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CONTENTS

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EDITORIAL

In recent years, the importance of enlarged Europe is increasing substantially. As a result, issues and developments related to European marketing are in a stage of rapid change. The reason for these changes are attributable to recent occurrences in the European marketing space. Among all, Europe is becoming a formidable trading bloc against North America and Asia-Pacific trading blocs. At present, it is the largest internal market where the largest intra trade takes place among the 27 member states of the EU. This intra trade will further increase with the entry of additional 5 accession countries between 2013 through 2020. Furthermore, increased trade activities are taking place not only among the EU member states but with other trading blocs and countries within inter trade framework.

This is the last issue of the volume. There are three articles and a book review in this issue. Cherrier, Mady, and Mady are the co-authors of the first paper in this special issue titled, "Global or Glocalized Consumers? An Analysis of Consumers Living in the Globalizing City of Dubai." This is an empirical study dealing with the existence of a global consumer culture (GCC) in a globalizing city such as Dubai and the effects of GCC on behavior of consumers representing different sub-cultural groups living in Dubai. The consumer behavior aspects examined in this study included cognition (sentiment toward marketing), affect (materialism and vanity) and behavior (shopping styles). The authors also measured acculturation using the scale developed by Cleveland and Laroche (2006).

Three different group comparisons were made, namely, males versus females, Muslims versus Christians, and Arabs versus non-Arabs. The empirical results showed that Dubai consumers exhibited above average levels of acculturation into global consumer culture. Consumers with different gender, nationality or religion living in Dubai reported similar sentiments toward marketing and similar shopping behaviors. However, exposure to GCC did not wipe out the differences in vanity. The authors conclude that these findings support the glocalization thesis.

The next paper titled, "A Comparative Study of the Degree, Dimensionality, and Design of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Diverse Cultures" by Lascu, Manrai, Manrai, Bilgin, and Wueher also focuses on the subject of consumer ethnocentrism. These authors analyze the "Degree", "Dimensionality" and "Design" of the consumer ethnocentrism as me asured by the CETSCALE (Shimp and Sharma 1987) in the cross-cultural and cross-national context of the four countries mentioned above. Degree refers to the extent of consumer ethnocentrism or CET score, dimensionality refers to the number of different factors the seventeen items of CETSCALE load onto and design refers to the combination of items loading on different factors. These authors proposed that variations in the degree, dimensionality and design of consumer ethnocentrism result from differences in the cultural, economic, political and social environments of different countries. The findings of this research study indicated that of the four countries, USA was the least ethnocentric, Turkey was the most eth-

nocentric, and Austria and Poland were in between the USA and Turkey on consumer ethnocentrism. Further, there were no differences in the CET scores of Austria and Poland. CETSACLE was found to be two-dimensional in the USA and three-dimensional for the other three countries. In regards to the design of consumer ethnocentrism or the factor loading patterns, the findings indicate that the factor structure was most similar for Austria-Poland country pair compared to other five pairs of countries.

A variety of communication activities that focused music genre have been used widely by drink companies in Turkey in order to create a differentiated position in the minds of target audience. Hence, exploring consumers' actual perceptions versus music genre oriented communication efforts of drink brands in Turkey has become an important research question. The study by Basfirinci and Cilingir gives a real-life example of how music genres can be used successfully in creating associations toward the brands. Findings show that as a marketing communication tool music genres can differentiate the associations of drink brands and therefore it can be used successfully in creating associations toward the brand. However in selecting the music genre; brand managers should consider two factors carefully: High congruency levels between the music genre and product category in terms of associations both of them remind; and also high congruency levels between the music genre and musical preferences of target market.

If there is a current music genre that fit to product category best in terms of association congruency (such as classic music and wine) and that if there is not a current brand on the market that using this specific genre in its integrated marketing communication efforts; then the first brand use this opportunity can get competitive advantages by transforming whole category associations toward its brand and so it can increase brand awareness in the markets by using strong associations of product category.

In generally speaking market leader brands have already used this opportunity and easily take possession of the music genre that fits to product category best. In such situations; research results show that, other brands can differentiate themselves from market leaders by focusing another music genre that mainly overlaps the musical preferences of target market. Since consumers attracted to products that are consistent with their self-perceptions; as a marketing communication tool proper music genre can operate as a cultural indicator for target market reflecting the lifestyles of them. In such situations more than being a simple product brand will become a tool of showing cultural values and ideals of customer to both her-self/himself but also to significant referents of her/him. So creating social organizations (such as music festivals) can not only increase brand awareness through helping customers in maintaining their collective identities by providing a sense of group membership and enriching collective identities but also help to the brand in differentiating from its competitors.

Taken together, this study provides theoretical support for that music genre is an important marketing communication tool. First, music genre can make segmentation process easier since by looking at the listeners of a music genre a lot of inferences can be about their life styles and cultural values believed. Second, it can increase brand awareness among not only target market by offering musical tastes and rich cultural associations but also all consumers because of its easily memorable strongly emotional nature. Finally as being a tool of showing cultural values and ideals of customers to both themselves and their significant referents, music genre helps customers in establishing and maintaining their identities in today's consumer culture, where individuals mainly maintain their existence with their consumer identities beyond the all others.

I encourage each and every reader to submit manuscripts to Journal of Euromarketing for review. I can assure you that your manuscripts

will be subjected to a speedy review process and a publication decision will be made within six to eight weeks and in some cases shorter than this. Your technology and e-commerce related short articles and opinion pieces may be submitted to Dr. Kip Becker of Boston University. He may be reached at kbecker@bu.edu. We also have a Book Review section. It is edited by Dr. Ali Kara of The Pennsylvania State University at York. His e-mail coordinates is axk19@psu.edu We are always looking for good quality book reviews, most importantly on European marketing practices. Please write back to me with your comments, critiques, and suggestions. I would love to hear from you. Let us have a profitable debate on European marketing issues and policies. The journal as an important medium is at your disposal.

Enjoy reading the journal!

Erdener Kaynak
Editor-in-Chief

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ARTICLES

Global or Glocalized Consumers? An Analysis of Consumers Living in the Globalizing City of Dubai

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ABSTRACT. Positioned within the current debate on globalization, localization, or glocalization of consumer behavior, this paper considers the existence of a global consumer culture in a globalizing city such as Dubai and its impact on consumer behavior in terms of cognition (sentiment toward marketing), affect (materialism and vanity) and behavior (shopping styles). The analysis of three studies shows that increasing intercultural contacts within a globalizing city have the potential to even out consumers in terms of behavior and cognition but not in terms of affect.

KEYWORDS. Acculturation, global consumer culture, consumer behavior, Dubai

INTRODUCTION

Research on how cultural globalization affects consumer behavior is an issue that attracts both academics and marketing practitioners. One of the major debates is whether the current globalization of markets is leading to the emergence of a global consumer culture. Some cultural theorists advocate that the development of virtual networks and increasing physical mobility has led to the emergence of a "trans-national consumer culture" (Askegaard, Arnould, and Kjeldgaard,2005), which is gradually forming a global consumer culture (GCC). The term global consumer culture broadly defines a "cultural entity not associated with a single country, but rather a larger group generally recognized as international and transcending individual national culture" (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra, 1999, p. 80). In global marketing literature, the global consumer culture has been traditionally affiliated to the West and more specifically to the historical economic and political domination of the United States (Oppenheim, 2003). McLuhan speaks of a 'global village' where one can find a homoge-

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nized cultural landscape featuring McDonald, Starbucks, and Coca-Cola (Bauman, 1998; McLuhan and Powers, 1989). This view is well captured by Ritzer's concept of *grobalization,* which is a process that creates homogeneity due the worldwide diffusion of common codes and practices (Ritzer, 2004). In marketing, processes of grobalization support the viability of globally standardized marketing strategies, worldwide standardization of product offerings and the homogenization of consumer demands (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra, 1999).

Other researchers have argued that the increasing myriads of cultural affiliations interconnected across geographic space do not lead to a global consumer culture but rather to a localization of consumer behavior. Here, the emphasis is given to the permanence of cultural dimensions and the existence of a cultural resistance to global capitalism, brand names and labels (Klein, 2000). Among the numerous examples provided are the censorship China authorities are imposing on Western Media, Television, radio, or internet search engines such as Google (Watts, 2004) or the spread of consumer activism and anti-consumption movements in the last decade (Kozinets and Handerman,2004).This adaptation perspective supports more adapted or localized marketing offerings that satisfy individual cultural tastes and lifestyles.

While the debate between globalization and localization is has been in existence for some time, (Levitt, 1983), a consensus has yet to be been reached. With no clear direction, recent studies no longer seem to argue for one position over the other. Sociologists and international marketers bridge the two approaches into a concept 'in-between' using the term 'glocalization' (Ritzer, 2004) and call companies to 'think globally and act locally,' a concept easier said than done. Similarly, acculturation theorists have developed concepts of cultural contamination, cultural pluralism, cultural interpenetration and hybridation that each offer nuances of global-local dynamics (Craig and Douglas, 2005).

What is of interest here is that this third view does not conceptualize globalization as a causal process having specific effects on consumer culture. Instead, concepts of glocalization or cultural pluralism emphasize the complexity and multidimentionality of globalization and the need for a tradeoff as well as an account for the *context* of such a tradeoff. It is by no means a simple task given the structural and inherent conditions unique to specific countries. The simple acknowledgment by this view that "one size does not fit all" might suggest that a tendency to be more global (or more local) should rest on the *type* of market being considered.

In this paper, we contribute to the globalization, localization, glocalization debate by questioning whether a global consumer culture exists in new globalizing cities such as Dubai and, if so, what impact does it have on consumer behavior. The necessity to investigate the existence of a global consumer culture in the particular context of a global city such as Dubai is particularly pertinent when we consider the rate through which such emergent markets are opening up to global corporate powers and international brands. Dubai is a city born of the globalization era and a classic case of consumer culture in a world where individual cultural identity tends to be drowned out by a more contemporary global identity. In fact, this special issue in the *Journal of International Consumer Marketing* clearly illustrates the need to discuss the concept of culture from a global perspective. The present study questions the existence of a global consumer culture in Dubai, UAE (acculturation to a global consumer culture) and critically examines the possible influence of such a global consumer culture on consumer behavior.

Three separate studies are conducted. The first, study involves a survey-based measurement of acculturation levels of Dubai residents. This study is the initial attempt to utilize Cleveland and Laroche's (2007) AGCC (acculturation to the global consumer culture) scale to measure the degree of consumer globalization in a "global" context such as Dubai. Moreover, the ex-

pected results of Study 1 will provide a basis for further research into how national (origin) culture is relevant (or not) with regards to traditional consumer cognition, affect, and behavior. The second study offers a qualitative assessment of Dubai resident acculturation to the global consumer culture. Specifically, a collage study amongst twelve students residing in the city of Dubai is conducted and interpreted. Finally, in order to understand the various implication of living in a globalizing city on consumer behavior we conducted another survey-based study. In the third study, the authors considered the cognitive (sentiment toward marketing), affect (materialism and vanity) and behavioral (shopping styles) levels of consumers living in Dubai. The selection of sentiment toward marketing, materialism, vanity, and shopping styles is based on each construct's strong affiliation to the Western consumer culture ideology (Burroughs and Aric, 2002; Leman and Maxwell, 2006; Mick, 1996; Rose and DeJesus, 2007). As Oppenheim notes "the global culture might be better called a U.S. style market culture, that is a culture which values individualism, competition, and consumerism" (Oppenheim, 2003, p. 56).

CONCEPTUALIZING CULTURE

Consumer Cultural Background in the Globalizing World

Along with the rapid changes in digital communications and globalization processes, the concept of culture is increasingly being discussed among consumer researchers (Craig and Douglas, 2005; Thompson and Troester, 2002; Thornton, 1995). In contrast to the term race, which focuses on genetic heritage, and ethnicity, which concentrates on one's socio-cultural history, the concept of culture is rooted in everyday norms, values and beliefs (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007; Penaloza, 1989). It groups together individuals under similar capabilities and habits acquired as a member of society (Craig and Douglas, 2005). As such, as Hofstede (1983) noted, culture is a form of collective

mental programming where individuals of a culture tend to perceive reality is similar terms. Lemert associates the concept of culture to the language of a society – just like spoken words; culture is man-made (Lemert, 1997). Culture provides order to society and provides rules for how people can and should conduct themselves and make things work within a commonly accepted framework. Craig and Douglas (2005) approach the concept of culture as a multidimensional concept combining three components: 1) values and beliefs systems; 2) material culture, artifacts, symbols and rites; and 3) language and communication systems. Each of these elements form the (group-specific) lenses through which individuals within a particular group perceive and interpret the world similarly (McCracken, 1988). From this perspective, culture can be defined as a shared perception resulting from a combination of factors including ethnicity, religious affiliation, gender and the nature of one's immediate surrounding (Briley and Aaker, 2007; Jenner, MacNab, and Briley, 2008). The combination of these factors creates cultural blueprints on how to think, feel and behave. It is this conceptualization of culture beyond national boundaries that we adopt for this research. In fact, the term consumer culture is adopted when a portion of a society consumes products that symbolically reflect how they think and fell (Wang and Waller, 2006).

CONTEXT: THE CASE OF DUBAI

As mentioned, Dubai is a city born of the globalization era. However, the choice of Dubai as a context of study is based on Cleveland and Laroche's (2007) six drivers to the incorporation of global consumer culture: 1) cosmopolitanism, 2) exposure to marketing activities of multinational or global corporation, 3) exposure to/use of the English language, 4) global/foreign mass media exposure, 5) openness to and desire to emulate global consumer culture and 6) social interaction. First, Dubai, by its very nature, is a place where more than one million two hundred

residents coming from diverse parts of the world mingle and work together constantly within multi-cultural and cosmopolitan environment characterized by global brands and marketing. Second, Dubai's new economic system, with its emphasis on the free flow of products, investments and people has attracted thousands of international companies in technology, banking, fashion, construction and the media (among others). Such inflow of global corporate power inscribes Dubai as a 'global city' where marketing activities are mostly governed by multinational or global corporation. Third, although the official language in Dubai is Arabic, most residents speak and interact in English. Indeed, Dubai does not censor foreign media and is perceived as the most culturally open Emirates in the UAE. Finally, Dubai hosts an astonishing 90% of non-nationals ranging from Australian, Americans, Asians, Indians, Pakistanis, Africans, Caribbean, Eastern and Western Europeans, as well as several interracial ethnicities. Due to such multiculturalism, consumers are constantly exposed to other consumers, marketers, and products that are no longer representative of one nation, one ethnic, or one cultural domain. It is a city that embodies a strong global consumer culture. In this context, we look at highly materialistic, status-conscious, and brand-conscious factors and subjects of acculturation to global consumer culture.

Moreover, the use of Dubai is of particular interest to the context of this study because of its non-dominant and non-dominating home/host cultural fusion. While Dubai is multicultural in nature, it cannot be characterized as a "melting pot" situation such as in other countries with a culture of incoming minority migrants acculturating to the dominant (majority) culture (e.g., U.S., Canada, UK, etc.). Dubai is more of a "tossed salad", where 90% of the people in Dubai are expatriates with short-term residencies in mind. Most residents are in Dubai for a limited period of time and the government treats them as such. In fact, it is practically impossible for non-Emirates to obtain citizenship.

As such, there is no tendency on part of newly-arrived residents to consciously conform to local customs and lose touch with their primary culture. There tends to be a distinct line separating cultures and one can argue that Dubai (as a whole) doesn't have a culture beyond excessiveness, luxury, and consumerism. In this context, the culture that prevails or dominates in Dubai is not the Emirates culture nor the British or the Indians culture, but the global consumer culture where preference is given to brands with global symbols and meanings (Zhou, Teng, and Poon, 2008).

THE STUDIES

Study 1: Acculturation to Global Consumer Culture

In order to better capture how "global and local cultural forces are constantly felt in the lives of those trying to get from one day to another" (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007, p. 257) and truly understand the concept of culture within a globalizing world, we consider the varying structural forces embedded in the cultural context in which processes of acculturation take place (Cherrier and Murray, 2004). The concept of consumer acculturation is defined as "the acquisition of skills and knowledge relevant to engaging in consumer behavior in one culture by members of another culture" (Penaloza, 1989). Through processes of acculturation, consumers learn and adapt to the norms and values of a culture that is different from the one in which they grew up (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007). Essentially, acculturation theorists address the effect/impact of cross-cultural adaptation, adjustment, integration, assimilation, and acculturation on cultural selves (Oswald, 1999). Acculturation theorists note that cultural selves are constructed not around two (culture of origin and host culture) but three competitive cultural forces: host culture, home culture, and global consumer culture (Alden, Steenkamp and Batra, 1999; Arnett 2002; Askegaard, Arnould and

Kjeldgaard, 2005; Friedman 1994; Penaloza 1989).

The importance of the global cultural forces on acculturation processes is captured in the Zhou Teng, and Peon's(2008) susceptibility to global consumer culture scale and the Cleveland and Laroche's AGCC (acculturation to the global consumer culture) scale (2007). Cleveland and Laroche offer six distinct drivers to the incorporation of global consumer culture: 1) cosmopolitanism, 2) exposure to marketing activities of multinational or global corporation, 3) exposure to/use of the English language, 4) global/foreign mass media exposure, 5) openness to and desire to emulate global consumer culture and 6) social interaction (including travel, migration, and contacts with foreigners). This approach implies that individuals living in a global city embrace and endorse a global consumer culture that is determined by our symbolic global consumer world related to product categories, brands, and consumption activities (Durvasula, Lysonski and Watson, 2001). Such cultural entities are not affiliated with either the home or the host culture, but rather a broader group considered to transcend individual cultures (Alden, Steenkamp and Batra, 1999). From this perspective, we propose that individuals (with different ethnicity, religious affilia-

tion and gender) living and interacting in a globalizing city such as Dubai express more positive levels of acculturation to the global consumer culture.

METHODOLOGY

A brief survey using Cleveland and Laroche's AGCC (acculturation to the global consumer culture) scale (2007) was administered to 139 MBA students at a Private university in Dubai. The use of students offered convenience for data collection and allowed for the determination of whether residents of Dubai do in fact exhibit higher tendencies with regards to the global consumer culture. The use of college students samples, however, has been often criticized in behavioral research (e.g., Lamb and Stem, 1979; Wells, 1993) due to their inability to represent true consumers. Nonetheless, more recent research indicates that the use of MBA student samples seem to be acceptable surrogates for "real" consumers (e.g., James and Sonner, 2001). Due to missing data, a total of eleven surveys were discarded resulting in a usable sample of 128 respondents. Detailed demographics of the sample are outlined in Table 1.

TABLE 1 : Demographic Data of Sample (Study1)

n: 128		n (%)
GENDER:	Male	60 (46.9%)
	Female	68 (53.1%)
REPORTED RELIGION:	Muslim	92 (71.9%)
	Christian (Catholic, Protestant, Church of England, etc)	18 (14.1%)
	Hindu	13 (10.2%)
NATIONALITY:	Arab	69 (54.0%)
	Non-Arab	59 (46.0%)
AGE:	Mean	28.15
	Std. Deviation	4.25
	Minimum	23
	Maximum	50
YEARS IN DUBAI:	Mean	11.84
	Std. Deviation	7.78
	Minimum	1
	Maximum	25

Measures and Survey Design

Acculturation to the Global Consumer Culture was measured using the scale developed and tested by Cleveland and Laroche (2007). As mentioned, those authors identified 6 distinct drivers to the incorporation of global consumer culture: (1) *Cosmopolitanism*: the individual's willingness to engage with the other (i.e. different culture), and level of competence towards alien cultures, (2) *Exposure to marketing activities of multinational or global corporation*: the individual's degree of exposure to the marketing and advertising activities of multinational or global corporations, (3) *Exposure to/use of the English language*, the extent to a person's exposure to and use of the English language for various communications, (4) *Social interactions*, a person's travel tendencies, migration, and contact with foreigners (5) *Global/foreign mass media exposure*, a person's exposure to media, and (6) *Openness to and desire to emulate global consumer culture*, a person's embracing of the global consumer culture. Cleveland and Laroche (2007) identified a seventh dimension specifically addressing how a person perceives them self within the context of the global consumer culture (Self Identification with Global consumer culture. In total, the seven dimensions of acculturation towards the global consumer culture were measured using 57 questions.

Preliminary Data Assessment

The constructs were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. A procedure was used to assess the reliability and validity of the various multi-item scales, based on the guidelines of Churchill (1979). Construct validity was assessed by submitting sets of items to an exploratory factor analysis procedure. In deciding which items to poll for inclusion in a particular factor model, consideration was given to items that were expected a priori to share common variance. The factor analysis was implemented by using a systematic four-step procedure. *First*, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) were inspected for each factor analysis to determine whether items shared a common core. For each analysis, it was possible to reject the Bartlett hypothesis and obtain acceptable KMO values. Therefore, it was proper to infer that variables included in factor analysis indeed shared a common core and that statistical assumptions were not violated. *Second*, factor loadings for each solution were inspected by examining rotated pattern matrices. A cutoff value of .40 was adopted for deciding which variables to retain for further analysis. *Third*, Cronbach's alpha values for the each scale were computed (Table 2). Each group of variables appeared clean and the scales exhibited acceptable reliability. *Fourth*, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. All goodness-of-fit measures were calculated and, based on the generally accepted cutoff levels, the data indicated a clear and acceptable goodness-of-fit with the hypothesized models.

