A firm wanting to capitalize on the significant level of nostalgia should, if possible, position their brand as Russian. This may be accomplished through incorporating historical figures or national accomplishments into its brand or communication strategies. Another possible strategy would be to ignore the other parts of Russia and target Technocratic Russia, which proved to be less nostalgic than Industrial or Traditional Russia, with imported products.

In addition, firms marketing products in Traditional Russia should take into account that materialism [physiologically-oriented society values] is significantly related to consumer ethnocentrism in that society. This indicates that consumers in this region of Russia value safety and sustenance needs and that imported products may be perceived as a threat to these values. In order to improve the success of imported products in this market, firms may want to position their products, brands, or companies as benefiting the materialistic [physiologically-oriented society values] well-being in Russia. Examples of actions a firm may pursue include donating to schools, hospitals, veterans and retirees. Such a strategy would probably not be as effective in either Technocratic or Industrial Russia.

Consumer ethnocentrism levels did not consistently explain, exhibited by varying coefficient of determination statistics, purchase intent for manufactured and consumable goods across Russia's three societies. This means that marketers cannot simply rely on CETSCALE scores in trying to understand how the local market is going to accept products or react to marketing strategies. Russians may answer questions like those composing the CETSCALE construct as a theoretical exercise; however, when faced with the reality of choosing a product, imported versus domestically-produced, answer practically and in their own self-interests.

Domestically-produced consumable goods were preferred over domestically-produced manufactured goods throughout Russia; however, significant differences existed among societies by product type. This information can be used to investigate why these differences exist for different product types. For example, are some areas more loyal to certain products due to local production of those product types; is there a concern

that imported consumables use excessive preservatives; or are imported manufactured goods perceived to be higher quality? It is very important that firms assess product level consumer ethnocentrism as opposed to relying on results of the CETSCALE to understand how respondents feel about imported products. This inconsistency in construct relationships is valuable for marketers to recognize and allows them to adjust their marketing strategies across different Russian societies. Simply stated: Russia is not a homogeneous market.

Limitations

Despite a great amount of diligence in developing the model, selecting representative sample groups for Russia's three societies, and developing the hypotheses, there are still weaknesses and limitations present in this research. These weaknesses and limitations are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Only two constructs were assessed as antecedents to consumer ethnocentrism in this research. There are many other constructs, based upon previous research (Sharma et al. 1995; Clarke et al. 2000; Balabanis et al. 2001), which could have been added to this research possibly strengthening the model and improving the final results.

The sample group could be expanded to include groups from the Russian Far East and Northern areas. It would have been desirable to apply this model to other Former Soviet States and communist countries to evaluate its applicability across multiple countries, as well as regions, e.g., Slavic, Scandinavian, the Caucasus, and Central Asian Republics. It is the desire of any researcher to expand sample groups, but time and resources are a constant issue.

Consumer ethnocentric tendencies were evaluated at the product level for ten products. It would have improved this research if the number and variety of products had been expanded. The ten products were chosen with the purpose of representing various product types [e.g., food, hygiene, transportation, artistic] but only one product represented each product type. The final product factors may have differed if the number of products representing each group were expanded.

An inherent limitation was that the only second-level effect for the HLM analysis originated from a separate non-related database. Initially, there were three second-level effects, but this was reduced to one due to singularity. Additional second level effects, non-income or non-affluence related, should be identified and utilized. In addition, only one interaction variable was evaluated. The second-level effect may also significantly interact with covariates and other first-level effects to influence consumer ethnocentrism levels.

Income was not included as a variable in the HLM analysis, nor were different population groups based upon income. Finding a commonly accepted definition for income and confirming accurate reporting in Russia was difficult. Further analysis on proper techniques to be used for extracting income-related information from Russian samples should be undertaken.

A final limitation to this research involves the fact that the constructs selected to measure the respondents' levels of nostalgia, orientation towards physiological-oriented societal values, consumer ethnocentric tendencies, and intent to purchase imported versus domestically-produced products may be flawed. Each of the measures was chosen with a

great deal of care but, as with any research project, the influence of the researcher may impact the objectiveness of the study.