Of interest is the fact that unlike Cleveland and Laroche's original findings, a number of the hypothesized constructs were found to be aggregates of sub constructs. For example, Cosmopolitism was found to be the result of two separate but related constructs we labeled: "Openness to others" and "Openness to International Cuisine". Similarly, Exposure to Marketing activities of MNCs was found to be defined in terms of "Television Ads" and "Non-Television ads." Finally, Exposure to Global Mass Media was found to be sharply divided between "Hollywood" influences and "Television/Music" influences.

Analysis and Results

In order to determine if residents of Dubai exhibit above average levels of acculturation to the global consumer culture, a one-sample *t*-test was conducted for the various constructs. Given all scores were measured on a 1 to 7 continuum, the mid-point (neutral point) was identified to be four. Table 3 illustrates the results of the one-sample t-test.

TABLE 2: Scale Items, Factor Loadings, and Reliability (Study1)

Variable	Factor/Question	Factor Loading	Cronbach Alpha for Subscale of all items loading above .4
	Acculturation to the Global consumer Culture (Cleveland and Laroche 2006)		
Cosmopolitism			
	Openness to others		.897
COS1	I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.	.739	
COS2	I like to learn about other ways of life.		
COS3	I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their unique views and approaches.	.775	
COS5	I like exchanging ideas with people from other cultures or countries.	.775	
COS6	I like to observe people from other cultures, to see what I can learn from them.	.825	
COS7	I find people from other cultures stimulating.	.642	
COS9	When traveling, I like to immerse myself in the culture of the people I am visiting.	.685	
COS 10	Coming in contact with people of other cultures has greatly benefited me.	.632	
	Openness to International Food/Cuisine		.855
COS4	I like to try restaurants that offer food that is different from that of my own culture.	.893	
COS8	I enjoy trying foreign food.	.900	
COS11	When it comes to trying new things, I am very open.#	–	
Exposure to Marketing Activities of MNC's			
	Television Ads		.803
EXM1	When I am watching TV, I often see advertising for products that are from outside of my country.	.740	
EXM8	I often watch TV programming with advertisements from outside my country.	.783	
EXM9	When shopping, I am often exposed to foreign or global brands.	.814	
EXM10	Many of the TV commercials I see are placed by multinational companies.	.779	
EXM7	When I am watching television, it seems that the number of advertisements for foreign brands is quite high, when compared to the number of advertisements for local brands.#	–	
	Non Television Ads		.743
EXM3	In my city, there are many billboards, and advertising signs for foreign and global products.	.713	
EXM4	It is quiet common to see ads for foreign or global products in local media.	.878	
EXM5	When I read a newspaper, I come across many advertisements for foreign or global products.	.795	

EXM2	Ads for foreign or global products are everywhere.#	_	
EXM6	The magazines that I read are full of ads for foreign or global products.#	_	

English Language Usage / Exposure .799

ELU1	I feel very comfortable speaking in English.	.712
ELU2	I often speak English with my family or friends.	.716
ELU3	I speak English regularly.	.798
ELU4	Many of my favorite shows on TV are in English.	.716
ELU5	My parents and I never communicate in English.*	.540
ELU6	Many of the textbooks and articles that I read are in English.	.536
ELU7	I prefer to watch English language television than any other languages I may speak.	.656
ELU8	The songs I listen to are almost all in English.	.526

Social Interaction (Primarily Travel) .715

SIN1	While vacationing, I would prefer to stay in my home country rather than visit another country.*#	_
SIN2	I prefer spending my vacations outside of the country I live in.#	_
SIN3	Visiting foreign countries is one of my favorite things.	.886
SIN4	I often think about going to different countries and doing some traveling.	.832
SIN5	I have thus far visited two or more other countries.	.633
SIN6	I feel at home in other countries.#	_

Global Mass Media Exposure

Hollywood .761

GMM1	I enjoy watching Hollywood films at the theatre.	.853
GMM2	I enjoy watching Hollywood movies that are in English.	.900
GMM3	Some of my favorite actors/actresses are from Hollywood.	.733

Television/Music .844

GMM4	I enjoy listening to music that is popular in the West.	.671
GMM5	In general, I do not like foreign television *#	_
GMM6	I like to read magazines that contain information about popular Western celebrities.	.806
GMM7	I enjoy reading Western magazines.	.896
GMM8	I often watch Western television programs.	.833
GMM9	I like the way that Westerners dress.	.623

Openness to and desire to emulate GCC .839

OPE1	I think people my age are basically the same around the world. For example, a 20-something in Dubai is basically the same as a 20-something in the U.S., Sweden, or anywhere else.	.820
OPE2	I think that my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my age-group in other countries.	.863
OPE3	I think my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my social class in other countries.	.861
OPE4	I would rather live like people do in the West.	.708
OPE5	When traveling abroad, I appreciate being able to find Western products and restaurants.	.640

Self-identification with Global Culture .904

IDT1	The way I dress is influenced by advertising activities of	.820

	foreign or global companies.	
IDT2	Advertising by foreign or global brands has a strong influence on my clothing choices.	.877
IDT3	I pay attention to the fashion worn by people in my age-group that live in other countries	.877
IDT4	I try to pattern my lifestyle, way of dressing, etc. to a global consumer.	.844
IDT5	I try reading magazines about fashion, décor, and trends in other countries	.738
IDT6	I prefer to wear clothing that I think is popular in many countries around the world rather than clothing traditionally worn in my own country.	.732
IDT7	I activity seek to buy products that are not only thought of as "local".#	_
IDT8	I identify with famous international brands	.689

Note: * Denotes item required reverse coding.
Note: # Deleted due to cross loadings and/or factor loadings below 0.4

TABLE 3: Acculturation to the Global Consumer Culture (Study 1)

	N=128				Prob t
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	t-value	H_o: Mean = 4
Cosmopolitism - Culture	5.6514	1.02846	128	18.166	.000
Cosmopolitism - Food	5.8008	1.31667	128	15.474	.000
Exposure to Marketing Activities of MNC's - Television	5.4805	1.17997	128	14.195	.000
Exposure to Marketing Activities of MNC's - NonTelevision	5.1510	1.28444	128	10.139	.000
English Language Usage/Exposure	5.3896	1.19953	128	13.107	.000
Social Interaction (travel)	6.0000	1.09241	128	20.713	.000
Global Mass Media Exposure - Hollywood	5.9245	1.15031	128	18.928	.000
Global Mass Media Exposure – Television/Music	4.9453	1.33912	128	7.987	.000
Openness and Desire to Emulate Global Consumer Culture	4.0214	1.38704	128	.142	.888
Self Identification with Global Consumer Culture	4.7232	1.33521	128	4.964	.000

As indicated from the results, residents in Dubai exhibit significantly high levels of acculturation to the global consumer culture based on all but one of the different constructs. The one exception to the general trend was the constructs: Openness and Desire to emulate the Global consumer culture (*t-value = .142, p>.05*). This is an interesting find, which may be at-

tributed to a number of factors. First, one would assume from this that Dubai residents, while accepting and embracing of the global consumer culture (as measured by the other constructs), seem to be in a state of denial about the fact. That is, all individual beliefs point to the fact that they are in fact "global consumers" but they do not want to acknowledge that. On the other hand, one can assume that the finding can be attributed to a state of belief that they are in fact superior to other cultures (at least consumer cultures) around the world. This is certainly worth further research. Nonetheless, the findings generally support the hypothesis that residents of a highly global city exhibit high levels of acculturation to the global consumer culture.

Given the results of Study 1, two more studies were conducted to address in more detail consumer cultural background. This background is accounted for in term of ethnicity (Arab versus Non-Arabs), religion (Christians versus Muslims) and gender (Female versus Male). Based on our conceptualization of culture, we propose that the combination of these six cultural elements forms eight distinctive yet homogenized cultural groups. We consider the impact of each cultural background on consumer behavior in terms of cognition (sentiment toward marketing), affect (materialism and vanity) and behavior (shopping styles) in Dubai.

Study 2: Projective Technique

In order to evaluate whether individuals with different ethnicity, gender, and religiosity differ in their perception of Dubai as dominated by global consumer culture, a projective technique was used and analyzed. The use of projective techniques enabled to consider all aspects of cultural identities without influencing the informants (Lindzey, 1961). Twelve students were asked to construct a collage that depicted "Your life of a college student today." They were instructed to use images from any magazines, newspaper, and packaging they felt depicted their personal experience as a university student living in Dubai. In addition, each informant

wrote a two to four page report which detailed their personal reasoning for including each image. The data selection was performed on university students with different ethnicities. All informants had lived in Dubai for more than 6 months. The analysis of the collages helped us to evaluate whether cultural forces such as ethnicity, gender and religiosity affect consumers' experience of living in Dubai and their perception of Dubai. The qualitative analysis sought to identify general points of differences and similarities between eight groups formed on a 2x2x2 matrix (Arab versus non-Arab; female versus male, Muslim versus Christian). Special attention was paid to the placement of the images within the collage and the image's corresponding discussion contained within the report.

The analysis of the twelve collages and their attached report shows that consumers living and interacting in Dubai are exposed to a global consumer culture. Each student's collage illustrates similar products and global brand affiliation. Most products relates to technology (mobile phones, cameras, computers), fashion (clothes, sunglasses, shoes), make up, perfumes and cars. It is also interesting to note that both Muslim and Christian students used several images of cigarettes and alcohol consumption in their collage. The brands were obviously global, including Versace, BMW, Skittles, Louis Vinton, McDonald, Subway, Juicy Couture, Hugo Boss, Yves Saint Laurent, Nivea, Marlboro, Gucci, Guess, and Starbucks. In addition, the use of words such as "global," "global city", "world," "multicultural," "Dubai has it all," and "different culture in Dubai" strongly indicates the incorporation of a global perspective. Dubai as a global city was clearly depicted in all informants' narratives. For example, one male, Arab Muslim student mentioned "As you can see in my collage where it's written different cultures and the pictures of the malls; the reason why I choose these photos is because it shows that Dubai is the place of meeting a lot of different cultures and it shows that these people can get along in the same place and go shopping and wear the

same jeans" and a women, non-Arab Christian remarks "shopping in Dubai is perfect. It has all brands from around the world and all the stores that people need. Everybody can find everything for them." The intensive use of pictures representing the earth confirms Dubai as a cultural representation of the world. The university students living in Dubai express being and interacting in a global place where they can embrace a global perspective on the world. These findings confirm that Dubai is lived and experienced as a global city independent of the students' cultural background.

Study 3: Cognitive, Affective, and Behavioral Implications of a Globalized Environment. Sentiment Toward Marketing

According to Gaski and Etzel (2005), consumer attitudes toward, and satisfaction with, the marketing function is one of the most psychological aspects that define the relationship between consumers and the marketing system. It provides a general view of cognitive perception of the overall marketing environment. Early incarnations of the consumer sentiment towards marketing construct revolved around the concept of consumer *confidence* and focused on determining consumer propensities towards future spending (e.g., Katona, 1963). However, such measures were inherently limited due to their focus on only one aspect of marketing, namely the price element and how it relates to perceptions of future economic outlooks.

Subsequently, most of the literature regarding consumer attitudes towards marketing in general points towards the early work of Barksdale and Darden (1972) and later Barksdale, Darden and Perreault(1976). The authors measured consumer attitudes towards consumerism, government regulation, consumer responsibility, and marketing activities. They found that US consumers had fairly negative attitudes towards marketing practices. This was consistent with the work of Hustad and Pessemier (1973) and Lundstrom and Lamont (1976) who also found generally negative perceptions of the marketing

field. Gaski and Etzel (1986) later modified the measure of Barksdale and Darden and developed an index designed to measure composite opinions regarding marketing. Their construct corresponded to the four elements of the marketing mix: (1) product/quality; (2) prices of the product; (3) advertising; and (4) retailing or selling. They labeled the index *Consumer Sentiment towards Marketing*. According to the authors, the scale provides a continuing "barometer of how marketing is doing in the eyes of the consumer public" (Gaski and Etzel, 1986, p.72). They argued that the measurement of consumer sentiment towards marketing: (1) sensitizes marketers to consumers' perceptions, (2) serves to identify the nature of public relations tasks facing marketing, (3) assists in gauging whatever progress is or is not being made, and (4) demonstrates marketer concerns for public opinion. As with previous research, they found relatively negative views toward marketing but found some improvement in consumer perceptions. On a more detailed level, Gaski and Etzel found female consumers' perceptions of marketing to be slightly more positive in comparison to male consumers (1986). More recently, several researchers have attempted to shed light on variations in consumer sentiment levels due to differing demographic variables. For example, Webster (1991) found consumer differences in consumer attitudes towards marketing given the effect of social class and income levels. Also, Lawson, Todd and Boshoff (2001) found a strong positive relationship between standards of living, measured in material terms, and sentiment towards marketing activities in society. Globalized cities, like Dubai and Hong Kong, are attractive because they offer residents a higher standard of living. In fact, Wee and Chan (1989), adopting Gaski and Etzel's measure, found sentiment levels in Hong Kong to be significantly higher and favorable than in the US. While not explicitly explaining why such levels were found, they do note that consumers in Hong Kong tend to be more comfortable with their roles as consumers and the impact of mar-

keting on their everyday lives. Interestingly, culture (origin) was not found to be a significant predictor of sentiment levels. Given the structural similarities between Hong Kong and Dubai and results reported by Wee and Chan (1989), one would expect sentiment levels to also be relatively more positive in Dubai. From this perspective, we hypothesize that people living in a global consumer culture environment will express higher levels of sentiment towards marketing, independent of their culture background (ethnicity, gender, religious affiliation).

Materialism and Vanity

The concept of materialism has long been studied in the field of marketing. Richins and Dowson (1992) define materialism as a value, "a mind-set or constellation of attitudes regarding the relative importance of acquisition and possession of objects in one's life" (p. 307). As a value, materialism can be learned through socialization or acculturation process. Under this perspective, consumers learn to become more or less materialistic according to their environment. For example, Roberts, Manolis and Tanner show that the family structure has a strong impact on consumers' level of material values (Rakow, 1992; Roberts, Manolis and Tanner2006; Roberts, Manolis and Tanner, 2003). Similarly, Flouri notes that maternal values have an impact on the adolescents' level of materialism (Flouri, 2000). Further research on materialism shows the impact of marketing strategies on material values. Particularly, the development of visual media, television and digitalization extend materialism to become a part of our humanity to the effect the materialism is used in advertising as a representation of personal achievement (Richins and Dawson, 1992). For example, the development of television has had a strong impact on the cultivation of material values (Gerbner, 1994). In terms of the impact of cultural environment on materialistic values, Lindridge (2005) notes that Indians living in India express a lower level of materialism than Indians living in England. Nonetheless, the issue of environmental factors lends itself to the belief that consumers can be manipulated into exhibiting higher, or lower, materialistic values.

As another consumer value-orientation, vanity refers to a person's concern with and the perception of physical appearance and personal achievement (Netemeyer, Burton and Lichtenstein,1995). Physical appearance includes (a) a concern for physical appearance (e.g., "It is important that I always look good"); and (b) a positive (and perhaps inflated) view of physical appearance (e.g., "I am a very good-looking individual"). The physical appearance aspect of vanity is based on the premise that outward physical appearance is important for establishing and maintaining one's self concept. The proliferation of and willingness to buy appearance-related products and services such as cosmetics, cosmetic surgery, and clothing indicate the kinds of concern consumers have in terms of physical appearance (Solomon 2006). Concern for physical appearance may have positive implications for consumer behavior (e.g., demand for healthy foods) as well as negative implications (e.g., addictive behaviors) (Bloch and Richins, 1992). The achievement aspect of vanity includes (a) a concern for achievement (e.g., "I want my achievements to be recognized by others") and (b) a positive (and perhaps inflated) view of achievement (e.g., "I am a good example of professional success"). Achievement vanity can be observed when consumers use consumption as a way of demonstrating status and success. Netemeyer, Burton, and Lichtenstein (1995) have argued that consumers demonstrate their drive for personal achievement through conspicuous consumption.

Durvasula, Lysonski and Watson (2001) point out that there are two schools of thought regarding the forces generating vanity. On the one hand, vanity is a primary biogenic drive and that it is a personality trait influenced by genes and early socialization. On the other hand, according to Mason's (1981) view, vanity is a secondary psychogenic trait that is largely influenced by one's environment including social and

economic conditions prevailing in that environment and that socialization into the cultural system of a society contours a person's nature (Mason, 1981). The work of Netemeyer, Burton, and Lichtenstein (1995) has also led several other researchers to investigate vanity in other countries. For example, using data from China, India, New Zealand and the USA, Durvasula, Lysonski, and Watson (2001) established found significant vanity levels in both Western and Eastern cultures but with varying degrees .

Discussion of materialism and vanity levels is of particular interest in "global" cities like Dubai, where the current leadership's desires for modernity and openness to Western ideals have resulted in an often implied embracing of more Western values traditionally associated with both materialism and vanity. The resulting environment has often been described as a culture of excess, consumerism, and marketing. This culture is, in part, fueled by a tremendous amount of advertising and marketing activities typical of traditionally "global markets." Advertising expenditures have grown exponentially, consider the change from $869 million in 2005 to $1.3 million in 2007 and 2.4 billion in 2008. (*Pan Arab Research Center*, 2008). These increases have resulted in one of the highest advertising shares of GDP and advertising expenditures per capita levels in the world, certainly in the Middle East. The conceptual argument linking advertising, the most visible of marketing functions, and materialism and vanity levels is well documented (e.g., Pollay, 1983, Zinkhan and Prenshaw, 1994). These links are based primarily on the notion that advertising does more than simply communicate symbols to consumers. It also communicates values (Zinkhan, 1994). Pollay (1983), for example, identified 42 values being represented in print and broadcast media. Materialism was one of these values. This "value" is often portrayed in advertisements where consumers are encouraged to adopt it. A desire for possessions means increased sales which of course is the ultimate goal of most advertising campaigns. It is advertising's glamorized illustration of the good life through material possessions that serves as a primary drive for materially-based consumer behavior (Zinkhan and Prenshaw, 1994).

Western practices such as cosmetic surgery and beauty therapy. As well as many branches of multinational designer label clothing and accessories in giant shopping malls are in abundance in cities like Dubai. Boutiques carrying beauty-enhancing products such as shoes, purses, watches, jewelry, sunglasses, perfume and make-up disproportionately outnumber shops carrying groceries and convenience goods. Buildings and fences along the main roads and freeways are replete with gigantic advertising billboards which display Western style models that represent attractiveness, sex appeal, and success – the core of vanity. This is in line with what Wang and Waller (2006) defined as *demonstration effect* which refers to consumers in non-western countries engaging on conspicuous consumption to identify with Western consumer culture that they have been exposed to through advertising and various other media. What is interesting is that Schiffman and Kanuk's (2006) find that "achievement and success" ranks as core value in American society and subsequently acts as a justification for the acquisition of goods and higher levels of vanity. This value is believed to be transmitted via advertising and marketing activities to an even greater extent in global environments.

In summary, because greater media exposure and social networking, that appeal to achievement status and physical beauty, are prevalent in global consumer culture environments consumers are led to believe that material possessions become a way of "showing off" achievement status and provide them with an opportunity to broadcast happiness and success (Durvasula and Lysonski, 2008; Wang and Waller, 2006). From this perspective, we hypothesize that people living in a global consumer culture environment will express higher levels of both materialism and vanity independent of their culture background (ethnicity, gender, religious affiliation).

Shopping Styles

The notion of shopping behavior is one of the most researched areas within marketing. Most work in this area can be traced back to the 1972 seminal work of Tauber entitled "Why do people shop?" Since, then shopping *motivation* has emerged as one of the key constructs of contemporary research in retail marketing and consumer behavior (Wagner, 2007). One of the reasons this is such an important topic is because shopping, by its nature, indicates actual consumer behavior and exhibits a strong potential as a basis for market segmentation and retail strategies (McGoldrick, 2002). An underlying theme though is that shopping is a manifestation of cognitive structures of individuals and their need to achieve certain ends. More specifically, based on the Means-End Chains research approach, consumers follow a logical set of steps in consumption activities all leading to the achievement of an underlying value. The common framework consists of four elements, namely attributes, functional consequences, physiological consequences, and ultimately values. Here the idea of *values* indicates deeply held, albeit abstract, beliefs by which an individual lives their life (Peter and Olson, 2005).

Dubai is a shopper magnet. In fact, the first sign travelers to the emirate are greeted with at the Dubai Airport proclaims "Welcome to Dubai, Where shopping is the National Pastime." Yet shopping is not simply for travelers as most residents living in Dubai gather in shopping malls during the week-end where the air conditioning and spacious atmosphere protect from the heat of the desert. The city of Dubai offers over 50 different shopping malls that range from the biggest mall in the world (The Dubai Mall) to a historically-themed mall aimed at providing both education on Arab history and shopping (Ibn Batutta Mall). Each mall offers not only retail outlets but other community activities such as eateries, cinemas, children's play areas, interactive entertainments, social use areas, relaxation spaces and promotional areas now major components of malls worldwide. The extraordinary availability of shopping activities and the high temperature in Dubai serve to position shopping as a leisure activity for everyone independent of individual perception of what shopping behavior should be. The authors therefore hypothesize that the shopping styles of consumers living in Dubai will not reflect particular culture background (ethnicity, gender, religious affiliation) but rather will reject a more global consumer culture based on embracing consumerism.

Measures

Consumer Sentiment toward Marketing was measured using the scale developed by Gaski and Etzel (1986). Their measure remains the most accepted approach to consumer sentiment and has been extensively tested to ensure satisfactory levels of both reliability and validity. Materialism was measured based on the 6-item scale developed by Richins (1987). Previous work on this scale indicated that materialism was in fact based on two distinct dimensions of *Personal* materialism (four-item scale) and *General* materialism (two-item scale). Such dimensions were found by the authors to hold true during our preliminary analyses assessing construct validly. In this study the *Vanity* construct was adopted as measured by Netemeyer, Burton, and Lichtenstein(1995). "Vanity", as delineated and operationalized by these authors, has four distinct trait aspects and four distinct dimensions: (a) an excessive concern for physical appearance (five-item scale), (b) a positive (often inflated) view of one's personal physical appearance (six-item scale), (c) an excessive concern for personal achievements (five-item scale), and (d) a positive (often excessive) view of one's personal achievements (five-item scale). Consumer Shopping Styles was measured using The Consumer Styles Inventory (CSO) initially developed by Sproles and Kendall (1986) and further refined by Sproles and Sproles (1990). While many attempts have been made to identify consumer primary shopping habits this measures is considered the most comprehensive typology of

consumer behavior measured in terms of consumer shopping drivers. Specifically, the scale involves 39 items covering eight dominant shopping styles. Consumer are believed to rate high or low on one or more of the eight decision making styles in their day-to-day consumer activities. These styles are: (1) *Perfectionist/High Quality*: The degree to which a consumer searches carefully and systematically for the best quality in products, (2) *Brand Consciousness/Price equals Quality*: A consumer's orientation toward buying the more expensive, well-known international brands, (3) *Novelty and Fashion Conscious*: a consumer's tendency to prefer new and innovative products and gains excitement from seeking out new things, (4) *Recreational and Shopping Conscious*: the extent to which a consumer finds shopping as a pleasant and fun activity, (5) *Price Conscious/Value for Money*: A consumer with a particularly high consciousness of sale process and lower prices in general, (6)*Impulsiveness/Careless*: a consumer who tends to buy on the spur of the moment or generally unconcerned with he or she spends their money, (7) *Confused by Overchoice*: a person perceiving too many brands and stores from which to choose and who likely experiences information overload in the market, and finally (8) *Habitual/Brand Loyal*: A characteristic indicating a consumer who repetitively chooses the same favorite brands and/or stores.

Survey Design and Questionnaire Administration

An exploratory study in the form of a focus group was conducted to elicit salient attributes regarding materialism and vanity. To accommodate the so-called *etic-emic* dilemma and establish a level of measurement equivalency. Qualitative results from this preliminary analysis indicated congruence with the established scales. That is, the *etic* constructs (as operationalized by the authors of the scales) were found to be measured similarly when considered *emically* and within the cultural context of our study. This was a significantly positive outcome since the

survey would be administered to both Arab and Non-Arab respondents. A pre-test of the questionnaire was conducted using 32 MBA students at a private university in Dubai. These results indicated no significant problems or differences from expected scale scores. The decision was made to conduct the data collection.

The survey collects data on consumer behavior in terms of cognition (using the sentiment toward marketing scale), affect (using the materialism scale and the vanity scale) and behavior (using the shopping styles scale) and questions on gender, ethnicity, religious affiliation, and number of years living in Dubai. Surveys were administered via a typical mall-intercept process. The choice of shopping centers was based on the prominence of global consumer culture depicted by the evidence of global brands, multiplex cinemas, multi-cultural restaurants and coffee places. In an effort to preempt potential respondent unwillingness to participate all participants were offered a small monetary incentive in the form of a gift card at a mall retailer. While respondents' willingness to participate was noticeably positive because the questionnaire was administered in person, the response rate and non-response bias were impossible to assess. Potential respondents were not told the purpose of the study but a brief introduction was given about confidentiality matters and scoring anchors. The initial sample was 387 mall patrons.

Preliminary Data Assessment

The four major constructs, as indicated by the original scale developers, were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. Finally, data on our categorical variables were collected – gender, nationality, religious affiliation, and years living in Dubai. Nationality was post-coded into Arab vs. Non-Arab based on careful examination of respondents' nationality by one of the authors coming from the Arab world. Prior to carrying out the data analysis, an inspection of the responses was conducted to check for missing data. Of the 387 responses obtained, 28 question-

naires were discarded because they contained excessive missing data. Thus, the results of this present study are based on 359 responses. Detailed demographics of the sample are outlined in Table 4. The same procedure conducted in Study 1 was used to assess the reliability and validity of the various multi-item scales. Final constructs and relevant alpha scores are provided in Table 5.

Analysis and Results

To test the proposed effects, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to assess differences among groups. A 2 (Arab vs. non-Arab) x 2 (Muslim vs. Christian) x 2 (Male vs. Female) MANOVA model was tested with sentiment toward marketing, materialism, vanity, and shopping behaviors as the dependent variables. Table 2 shows the result of the MANOVA.

The hypotheses stated that people living in a global consumer culture environment would express a high level of material value and sentiment towards marketing independent of their culture background (ethnicity, gender, religious affiliation). It was proposed that shopping styles do not reflect particular culture background but rather a more global consumer culture based on embracing of consumerism. The MANOVA results for the dependent variables (Table 2) show no significant differences across nationality, religion, and gender thereby supporting the three hypotheses pertaining to shopping behavior, materialism, and sentiment towards marketing. Additionally, the univariate tests of individual measurements indicate insignificant inter-group differences for the variables, but significant differences for three variables showing impact of the culture background on concern for achievement, view of achievement, and view of personal physical appearance; items capturing the construct "vanity" ($F=$ 4.723, $p<0.05$, $F=3.724$, $p<0.05$, and $F=2.876$, $p<0.10$, respectively). Therefore, the hypothesis that consumers living in an environment dominated by global consumer culture would express a high level of vanity

independent of their culture background was not supported.

As illustrated by the interaction effects charts in Figure 1, in the study Arab-Muslims tend to show lower levels of vanity (view of and concern for achievement, as well as view of physical appearance) than Arab-Christians. However, non-Arab Muslims tend to show higher levels of vanity (view of and concern for achievement, as well as view of physical appearance) than none-Arab Christians. Also, in all 3 cases the relationship is stronger for Christians (whether Arab or non-Arabs).

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The development of global cities presents marketers with a number of analytical and practical challenges, notably in terms standardization versus customization. This study indicates that global cities offer a high global consumer culture context. Consumers living and interacting in such global context tend to adopt similar consumer behavior patterns. The authors also found that consumers in globalizing cities exhibit higher levels of acculturation into the global consumer culture. The empirical results also indicate that, in the context of globalizing cities such as Dubai, cultural backgrounds do not pose significant differences between consumers' sentiment towards marketing, shopping behavior, and levels of materialism/vanity. This supports that increasing intercultural contacts in the context of a globalizing city have the potential to gradually minimize cultural affiliation to the benefit of homogenized global consumers (Bell, 1973). Particularly the study indicates that the influences of traditional gender roles (male versus female), religious affiliations (Muslim versus Christian) and nationality (Arab versus non-Arab) on consumer (behavior) are debatable in context of globalizing cities. In terms of gender differences, the study does not support that females convey a higher level of vanity than male consumers (Durvasula and Lysonski, 2008) or that they express more positive perceptions of

marketing in comparison to male consumers (Gaski and Etzel, 1986). When living in a globalizing city, males and females express similar level of vanity, materialism, sentiment towards marketing or shopping styles. In relation to religion, our behavior are debatable in context of globalizing cities. In terms of gender differences, the study does not support that females convey a higher level of vanity than study raises questions on the persistence of behavioral differences between Muslim versus Christian consumers (Essoo and Dibb, 2004). The data suggests that Muslims and Christian consumers living in a high global consumer context express similar shopping styles. Finally, Arab and non-Arab consumers who interact in similar shopping environment express comparable level of vanity, materialism, sentiment towards marketing and shopping styles. Such findings challenge numerous studies that emphasize country differences in

terms of materialism and vanity levels (Durvasula, Lysonski and Watson,2001).

However, this is not to say that our study supports Ritzer's thesis on *Gobalization* (Ritzer, 2004). The authors do not claim that consumers are becoming homogeneous, even in context of globalizing cities. The unanticipated finding that vanity levels can be influenced by the interacting effect of nationality and religion poses interesting questions. There is a question as to why differences found based only on vanity (affect) and not sentiment towards marketing (cognition) or shopping styles (behavior). This study indicates that the impact of global consumer culture on consumer affect may depend on what other values one holds central. Other studies support that the development of global consumer culture and increasing cultural interactions does not point towards the homogenization of consumer values.

TABLE 4: Demographic Data of Sample (Study3)

n: 359	n (%)	n (%)
Gender:	Male	204 (56.8%)
	Female	155 (43.2%)
Reported Religion:	Muslim	142 (39.5)
	Christian (Catholic, Protestant, Church of England, etc)	217 (60.5)
Nationality:	Arab	152 (42.3%)
	Non-Arab	207 (57.1%)
Age:	Mean	31.03
	Std. Deviation	9.818
	Minimum	15
	Maximum	69
Years in Dubai:	Mean	7.38
	Std. Deviation	8.049
	Minimum	3
	Maximum	43
Education Level:	Below High School	10 (2.8%)
	High School Degree	58 (16.0%)
	Undergraduate College Degree	158 (44.2%)
	Masters Level Graduate Degree	114 (31.9%)
	Doctoral Level Graduate Degree	18 (5.1%)
Monthly Income Level ($1=3.67 AED Dirhams):	Below 5,000 AED	80 (22.3%)
	Between 5,000 and 10,000 AED	71 (19.8%)
	Between 10,000 and 15,000 AED	47 (13.0%)
	Between 15,000 and 20,000 AED	48 (13.3%)
	Above 20,000 AED	113 (31.6%)

TABLE 5: Scale Items, Factor Loadings, and Reliability (Study3)

Variable	Factor/Question	Factor Loading	Cronbach Alpha for Subscale of all items loading above .4
	Consumer Sentiment Towards Marketing (Gaski and Etzel 1986)		
Consumer Sentiment Towards Marketing – Product			.747
CSMProduct1	I am satisfied with most of the products I buy.#	_	
CSMProduct2	Most products I buy wear out too quickly.*	.718	
CSMProduct3	Too many of the products I buy are defective in some way.*	.727	
CSMProduct4	The companies that make products I buy don't care enough about how well that perform.*	.718	
CSMProduct5	The quality of products I buy has consistently improved over the years.	.957	
Consumer Sentiment Towards Marketing – Advertising			.950
CSMAdver1	Most advertising is very annoying.*	.949	
CSMAdver2	Most advertising makes false claims.*	.873	
CSMAdver3	If most advertising were eliminated, consumers would be better off.*	.950	
CSMAdver4	I enjoy most ads.	.873	
CSMAdver5	Most advertising is intended to deceive rather than inform.*	.942	
Consumer Sentiment Towards Marketing – Price			.685
CSMPrice1	Most products I buy are overpriced.*#	_	
CSMPrice2	Businesses could charge lower prices and still be profitable.*#	_	
CSMPrice3	Most prices are reasonable given the high cost of doing business.	.789	
CSMPrice4	Most prices are fair.	.787	
CSMPrice5	In general, I am satisfied with the prices I pay.	.773	
Consumer Sentiment Towards Marketing – Retailing			
Retail Service			.785
CSMRetail1	Most retail stores serve their customers well.	.846	
CSMRetail3	I find most retail salespeople to be very helpful.	.815	
CSMRetail5	Most retailers provide adequate service.	.825	
Retail Shopping Experience / Environment			.665
CSMRetail2	Because of the way retailers treat me, most of my shopping is unpleasant.*	.855	
CSMRetail4	When I need assistance in a store, I am usually not able to get it.	.859	
	Materialism (Richins 1987)		
Personal Materialism			.656
PersonMat1	It is important for me to have really nice things.	.553	
PersonMat2	I would like to be rich enough to buy anything I want.	.711	
PersonMat3	I'd be happier if I could afford to buy more things.	.817	
PersonMat4	It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I want.	.696	

General Materialism		.538
GenerMat1*	People place too much emphasis on material things.*	.839
GenerMat2	It's really true that money can buy happiness	.792

Vanity (Netemeyer, Burton, and Lichtenstein 1995)

Concern for Physical Appearance		.827
ConcernPhyApp1	The way I look is extremely important to me.	.788
ConcernPhyApp2	I am very concerned about my appearance.	.695
ConcernPhyApp3	I would feel embarrassed if I was around people and did not look my best.	.666
ConcernPhyApp4	Looking my best is worth the effort.	.751
ConcernPhyApp5	It is important that I always look good.	.788
View of Physical Appearance		.897
ViewPhyApp1	People notice how attractive I am.	.598
ViewPhyApp2	May looks are very appealing to others.	.736
ViewPhyApp3	People are envious of my good looks.	.746
ViewPhyApp4	I am a very good-looking individual.	.748
ViewPhyApp5	My body is sexually appealing.	.789
ViewPhyApp6	I have the type of body that people want to look at.	.884
Concern for Achievement		.761
ConcernAcheive1	Profession achievements are an obsession with me.	.689
ConcernAcheive2	I want others to look up to me for my accomplishments.	.739
ConcernAcheive3	I am more concerned with professional success than most people I know.	.755
ConcernAcheive4	Achieving greater success than my peers is important to me.	.618
ConcernAcheive5	I want my achievement to be recognized by others.	.472
View of Achievement		.774
ViewAcheive1	In a professional sense, I am a very successful person.	.778
ViewAcheive2	My achievements are highly recognized by others.	.582
ViewAcheive3	I am an accomplished person.	.682
ViewAcheive4	I am a good example of professional success.	.734
ViewAcheive5	Others wish they were as successful as me.	.487

Consumer Styles Inventory : CSI (Sproles and Kendal 1986; Sproles and Sproles 1990)

Perfectionist / High Quality Conscious		.744
PerfQual1	Getting very good quality is very important to me.	.735
PerfQual2	When it comes to purchasing products, I try to get the very best or perfect choice.	.626
PerfQual3	In general, I usually try to buy the best overall quality.	.678
PerfQual4	I make a special effort to choose the very best quality products.	.663
PerfQual5	I really don't give my purchases much thought or care.*#	_
PerfQual6	My standards and expectations for products I buy are very high.	.625
Brand Consciousness / Price Equals Quality		.788
BrandCon1	The well-known international brands are for me.	.578
BrandCon2	The more expensive brands are usually my choices.	.681
BrandCon3	The higher the price of the product, the better the quality.	.661
BrandCon4	Nice departments and specialty stores offer me the best products.	.560

BrandCon5	I prefer buying the best selling brands.	.609	
BrandCon6	The most advertised brands are usually very good choices.	.734	
Novelty and Fashion Conscious			.891
NovFash1	I usually have one or more outfits of the very newest styles.	.832	
NovFash2	I keep my wardrobe up-to-date with the changing fashions.	.742	
NovFash3	Fashionable, attractive styling is very important to me.#	_	
NovFash4	To get variety, I shop different stores and choose different brands.#	_	
NovFash5	It's fun to buy something new and exciting.	.742	
Recreational and Shopping Conscious			.762
RecShop1	Shopping is not a pleasant activity to me.*	.803	
RecShop2	Going shopping is one of the enjoyable activities of my life.	.758	
RecShop3	Shopping the stores wastes my time.*	.648	
RecShop4	I enjoy shopping just for the fun of it.	.626	
RecShop5	I make shopping trips fast.*	.651	
Price Conscious / Value for the Money			.532
PriceCon1	I buy as much as possible at sale prices.	.694	
PriceCon2	The lowest price products are usually my choice.	.609	
PriceCon3	I look carefully to find the best value for money.	.489	
Impulsive / Careless			.776
Impulsive1	I should plan my shopping more carefully than I do.	.579	
Impulsive2	I am impulsive when purchasing.	.636	
Impulsive3	Often I make careless purchases I later wish I had not.	.644	
Impulsive4	I take the time to shop carefully for best buys.*	.686	
Impulsive5	I carefully watch how much I spend.*	.675	
PerfQual7	I shop quickly, buying the first product or brand I find that seems good enough.*	.586	
Confused by Overchoice			.769
Confused1	There are so many brands to choose from that I often feel confused.	.717	
Confused2	Sometimes it's hard to chose which stores to shop.	.641	
Confused3	The more I learn about products, the harder it seems to choose the best.	.727	
Confused4	All the information I get on different products confuses me.	.708	
Habitual / Brand Loyal			.619
Habitual1	I have favorite brands I buy over and over again.	.506	
Habitual2	Once I find a product or brand I like, I stick with it.	.636	
Habitual3	I go to the same stores each time I shop.	.641	
Habitual4	I change brands I buy regularly.*	.728	

Note: * Denotes item required reverse coding.
Note: # Deleted due to cross loadings and/or factor loadings below 0.

For example, in a study on Asian Teens, Wee (1999) shows that the diffusion of Western themes and values through mass media is not blindly embraced by all teenagers around the globe. Similarly, Kjeldgaard and Askegaard emphasize differences in terms of emotional attachment and localized meanings in the youth culture (Kjeldgaard and Askegaard, 2006). While teenagers are highly sensitive to the diffusion of the global youth culture they also express individualized values and personal emotional attachment to global brands. The outcome of this research supports that the diffusion of global consumer culture does not lead homogenized consumers in term of affect even in the context of a globalizing city.