Recommendations for Future Research

Consumer ethnocentrism has been the subject of extensive research; however, the following recommendations are made for future research and for the purpose of providing further understanding of the construct.

Previous research addressed individual values (Shimp and Sharma 1987; Sharma et al. 1995; Clarke et al. 2000; Balabanis et al. 2001) and their impact on consumer ethnocentrism, but this research addresses the impact of societal values on consumer ethnocentrism: one that has been applied by Inglehart (1977) across scores of countries. Testing the impact of other societal values across societal segments among countries would expand the understanding of consumer ethnocentrism.

Inglehart's (1977) materialism/post-materialism scale has been applied in over one hundred countries in a longitudinal study for the past twenty years as part of the world-values survey, but this is the first known case of where it is used as an antecedent for consumer ethnocentrism. If patterns could be established between materialism/post-materialism and consumer ethnocentric tendencies; those patterns could be tracked and analyzed over time across scores for a variety of countries. Future research may want to assess the relationships between other value scales [e.g., Schwartz 1992, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner 1998] and consumer ethnocentrism longitudinally.

If we accept that nostalgia reflects an emotional state (Hirsch 1977), other constructs that reflect emotional states should also be tested as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism [e.g., anxiety, stress, optimism, pessimism, assuredness, and liberation]. It

may be more fruitful to understand an individual's emotional state rather than their level of materialism, patriotism, nationalism, income, gender, age, or education when trying to understand how consumers develop tendencies towards buying imported products.

Steenkamp et al. (1999), employing HLM, found NOSTPAST and consumer ethnocentrism to be significant predictors of consumer innovativeness. Based upon the results in this research a means-end chain may form with NOSTPAST serving as an antecedent to consumer ethnocentrism, which in turn serves as an antecedent to consumer innovativeness. This would provide an excellent opportunity to further expand the use of structural equations modeling and hierarchical linear modeling together to analyze data collected from various markets.

This research found a societal affluence to significantly impact consumer ethnocentrism. Other societal level values could be included such as regional FDI and political environment [e.g., percent of voters supporting communist and nationalist parties]. Additional-primary level variables could be enhanced to include exposure to foreigners, personal political leanings, and profession.

The number of products should involved be also expanded. This research examined ten products. Increasing the number of products may result in a greater number of meaningful groupings. The relationship between each of these groupings and consumer ethnocentrism should be tested across different market segments.

The number of respondents and number of locations within each Russian society could be expanded. Future research should also take into account influences other than geographic variables [religion, history, geography, and ethnic composition of a country] that may create co-existing societies within a particular country.

Antecedents identified in this model, nostalgia and materialism/post-materialism, should be tested in other countries and segments within these countries. A significant contribution would be to assess the applicability of this model, and its underlying premise that transitional societies have developed into three co-existing societies, to other formerly communist and transitional countries. The greater the understanding that marketers and academics have of these countries, the greater the speed in which they develop sophisticated markets.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Appendix A Part One Eight-Item Nostalgia

Holbrook and Schindler (1994)	Study 1 Factor Loading	Study 2 Factor Loading
1) They don't make 'em like they used to	.49	.54
2) Things used to be better in the good old days	.47	.50
3) Products are getting shoddier and shoddier	.52	.54
4) Technological change will insure a brighter future	.76	.60
5) History involves a steady improvement in human welfare	.48	.43
6) We are experiencing a decline in the quality of life	.50	.61
7) Steady growth in GNP has brought increased human happiness	.58	.34
8) Modern business constantly build a better tomorrow	.62	.45

Appendix A Part Two Five Item Nostalgia Scale

Steenkamp et als. (1999)

- 1) Things used to be better in the good old days
- 2) Products are getting shoddier and shoddier
- 3) Technological change will insure a brighter future
- 4) We are experiencing a decline in the quality of life
- 5) Modern business constantly build a better tomorrow