From this perspective the study supports the glocalization thesis and adds to the concept "thing global, act local" that the local can have global resonances in terms of behavior and cognition but less so in terms of affect. The fact that global processes are spreading to emergent markets contributes to cultural behavioral and cognitive mutations. Yet the impact of globalization on the emotional side of consumer behavior is questionable. Such conclusions call for further research on the impact of global consumer
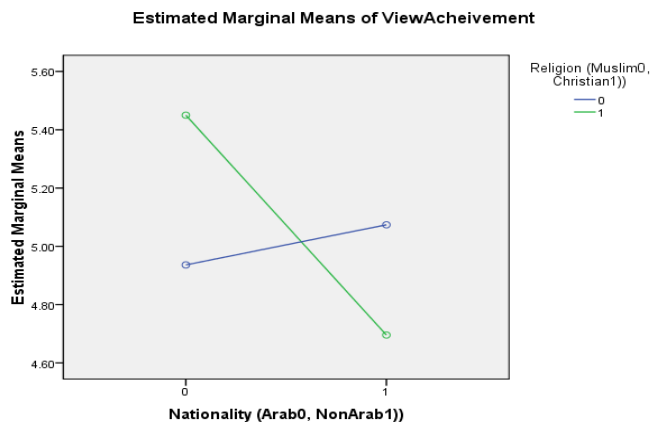
TABLE 6: MANOVA Results with Sentiment towards Marketing, Materialism, and Vanity as Dependent Variables (Study3)

Item	Multivariate						
	Gender	Nationality	Religion	G*N	G*R	N*R	G*N*R
Wilks' lambda criterion on canonical roots:	.899	.916	.924	.942	.940	.888	.929
F ratio	1.129	.924	.824	.620	.634	1.264	.763
	Univariate F ratios						
Sentiment towards marketing							
Product	.007	.611	.084	.051	.141	1.441	.271
Advertising	.002	.273	.347	.000	.702	.002	.086
Price	.843	.157	.815	1.468	2.378	.003	2.244
Retail Service	.949	.010	.159	.922	1.098	.126	2.756
Retail Experience	.768	.122	.004	.181	.339	.001	1.458
Materialism							
Personal	1.345	1.612	3.168	1.264	2.740	1.027	.267
General	.060	0.000	.163	2.672	1.284	.051	1.095
Vanity							
Concern for physical appearance	.115	2.279	.697	.422	.102	1.523	.080
View of personal physical appearance	.158	3.384	.562	.492	.062	2.876**	.259
Concern for personal achievements	.883	1.822	.006	.010	.084	4.723*	.113
View of personal achievements	2.056	1.563	.203	.267	.000	3.724*	.466
Shopping Styles							
Perfectionist / High Quality Conscious	.286	.334	.415	1.492	.588	2.343	.684
Brand Consciousness	1.570	.050	.717	4.328	1.724	.040	2.806
Novelty and Fashion Conscious	1.107	.580	.009	.318	.122	.024	.056
Recreational	1.141	.093	.679	2,187	.239	1.170	.072
Price Conscious	.409	2.566	.091	.002	1.436	1.167	.697
Impulsive	.059	.014	.173	.001	.000	.010	.001
Confused by Overchoice	2.444	1.060	1.269	.889	1.875	.572	3.361
Habitual	1.570	.050	.717	2.328	1.724	.040	2.806

*p<.05 **p<.10
Note: G*N: Gender*Nationality, G*R: Gender*Religion, N*R: Nationality*Religion, G*N*R: Gender*Nationality*Religion

FIGURE 1. Interaction Effects on Significant Vanity Constructs (Study 3)

Estimated Marginal Means of ViewPhyAppearance

Estimated Marginal Means of ConcernAcheivement

Estimated Marginal Means of ViewAcheivement
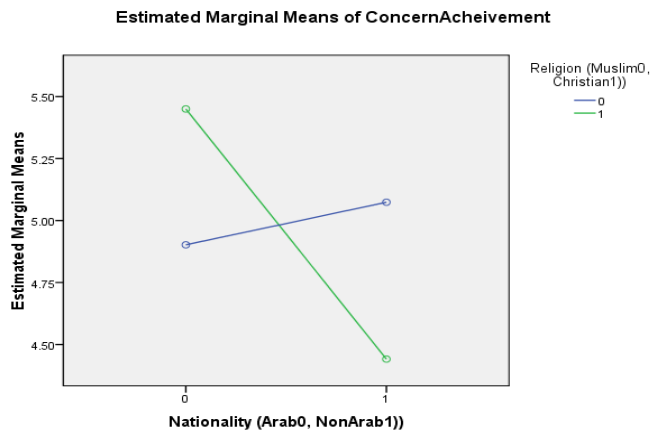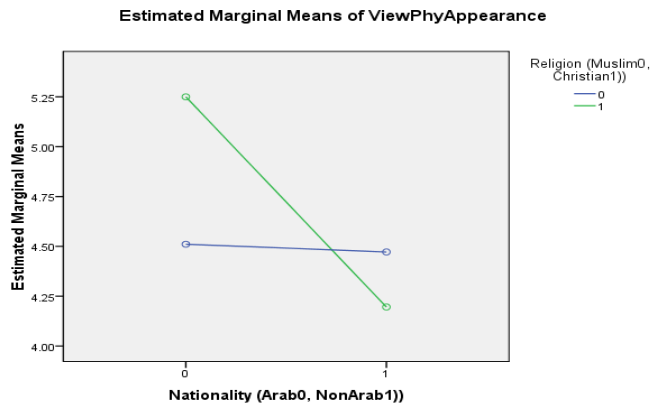
culture with a focus on deep human relationships and emotional values. This encourages a qualitatively different type of approach to processes of globalization.

The outcomes of this study indicates further research on the complexity of emotional reactions to global consumer culture is warranted. Although ethnicity, gender and religiosity may

no longer cluster customers into segments with distinctive cognitive and behavioral traits it does not mean that global consumer culture should be understood as one homogenizing force. The finding that nationality and religion impact vanity levels in a globalizing city questions the viability of homogenizing concepts such as cosmopolitan global culture (Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2009), global consumer-citizen (McGregor, 1999), or global consumer culture (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007; Zhou, Teng, and Poon,2008).

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IMDA Press

A Comparative Study of the Degree, Dimensionality, and Design of Consumer Ethnocentrism in Diverse Cultures

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ABSTRACT. This paper addresses the issues of the "degree" (CETSCORES), "dimensionality" (number of dimensions of CETSCALE), and "design" (factor structure of CETSCALE), based on an analysis of environmental influences in four countries, namely, Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the USA. The findings indicate that the USA was the least ethnocentric, Turkey was the most ethnocentric, and Austria and Poland were in between the USA and Turkey on the consumer ethnocentrism continuum. Further, there was no difference in the degree of consumer ethnocentrism for Austria and Poland. As regards the dimensionality, CETSCALE was found to be two-dimensional for the USA and three-dimensional for the other three countries. Finally, the design of consumer ethnocentrism i.e., factor structure was most similar for Austria-Poland country pair compared to other five pairs of countries. Managerial implications of these results are discussed and directions for future research are identified.

KEYWORDS. Consumer Ethnocentrism, Cross-cultural Issues, CETSCALE, Austria, Poland, Turkey, USA

INTRODUCTION

Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CETSCALE) was developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) and has been extensively used in international settings to study various aspects of consumer behavior. CETSCALE measures consumer ethnocentrism, defined by Shimp and Sharma (1987, p.280) as "…beliefs held by American consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products." From an international marketer's point of view, consumer ethnocentrism provides a measure of the resistance the foreign products are likely to face from the consumers in the host country. While a substantial body of research exists measuring the extent of consumer ethnocentrism (CETSCORES) in a wide range of countries and its effect on different aspects of consumer behavior, relatively less number of studies have investigated the issues related to CETSCALE dimensionality. Although several studies have validated the uni-dimensionality of the CETSCALE, several others have found it to be multi-dimensional (Hopkins and Powers 2003; Manrai, Lascu, and Manrai 1994; Manrai

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et al. 1996; Marcoux et al. 1997; Supphellen and Rittenberg 2001). Related to the dimensionality is the issue of the factor structure of CETSCALE (the pattern of item loadings on various factors). An understanding of CETSCALE dimensionality and factor structure is critical for drawing any meaningful comparisons in cross-cultural settings. In past, researchers have resorted to measures such as eliminating certain items of CETSCALE to make it more comparable in international/cross-cultural settings or have used alternate measures such as cultural openness and world mindedness.

The research study reported in this paper addresses the issues of multi-dimensionality and differences in factor structure of CETSCALE in cross-cultural and cross-national settings by developing insights from analysis of political, economic, cultural, and social environments. Four very different countries were included in our study, namely, Austria, Poland, Turkey, and USA to allow us to study the effect of variations in environmental influences.

Three major contributions of our research are the development of environmental analysis based insights related to the following three issues connected to the applicability of CETSCALE in cross-cultural and cross-national settings:

1. "Degree" – the extent of consumer ethnocentrism or CETSCORE
2. "Dimensionality" – number of dimensions of CETSCALE
3. "Design" – factor structure of CETSCALE

This paper is organized in seven sections. The next section covers an extensive literature review of consumer ethnocentrism research in cross-cultural and cross-national settings and environmental influences underlying consumer ethnocentrism in the four selected countries. The third section presents four hypotheses related to the degree, dimensionality, and design of consumer ethnocentrism in the four countries. The fourth section presents the methodology, including the details of the samples and research questionnaire, and the fifth section describes data analysis and results. Discussion and managerial implications are included in the sixth section, and the final section identifies some issues for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Cross-cultural consumer research frequently involves using scales developed and tested in a particular country for applications in other countries or regions that are culturally dissimilar. One of the challenges that such studies present is that, frequently, these measures have not been fully evaluated *a priori*, in order to establish their reliability and validity in the markets where they are applied. This is often the situation of the CETSCALE (Manrai, Lascu, and Manrai 1994), a measure that is widely used for assessing individuals' ethnocentric tendencies. The scale measures consumer ethnocentrism, namely beliefs of consumers about the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign-made products (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Consumer ethnocentrism is considered to be a barrier to success in international markets: ethnocentric consumers are thought to have a bias against foreign products and a strong preference for local products (Netemeyer, Durvasula and Lichtenstein 1991). Consequently, assessing consumer ethnocentric tendencies may be useful in evaluating attitudes toward foreign brands and foreign companies.

Consumer Ethnocentrism Research in Cross-Cultural/Cross-National Settings

The CETSCALE is purported to be an etic measure (Manrai, Lascu, and Manrai 1994) – a measure that can be applied within different countries, or one that can be used for cross-cultural comparisons. Its etic nature was first established by Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein (1991), who assessed the scale's psychometric properties across four countries, namely, the United States, France, Japan and West Germany and they found strong support for the scale's factor structure and reliability across the four countries. Subsequently, many other studies were

conducted assessing consumer ethnocentrism cross-culturally or in a particular country and compared their results with those of Shimp and Sharma (1987). For example, studies were conducted in: Germany (Evanschitzky 2008); the U.K. (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos 2004); Turkey (Kaynak and Kara 2002); in Israel (Shoham and Brencic 2003); the United States, Slovenia, and Kazakhstan (Reardon et al. 2005); China, India, and Taiwan (Pereira, Hsu, and Kundu 2002; Klein et al. 1998); the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland (Lindquist et al. 2001); New Zealand (Watson and Wright 2000); in Spain (Luque-Martinez, Ibanez-Zapata, and Barrio-Garcia 2000); Japan, the United States, and Sweden (Hult, Keillor, and Lafferty 1999); Belgium, Great Britain, and Greece (Steenkamp et al. 1998); Russia and the United States (Durvasula, Andrews, and Netemeyer 1997; Strutton et al. 1995); Mexico (Bailey and Gutierrez de Pineres 1997); Austria (Riefler 2006); in Denmark (Niss 1995); Poland (Michaelis et al. 2008), and in Belgium and Canada (Sadrudin and Astous 1993), among others.

In using the CETSCALE and evaluating this measure developed in the United States to other countries, these and other studies have taken an important step in assessing the generalizability of marketing theory regarding consumer ethnocentrism. Many of these research studies also measured consumer ethnocentrism scores, known as CETSCORES (Sinkovics 2002), using the CETSCALE in a wide variety of countries around the world. However, even as most studies touted the performance of the CETSCALE across different cultural environments, and even in vastly different countries, such as China, India, and Taiwan (Pereira, Hsu, and Kundu 2002), evidence has, nevertheless, suggested the possibility that the scale may have multiple dimensions. Studies finding that the scale is multidimensional were conducted in Australia, China, Guatemala (Manrai et. al 1996); Poland (Manrai et al. 1994; Supphellen and Rittenburg 2001; Marcoux et al. 1997); and even in the United States (Hopkins and Powers 2003). This may

signal a concern, as the scale is widely used to compare cross-national samples in their degree of ethnocentrism.

In order for international comparisons of the CETSCALE to be meaningful, the measure would have to exhibit adequate cross-national equivalence (Steenkamp et al. 1998). Steenkamp et al. (1998) underscored the importance of measurement equivalence and proposed a procedure for assessing measurement invariance in the scale's cross-cultural applications using multisample confirmatory factor analysis in the process of conducting an empirical assessment of the scale as a single-factor construct in Belgium, Great Britain, and Greece.

Consequently, a basic concern remains: conceptually, the CETSCALE appears to be multidimensional (Hopkins and Powers 2003; Manrai et. al. 1994, 1996; Marcoux et al. 1997; Supphellen and Rittenburg 2001). In the Manrai et al. (1994) study, four dimensions are readily evident: moral and/or ethical considerations as captured in statements such as: "It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts American people out of jobs"; patriotic and/or nationalist considerations as captured in statements such as: "Purchasing foreign-made products is un-American"; economic and/or financial considerations as captured in statements such as: "Buy American-made products. Keep America working;" and legal and/or political considerations captured in statements such as: "Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into the United States." The study found that the scale was uni-dimensional for respondents in the United States and it exhibited distinct dimensions for Polish respondents. Another study by Manrai et. al. (1996) examined the applicability of CETSCALE in Australia, China, Guatemala and the United States. Their findings indicated that CETSCALE was uni-dimensional in the United States, two- dimensional in Australia and for China and Guatemala, the CETSCALE exhibited three distinct dimensions. These authors explain the results in terms of different patterns of moral, nationalistic, economic, and legal concerns prev-

alent in the four countries and suggest that the meaning attributed by consumers to some CETSCALE items may differ across countries. Thus, an item could mean a moral concern to consumers in one country whereas in another country the same item could mean a nationalistic concern to consumers. These differences influence the design (factor structure) of the CETSCALE when it is multi-dimensional. The differences therefore need to be understood for a meaningful interpretation and comparison of findings in the cross-cultural and cross-national settings.

In other examples, the Hopkins and Powers study (2003) administered the scale to U.S. respondents and found that one factor, attributable to the first item, "American people should always buy American-made products instead of imports," accounted for 57.7% of the total variance, accounting for concerns such as self-interest and orientation toward consumer ethnocentrism. Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001) administered the scale in Poland and also found two or three factors, depending on the rotation and extraction methods, with one dominant factor. They eliminated the items that did not load highly on the first factor, leaving only 10 of the 17 items in the analysis. Their findings echo those of Marcoux et al. (1997), also conducted in Poland. Marcoux et al. (1997) first reduced the items from 17 to 15 because of translation and cultural adaptation difficulties, and subsequently eliminated another item with factor loadings under .45, leaving a total of 14 items in the revised scale. Three factors extracted explained 55.3% of the variance, with protectionism accounting for most of the variance (36.9%), followed by socio-economic conservatism (10.2%), and patriotism (8.2%).

The dimensionality and design (factor structure) challenges presented by the CETSCALE may in fact be the reason why researchers do not use this well-established measure, and have reverted to alternatives that are well-suited for their research, such as the openness-to-foreign-cultures concept, representing an elevated degree

of interest in the people, the customs, and the culture of other countries, reframed as low-ethnocentrism (d'Astous et al. 2008). Other studies proceeded to reduce the scale from 17 items to 6 items, arguing that more items created "empirical redundancy" (Klein and Ettenson 2006).

Another way to address the challenges presented by the CETSCALE behavior in international applications is to explore the degree, dimensionality, and design (factor structure) from the perspective of its reflection of the particular complexities of the environment where the scale is administered (Cordell 1993; Manrai, Lascu, and Manrai 1994; Manrai et. al, 1996; Manrai, Manrai, and Lascu 2009; Supphellen and Rittenburg 2001).

Thus, we argue that the cross-cultural/cross-national differences in the degree, dimensionality, and design of consumer ethnocentrism can be explained in terms of the various environmental factors such as, cultural, social, economic, and political influences on consumers' attitudes toward buying foreign products. Next, we attempt to identify environmental influences underlying consumer ethnocentrism in the countries involved in our research – Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the United States, respectively.

Environmental Influences Underlying the Degree, Dimensionality, and Design of Consumer Ethnocentrism

The present study evaluates consumer ethnocentrism in four countries where political, cultural, social, and economic forces are very different and, as such, may create different degrees of consumer ethnocentrism; moreover, these variations in ethnocentrism may, in turn, have different justifications. For example, moral or economic justifications may persuade consumers not to buy foreign products even if they are superior in quality to home-country products. Nationalistic rationales may prevail in cultures that tend to be more xenophobic, or where there is animosity attributed to war or economic threat (Klein et al. 1998; Saffu and Scott 2009). However, even in emerging markets where consumer ethnocen-

trism may be strong, moderating factors that attribute quality and status to expensive foreign brands from high-income countries are also prevalent considerations that impact purchase decisions (Wang and Chen 2004; Wang and Lamb 1983). In addition, ethical, political and legal considerations may affect consumer ethnocentric beliefs. In the countries of our study, we argue that specific motivations may exist that are unique to the respective countries

One area where the scale has been used extensively is Central and Eastern Europe (Manrai, Lascu, and Manrai 1994), a market that is noteworthy due to the large-scale changes that are taking places in all aspects of the environment in the process of transition to a market economy. In this region, the country selected for the purpose of this study is Poland, which provides a good illustration of transition-related developments. There, the standard of living has been steadily increasing, and the country has weathered economic crises better than most neighboring countries (Hernik and Lascu 2009). Consumer buying power has been on the increase, and local firms have started to compete favorably with established multinational corporations for Polish consumers. Local producers are, in fact, able to meet the needs of Polish consumers with products that are Western standards, but at lower, more affordable, prices.

In the past, "the great majority of products sold on the streets and in the open market come from outside Poland" (cf. Witkowski 1993, p. 15), primarily from Germany, France, and the United States. Western marketers not only flooded the markets with goods and related advertisements, but they also introduced material of questionable morality, such as audio and video cassettes often printed with sexually-provocative labels (Witkowski 1993). Witkowski and Enrique (1994) found evidence of strong consumer ethnocentrism in Poland, where consumers believed that Polish products are good and worth believing in. Consequently, they bought Polish products because they were patriots (Witkowski and Enrique 1994). Moreover, these authors also found that Polish consumers were disappointed with the quality of Western goods, especially with the unscrupulous marketers selling knock-offs of major brands and dumping second-rate goods in this market (Witkowski and Enrique 1994). Skepticism is also extended to advertising; in the view of Polish consumers, products did not perform as well as the advertisements claimed they did (Witkowski and Enrique 1994). Overall, these consumers did not like to be patronized and resisted buying Western goods when given a choice (Witkowski and Enrique 1994).

Today, Polish firms are competing aggressively for their share of the Polish consumers, providing high-quality goods and spending large amounts to create strong local and even world brands, such as Skoda and Wyborowa vodka. On the other hand, Polish firms are fighting to keep low-priced Chinese brands at bay by purchasing manufacturing facilities in China and splitting production between China and Poland (Halaba 2005). Consumers continue to have a high degree of ethnocentrism compared, for example, to consumers in other countries of the Eastern Bloc, such as Russia (Good and Huddleston 1995). Consumer ethnocentrism was found to increase with age and decrease with education – these findings are consistent with most previous research (Good and Huddleston 1995).

Similarly, Austrians are thought to exhibit a higher degree of nationalism (Rawwas et al. 1996; Gärtner 2000; Riefler 2006) – this trait has been particularly pronounced before the Second World War (Rawwas et al. 1996). According to sociologists, Austria has experienced in the past decades a resurgence of ethnocentrism with the emergence of the *Neue Rechte* (New Right); ethnocentrism, for this group, "is synonymous with 'Foreigners out' *(Ausländer raus)* but sounds more intellectual" (Gärtner 2000). An anti-foreigner sentiment might be attributed to more than just a minority in Austria, as, for instance, far-right politicians have been elected to governorship positions in the not-too-distant past.

Sharma, Shimp, and Shin (1995) argue that some of the most important antecedents of con-

sumer ethnocentrism relate directly to national identity, to patriotism and nationalism. But, while Austrians have a higher degree of nationalism, they, in fact, do not rate highly on ethnocentrism (Riefler 2006). It is mostly older Austrians and Austrians with less education who are likely to be ethnocentric (Riefler 2006). Moreover, research suggests that they have a high degree of worldmindedness, characterized by hybrid cultures that are increasingly appreciative of world sharing and common welfare, showing empathy and understanding toward other societies (Rawwas 1996). And, even if Austrian consumers are high-ethnocentric, they are forced to rely on foreign-manufactured products, as Austria's small market size does not warrant extensive investment in consumer goods; in the case of countries where a small market size does not justify customized products or products with high setup costs for producers, and thus where a local product is not available, consumers have no choice but to purchase foreign products (Sinkovics 2002).

Turkish consumers, in turn, appear to have characteristics of consumers in emerging markets, such as nationalism – or ethnocentric patriotism (Adorno 1950; Balabanis et al. 2001), – as well as patriotism, and ethnocentrism (Altintas and Tokol 2007), and conservatism (Balabanis et al. 2002). This is surprising, particularly in light of the fact that Turkey has experienced strong growth and a vibrant and lucrative consumer market in the past decades, with substantial foreign direct investment, and exports of over 50 percent of its goods to the European Union (Kaynak and Kara 2002).

Research found that Turkish consumers who are more conservative, in general, tend to be more ethnocentric. In particular, those who are more family concerned and community conscious tend to be more ethnocentric (Kucukemirogly 1999). Similarly, the more religious Turks also appear to have a higher degree of consumer ethnocentrism, with the devout Muslims being the most ethnocentric, preferring to purchase domestic products (Kaynak and Kara 2002). Al-

ternatively, secular Turks prefer mostly foreign made products, in particular those made in Japan, the U.S., and Western Europe, perceived to have a well-known brand name, and to be expensive, luxurious, of good style and appearance, and heavily advertised (Kaynak and Kara 2002). However, since 2004, Turkey has embarked on a conservative path, electing twice a conservative party (the Justice and Development Party, or AKP) to power and bringing numerous religiously conservative groups from the peripheries of society to its center (Yilmaz 2009).

At the other end of the spectrum is the United States, where consumers are less likely to have a high degree of ethnocentrism. The consequences associated with an ethnocentric bias are more serious in a multiethnic country, such as the United States, than in more homogeneous countries (Neuliep 2001), such as Austria, Poland, and Turkey. In multiethnic, multicultural countries, ethnocentrism is dysfunctional with respect to intercultural relationships, as it influences how people communicate with one another, creating serious barriers to communication and relational development (Gudykunst and Kim 1997, Neuliep 2001).

Moreover, the United States has a well developed liberalized economy that should not, theoretically, exhibit ethnocentric tendencies. Shuh's (1994) framework links the level of the environment's economic development to consumers' product preferences such that, in the initial stages of a liberalized economy, consumers' ethnocentric tendencies are low because of the "newness" of the marketplace and their curiosity to try different products; then, as the economy stabilizes, a nationalist phenomenon becomes dominant; finally, as the liberalized economy reaches full development, ethnocentric tendencies fade (Kwak et al. 2006). The United States is a high-income country (World Bank Data – Country Groups 2009) with an advanced liberalized economy. As such, its lower ethnocentrism scores are justified both based on economic development (Kwak et al. 2006) and based on the

multiethnic character of its population (Neuliep 2001).

STUDY HYPOTHESES

In this section, we advance a number of hypotheses related to the degree, dimensionality, and design of the consumer ethnocentrism concept scale based on an analysis of the four environmental factors – i.e., social, cultural, economic, and political for the four countries included in our study, namely, Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the United States of America.

Degree of Consumer Ethnocentrism

As just mentioned, the United States is one of the most liberal economies in the world and it is less likely to exhibit ethnocentric tendencies, as explained by Shuh's (1994) framework linking the level of the country's economic development to consumer ethnocentrism (Kwak et al. 2006). According to this framework, the United States is a classified liberalized economy with a low level of ethnocentrism. Moreover, the country's multi-ethnicity also firmly places the United States in a low-ethnocentric category (Neuliep 2001).

Austria too, based on Shuh's (1994) analysis, would show manifestations of low ethnocentrism. It has shown strong economic growth and low unemployment, in recent years (Kulish 2008), which would further suggest that consumers here would have a low level of ethnocentrism. However, it is a more homogeneous country, from an ethnic perspective, which suggests that it might also be more ethnocentric (Neuliep 2001).

Moreover, Austrians are thought to exhibit a higher degree of nationalism (Rawwas et al. 1996; Gärtner 2000; Riefler 2006). In the past decades, Austria has experienced a resurgence of ethnocentrism (Gärtner 2000). In recent years, fears about rising consumer prices have aggravated tensions regarding immigration, and, along with a soured sentiment toward the European Union, recent elections have benefited far-right parties (Kulish 2008). We thus suggest that, de-

spite its liberal economy, Austria will have a higher level of ethnocentrism than the United States.

Poland is in a position where ethnocentric tendencies are beginning to fade as a result of rapid development and its acceptance as a full member of the European Union. However, the rejection of the European Union constitution by France and the Netherlands was interpreted as a backlash against cheap labor from Eastern Europe – with the image of the Polish plumber taking French jobs away dominating European media. Indeed, the migration of labor to Western Europe has led to a shortage at home: Poland is short of everything from plumbers to pilots and, as a result, wages are increasing dramatically and encouraging inflation, which threatens to end Poland's economic boom (Wasilewski 2007).

As a result, Poland has turned away from its enthusiastic embrace of the European Union, and, in many instances, it has challenged its decisions and its own voting rights within the EU. It has also turned inward, with an increased focus on Polish tradition (*The New York Times*, 2009), creating a climate that would support a higher degree of ethnocentrism. And, since its own country brands are facing a serious challenge by producers from developed countries, as well as by new competitors from China (Halaba, 2005), it is likely that there will be an increasing backlash against foreign products.

We thus herein suggest that Poland and Austria may share a similar level of ethnocentrism, with Poland reaching a level of confidence and economic performance where nationalistic and ethnocentric tendencies begin to fade, while Austria maintaining a somewhat higher degree of ethnocentrism despite its high-income, high-economic-performance status.

Finally, Turkey is experiencing rapid development, with strong growth (Kaynak and Kara 2002), and with Turkish brands gaining strength in international markets. At this stage, according to Shuh's (1994) analysis, ethnocentrism is at its highest. Moreover, Turkish consumers tend to be more nationalistic (Balabanis et al. 2001), patri-

otic and ethnocentrism (Altintas and Tokol 2007), as well as conservative (Balabanis et al. 2002).

We thus suggest, based on this research, placing the four countries, Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the United States, on the continuum where the United States has the lowest degree of ethnocentrism, followed by Poland and Austria, at a similar level, and Turkey with the highest degree of ethnocentrism of the four countries, as follows:

H1A): The "Degree" of consumer ethnocentrism (CETSCORES) will be the highest for Turkey and the lowest for the United States of America. CETSCORES for Austria and Poland will be in between Turkey and the United States of America.

H1B) The "Degree" of consumer ethnocentrism (CETSCORES) for Austria and Poland will be very similar.

Dimensionality of Consumer Ethnocentrism

Shimp and Sharma (1987), in their seminal paper on the development and validation of the CETSCALE, argued that the scale, in a United States context, was uni-dimensional. Subsequently, the scale was touted as uni-dimensional in most studies. However, in a number of cross-cultural comparisons, it has become increasingly evident that, while the scale is uni-dimensional in the United States applications, its dimensionality is problematic when applied to different environments.

For example, Manrai et al. (1994) found that the scale was uni-dimensional for respondents in the United States and it exhibited distinct dimensions for Polish respondents. Another study by Manrai et. al. (1996) found that the CETSCALE was uni-dimensional in the United States, two-dimensional in Australia, and, for China and Guatemala, the CETSCALE exhibited three distinct dimensions.

An explanation for this finding may be found in a cursory examination of the scale. The scale consists of rallying comments, comments that might commonly be heard when workers picket a company closing local factories and moving overseas. These types of slogans are common and relate to the same issue – protest against moving jobs out of the country. As such, individuals will understand the statements (and thus the items) as a part of a unified whole. In international environments, this unified dimension may vanish as there is no common frame of reference to create a unified rallying voice; in other words, different nationalities deal with jobs moving overseas differently.

Poland and Turkey are emerging markets characterized by cheap and competent labor. Manufacturing jobs are moving today into Poland and Turkey, and not out of these countries. Hence, individuals who complete these instruments in these countries might not fully interpret the questionnaire as a unified whole. In the case of Austria, ethnocentrism is a complex concept, one that goes to the nationalistic/patriotic fiber of Austrian society, but it is also an unwarranted sentiment: Austrians do not make many consumer goods; rather, they specialize in industrial goods. Hence, it is well possible that the only country among the four where the CETSCALE maintains its uni-dimensionality is the United States.

H2): The "Dimensionality" of consumer ethnocentrism (# of dimensions of CETSCALE) will be lower for the USA compared to the other three countries, namely, Austria, Poland, and Turkey.

Design of Consumer Ethnocentrism

In the case of Austria and Poland, the two countries have shared the complex history of Central Europe, from the Austro-Hungarian Empire history, to life under National Socialism during the Second World War. Today, Austria boasts a large influx of Poles, Polish businesses, and Polish products. Poles are likely to under-

TABLE 1: Characteristics of Samples

	Austria	Poland	Turkey	United States
Sample Size	160	128	138	84
Median Age	21	23	21	23
% Males	46.9%	60.9%	42.8%	50.0%
% Females	53.1%	39.1%	57.2%	50.0%

stand the consumer ethnocentrism slogans as presented in the CETSCALE in a manner similar to that of Austrians. Hence, it is possible that the structure of the CETSCALE will be similar for the two countries, as follows:

H3): The "Design" of consumer ethnocentrism (factor structure of CETSCALE) will be most similar for Austria and Poland compared to other five pairs of countries, namely, USA-Austria, USA-Poland, USA-Turkey, Poland-Turkey, and Austria-Turkey.

METHODOLOGY

In this section we describe the characteristics of the Austrian, Polish, Turkish, and American samples and the variables included in the research questionnaire.

Characteristics of Samples

Table 1 provides details of the four samples including the sample size and demographics such as age and gender. The aggregate sample size for this research study is 512 comprising of Austria – 160, Poland – 129, Turkey – 138, and USA – 85. The four samples matched fairly close on median age (21 years for Austria and Turkey, and 23 years for Poland and the USA). The percentage of males and females ranged from 40% to 60% for the four samples. The Austrian, Polish, and Turkish data were collected from undergraduate and graduate students attending business schools in a large city in the respective countries. The data from the USA was collected through subject pool comprising of undergraduate students enrolled in introduction to marketing class. These students in turn administered the questionnaire to respondents primarily in and around large cities in the Mid Atlantic regions of the USA.

Research Questionnaire

The research questionnaire included the CETSCALE (given in Appendix 1 for the USA) and questions on the demographic profile of the respondents such as age and gender. For Austria, Turkey, and the USA, the questionnaire used was in English. For Poland, the questionnaire was translated into Polish and back translated into English. The Polish version of the questionnaire was finalized upon agreement between the translators and one of the authors familiar with the Polish language that the questions in English and Polish versions had identical meanings.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Degree of Consumer Ethnocentrism

The total CETSCORES for Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the USA were computed by adding the scores on the 17 CETSCLE items. The mean scores for the four country samples, standard deviations and the valid sample sizes are given in Table 2A. The mean CETSCORES for Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the USA were compared using Z-tests. Table 2B provides Z values and significance levels for each of the six country pair comparisons. Hypothesis H1A) predicted that the "Degree" of consumer ethnocentrism (CETSCORES) will be the highest for Turkey,

TABLE 2A: Degree of Consumer Ethnocentrism (Total Cetscores) for Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the United States (Means, Standard Deviations, and Sample Sizes)

	Austria	Poland	Turkey	United States
Mean CETSCORE	41.445	42.226	46.898	37.700
Standard Deviation	13.566	14.003	13.111	12.172
Sample Size	155	129	137	85

TABLE 2B: Pairwise Comparison of Total Cetscores for Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the United States (Z Values and Significance)

Country Pair	Z Value	Significance Level	Country Pair	Z Value	Significance Level
Austria-Poland	0.477	Ns	Poland-Turkey	22.833	0.01
Austria-Turkey	39.954	0.01	Poland-USA	2.435	0.05
Austria-USA	2.119	0.05	Turkey-USA	37.738	0.01

lowest for the USA, and for Austria and Poland the CETSCORES will be in between Turkey and the USA. Hypothesis H1B) predicted that the "Degree" of consumer ethnocentrism (CETSCORES) for Austria and Poland will be very similar.

As can be seen from Table 2A, the mean CETSCORE for Turkey was the highest at 46.898 and the mean CETSCORE for the USA was the lowest at 37.000. For Austria and Poland, the mean CETSCORES were 41.445 and 42.226 respectively. The pair-wise comparisons given in Table 2B indicate that significant differences existed in the mean CETSCORES for five out of six country pairs. Mean CETSCORES for Austria-Poland country pair were very similar (Z=0.477, not significant). All other comparisons of mean CETSCORES showed statistically significant differences as follows: Austria-Turkey (Z=39.954, significant at 0.01 level), Austria-USA (Z=2.119, signifi-

cant at 0.05 level), Poland-Turkey (Z==22.833, significant at 0.01 level), Poland-USA (Z=2.435, significant at 0.05 level), and Turkey-USA (Z=37.738, significant at 0.01 level). These results provide support for hypothesis H1A) predicting the relative degree of consumer ethnocentrism for the four countries included in this study and hypothesis H1B) predicting the similarity in the degree of consumer ethnocentrism between Austria and Poland.

Dimensionality of Consumer Ethnocentrism

The CETSCALE data for the four countries were factor analyzed. A Varimax rotation yielded two factors with eigen values greater than one for USA and three factors with eigen values greater than one for Austria, Poland, and Turkey. The eigen values and the variance explained by the two factors for the USA and three factors for Austria, Poland, and Turkey are given in Table

3. The factor structure of the CETSCALE for the four countries showing the items loadings on different factors is given in Table 4. Hypothesis H2 predicted that the "Dimensionality" of consumer ethnocentrism (factor structure of CETSCALE) will be lower for the USA compared to the other three countries, namely, Austria, Poland, and Turkey. As can be seen from the results reported in Table 3 and Table 4, CETSCALE had two distinct dimensions for the USA data whereas for Austria, Poland, and Turkey data the CETSCALE had three distinct dimensions. These results therefore support hypothesis H2.

Design of Consumer Ethnocentrism

Hypothesis H3 predicted that the "Design" of consumer ethnocentrism (factor structure of CETSCALE) will be most similar for Austria and Poland compared to other five pairs of countries, namely, USA-Austria, USA-Poland, USA-Turkey, Poland-Turkey, and Austria-Turkey. The data analysis procedure to test this hypothesis comprised of a) assessment of the extent of similarity percentages in factor structure for the six country pairs and b) comparison of the similarity percentages of six country pairs using Z statistics.

The extent of similarity of the six country pairs was measured by the number of common CETSCALE items loading on the same factor for the two countries in a pair and then adding up the total number of common items for all the factors. The extent of similarity percentages were computed by dividing the total number of common items for all the factors by total number of items in the CETSCALE, namely, 17. Next, the 15 possible comparisons of similarity percentages (proportions) for the six pairs were made using the Z test. Table 5 summarizes the 15 possible comparisons of the 6 country pairs, the total number of common items, and similarity proportions for each of the 6 country pairs, and Z statistic and significance level for each of the 15 comparisons.

As can be seen from the results summarized in Table 5, Austria-Poland pair had the largest number of common items (10) compared to other five country pairs, namely, Austria-Turkey (8), Austria-USA (5), Poland-Turkey (5), Poland-USA (7), and Turkey-USA (6). Further, each of the five comparisons of Austria-Poland with other five country pairs was significant. The comparisons of Austria-Poland pair (similarity proportion 0.5882) was significant at 0.01 level with Austria-Turkey pair (similarity proportion 0.4706), Austria-USA pair (similarity proportion 0.2941), Poland-Turkey pair (similarity proportion 0.2941), Poland-USA pair (similarity proportion 0.4118), and Turkey-USA pair (similarity

TABLE 3: Dimensionality of Consumer Ethnocentrism (Number of Cetscale Factors) for Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the United States (Number of Factors, Eigen Values, and % of Variance Explained)

# Of Factors	Austria	Poland	Turkey	United States
	3	3	3	2
Factor 1				
Eigen Value	7.545	10.153	7.200	9.122
% Variance Explained	48.4%	59.7%	42.4%	53.7%
Factor 2				
Eigen Value	1.734	1.335	1.537	1.720
% Variance Explained	10.2%	7.9%	9.0%	10.1%
Factor 3				
Eigen Value	1.052	1.051	1.185	N/A
% Variance Explained	6.2%	6.2%	7.0%	N/A

Table 4: Design Of Consumer Ethnocentrism (Factor Loading Patterns) For Austria, Poland, Turkey, & The United States

Factor - Country	CETSCALE ITEMS																
Factor 1 - Austria	-	-	-	-	5	6	7	-	-	10	11	12	-	14	15	16	17
Factor 1 - Poland	-	-	-	-	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	-	-	-	-	-	17
Factor 1 - Turkey	1	-	-	4	5	-	7	-	-	10	-	12	-	14	15	-	-
Factor 1 - USA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	16	17
Factor 2 - Austria	1	2	3	4	-	-	-	8	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Factor 2 - Poland	1	2	3	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13	-	-	-	-
Factor 2 - Turkey	-	2	-	-	-	6	-	-	9	-	11	-	13	-	-	16	17
Factor 2 – USA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	11	12	13	14	15	-	-
Factor 3 - Austria	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13	-	-	-	-
Factor 3 - Poland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	-	14	15	16	-
Factor 3 - Turkey	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Factor 3 – USA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

proportion 0.3529). These results provide support for hypothesis H3.

DISCUSSION AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Consumer Ethnocentrism is an extremely relevant issue in understanding of cross-cultural and cross-national consumer behavior in today's global economy. In their efforts to win over the foreign consumers and convince them to buy their products, companies must first understand the dynamics of ethnocentric tendencies prevalent in their international markets. In this context, the present study provides several useful insights related to the understanding of consumer ethnocentrism in cross-cultural settings. Three issues related to the applicability of CETSCALE were examined in the context of Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the United States of America. These three issues included: 1) the degree of consumer ethnocentrism or CETSCORES, 2) the dimensionality of consumer ethnocentrism or the number of dimensions of CETSCALE, and 3) the design of consumer ethnocentrism, or the factor structure of CETSCALE. Four hypotheses were presented related to the degree, dimensionality, and design of consumer ethnocentrism in the four countries included in our study, i.e., Austria, Poland, Turkey, and the USA.

Our first set of findings related to the degree of consumer ethnocentrism indicates that the USA is the least ethnocentric, Turkey is the most ethnocentric, and Austria and Poland are in between the USA and Turkey on the consumer ethnocentrism continuum. From the perspective of a company in the United States marketing its products in Austria, Poland, and Turkey, this finding suggests that the U.S. company is likely to face most resistance in Turkey.

Our predictions of the relative degree of consumer ethnocentrism in the four countries were based on an analysis of the political, economic, cultural, and social environments. As discussed earlier in our paper several environmental influences were identified accounting for a high degree of

consumer ethnocentrism in Turkey. These included socio-cultural factors like family and community orientation and characteristics of nationalism, patriotism and conservatism typical of emerging markets amongst others. The political climate of the country and the philosophies of the dominant political groups also significantly influence consumers' sentiments and attitudes towards purchase of foreign products. The conservative political path currently pursued by Turkey may very well also explain Turkey's placement on the high end of the consumer ethnocentrism continuum compared to the three other countries. Overall thus, an understanding of the environmental influences underlying consumers' resistance to purchase foreign products can help a company in designing products and promotion strategies to appeal to ethnocentric consumers. For example, foreign products, which are more family and community/environment friendly are likely to be received better by ethnocentric Turkish consumers than products which are not. Likewise, the marketing communication and promotion strategies appealing to the family and community values are likely to be received better.

The findings of our study also support the prediction that the degree of consumer ethnocentrism (CETSCORES) for Austria and Poland will be very similar. The degree of consumer ethnocentrism as analyzed in our research is in a relative sense and takes into account the aggregate effect of various environmental influences. Thus, it is possible that two countries may be very similar in some aspect, but have a very different level of consumer ethnocentrism. Similarly, it is also possible that two countries may be very different in some respect, but have a very similar level of consumer ethnocentrism. Austria was placed at a higher level of consumer ethnocentrism than the USA because although both are high-income, developed countries, they are quite different from ethnicity perspective. The United States are multiethnic, whereas Austria is relatively much more homogenous. Multi-ethnicity leads to a relatively higher degree of openness to

TABLE 5: Comparison of Country-pairs for Similarity of Factor Structure (Z Values and Significance)

Country Pairs & Sample Sizes	# of Common Items	Total # of Items	Similarity Proportions	Z Value	Significance Level
Austria (155) – Poland (129)	10		0.5882		
versus		17		1.920	0.10
Austria (155) – Turkey (137)	8		0.4706		
Austria (155) – Poland (129)	10		0.5882		
versus		17		4.217	0.01
Austria (155) – USA (85)	5		0.2941		
Austria (155) – Poland (129)	10		0.5882		
versus		17		5.041	0.01
Poland (129) – Turkey (137)	5		0.2941		
Austria (155) – Poland (129)	10		0.5882		
versus		17		2.617	0.01
Poland (129) – USA (85)	7		0.4118		
Austria (155) – Poland (129)	10		0.5882		
versus		17		4.015	0.01
Turkey (137) – USA (85)	6		0.3529		
Austria (155) – Turkey (137)	8		0.4706		
versus		17		2.610	0.01
Austria (155) – USA (85)	5		0.2941		
Austria (155) – Turkey (137)	8		0.4706		
versus		17		3.038	0.01
Poland (129) – Turkey (137)	5		0.2941		
Austria (155) – Turkey (137)	8		0.4706		
versus		17		0.993	ns
Poland (129) – USA (85)	7		0.4118		
Austria (155) – Turkey (137)	8		0.4706		
versus		17		0.876	ns
Turkey (137) – USA (85)	6		0.4118		
Austria (155) – USA (85)	5		0.2941		
versus		17		0.000	ns
Poland (129) – Turkey (137)	5		0.2941		
Austria (155) – USA (85)	5		0.2941		
versus		17		2.072	0.05
Poland (129) – USA (85)	7		0.4118		
Austria (155) – USA (85)	5		0.2941		
versus		17		1.073	ns
Turkey (137) – USA (85)	6		0.3529		
Poland (129) – Turkey (137)	5		0.2941		
versus		17		1.799	0.10
Poland (129) – USA (85)	7		0.4118		
Poland (129) – Turkey (137)	5		0.2941		
versus		17		0.905	ns
Turkey (137) – USA (85)	6		0.3529		
Poland (129) – USA (85)	7		0.4118		
versus		17		0.988	ns
Turkey (137) – USA (85)	6		0.3529		

buying foreign products, i.e., lower consumer ethnocentrism. Also Austrians are considered to be more nationalistic, and far-right politicians have held important government positions in Austria. These factors also place Austria at a higher level of consumer ethnocentrism than the USA.