Appendix B

MATERIALISM/POST-MATERIALISM SCALE (Inglehart 1981)

- a. Maintain order in the nation.
- b. Give people more say in the decisions of the government.
- c. Fight rising prices.
- d. Protect freedom of speech.
- e. Maintain a high rate of economic growth.
- f. Make sure the country has strong defense forces.
- g. Give people more say in how things are decided at work and in their community.
- h. Try to make our cities and countryside more beautiful.
- i. Maintain a stable economy.
- j. Fight against crime. Move toward a friendlier, less impersonal society.

Items a, c, e, g, i, and j tap materialism while the remaining tap post-materialism. Items a through d comprise the 4-item version of the scale.

Appendix C

CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM: THE CETSCALE (Shimp and Sharma 1987)

1. American people should always buy American-made products instead of imports.
- 2. Only those products that are unavailable in the U.S. should be imported.**
3. Buy American-made products. Keep America working.
- 4. American products, first, last and foremost.**
- 5. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-American.**
- 6. It is not right to purchase foreign products.**
- 7. A real American should always buy American-made products.**
- 8. We should purchase products manufactured in America instead of letting other countries get rich off us.**
9. It is always best to purchase American products.
10. There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.
- 11. American should not buy foreign products, because this hurts American 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 American 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 into the U.S.
- 16. We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.**
- 17. American consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans out of work.**

Items composing the ten-item reduced version are items 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 13, 16, and 17.

Appendix D

This survey is being conducted to assess people's attitudes towards several subjects pertinent to Russians. Please answer all questions honestly. Your opinions are important and your responses will be kept confidential.

The questionnaire should take about 15 minutes to complete. Thank you for participating in this research! The researcher and the academic institution conducting this survey appreciate your effort, time, and honesty.

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements. Please circle your response.

	Strongly Disagree				Neither Agree Agree				Strongly Agree				
1. Only those products that are produced in Russia should be imported.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Russian products, first, last and foremost.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Purchasing foreign-made products is being disloyal to Russia.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. It is not right to purchase foreign products....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. A true Russia citizen should always buy Russian-made products.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. We should purchase products manufactured in Russia instead of letting other countries get rich off of us.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Russian citizens should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Russian businesses and causes unemployment.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support (purchase) products made in Russia.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Consumers in Russia who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow countrymen out of work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

There is a lot of talk these days about what the aims of Russia should be for the next 10 years. Listed below are some of the goals which different people would give top priority. Please rank them 1 through 12 according to how you consider their level of importance to Russia over the next 10 years. The most important being number 1, the second most important number 2, and so on until you have ranked all 12.

- _____ Maintaining a high level of economic growth.
- _____ Making sure that this country has strong defense forces.
- _____ Giving people more opportunities to participate in the things that are done at their jobs and in their communities.
- _____ Trying to make our cities and countryside more beautiful.
- _____ Maintaining order in the nation.
- _____ Giving people more opportunities to participate in important governmental decisions.
- _____ Fighting rising prices.
- _____ Protecting freedom of speech.
- _____ A stable economy.
- _____ Progress toward a less impersonal and more humane society.
- _____ Progress toward a society in which ideas count more than money.
- _____ The fight against crime.

What goods do you prefer- Russian or imported? We are interested to know what you think in general. Please do not think of specific brands and do not consider income limitations. Circle your answer.

	Definitely Imported			Would Not Matter			Definitely Russian		
12. Refrigerator.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
13. Chicken [for dinner].....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
14. Toothpaste.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
15. Television.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
16. Clothing.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
17. Film.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
18. Computer.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
19. Automobile.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
20. Vodka.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
21. Medicine.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

Please rank the following products according to how important it is to produce them in Russia rather than import them from overseas.

	Not Important			No Opinion			Very Important		
12. Refrigerator.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
13. Chicken [for dinner].....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
14. Toothpaste.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
15. Television.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
16. Clothing.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
17. Film.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
18. Computer.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
19. Automobile.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
20. Vodka.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
21. Medicine.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements. Please circle your response.