Poland is an emerging market where strong protectionist sentiment exists in view of the competition the local brands face from imports. Thus, Poland is also placed at a higher level of consumer ethnocentrism than the USA. However, Poland's economic growth and its acceptance as a full member of the European Union are likely to have resulted in fading of ethnocentrism tendencies to some extent. Thus, Poland's level of consumer ethnocentrism may be lower than that of a typical emerging market in its category such as Turkey. On the other hand, Austria's level of consumer ethnocentrism is likely to be higher than that of a typical developed market in its category – such as the USA, on account of the reasons mentioned above. Therefore, Austria and Poland had very comparable CETSCORES, but for quite different reasons. This finding suggests that, in an analysis of consumer ethnocentrism in cross-cultural and cross-national settings, stereotyping emerging markets as more ethnocentric than developed markets may be misleading. Instead the international marketer needs to take into account the full array of environmental influences affecting consumer ethnocentrism to understand the challenge, and to design effective marketing strategies.

Our second set of findings relates to the dimensionality of CETSCALE. The CETSCALE was found to be two-dimensional for the USA and three-dimensional for Austria, Poland, and Turkey. CETSCALE was developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) in USA and has been extensively tested in international settings. While a large number of studies have found the CETSCALE to be uni-dimensional, evidence also exists about it being multi-dimensional, particularly in emerging markets and developing countries (Hopkins and Powers 2003; Manrai et

al. 1994, 1996; Marcoux et al. 1997; Supphellen and Rittenberg 2001). As discussed earlier in our paper, the 17 CETSCALE items can be broadly classified into four categories of consumers' concerns, namely, moral/ethical, nationalistic/patriotic, economic/financial, and political/legal (Manrai et al. 1994). The uni-dimensionality of the CETSCALE implies that these four categories of concerns are seen as part of a unified whole. On the other hand one possible explanation for the multi-dimensionality of CETSCALE is that the above four types of consumers' concerns are not viewed as parts of a unified whole but instead stand out as distinctly different dimensions.

An examination of the two-dimensional factor structure of the CETSCALE for the USA given in Table 5 indicates that the second factor consists of items 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15. Out of these, items 12, 14, and 15 reflect prescriptive or legal measures that should be taken to prevent/reduce imports. It is possible that the moral, nationalistic, economic, and legal issues are no more part of a unified whole for the American consumers and legal concerns have emerged as a distinct dimension. Thus, the findings of our study suggest that the CETSCALE for the USA can be viewed as comprising of two parts: "Why" it is not appropriate to buy foreign products (moral, nationalistic and economic "reasons") and "what" should be done to prevent/reduce imports (legal "actions"). As regards the dimensionality of the CETSCALE for Austria, Poland, and Turkey, three distinct dimensions were found for each of these three countries, thereby suggesting that each of these three countries has three different types of concerns instead of an overall unified concept of consumer ethnocentrism. From the perspective of an international company, an understanding/interpretation of each of these three dimensions and how they influence purchase and consumption behavior is critical for the design of marketing strategy.

Our third set of findings relates to the design (factor structure) of the CETSCALE. As was

predicted, the factor structure of Austria and Poland was most similar compared to the other five country pairs, namely, USA-Austria, USA-Poland, USA-Turkey, Poland-Turkey, and Austria-Turkey. An examination of the factor structure for Austria and Poland reported in Table 5 indicates that a total of 10 out of 17 items were common for Austria-Poland pair. These included items 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, and 17 on factor 1 and items 1, 2, 3 and 4 on factor 2,. It should be noted that none of the three prescriptive legal action items i.e., items 12, 14, and 15 were common (loading on the same factor) for Austria and Poland pair. The factor loading patterns for the legal items i.e., items 12, 14, and 15 are quite inconsistent for Austria and Poland. This finding suggests that while Austrian and Polish consumers interpret a majority of CETSCALE items representing economic, moral, and nationalistic concerns in a similar manner, they are quite different in regards to the interpretation of CETSCALE items representing legal concerns. A similar analysis can be done for the other country pairs. This understanding of similarities and differences across countries in the meanings attributed by consumers to various CETSCALE items will provide an international marketer with useful insights on CETSCALE behavior in the cross-cultural settings. Such insights can help in development of differential marketing strategies for various target markets.

FUTURE RESEARCH AVENUES

The findings on the factor structure of the CETSCALE reported in our research show a great deal of variation across the four countries. Only 2 out of the 17 CETSCALE items, namely, items 5 and 7 loaded on the same factor for the four countries. These variations in the factor structures are certainly worth investigating in future research. It was conjectured that possibly the meaning attributed to certain CETSCALE items is different across countries and what seems like an inconsistency to an ignorant eye may in fact be an insight waiting to be discov-

ered. Thus, it is possible that a CETSCALE item is viewed as reflecting an economic concern by consumers in one country whereas in another country, the same item is viewed as reflecting a nationalistic concern. Conceptual and empirical research on this subject will certainly help in resolving the seemingly inconsistent findings and draw meaningful comparisons.

A second related topic worth looking into in future research is the "component structure" of CETSCALE items. So far we have discussed a CETSCALE item as reflecting one of the four types of consumers' concerns, namely, economic, legal, moral, and nationalistic. It is also possible that the individual CETSCALE items themselves reflect more than one of these four types of concerns i.e., have a component structure. Further, there may be cross-cultural and demographic differences in the perceptions of the component structure of the CETSCALE items. We are currently in the process of examining some of these issues in a cross-cultural setting.

The respondents in the current study were primarily graduate and undergraduate students in the comparable age group for the four countries. There is a need to test the degree, dimensionality, and design of consumer ethnocentrism using samples drawn from other population groups to get a more complete picture. Future research efforts should be devoted in this direction as well.

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Appendix 1: Cetscale Statements

1. American people should always buy American-made products instead of imports.
2. Only those products that are unavailable in America 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 because it puts Americans out of jobs.
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. Americans 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 America.
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.

Source: Shimp, T.A. and Sharma, S. (1987). Consumer ethnocentrism: Construction and validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research, 24*(August), 280–289.

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Music Genre as a Marketing Communication Tool: A Study on Drinks Market in Turkey

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ABSTRACT. Although music is widely used to communicate symbolic meaning in marketing practice, few studies examined music within this context in marketing literature. Drawing on symbolic interaction, associative learning and congruency theories this paper investigates the music genre as a marketing communication tool within symbolic consumption context. Scope of the study is to explore consumers' actual perceptions versus music genre oriented communication efforts of drink brands in Turkey, and to interpret results within theoretical framework. Using correspondence analysis and perceptual mapping, this study gives an example of how music genres can be used successfully in creating associations toward the brands.

KEYWORDS. Music genre, Symbolic interaction, Marketing communication, Drinks market, Turkey

INTRODUCTION

Since the effect of music on human psychology and behavior and the effect of music on getting favorable cognitive, affective and behavioral responses from consumers have been widely known, understanding the links between the music and consumer behavior has been an important research question in marketing literature (Jain and Bagdare, 2011). The majority of the past literature on the topic has examined the effects of music on two main domains: Service environments (as a part of store atmospherics) and advertising (Caldwell and Hibbert, 2002, Oliver, 2007, p.66). The evolution of the marketing concept has created a shift on the scope of communication efforts. Today rather than an advertising centered approach marketers employ integrated marketing communication strategy. In addition to advertising and atmospherics, music is widely used in other marketing communication activities such as event sponsorships in a consistent way to communicate symbolic meanings and obtain a differentiated position in the target audience.

Secondly, the vast majority of this research has examined only the physical characteristics of music such as tonality, tempo, and mood, fit with product (or environment that service provided). However aside from its physical attributes, music is strongly connected to the social world as a cultural element. In this context it has a rich potential to communicate symbolic meanings (Larsen, Lawson, and Todd, 2009, p. 16) by serving as a symbol of individual and collective identities (Lewis, 1992; Frith 1996), acting as a repository for human memory (De Nora 2000) and evoking strong emotions (Levis, 1992;

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Hesmondhalgh 2008). Rather than utilitarian, consumption stands out with its symbolic meanings at the present day (Levy 1959; Baudrilliard, 1997; Elliot 1997; Belk, 1988; Odabaşı, 2009).

With a rich potential of cultural meanings; music has become strategically important and widely used to communicate symbolic meaning in marketing practice. This paper investigates the music genre as a marketing communication tool within symbolic consumption context. Drawing on symbolic interaction, associative learning and image congruency theories, the main proposition of this exploratory study is that music genre can be an effective marketing communication tool for companies in creating and communicating symbolic meanings about their brands. In this context, the scope of the study is to: (1) introduce and discuss music genre oriented marketing communication efforts of drink brands in Turkey; (2) explore music genres typically recalled when consumers .process information about drink brands (versus current efforts of companies), and interpret the results within theoretical framework. Using correspondence analysis and perceptual mapping, the study explored which music genres were typically remembered when consumers processed information about drink brands. Dealing with the current marketing communication efforts of drink brands in Turkey that exhibits a highly competitive nature as one of the strongest growing markets in the world, this study illustrates how music genres can be used successfully in creating brand associations.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

Music received increased attention in marketing literature after Kotler's introducing music as an element of store atmospherics which affects consumers' purchase behaviors by generating some emotional effects on them(1973/74, p. 50). As a result, the amount of literature on the effects of music on consumer behavior has steadily grown since the 1980s within the store atmospherics frame. Since services can be con-

sumed only within the physical environment of the company (Herrington and Capella 1996, p. 27), the impact of store atmospherics may have more impact on consumer behaviors in services sector. As a result, most of the studies on store environments tested the practical applications of music in retail and service settings (Areni 2003; Areni and Kim 1993; Baker, Levy, and Grewal 1992; Broekemier, Marquardt, and Gentry 2008; Due 1995; Herrington and Capella 1994, 1996; Kellaris and Kent 1992, 1994; Kim, Kim, and Lennon 2009; Milliman 1982, 1986; North and Hargreaves 1998, 1999; Sweeney and Wyber 2002; Sullivan 2002; Wirtz, Mattila, and Tan 2000; Yalch and Spangenberg 1990, 2000).

Although some findings of these studies are conflicting, general findings supports that as an element of store atmospherics music can influence consumers' store and time perceptions in a desired way (Kellaris and Kent 1992; Milliman 1982, 1986; Wirtz, Mattila, and Tan 2000; Yalch and Spangenberg 1990, 2000) music can influence purchase intentions (Baker, Levy, and Grewal 1992; North and Hargreaves 1998) and increase sales (Areni and Kim 1993; Milliman 1982; Wirtz, Mattila, and Tan 2000; Yalch and Spangenberg 1990, 2000).

The second area in which the effects of music have been explored is advertising. Music in advertising is so pervasive that, "the advertising industry and its corporate clients spend billions of dollars annually on royalty payments for the use of music in television advertisements" and the commercial use of music in advertising "constitutes one of the principal sources of our everyday exposure to music" (Bullerjahn 2006, p. 208). Several studies contribute to marketing literature with theoretical and empirical insights about the effect of music in advertising on a variety of consumer responses. In this context, we see that not only the presence of music but also the different elements of it such as tempo (Brooker and Wheatley 1994; Caldwell and Hibbert 2002; Kellaris and Kent 1991, 1994; Kellaris and Rice 1993; Oakes 2003; Oakes and North 2006; Zander 2006), mood (Alpert and

Alpert 1990; Alpert, Alpert, and Maltz 2005; North, Mackenzie, and Law 2004; Ritossa and Rickard 2004), and fit with product (MacInnis and Park 1991; North, Mackenzie, and Law 2004) were explored as a part of music used in advertising.

General findings of these studies indicate that the music in advertising can improve brand recall (Allan 2006; Brooker and Wheatley 1994; Kellaris, Cox, and Cox 1993; Macklin 1988; MacInnis and Park 1991; North, Mackenzie, and Law 2004; Wallace 1994; Wheatley and Brooker 1994; Yalch 1991); attitude toward the brand (Allen and Madden 1985; Brooker and Wheatley 1994; Gorn 1982; Kellaris and Cox 1989; Kellaris and Rice 1993; Middlestadt, Fishbein, and Chan 1994; Park and Young 1986); attitude toward the ad (Macklin 1988; North, Mackenzie, and Law 2004); product preferences (Allen and Madden 1985; Gorn 1982; Kellaris and Cox 1989); and purchase intention (Alpert and Alpert 1990; Alpert, Alpert, and Maltz 2005; Brooker and Wheatley 1994; Kellaris and Kent 1991, 1994; Kellaris and Mantel 1996; Kellaris and Rice 1993).

However, as mentioned before, uses of music on marketing communication practices are not limited to advertising and store atmospherics as the marketing concept has created a shift on the scope of communication efforts from advertising centered to an integrated marketing communication centered approach. Marketers widely use marketing communication activities, such as, event sponsorships that focus music in order to create a differentiated position in the minds of target audience. In the parallel with these developments the number of academic research about this area has increased. For example, investigating importance of musical improvisation through an analysis of jazz music, Dennis and Macaulay (2007) showed that improvisation techniques found in a jazz band could be directly applied to marketing organizations in order to enhance and advance market orientation. Exploring event sponsorships in Fang, Yin and Pfitzenmaier (2002) found that music events are particularly

effective for several marketing communication goals such as reaching the opinion leaders, creating marketing intelligence and establishing favorable links between the audience and the sponsor's brand image. Analyzing the Kool sponsorship of musical events in 1975 with Kool Jazz concerts, Hafez and Ling examined the role of music in the promotion of brands. Results showed that "music was considered to be an effective marketing tool" by helping consumers to make emotional connections with the brand, tying together an integrated marketing campaign, carrying a rich potential for creating wide awareness to a young audience through concerts (2006 p. 359). Offering a case study about a new leisure product combining cruise tourism and music festival, Henderson (2009) presents a good example of applying musical elements to different products in practice. Similarly, using a case study about the promotion of a series of live music events, Moor (2003) offered critical reflections about recent developments in marketing practice that expanded the space of marketing and made the consumer a potential branded space. She claims that marketing can create unpredictable results by changing the work and the production of value (Moor 2003). Klein (2008) discussed some critical issues involving interactions between culture and commerce with reference to provided evidences of how Coca Cola and Pepsi Cola have reached their branding goals by creating "a genuine connection to music culture" (2008 p. 1). (Rowley and Williams 2008) Discussed the impact of music festival sponsorships on brand awareness and findings suggest that "brand sponsorship of music festivals has an impact on brand recall, awareness and attitude to the brand". Larsen, Lawson, and Todd evaluate the consumption of music as a self-representation in social interactions and illustrated the role of self-conception identities in the symbolic consumption of music (2009). Stanton et al. (2010) emphasized that because of promotion restrictions for tobacco companies, tobacco sector has recognized the potential of

music as a powerful marketing communication tool in generating brand recognition.

Despite the existence of these studies, music is still relatively under researched in the marketing context (Bruner 1990) when compared the acknowledged significance of its social context in the world of consumption (Giesler and Schroeder 2006). As a cultural element that strongly connected to social world, it is equally clear that meaning of music; both musical and symbolic, is socially constructed (Larsen, Lawson, and Todd, 2009, p. 16). As consumption is used as a major way of expression in today's consumption society (Bocock 1993; Giddens 1991), music forms an important link for modern relations between consumption and identity (Hesmondhalgh 2008, p. 329) by offering opportunities to create new forms of individual and collective identities (Frith 1996). By providing a set of cultural practices that have come to be intricately bound up with the realm of the personal and the subjective (Martin 1995, p.2) music often feels intensely and emotionally linked to the private self (Hesmondhalgh 2008, p. 329). Music also has an important function in the social domain such as establishing and maintaining collective identities (North, Hargreaves and O'Neill 2000; Tekman and Hortaçsu 2002) and enriching a shared sense of community by providing a sense of group membership (Whiteley, Bennet, and Hawkins 2004). According to Hesmondhalgh, self (this is who I am; this is who I'm not) and collective (this is who we are; this is who we're not) identities are "two contrasting but coexisting dimensions of musical experience in modern societies" (2008, p. 329). By acting as a badge of identity- "a means of showing others (and ourselves) to what cultural group, or groups, we belong" (Lewis 1992, p. 135) music can be used as a tool to communicate symbolic meaning (Larsen, Labsen, and Todd, 2009, p. 16).

As well as being a cultural product, music is also an important tool for marketing communication. We live in a society that private self has never been so publicly performed (Illouz 2007,

p. 4) and the role of consumption on constructing selves becomes more important than ever. As a meeting point of the private and public realms: (Hesmondhalgh 2008, p. 329) music becomes a key variable in creating an associative link between consumption and identity. Moreover, music is more strongly connected to the emotions than other cultural forms (Hesmondhalgh 2008, p. 330) and also acts as a repository for human memory (De Nora 2000, p. 47). So music can contribute to the meaning consumers derive about the brand (Spangenberg, Grohmann, and Sprott, 2005). Music preference is a significant indicator of consumers' life style providing an insight for marketers to understand different music tastes of adolescents and thus to create proper communication approaches, Nuttall suggested that popular music preferences of teenagers "may allow a more meaningful segmentation" (2008 p. 109). Rentfrow and Gosling (2007 p. 317) found that "whereas rock and rap fans are believed to drink more beer than wine or cocktails, classical music fans are believed to drink more wine and cocktails than beer". Tekman and Hortacsu (2003) shows that inferences made about the listeners of a musical genre are closely related to motivational factors for maintaining a positive identity and distinguishing personal social identities from rejected groups (Tekman 2009). As such, consumer segments can differ significantly with respect to their music preferences. These characteristics make music an especially powerful tool for marketing communication goals. Advertising and sponsorship contracts between the Pepsi Cola and pop stars -Madonna, Michael Jackson, Britney Spears, Ricky Martin, and Spice Girls- are the good examples of this situation for a soft drink company targeting to be a "choice for a new generation". The effect of music as a communication tool has long been recognized by marketers and while widely used in various marketing communication activities few studies have examined effects of music within this context.

Building on the claims of Tekman and Hortacsu (2003) and Nuttall that music preference of

people may allow a more meaningful segmentation; this research investigated how companies actively use music genres in transforming symbolic and cultural meanings. That is how they serve to the identity and cultural ideals of their target markets- to their products as parallel to their positioning and segmentation goals. Symbolic interactionism; congruity theory and associative learning were used as the underlying theoretical basis of this research.

As an approach to understanding social behavior symbolic interaction theory was developed by Mead (1934) and extended by Blumer (1969). Symbolic interactionism is based on the assumption that meaning of objects or events arise from social interactions. These meanings are produced by society through using a language of shared symbols. So in understanding their world people perceive objects and events based on their symbolic meanings given by society. Hirschman (1980) discussed the processes how symbolic meanings can be transferred to consumer goods. McCracken (1986) showed as a cultural element how symbolic meaning is drawn from a culturally constituted world to good (products and brands) and good to individual with meaning transfer model. Solomon (1983) interpreted symbolic interaction theory within consumer behavior context in the form of symbolic consumption. Symbolic consumption refers to buying products for the symbolic (or cultural) meanings they carry and communicate, rather than their utilitarian characteristics (Bannister and Hogg 2004; Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). Within this context; products and brands can act as social tools in that they serve to communicate symbolically between the consumer and her/his significant referents (Leigh and Gabel 1992, p. 5-6). Although all variables of marketing mix should coexist in an integrative way in associating symbolic meanings to brands, marketing communication plays a major role in this process (Leigh and Gabel 1992). Symbolic interaction theory stated that by serving as a repository for memory and conveying rich cultural meanings and emotional association music genre

can be an effective marketing communication tool for symbolic communication. This is true not only between.the company and its target market but also between the consumer and her/his significant referents.

Theoretical reasoning of how symbolic meaning is related to products and brands (and finally to customers) resides in associative learning theory. Associative learning theory is based on the assumption that when two concepts are presented together repeatedly they create a link between two concepts on the memory. In turn, when one concept is stimulated the other concept will also become active (Anderson and Bower 1980). Using a specific music genre for a specific brand we can expect that every time consumers hear the music genre, it will create associations with the brand. This kind of effort however does not always create desired results in terms of meaning transfer and positive attitude toward the brand. Strength of the association between the music genre and the brand (so meaning transfer and attitude toward the brand) is depend on relatedness, fit or similarity between the concepts (Till and Busler 2000). To get a favorable result the music genre should have some congruencies with both the consumer and the product.

Congruency of music genre to consumer has been mainly explained in consumer behavior in terms of self-image congruency theory. This theory is mainly derived from Mandler's schema congruity theory (1982) used to predict the effect of similarity perceptions and suggesting that when a stimulus is perceived congruent with a schema it leads meaning transfer and favorable response (Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989). Image congruency theory claims that seeking self-consistency consumers prefer products and brands that are congruent with different elements of their self-concepts (Birdwell 1968; Gardner and Levy 1955; Graeff 1996; Grubb and Grathwohl 1967; Hong and Zinkhan 1995; Landon 1974; Onkvisit and Shaw 1987; Sirgy 1982).