	Strongly Disagree		Neither Agree Agree		Strongly Agree		
23. Imported products threaten the economic well-being of the Russian economy.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. Imported products are a threat to my own personal economic well-being.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. I prefer to buy Russian food products because they contain less preservatives and chemicals than imported goods.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26. I prefer to buy Imported manufactured goods because they are of higher quality than Russian manufactured goods.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27. Things used to be better in the good old days.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28. Products are getting shoddier and shoddier.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
29. Technological change will ensure a brighter future.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
30. We are experiencing a decline in quality of life.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
31. Modern business constantly builds a better tomorrow.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
32. It is important to me to have really nice things.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
33. I would like to be rich enough to buy anything I want.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
34. I would be happier if I could afford to buy more things.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
35. It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can not afford to buy all the things I want.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
36. People place too much emphasis on material things.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
37. It is really true that money can buy happiness.....	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In the next series of questions there are several references made to the term 'Russian'. For the purpose of this research, please consider references to "Russian" to indicate nationality and not ethnicity. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements. Please circle your response.

	Strongly Disagree			Neither Agree Agree			Strongly Agree						
38. Russian citizens are proud of their nationality.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. Important people from the country's past are admired by people today.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. One of Russia's strengths is that it emphasizes events of historical importance.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. Russia has a strong historical heritage.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. Russian citizens possess certain cultural attributes that other people do not possess.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. Russian citizens in general feel that they come from a common historical background....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. People frequently engage in activities that identify them as "Russian.".....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. A specific religious philosophy is what makes a person uniquely Russian.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. It is impossible for an individual to be truly "Russian" without taking part in some form of religious activity.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. Religious education is essential to preserve the cohesiveness of the Russian society.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. A specific religious philosophy is not an important part of being Russian.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. A true Russian would never reject his or her religious beliefs.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

50. Do you feel that your household is richer or poorer than the average household in all of Russia?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Much Same as Much
Poorer Average Richer

51. Do you feel that your household is richer or poorer than the average household in your city or town in which in live?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Much Same as Much
Poorer Average Richer

52. Do you feel that the changes in Russia in the last ten years have benefited or harmed your economic well-being?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Substantially Neither Benefited Substantially
Harmed nor Harmed Benefited

54. Do you feel that the changes in Russia in the last ten years have economically benefited or harmed the average Russian?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Substantially Neither Benefited Substantially
Harmed nor Harmed Benefited

D1. To which of the following geographical groups would you say you are connected to first of all?

- _____ The locality or town where you live.
- _____ The region or state where you live.
- _____ Russia as a whole.
- _____ Europe
- _____ The world as a whole.
- _____ Did not answer.

D2. To which of the following geographical groups would you say you are connected to second of all?

- _____ The locality or town where you live.
- _____ The region or state where you live.
- _____ Russia as a whole.
- _____ Europe
- _____ The world as a whole.
- _____ Did not answer.

D3. Have you been abroad in the past 5 years?

_____ No _____ Yes

D3a. If yes, where did you go last time _____

D3b. How long did you stay? _____

D4. Please indicate your gender

☐ Male
☐ Female

D5. What is your age (in years) _____

D6. Please indicate your level of education.

☐ Elementary and less
☐ Incomplete secondary
☐ Completed secondary
☐ Specialized secondary
☐ Did not complete higher education
☐ Higher

D7. Please indicate if you are now ...

☐ Working
☐ Unemployed
☐ Pensioner/disabled
☐ Student
☐ Housewife
☐ Other

D8. Are you the chief wage earner in your household?

☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ DK

D9a. What is your occupation? _____

D9b. What is the occupation of the chief wage earner of your household?

☐ Owner of own business
☐ Manager of enterprise
☐ Director of division or department
☐ Higher professional or specialist
☐ Professional or specialist
☐ Office worker
☐ Foreman, technician
☐ Skilled worker
☐ Semi-skilled or unskilled worker
☐ Military
☐ Manual agricultural laborer
☐ Never worked
☐ DK

D10. What is you monthly household income

- ☐ 800 rubles and less
- ☐ 801-1,200 rubles
- ☐ 1,2001-1,500 rubles
- ☐ 1,501-2,000 rubles
- ☐ 2,001-3,000 rubles
- ☐ 3001-5,000 rubles
- ☐ 5001-10,000
- ☐ 10,001-20,000
- ☐ 20,000+
- ☐ Refused/DK

D11. How many people live in your household? _____

D12. Nationality

- ☐ Russian
- ☐ Non-russian
- ☐ Refused
- ☐ DK

D13. Settlement type

- ☐ Village
- ☐ Town with population 1,000-20,000
- ☐ Town with population 20,000-100,000
- ☐ Town with population 100,000-500,000
- ☐ Town with population 500,000-1,000,000
- ☐ More than 1 million
- ☐ St. Petersburg
- ☐ Moscow

D14. Region

- ☐ Northern
- ☐ North-Western
- ☐ Central
- ☐ Volgo-Viatsky
- ☐ Central-Black Earth
- ☐ North-Caucasian
- ☐ Along Volga
- ☐ Urals
- ☐ West-Siberian
- ☐ East-Siberian
- ☐ Far Eastern

Thank you for your participation in this research!

Russian Version of Questionnaire

1-10. Я зачитаю Вам ряд высказываний. Пожалуйста, скажите, в какой степени Вы согласны или не согласны с каждым из них, используя 7-и бальную шкалу на этой карте. (ЗАЧИТАЙТЕ ПУНКТЫ 1-10 ПО ОЧЕРЕДИ И ПО КАЖДОМУ ОТМЕТЬТЕ ТОЛЬКО ОДИН ОТВЕТ).

ПЕРЕДАЙТЕ РЕСПОНДЕНТУ КАРТУ 1.

	Совершенно не согласен		Ни то, ни другое		Совершенно согласен		
1. Только те товары, которые не производятся в России, должны привозиться из-за рубежа.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. <i>Российские товары прежде всего</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Покупать импортные товары - не патриотично по отношению к России	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Покупать импортные товары нехорошо	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Истинный гражданин России должен всегда покупать только российские товары	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Мы должны покупать товары, произведенные в России, вместо того, чтобы помогать другим странам богатеть за наш счет.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Граждане России не должны поку- пать заграничные товары, т. к. это наносит урон российским предпри- ятиям и повышает уровень безработицы.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Может, мне это в конечном итоге обойдется дороже, но я предпочитаю покупать товары, произведенные в России	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Мы должны покупать за границей только те товары, которые невоз- можно достать в России.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Потребители, которые покупают им- портные товары, виноваты в том, что их соотечественники не могут найти работу.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ПЕРЕДАЙТЕ РЕСПОНДЕНТУ КАРТУ 2.

11. В последнее время много говорится о том, каковы же должны быть цели России на ближайшие 10 лет. Внизу перечислены цели, которые являются наиболее важными по мнению некоторых людей. Пронумеруйте эти цели в соответствии с тем, какие Вы считаете наиболее важными для России на ближайшие 10 лет. Самая важная цель- номер 1, вторая по важности- номер 2 и так далее до цели номер 12.

- _____ Высокий уровень экономического роста.
- _____ Обеспечение страны сильными вооруженными силами.
- _____ Предоставление людям больше возможности участвовать в решении различных вопросов на работе и по месту жительства.
- _____ Постараться преукрасить наши города и деревни.
- _____ Поддержание порядка и законности в стране.
- _____ Предоставление людям больше возможности участвовать в решении важных государственных вопросов.
- _____ Борьба с ростом цен.
- _____ Защита свободы слова.
- _____ Стабильность в экономике.
- _____ Продвижение на пути к менее безликому и более гуманному обществу.
- _____ Продвижение на пути к обществу, в котором идеи важнее денег.
- _____ Борьба с преступностью.