To attach symbolic meanings to a brand, companies must consider not only their target

market but also the nature of the product. Congruence between marketing a communication tool and the product is often explained with match-up hypothesis. Ahn, Kim and Forney stated that (2010) although the "perception of match-up" is often used synonymously as similarity, congruity, fittingness, match-up, and consistency in branding literature; "match-up implies not just similarities but harmony and combination as well because the concept of match-up perception is derived from several fundamental theories: schema theory (Lynch and Schuler, 1994), social adaptation theory (Kahle and Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990), categorization theory (Zimmer and Bhat, 2004), and associative network theory (Pina et al., 2006)." (2010, 9). It would be expected that a music genre would be more effective when matching up with the product. It is highly possible that matching up between product and music genre can be explained in cultural context. In other words the congruence between product and music genre is determined by the cultural values they share such as customs of product usage. As an example classic music suits the wines as an attribute of comfortable living (Parakilas 1984, p. 14). Also findings of Areni and Kim's studies (1993) verifies this idea showing that as a part of store atmospherics classical music genre can increase the amount of sales and cause more expensive wines to be purchased.

Based on the mentioned theoretical framework; main propositions of this study are:

1. Music genre can be used as a marketing communication tool for companies in creating and communicating symbolic meanings about their brands.

2. Efficiency of music genre as a marketing communication tool depends on the perceived congruency between products (and/or brands) and self-concepts of consumers.

3. Efficiency of music genre as a marketing communication tool depends on the perceived congruency between products (and/or brands) and cultural associations of music genres.

Marketing communication activities that focuse music genres for creating and communicating symbolic meanings about their brands are often used to create a differentiated market position. As such investgating marketing communication efforts as they apply to drink brands in Turkey (one of the strongest growing markets in the world), is a valuable first step in linking current marketing practices to the theoretical abstractions.

MUSIC GENRE AS A MEANS OF MARKETING COMMUNICATION AND ITS USAGE IN THE TURKISH DRINKS MARKET

There are two main reasons for choosing Turkish drinks market for research. First, according to Euromonitor International, below only China and Mexico, Turkey has taken the third rank in among the strongest growing soft drinks market in the world last year (www.justdrinks.com/article.aspx?id=97998, 06 August 2009).

Second, to create a differentiated position in the minds of target audience, a variety of communication activities that focus on music genres have been used widely by drink companies in Turkey. In this context, it provides a suitable market for exploring the potential of music genre as a means of marketing communication.

As a highly visible example illustrating how how music genre can become an instrument in marketing communication, Coca Cola has sponsored since 1993 Turkey's biggest and possibly most expensive open air rock music festival named "Rock'n Coke Istanbul". Drawing many rock music stars and fans together, this well-known music activity allowed Coca Cola to evoke rock music associations. Through this festival Coca Cola aimed to own the legacy of rock culture by reminding rock fans of the legendary "Woodstock" (Yazicioglu and Firat 2008, p. 208). The company also uses this music activity as an integrative way with other marketing

communication tools such as advertisements, web sites and sales promotion tools.

The Coca Cola Company has followed a similar marketing communication program for its favored fruit carbonated soft drink brand: Fanta with pop genre. In Turkey, Fanta created music oriented key projects such as "Young Talents among Us" contest juried by famous Turkish pop music artists. This activity was followed by a tour including a series of concerts. However, the most well known music event of Fanta is main sponsorship of Fanta Youth Festival. "Fanta Youth Festival, the largest music activity of Turkey organized by Fanta, has toured many provinces since 2002 with the participation of famous artists and groups. Fanta Youth Festival, which is the first and biggest mobile fun platform, introduced the most famous groups of Turkish pop music to more than 400.000 young people in 17 different provinces" (www.anadolugroup.com/en/markalar.asp?id=36). In order to stimulate consumer demand through this music activity, company used bottle cans as concert tickets. In addition, we see that, Fanta Youth Festival integrated its tour activity programme into universities' festival programs to attract attention of youths at universities in Turkey with the live performances of famous pop stars.

Pepsi has traditionally made advertising and sponsorship contracts with Turkish pop stars such as Tarkan, Sezen Aksu and Group Hepsi. While Pepsi also organized Turkey's electronic music festival Pepsi Electronica Festival Istanbul in 2005, it could not be maintained as a tradition. As an inevitable part of pop music culture, Pepsi has also launched the first digital music platform as a sales promotion tool in Turkey. Offering passwords in cola cans Pepsi allowed downloading free and legal music into mobile phones or computers. By doing so, the company not only succeeds to integrate sales promotion efforts to communication goals but also behaving responsible emphasized an important problem of music sector: Legal rights of music producers. In order to cope with financial crisis and increasing competition, Pepsi recently decided to target the family market and launched a promotion campaign focused on housewives. Pepsi selected Seda Sayan, an opinion leader of housewives, as the new face of Pepsi and increased market share after the campaign. It appears, however, that the brand image has weakened as the images of Seda Sayan were not consistent with the image of the Pepsi "choice of the generation next".

Another traditional music festival in Turkey has been sponsored, since 1990, by Efes Pilsen beer. As the one of the oldest music festivals, Efes Pilsen Blues Festival has attracted increasing attention over the years. Hosting legendary names of blues music in major cities of Turkey, the company has attempted to create a modern day reflection of historical heritage of beer culture characterized with listening music and daily social gatherings. Because of legal restrictions toward alcoholic products advertising in the country the company mainly uses sponsorship activities in order to create brand awareness. In this context, the company has sponsored Istanbul One Love music festival for seven year that has brought global pop stars and amateurs to Istanbul and organized a rock music contest named RocknDark in order to promote black beer of the company: Efes Dark. The most remembered musical activity of Efes is blues festival in its twentieth years.

Market leader Turkish Raki brand Yeni Raki is also among the alcoholic drink brands using music in marketing communication. Infact, the relationship between Turkish Raki and music has its roots from customs of drinking raki. Alongside close friends with long table talks and appetizers, accompanying Classical Turkish Music is so inevitably part of raki custom that there is a Turkish Raki brand on the market named "Fasil", meaning series of musical pieces from Classical Turkish Music. After leaving state owned monopoly structure in alcoholic beverage sector the privatized brand Yeni Raki has attempted to transfer current association pairs of Classical Turkish Music with Raki's own brand.

In this context, the company has sponsored some Classical Turkish Music album series. However, Yeni Raki has featured its goal with a cinema advertisement campaign known as "The Turkish miracle that returns the night into a dream" slogan. With accompanying Classical Turkish Music melodies, not only showing Raki with its indispensable parts, social gatherings, emotional conversations and delicious Turkish foods served with it; but also blending all these elements with other national elements such as Bosporus and Istanbul city, the company has received considerable attention and positive reaction among target audience.

Another potential alcoholic beverage carrying musical associations potentially as a way of promoting products (Charters and Pettigrew 2005, p. 122) is wine. As Parakilas stated (1984, p. 14) classic music suits the selling of wines as an attribute of comfortable living. Interestingly, having very long history on wine production and expanding market boundaries in terms of volume, variety and quality (Karabayir 2010), the concordance between the classical music and wine has not been thoroughly used by wine companies in Turkey. Despite some attempts of the Brand Kayra such as sponsoring classical music concerts, these events have not yet gained countrywide recognition.

METHODOLOGY

One would not find it suprising that consumer research show consumer behaviors are not al-ways rational (Elliot 1997). Zaltman (2003) research indicated that ninety-five percent of thinking takes place in consumers' unconsciously. Deviating from traditional data collecting methods; by investigating consumers' actual perceptions versus music genre oriented communication efforts of drink brands in Turkey, the author examined results of current marketing communication practices. Focus groups were used to develop an understanding of consumers' perceptions about drink categories' music genre associations and focus group has been helpful as a suitable method for exploratory investigation (McDonald 1993), in generating new ideas for hypotheses (Neuman 2006). As recommended by Calder (1977), focus groups were structured considering not only by representation of different categories of drink consumers population and but also homogeneity in terms of participants socioeconomic characteristics. Five focus groups were conducted (two in Trabzon and three in Istanbul), consisting of eight participants in each group. Composition of each group was mainly homogeneous in terms of participants' common characteristics and socio economic positions to maximize interaction. The general characteristics of each group were different to study subgroups of the population. Since the purpose of focus groups was to generate information rather than statistical generalization, purposive sampling method was used and participants were recruited from a sample that believed broadly to represent the population. Discussions lasted between 45 and 60 minutes.

TABLE 1: Music Genre – Drink Category Associations of Focus Group Participants

Drink Categories	Subcategories	Brands	Music Genre Association
Non Alcoholic Beverages	Carbonated Drinks	Coca Cola Cola Turka Fanta	Rock Arabesque[1] Pop
Alcoholic Drinks	Turkish Raki Beer Wine	Yeni Raki Efes Pilsen Doluca	Classical Turkish Music Blues Classical Music

[1]"Arabesque is a music genre which was formerly an object of disapproval for the country's Westernized, secularist, and urban mainstream because of its connections to Eastern and Arab culture but today it was enjoyed by the mainstream of Turkish society, including the middle classes and Westernized elite."(Ozgur 2006:175)

Table 1 provides a summary of the key drink brands and music genres that received considerable agreement amongst the focus group participants. Drink brands are categorized in the table under the relevant category and subcategory.

There are two categories, four subcategories and six brands in the table. Interestingly, as "having perhaps the longest and most consistent relationship to popular music culture of any consumer product" (Klein 2008 p. 6) together with Coca Cola, Pepsi isn't among the six brands creating strong music genre associations.

As the underlying factors of this situation, the last advertising campaign of Pepsi trying to change its target group from youth to housewives may be mentioned. In addition, competing messages of Fanta on focusing pop music might create awareness for the communication process of Pepsi, the major competitor of Coca Cola. The results of the focus groups were used in the development of a valid measure of consumers' associations for the quantitative study.

Ongoing efforts of sector companies using music as a marketing communication tool effectively were also explored before starting quantitative research in order to provide additional and more accurate information. Data collected through focus groups were mainly overlapped with experience surveys. And a questionnaire was constructed to assess Turkish consumers' music genre associations toward drink brands. To confirm its content validity terminology and response time, the questionnaire was initially pretested on a convenience sample of twenty people from academicians and practitioners. Considering suitability, perceptibility and convenience, the modified questionnaire was pilot tested on 10 university students.

In quantitative research, respondents were asked to mark music genres that presented drink brands are reminiscent of, according to music genre associations. Then similarities and differences among the drink brands with respect to the music associations were tested.to see the extent to which positioning goals of drink brands using

music as a marketing communication tool were reached. As Hoffman and Franke stated (1986 p. 214) "correspondence analysis has been used to monitor the efficiency of advertising campaigns and also can aid in product positioning studies". In this context, considering both the goal of the study and the type of the data, correspondence analysis was used. Although our main proposition is that music genre can be used as a marketing communication tool for companies in creating and communicating associations about their brands; the authors formulate it as a hypothesis because of the explorative nature of the analysis method.

In transforming correspondence analysis results in a multidimensional space, perceptual mapping was used. Perceptual mapping refers generally to "techniques used to graphically represent this product space" (Kohli and Leuthesser 1993 p. 10) and it is "the procedure that allows a researcher to determine the perceived image of a set of objects. The purpose of perceptual mapping is to transform consumer judgments of similarity or preference (eg. music genre for drink brands in our study) into distances represented in multidimensional space" (Hair et al. 1998, p. 522).

With the rich potential for marketing management such as showing possible market opportunities, indicating the most important attributes in consumer decision making, and the places of a firm's own brand and competing brands in the minds of consumers with regard to each attribute(Bagozzi, Yi, and Nassen 1998), "perceptual mapping is the most widely used tool for positioning"(Aggarwal, Vaidyanathan, and Venkatesh 2009, p. 148) by different researchers (Ampuero and Vila 2006; Ghose 1994; Hibbert 1995; Javalgi, Joseph, and Gombeski , 1995; Opoku, et al. 2007; Young 1999) with the similar goals.

Because of technical and financial difficulties, the study was restricted to the most crowded metropolitan city of Turkey: Istanbul. Using the estimated population of 15 million and a 95%

confidence interval and 5% margin of error, a sample size was estimated as 384 consumers. Since every consumer is exposed to marketing communication messages of the brands in this study, and all these brands can be classified as convenience goods bought by everyone, there was no any restriction in the sample such as cola; raki or wine drinkers. A convenience sample was used because of the difficulties mentioned above. Respondents were selected from visitors who were invited to participate in the study voluntarily in Carousel Shopping Center in Bakirkoy which attracts all kinds of city residents who var-

ied sufficiently on demographic and socio economic status. Then the data was collected by co-author from 15th June to 28th June 2010 between 10:00- 22:00 on food courts of shopping mall. A total of 400 respondents participated in the survey.

STUDY RESULTS

The profile of respondents is shown in Table 2. Gender of the respondents had almost equal proportions with 53% female and 47% male..

TABLE 2: Profile of Respondents (N=400)

Gender	N	%	Monthly Net Income	N	%
Female	212	53	Less than 600 Turkish Lira (TL) [2]	25	6
Male	188	47	Between 601-1100 TL	92	23
Total	*400*	*100*	Between 1101-1600 TL	108	27
Marital Status			Between 1601-2100 TL	123	31
Married	225	56	2101 TL or more	52	13
Single	175	44	*Total*	*400*	*100*
Total	*400*	*100*	**Age**		
Education			Between 18 – 25 years	89	22
Primary School(1-8 grades)	93	23	Between 26 - 33 years	105	26
Secondary School (9-12 grades)	138	35	Between 34 - 41 years	87	22
University (12-16 grades)	131	33	Between 42 - 49 years	66	17
Post graduate (above grade 17)	38	9	50 years or older	53	13
Total	*400*	*100*	*Total*	*400*	*100*

2. One US Dollar was approximately 1.58 Turkish Lira at the time of the study (June 2010) (Indicative Exchange Rates Announced at 15:30 on 06/01/2010 by the Central Bank of Turkey; http://www.tcmb.gov.tr/yeni/eng/)

TABLE 3: Correspondence Table

Drink Brands	Type Of Music						
	Rock	Pop	Blues	Arabesque	Tcm	Classic	Active Margin
Coca-Cola	175	95	61	18	27	24	400
Fanta	106	148	98	22	15	11	400
Efes Pilsen	39	78	144	59	42	38	400
Cola-Turka	43	39	29	156	101	32	400
Yeni Raki	25	19	36	123	158	39	400
Doluca Mey	12	21	32	22	57	256	400
Active Margin	400	400	400	400	400	400	2400

TABLE 4: Correspondence Analysis Summary Statistics

Dimension	Singular Value	Inertia	Chi-Square	Sig.	Proportion of Inertia		Confidence Singular Value	
					Accounted for	Cumulative	Standard Deviation	Correlation 2
1	,618	,382			,517	,517	,016	,361
2	,512	,252			,355	,871	,019	
3	,267	,071			,097	,958		
4	,120	,014			,019	,987		
5	,097	,009			,013	1,000		
Total		,738	1772,250	0.001	1,000	1,000		

In addition, that the majority of respondents had average income levels and 42% of respondents were highly educated. In terms of age distribution, respondents exhibited a balanced structure

Table 3 presents the music genre associations of consumers for drink brands from different categories. With a general evaluation, the distributions of frequencies show that drink brands are well separated at each music genre implying that music genres can be distinctive enough to differentiate the drink brands in Turkey. Table 3 depicts that this well separated characteristic is especially salient for Doluca Wine, Coca Cola and Efes Pilsen Beer.

Table 4 represents the correspondence analysis summary statistics. The chi-square value (1772, 250) is significant at 0.001meaning that the relation between drink brand and music genre association is significant.

Since only the first and second dimensions have an inertia value greater than 0,2 and two dimensions can provide accurate explanation for our research objectives (Hair *et al*. 1998), data summarized into two dimensional solution. The cumulative proportion of inertia (variance) with respect to the first two dimensions is 0,871. The first dimension accounted for 51,7 percent of total inertia, while the second accounted for 35,5 percent. These values indicate that a two dimensional solution is appropriate in terms of both effectively interpretation of data and minimizing data loss.

Figure 1 shows that the perceptual map based on correspondence analysis results. We can make the following observations from Figure 1:

First, there are three segments in the market. Interestingly these segments are based on the music genres rather than drink brands or drink categories. According to clusters of music genres in each segment, these segments can be named as "Classical Music Segment", "Turkish Music Segment" and "Other Music Segment". There is only one genre -Classical Music- in the first segment, while Turkish Music segment includes both Classical Turkish Music and arabesque genres. On the other hand, there are three genres in other music segment: Pop, rock, and blues.

Second, the only brand plotted around classical music genre is Doluca, market leader wine brand in Turkey. Doluca Wine (or may be the wine as a whole subcategory) presents such a strong association of classical music genre that there is almost no distance between the music genre and the drink brand on the map.

Third, Turkish Music segment includes Classical Turkish Music and arabesques genres which were nearly plotted in the map. In terms of drink subcategories and brands that present strong genre associations within this segment, we see two different subcategories (Turkish Raki and Carbonated drinks) and two Turkish brands (Yeni Raki and ColaTurka) for each subcategory respectively. Results indicate that Yeni Raki was mostly matched with Classical Turkish Music while it also represents some associations for

FIGURE 1: Perceptual Map for Drink Brands and Music Genre Association

Row and Column Points

Symmetrical Normalization
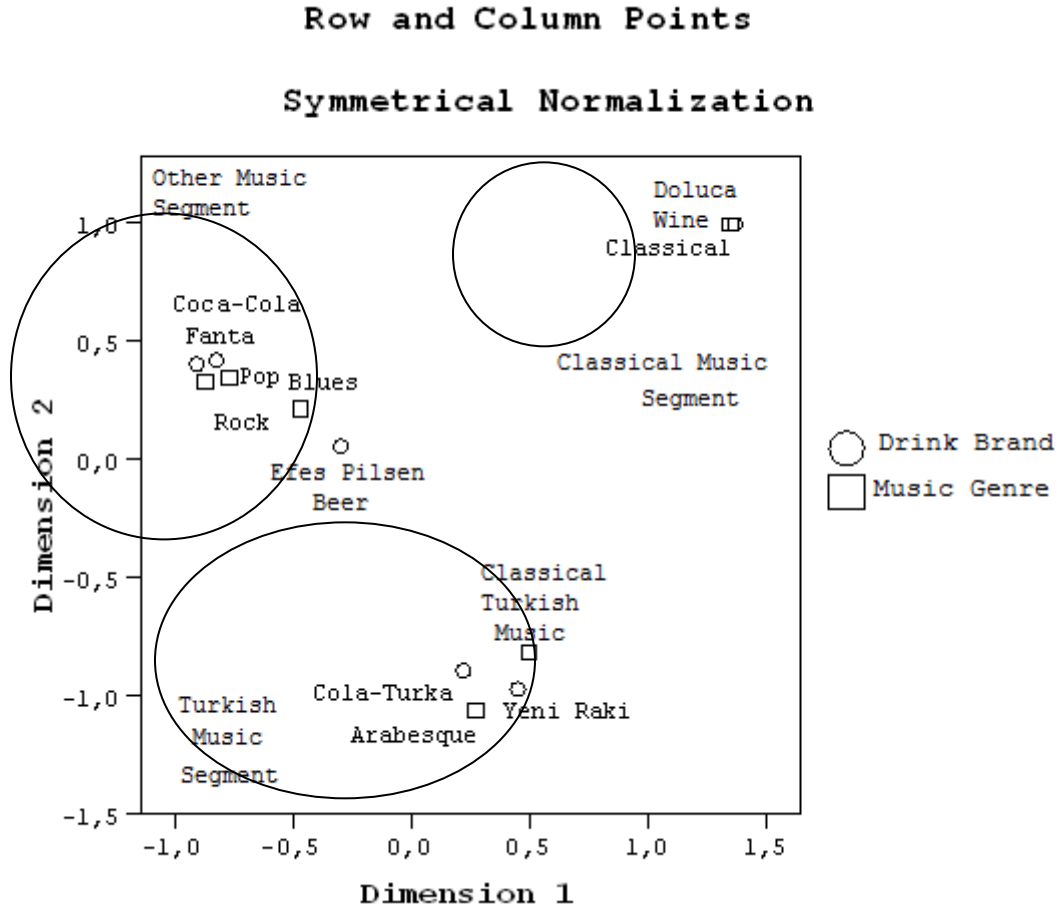
arabesque. On the other hand, associations of Co-laTurka were dominantly matched with the arabesque genre.

Finally, the other music segment characterized by three music genres: Pop, rock, and blues. While pop and rock genres are grouped closely within the map, blues has a relatively distant position indicating that blues genre could not create its own segment and has been articulated to this one. In this segment, we identify two subcategories (carbonated drinks and beer) and three brands (Coca Cola, Fanta and Efes Pilsen). The most powerful association exists between Coca Cola and rock music. In addition, market leader Turkish beer, Efes Pilsen, has a strong association with blues genre as consistent with their blues festival sponsorships. Another carbonated drink brand, Fanta, was viewed as nearer to pop music genre while it created also some associations for rock and blues genres respectively. However, the percentage of pop music association ratings of Fanta is sufficiently higher than other genres.