ПЕРЕДАЙТЕ РЕСПОНДЕНТУ КАРТУ 3.

12-21. Какие товары Вы предпочитаете- российские или импортные? Нам важно, что Вы думаете о товарах в общем, а не о конкретном сорте или не о том, что Вы можете себе позволить. Я зачитаю Вам ряд товаров, а Вы скажите, какой Вы предпочли бы - российский или импортный - если бы Вам надо было купить? (ЗАЧИТАЙТЕ ПУНКТЫ 12-21 ПО ОЧЕРЕДИ И ПО КАЖДОМУ ОТМЕТЬТЕ ТОЛЬКО ОДИН ОТВЕТ).

	Определенно импортный		Не имеет значения		Определенно российский		
12. Холодильник	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Курицу	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Зубную пасту	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Телевизор.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Одежду.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Компьютер.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Машину.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Водку	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Лекарство.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Если бы Вы хотели пойти в кино, какой фильм Вы предпочли бы.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ПЕРЕДАЙТЕ РЕСПОНДЕНТУ КАРТУ 4.

22. Про какой из перечисленных на карте товаров Вы можете сказать, что считаете самым важным, чтобы он производился в России, а не привозился из-за границы? А какой второй? А какой третий?

	Определенно импортный		Не имеет значения			Определенно российский	
Холодильник	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Курицу	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Зубную пасту	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Телевизор.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Одежду.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Компьютер.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Машину.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Водку	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Лекарство.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Если бы Вы хотели пойти в кино, какой фильм Вы предпочли бы.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

23-37. Я зачитаю Вам ряд высказываний. Пожалуйста, скажите, в какой степени Вы согласны или не согласны с каждым из них, используя 7-и бальную шкалу на этой карте. (ЗАЧИТАЙТЕ ПУНКТЫ 23-37 ПО ОЧЕРЕДИ И ПО КАЖДОМУ ОТМЕТЬТЕ ТОЛЬКО ОДИН ОТВЕТ).

ПЕРЕДАЙТЕ РЕСПОНДЕНТУ КАРТУ 1.

	Совершенно не согласен		Ни то, ни другое		Совершенно согласен		
23. Импортные товары урожаяют россий- ской экономике.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Импортные товары урожаяют моему материальному благополучию.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Я предпочитаю покупать российские продукты, потому что в них меньше консервантов и химических добавок, чем в импортных продуктах	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Я предпочитаю покупать импортные непродовольственные товары, потому что они лучше по качеству, чем российские	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. В старые добрые времена было лучше	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Товары становятся все хуже и хуже ...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Изменения в технологии улучшат нашу жизнь.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. В последнее время наша жизнь становится все хуже и хуже.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Современные предприятия - это путь в лучшее будущее	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Для меня очень важно иметь очень хорошие вещи.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Я хотел(а) бы иметь столько денег, чтобы я мог(ла) купить все, что угодно	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Я был(а) бы более счастливым челове- ком, если бы я мог(ла) себе позволить покупать больше вещей	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Иногда меня огорчает тот факт, что я не могу себе позволить покупать все, что я хочу.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Люди уделяют материальным вещам слишком много внимания.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. На самом деле счастье можно купить за деньги	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

38-49. Я зачитаю еще несколько высказываний. Скажите, в какой степени Вы согласны или не согласны с каждым из них, используя эту же 7-и бальную шкалу. (ЗАЧИТАЙТЕ ПУНКТЫ 38-49 ПО ОЧЕРЕДИ И ПО КАЖДОМУ ОТМЕТЬТЕ ТОЛЬКО ОДИН ОТВЕТ).

ПЕРЕДАЙТЕ РЕСПОНДЕНТУ КАРТУ 1.

- | | Совершенно
не согласен | | Ни то,
ни другое | | Совершенно
согласен |
|---|---------------------------|---|---------------------|---|------------------------|
| 38. Россияне очень гордятся тем, что они россияне..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 39. Люди сегодня восхищаются замечательными людьми из прошлого нашей страны..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 40. Замечательной чертой России является то, что она не забывает своего прошлого..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 41. Россия обладает огромным историческим наследием | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 42. Россиянам присущи особые культурные характеристики, которые отсутствуют у других народов..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 43. Россияне в целом считают, что у них одно историческое прошлое | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 44. Россияне очень часто делают вещи, которые характеризуют их как россиян..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 45. Особая религиозная философия- это очень значительная часть русского национального характера..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 46. Быть истинным россиянином и не исповедовать веру в той или иной форме невозможно | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 47. Религиозное образование необходимо для сохранения целостности российского общества..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 48. Можно быть россиянином и без особой религиозной философии..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |
| 49. Истинный россиянин ни за что не отвергнет своих религиозных убеждений..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 6 7 |

ПЕРЕДАЙТЕ РЕСПОНДЕНТУ КАРТУ 5.

50. Используя шкалу на этой карте, скажите, как Вы думаете, Ваша семья беднее или богаче, чем средняя **российская** семья?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Гораздо беднее Такая же, как другие Гораздо богаче

51. Используя эту же шкалу, скажите, как Вы думаете, Ваша семья беднее или богаче, чем средняя семья в Вашем городе/деревне?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Гораздо белнее Такая же, как другие Гораздо богаче

ПЕРЕДАЙТЕ РЕСПОНДЕНТУ КАРТУ 6.

52. Как Вы считаете, перемены в России в последние 10 лет повлияли на Ваше материальное положение положительно или отрицательно? Используйте для ответа шкалу на карте.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Крайне отрицательно **Никак не повлияли** **Крайне положительно**

53. А как Вы полагаете, перемены в России в последние 10 лет повлияли на российскую экономику положительно или отрицательно? Используйте эту же карту.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Крайне отрицательно **Никак не повлияли** **Крайне положительно**

И в заключение несколько вопросов о Вас.

ПЕРЕДАЙТЕ РЕСПОНДЕНТУ КАРТУ 7.

D1. Как Вы считаете, членом какого сообщества Вы являетесь **в первую очередь?**
(ОТМЕТЬТЕ ТОЛЬКО ОДИН ОТВЕТ).

1. Места/города, в котором Вы живете
2. Района/области, в которой Вы живете
3. России в целом
4. Европы
5. Мира
9. Затрудняюсь ответить (НЕ ЗАЧИТЫВАТЬ)

ПЕРЕДАЙТЕ РЕСПОНДЕНТУ КАРТУ 7.

D2. Как Вы считаете, членом какого сообщества Вы являетесь **во вторую очередь?**
(ОТМЕТЬТЕ ТОЛЬКО ОДИН ОТВЕТ).

1. Места/города, в котором Вы живете
2. Района/области, в которой Вы живете
3. России в целом
4. Европы
5. Мира
9. Затрудняюсь ответить (НЕ ЗАЧИТЫВАТЬ)

D3. Были ли Вы за границей в течение последних 5-и лет?

1. Да
2. Нет --> ПЕРЕХОДИТЕ К ВОПРОСУ D4

D3a. Где Вы были в последний раз? (ЗАПИШИТЕ)

D3b. Как долго? (ЗАПИШИТЕ)

D4. ОТМЕТЬТЕ ПОЛ РЕСПОНДЕНТА, НЕ СПРАШИВАЯ.

1. Мужской
2. Женский

D5. Скажите, пожалуйста, сколько Вам полных лет? (ЗАПИШИТЕ).

|_|_| лет

D6. Какое у Вас образование? (ЗАЧИТАЙТЕ).

1. Начальное и ниже
2. Неполное среднее
3. Полное среднее
4. Среднее специальное
5. Незаконченное высшее
6. Высшее

D7. В настоящее время Вы ...? (ЗАЧИТАЙТЕ).