With a general evaluation, research results seem consistent by indicating that companies using music practices as a part of marketing communication process have significantly reached their goals.

DISCUSSION

In this study, the music genre as a means of marketing communication was investigated in Turkish drinks market that has a rich practice area for music events as a part of marketing communication efforts. In selecting the drink brands

and music genres in this study, two main sources were used: Five focus groups and current practices of drink brands in the market. Using correspondence analysis and perceptual mapping, which music genres were typically matched with drink brands when consumers have to process information about drink brands were explored. Results have highlighted the importance of music genre as one of the association (and symbolic meaning) source for marketing communication in creating and communicating meanings about brands. The results support the associative learning theory. Also as consistent with the symbolic interaction theory the results imply the potential of music genre as a source of symbolic meaning. Classical music associations reveal that if there is a current congruency perception between the product category and specific music genre; associations of this music genre can transfer into brand. This finding provides evidence of the match up hypothesis implying the congruence between the music genre and product. Further results show that if there is not a current brand that positions itself with respect to this current congruency perception between the product category and specific music, then current associations of music genre transfer to the market leader brand. This finding implies that in generally market leader brands can take possession of the music genre that fit to product category best. Results also refer to an important opportunity for brands that are not leaders of the market by showing that when there is a lack of marketing communication effort focused upon the specific music genre that has a best match up with the product category. The first brand using it can create strong brand associations and increasing brand awareness. Moreover, the findings toward ColaTurka showed that a good positioned brand can also create their own music genre association by interfering musical genre preferences of target market even if this genre does not have a congruency between product categories. Although this finding is not consistent with the match up hypothesis at the first glance, it offers important insights for new brands on the market implying

another way of creating match-up between a specific music genre and specific brand (not product) as a way of differentiation from product category. Results not only support the tenants of congruency theory- image congruency theory and match up hypothesis- but also reveal the interaction between them. Accordingly if the congruent association toward product category has been already used by some other brand, then a congruent association toward a specific brand can be also created by using self-image congruity theory. Supporting to underlying theoretical approaches results of the study highlight significance of music genre as a marketing communication tool for companies in relating both current and new symbolic meanings to brand.

Findings are valuable for brand managers. The major findings of this study in this context can be summarized as follows. As they show the perceived positions of all drink brands with respect to typical music genre associations in a two dimensional space.

First, possibly verifying the role of music genre as a marketing communication tool, segments are based on the music genres rather than drink brands or product categories. Depending on the clusters of music genre associations for drink brands, there are three market segments: Classical music segment (including only classical music) Turkish Music segment (including Turkish classical music and arabesque), and other music segment (including pop, rock and blues).

Second, the classical music segment indicates that this genre is extremely close to a wine brand: Doluca the market leader with regard to product category. Since the company does not have any countrywide well-known marketing communication effort directed to classical music, the current finding may be evaluated as not a result of the wine brand but a result of the whole wine subcategory. The company who was consulted to determine underlying reasons of this finding stated that their marketing communication efforts include more activity focused sponsorships rather than traditional music genre oriented events. It was further stated that the company could spon-

sor not only classical music activities but also other genres such as jazz and that their brand could easily create classical music associations as being one of the mostly remembered brands for the premium wine category and having a powerful historical heritage. This finding has three important implications. First, associations toward a category and/or subcategory can transfer the brands that are in it (verifying our main proposition). Second, which was noted by the company authorities, perceptions about the fit between classical music and the whole wine subcategory might be transferred to the market leader brand. Third, the fact that there is no countrywide well known marketing communication attempt from a wine brand to create classical music genre associations, (which already exist for the relevant category) toward their brands. These three issues indicate that there is an important opportunity to create strong brand associations and increase brand awareness in the wine market. It would seem that the first wine brand to succeed in positioning itself within the classical music genre could receive competitive advantages by transforming whole category associations toward its brand.

Third, Classical Turkish Music and arabesque genres constitute a Turkish Music segment with two different product subcategories- Turkish Raki and carbonated drinks. In this are two Turkish brands, Yeni Raki and ColaTurka. With its goal directed communication efforts
and customs of drinking Raki which was paired Classical Turkish Music and sincere table talk with friends, Yeni Raki has been primarily matched to the Classical Turkish Music. This finding can also be evaluated as further evidence of the match up hypothesis. For Yeni Raki there are some matchings to arabesque genre possibly as the result of various media presentations of Turkish Raki shown on the national TV channels such as part of a popular arabesque singer's lifestyle or music video. On the other hand, the most remembered drink brand is dominantly ColaTurka when the genre is arabesque. Through this position, ColaTurka has achieved to positioning

itself in a different segment from competitors (Coca Cola and Fanta). In a period when nationalism emerged as a rising value worldwide, ColaTurka succeed in positioning their market segament in terms of life styles of consumers and then selecting and targeting proper market segment- nationalist Turkish consumers, in both Turkey and Europe, according to these life styles. Nationalistic elements emphasized in their advertisements, advertisement jingles involving both march and arabesque tones and focus on nationalistic origins in its brand name – ColaTurka-, all were factors underlying its success. The results have implications for understanding association formation toward the brands. First, arabesque associations and Yeni Raki brand demonstrated that marketing communication efforts of brands can suffer from random or purposely directed messages of others. This can be effective when the association already exists in consumers' mind toward the whole category. In addition, analysis results show that ColaTurka carries strong arabesque genre associations although there have not been music events or other marketing communication practices directed toward this producct. This finding implies that target brand associations can be created toward a brand through several factors such as brand name and typical user of the brand. Advertisements can also serve as a source of complementary associations' formation toward the same brand regardless of whether this new association toward the brand is congruent or incongruent with the category. Despite the fact that Doluca and Efes Pilsen are also Turkish brands, they have not created associations with Turkish Music. While this would be expected for Efes Pilsen who desires to create a foreign originated genre association, the position of Doluca is a little different which would benefit the whole music genre association subcategory.

As the most crowded one, the last segment consists of relatively different genres: Rock, pop and blues. Hence, it is named as "other music segment". While pop and rock genres are well defined position on the perceptual map (Figure-

1), blues genre has a relatively distant position suggesting that pop and rock genres have absorbed the base of this segment. Blues as a music genre has not created its own segment in the mind of customers and the customers perceived as the closest to this segment have attached it to the pop and rock segment. Music genre – drink brand associations in this segment can be evaluated as desired results of current marketing communication efforts of the brands. As can be seen from the map (Figure-1), Coca Cola is perceived as having the most powerful associations toward the rock genre, while Fanta presents powerful associations for pop genre and weaker associations toward the rock genre. Since both of Coca Cola and Fanta are products of the Coca Cola Company, the image of powerful product- Coca Cola- may transfer to Fanta and thereby it reflects some associations for rock genre. Also countrywide concert sponsorship contracts with famous Rock singers' (Teoman and Sebnem Ferah) as a part of Fanta Youth Festival may also create these weaker associations. As the traditional sponsor of countrywide blues festival, Efes Pilsen Beer has obtained targeted position in consumers mind in terms of creating strongest associations for blues music. To sum up, in terms of music genre associations of drink brands this segment provides us with evidence that associations between the music genre and the drink brand can be successfully created in a desired way by marketing communication efforts and that these associations can be very independent of subcategories.

When evaluating analysis results in terms of alcoholic drinks subcategories (Beer, Turkish Raki, Wine), it can be inferred that every subcategory has powerful genre associations. However, it should be considered that rather than any measurement specific to a subcategory, results reflect only one (and market leader) brands' associations for each of the subcategories in our study. When ranking these subcategories with respect to the power of the music genre association being carried it is shown that the wine subcategory has the most powerful associations then

Turkish Raki and following beer respectively. Given that, it is interesting that there is no well-known marketing communication effort to create genre associations in wine category. This is inspite of beer and Raki categories both of which include market leader brands that use music as a part of integrated marketing communication. Following an opposite order of marketing communication efforts and spending, this result may refer to the power of cultural traditions of drinking on creating genre association. In non-alcoholic beverages there is only one subcategory: Carbonated drinks and three brands: Coca Cola, ColaTurka and Fanta. With respect to this subcategory, analysis results show that the music genres are distinctive enough to differentiate the associations of each brand respectively.

With respect to segment memberships of competing brands within the same subcategory, analysis results also revealed important findings for marketers. Sharing the proximate positions in the same segment, Coca Cola and Fanta have constituted the base of a segment (other music). On the other hand, while its subcategory is primarily presented in other music segment, one of competing brands ColaTurka has succeeded in positioning itself to another segment: Turkish Music. It seems to appear that with the definition of advertising agency, "Positive nationalism" focused marketing communication efforts of ColaTurka has not only positioned company to a different segment from its competitors but also provided a rapid increase in market share. Despite the market leader position of Coca Cola, Pepsi Cola had lost its relative higher market share over ColaTurka. Although Pepsi has regained its second rank in the market today, ColaTurka has captured a substantial market share. Thereby this finding facilitates to understanding of other studies results suggesting that ColaTurka has been successful in terms of capturing substantial market share and developing a rich potential for brand loyalty (Karalar and Kiraci 2007; Ulas and Arslan 2006; Yildirim 2009).

The other three brands explored in this study (Doluca Wine, Efes Pilsen Beer and Yeni Raki)

have developed in different segments (Classical Music, Other Music, and Turkish Music). Since all of these brands were chosen from different subcategories it is not possible to determine which variable explains most of this difference: Brand itself or the relevant subcategory of it.

In conclusion, this study indicates that in the alcoholic drink categories, where the market is mainly directed by market leaders, current associations of the music genre can transfer into market leader brands without regarding whether the market leader brand has some organized communication efforts to promote it. In the coke market, where the competition is more intensive and the usage of music events is wider, the music genres are distinctive enough to differentiate the associations about each brand respectively. These findings reinforce that companies can actively use music genre as a marketing communication tool in transforming symbolic and cultural meanings to their brands positioning and segmentation goals.

As the main contribution, this study not only provides the importance of music genre as a marketing communication tool for companies in relating current symbolic and cultural meanings to their brands but also implies the ways of creating new brand meanings. The use of actual examples from a highly competitive market findings provide strong implications for brand managers in terms of understanding current associative links built between the brands and music genres. Limitations of the study must be noted. First, convenience-sampling method may limit the generalizability of the results. Also data was collected from only Istanbul and a somewhat small sample of 400 respondents. Future studies with broder data may be beneficial with respect to generalization of results. Another limitation was that only four drink subcategories were studied and for three of them (Beer, Turkish Raki and Wine) there is only one brand –which is also market leader - in each category. Thus, genre associations of consumers toward these brands may be somewhat limited to only subcategories. Findings toward these brands and thus the categories

presented by them must be considered in light of this limitation. In addition, it should be highlighted that as a cultural element it is not possible to isolate associations toward a specific music genre from other cultural associations that related to this specific music genre. In this context, when interpreting results of this study, it will be better to evaluate the music genre as an abstract variable which can easily and quickly remind and present all associated cultural elements associated with this genre. This study represents a starting point in improving our understanding toward the subject and provides rationale for further investigation extending studies by using more subcategories and more brands in each subcategory. Although the impact of music on consumer behavior is universally accepted, the effects of it may vary across cultures, which may yield deeper insights in cross cultural studies. In particular studying the variations between high and low context cultures may prove interesting. Some cross national studies including other cultures which are at a similar level of development as of Turkey may also provide meaningful insights. Since there may even be variations within a particular environment situational factors such as residence (rural versus urban consumers), age (older versus younger); education (higher educated versus lower educated), and music genre preferences would be useful to test.

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BOOK REVIEW

This book is about applications of neuroscience to studies of consumer behavior and marketing. This nexus is the foundation of neuromarketing, which investigates the brain and neural reactions to stimuli related to market exchange. The purpose of the book is to develop a coherent interpretation of the consumer (the word consumer used here stands for the consumer, customer, and /or buyer). , the one that highlights the natural predispositions as conditioned by human biology. Traditional consumer behavior analysis focuses on attitudes and preferences, determinants of choice and purchase, usage habits, post purchase behavior and loyalty. But people's perception of the world is flawed with sensory illusions and imperfect mental processing. The value of neuromarketing is that it describes the less publicized phenomena such as the commonality of the senses and also helps to explain them with the knowledge of neuronal processes. In addition neuroscience provides evidence of the emotional side of consumption, its hedonistic aspects and related desires.

Understanding that the irrational component of the consumer's judgment and behavior is not a deviation from the norm but the norm itself has important implications. This means the models used previously to describe consumer behavior come across as too simplistic. They have proved easier to justify logically albeit they are detached from a reality normative explanation of consumer conduct. The neuroscience aided one is far less consistent but yet describes the phenomena more accurately. This opens new perspectives for marketing research. The stated objective of the book is to develop the research area so that applications emerge which relate to business efforts to enhance consumer satisfaction.

Why did thousands of people camp out before the Apple iPad debuts? Was it driven by how well the technology will improve their effectiveness at work or personal enjoyment? Or did the desire to obtain one stem from an emotional response linked to neuronal connections triggered by personal and social variables. The consumers interviewed after their purchase did say things like "I just had to have it"; others really wanted to own one "now." Actually most of us do not know the depths of these emotional cult-like communications to products, services, brands and events. This book presents forward looking insights: future directions where consumer contact and marketing will evolve through further study and application of neuroscience.

A number of Chief Marketing Officers (CMOs) have begun to take neuroscience more seriously. They realize there is connective links between people and their brands that they need to better identify. Neuroimaging offers a foundation to connect emotion-mining with consumers. This book is a must-read for academics, marketing parishioners, and students. Smart practioners will tap into neuroscience to better understand consumers; thus to grow their market share and outperform competitors in consumer acquisition and retention. Still smarter practitioners will use neuroscience to help fig-

ure out how much of their advertising budget they have been wasting.

The first chapter offers a comprehensive description of the major neural system in the brain with special attention paid to the five senses and the neural pathways utilized for registering and dealing with cognitive and emotional information. Further, it provides a portrayal of cognitive functioning, information processing, learning and memory, and their respective brain architecture. Furthermore, it looks at various neuroimaging and biometric research techniques, and evaluates them.

The next two chapters discuss the extensively detailed research experiments garnered from the field of neuroscience as they relate to consumer behavior. This provides an opportunity to expose the reader to the state of the art research implications for examination of relevant marketing strategies. Overall the two chapters re-examine the classic marketing tenets related to consumer behavior in the light of the new neuronal information impacting both pending research and real-life implications.

Chapter 4 contains an examination of personality traits in the context of consumer behavior and consumer relationship management. This perspective validates the gender, youth and elderly segments, also the geographic and ethnic subdivisions of the population, as linked to separate buying styles. Even more fascinating is the identification of distinct shopping habits as a function of emotional differences and syndromes. The last chapter looks at the practical applications of neuroscience and biometrics in today's active marketplaces such as video and computer games, retail stores and on-line purchasing behavior. Also examined is the varying cognitive effort used by the consumer in decision making. Furthermore, it discusses issues regarding the consumer's self-control when confronted with the buying drives.

This book *Neuromarketing* builds a legitimate bridge between academia and business by harvesting new insight from research in neuroscience and making it relevant in a way that can be applied to help grow brands and revenue. Neuromarketing helps, in this era of information overload, to determine that authentic consumer responses come from the brain. It provides another input to quantitative and qualitative analysis of consumer behavior. By better understanding the neural world of consumers one can help them and the brands that serve them to better adapt to an increasingly complex world. A fundamental question to address by neuroscience should be: Why do consumers change behaviors even though they follow deeply rooted habits? Traditional marketing research surveys cannot capture the full spectrum of emotional responses. Neuroscience could help explain why and how consumers actually do differs from what they tell when participating in surveys. Practitioners are better equipped to test the attractiveness of their products, and compare the appeal of alternative communications, with the use of brain imaging technology. Neuromarketing should help to determine what attracts the attention of consumers, what engages their emotions and what does not.

This is an intellectually stimulating book and the insights it offers should help every reader: academician, practitioner, researcher, and student, to explore and understand better connections between consumers, brands, and products. The author should be complimented on breaking new intellectual ground, which is forward looking and will aid in this important field of understanding consumer behavior more accurately.

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JOURNAL OF EUROMARKETING

Enlarged Europe is playing an increasingly more important role in the global economy. The purpose of the Journal of Euromarketing is to meet the needs of academics, practitioners, and public policy makers in the discussion of marketing issues pertaining to Europe and European countries' trading relationship with other nations. The purpose of this exciting journal is to increase our understanding of the strategic planning aspects of marketing management in Europe. As well, marketing and international business aspects of the trading relationship between European and foreign firms are also explored conceptually as well as analytically. The unique position of the region would provide fascinating reading material for practitioners, public policy makers and academicians. The articles submitted to the journal create a forum whereby a conceptual understanding of the European markets and marketing systems be operationalized, analytical insights obtained as well as the past, the present, and the future of European marketing be highlighted.

The manuscripts submitted should report the results of cross-cultural/national and comparative studies conducted among countries of Europe. They can be based upon a single country of the region and/or industry there upon with a concerted effort to contrast the results/findings and managerial implications with those obtained by international marketing scholars/practitioners elsewhere. Both thought provoking and well-developed and documented conceptual/theoretical as well as empirical contributions are sought. But every manuscript must have an applied, managerial orientation.

With its 27 full and 5 associate members, EU is the world's largest internal market possessing nearly $12 trillion economy. Its importance is constantly increasing. Currently, there is a vacuum in the marketing literature which needs to be filled by relating the Europe factor to the global marketing scene; emphasizing on an interaction mode – that is, the horizontal dimension as well as the inter and intra trade and marketing activities in Europe. As such, Journal of Euromarketing covers the following areas of inquiry:

a) Functional areas of marketing in Europe and comparison with the practices of those in other regions.

b) The dynamics that account for the linkage of European national markets into markets of the developing world, North and Latin America, the Far East and Africa.

c) Determine the best methods available for marketing goods and services in different socio-economic, demographic, cultural, competitive, and legal-political environments of Europe at national and regional levels.

d) The method by which European marketing institutions are linked together into viable and coherent business systems.

e) The type of environmental factors prevailing in different European countries of the region which force changes in the marketing structure of the area countries and industrial sectors

f) How efficiently does the marketing system perform its universal functions in the countries of Europe and how the weaknesses of the marketing system can be overcome in the region?

g) The various stages of market and marketing system development in Europe as a working device for generalizing and, possibly, predicting likely developments in marketing in individual countries of the region.

Both thought provoking theoretical/ conceptual and insightful empirical contributions containing most current and up-to-date knowledge which offer the greatest managerial insights are considered. Articles submitted must contain practical information for the marketing practitioners, public policy makers, classroom teachers and researchers with a major emphasis on

European marketing. The Journal tries to appeal to a larger group of readers, so the articles should be written in such a manner that those outside the field can comprehend the expertise and attitudes of those who work within it. Hence, a major criterion is that the language used should be as simple as possible without altering in any way, form, or shape the quality of the information to be communicated. Although not exhaustive, the following topics are illustrative of the subject areas to be covered in the Journal:

- Cross-National Consumer Segments in Europe
- Export behavior of European Firms
- Marketing Strategies of European Multinationals
- Marketing Implications of Strategic Alliances of European Firms
- Markets and Marketing Systems of European Countries
- Marketing Practices of Europe Companies
- Public Sector Marketing in Europe
- Comparative Marketing Systems in Europe
- Diffusion of Innovations Among European Nations
- Transfer of Marketing Technology and Reverse Technology Transfer in Europe
- Buyer-Seller Interactions and Organizational Buyer Behavior Issues in European Markets
- Business Customs and Practices Among European Countries
- Marketing Interaction/Interrelationships Between Europe and Other Trading Blocs
- European Corporate Cultures
- Legal-Political Aspects of Marketing in Europe
- Marketing Issues Pertaining to EU, EFTA, Council of Europe, European Members of OECD, and Associate Members of EU
- Marketing Research in Europe

- Communication/Promotion/Advertising Strategies of European Firms
- Other Topics Directly Related to European Marketing

The Journal is published four times a year. Papers are blind reviewed by at least two members of the Editorial Review Board. Book reviews are special case study materials based on product/service, success and/or failure of European companies in global markets and industries shall also appear as regular items in the Journal of Euromarketing.

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INSTRUCTIONS FOR AUTHORS

Aims and Scope. The *Journal of Euromarketing* aims to meet the needs of academicians, practitioners, and public poli-cymakers in the discussion of marketing issues pertaining to Europe. It helps to increase our understanding of the strategic planning aspects of marketing in Europe and the marketing aspects of the trading relationship between European and foreign firms. Today's Europe is going to play an increasingly more important role in the global economy, so the unique position of the region is certain to provide fascinating reading material. The *Journal of Euromarketing* fosters a conceptual understanding of the European markets and marketing systems, provides analytical insights, and highlights the past, present, and future of European marketing.

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