1. Работаете
2. Безработный
3. Пенсионер/инвалид
4. Студент/учащийся
5. Занимаетесь домашним хозяйством, воспитываете детей
6. Другое (НЕ ЗАЧИТЫВАТЬ)

D8. Являетесь ли Вы человеком в семье, получающим наибольший доход?

1. Да
2. Нет
9. Затрудняюсь ответить (НЕ ЗАЧИТЫВАТЬ)

D9a. Скажите, пожалуйста, кем Вы работаете? (ЗАПИШИТЕ И ЗАКОДИРУЙТЕ ТОЛЬКО ОДИН ОТВЕТ В ПЕРВОМ СТОЛБЦЕ).

D9b. (СПРОСИТЕ ТОЛЬКО ТЕХ, У КОГО ОТМЕЧЕН КОД «2» В ВОПРОСЕ D5). Скажите, а кем работает человек, получающий наибольший доход в семье? (ЗАПИШИТЕ И ЗАКОДИРУЙТЕ ТОЛЬКО ОДИН ОТВЕТ ВО ВТОРОМ СТОЛБЦЕ).

	D9a. Респондент	D9b. Человек, получа- ющий наибольший доход
Владелец собственного дела.....	01	01
Руководитель предприятия, организации.....	02	02
Руководитель отдела или сектора.....	03	03
Высококвалифицированный специалист	04	04
Специалист средней квалификации	05	05
Служащий.....	06	06
Мастер, бригадир	07	07
Квалифицированный рабочий	08	08
Рабочий низкой квалификации, неквалифицированный рабочий	09	09
Военнослужащий	10	10
Сельскохозяйственный рабочий.....	11	11
Никогда не работал (НЕ ЗАЧИТЫВАТЬ).....	98	98
Затрудняюсь ответить (НЕ ЗАЧИТЫВАТЬ).....	99	99

D10. Учитывая все виды дохода - зарплаты, стипендии, пенсии, пособия на детей, алименты и т.д. - не могли бы Вы назвать общий месячный доход в прошлом месяце, полученный всеми членами Вашей семьи? (ЗАПИШИТЕ И ЗАКОДИРУЙТЕ НИЖЕ).

_____,_____| рублей

1. 800 рублей и меньше
2. От 801 до 1,200 рублей
3. От 1,201 до 1,500 рублей
4. От 1,501 до 2,000 рублей
5. От 2,001 до 3,000 рублей
6. От 3,001 до 5,000 рублей
7. От 5,001 до 10,000 рублей
8. От 10,001 до 20,000 рублей
9. Больше 20,000 рублей
10. Затрудняюсь ответить/Отказ от ответа (НЕ ЗАЧИТЫВАТЬ)

D11. Сколько человек в Вашей семье, т.е. тех, которые живут вместе с Вами, включая Вас, супруга/у, детей, родителей и т.д.? (ЗАПИШИТЕ).

_____| человек

D12. К какой национальности Вы себя относите? (НЕ ЗАЧИТЫВАЙТЕ ОТВЕТЫ. ЗАПИШИТЕ НАЦИОНАЛЬНОСТЬ РЕСПОНДЕНТА И ЗАКОДИРУЙТЕ) _____

1. Русский
2. Нерусский
3. Отказ от ответа
9. Затрудняюсь ответить

D13. Тип поселения

1. Село/деревня
2. Город/поселок городского типа до 20 000 чел.
3. Город от 20 000 до 100 000 чел.
4. Город от 100 000 до 500 000 чел.
5. Город от 500 000 до 1 млн. чел.
6. Город свыше 1 млн.
7. Москва
8. Санкт-Петербург

D14. Регион

01. Северный
02. Северо-Западный
03. Центральный
04. Волго-Вятский
05. Центрально-Черноземный
06. Северо-Кавказский
07. Поволжский
08. Уральский
09. Западно-Сибирский
10. Восточно-Сибирский
11. Дальневосточный

Благодарим за участие в нашем научном исследовании!