

UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
FACULTY OF ECONOMICS

MASTER'S THESIS

**THE ROLE OF SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN
CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM IN UKRAINE**

Ljubljana, May 2017

ELINA KOMLANC

AUTHORSHIP STATEMENT

Elina Komlanc, student of the University of Ljubljana, Faculty of Economics, (hereafter FELU), declare that I am the author of the Master's thesis entitled The Role of Socio-psychological Factors in Consumer Ethnocentrism in Ukraine, written under supervision of Dr. Irena Vida, Full Professor.
I further

DECLARE

1. this written final work of studies to be based on the results of my own research;
2. the printed form of this written final work of studies to be identical to its electronic form;
3. the text of this written final work of studies to be language-edited and technically in adherence with the FELU's Technical Guidelines for Written Works, which means that I cited and/or quoted works and opinions of other authors in this written final work of studies in accordance with the FELU's Technical Guidelines for Written Works;
4. to be aware of the fact that plagiarism (in written or graphical form) is a criminal offence and can be prosecuted in accordance with the Criminal Code of the Republic of Slovenia;
5. to be aware of the consequences a proven plagiarism charge based on this written final work could have for my status at the FELU in accordance with the relevant FELU Rules;
6. to have obtained all the necessary permits to use the data and works of other authors which are (in written or graphical form) referred to in this written final work of studies and to have clearly marked them;
7. to have acted in accordance with ethical principles during the preparation of this written final work of studies and to have, where necessary, obtained permission of the Ethics Committee;
8. to give my consent to use the electronic form of this written final work of studies for the detection of content similarity with other written works, using similarity detection software that is connected with the FELU Study Information System;
9. to transfer to the University of Ljubljana free of charge, non-exclusively, geographically and time-wise unlimited the right of saving this written final work of studies in the electronic form, the right of its reproduction, as well as the right of making this written final work of studies available to the public on the World Wide Web via the Repository of the University of Ljubljana;
10. to give my consent to publication of my personal data that are included in this written final work of studies and in this declaration, when this written final work of studies is published.

Ljubljana, 20 May 2017

Author's signature: _____

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	1
1 SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS AFFECTING CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM	3
1.1 Concept and Definition of Consumer Ethnocentrism	3
1.2 Overview of Consumer Ethnocentrism Studies	5
1.3 Measuring Ethnocentrism and the CETSCALE.....	7
1.4 Socio-psychological Antecedents of Consumer Ethnocentrism	9
1.4.1 Patriotism and Its Relation to Consumer Ethnocentrism	10
1.4.2 Concept of National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism.....	14
1.4.3 Consumer Disidentification and Consumer Ethnocentrism	16
1.5 Regional Differences in Consumer Preferences.....	20
1.6 Research Setting in Ukraine	23
1.6.1 Historical and Socio-demographic Background of Ukrainian Multicultural Society	24
1.6.2 Influence of Globalization on the Nature of the Economy of Ukraine	27
2 THE EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE ROLE OF SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM IN UKRAINE	29
2.1 Conceptual Model and Research Hypotheses	30
2.2 Research Methodology.....	38
2.2.1 Operationalization of Variables.....	38
2.2.2 Questionnaire Design and Data Collection	40
3 DATA ANALYSIS.....	42
3.1 Characteristics of the Sample	42
3.2 Statistical Analysis	44
3.2.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	44
3.2.2 Reliability and Validity of the Measurement Scale.....	47
3.2.3 Descriptive Statistics	48
3.3 Hypotheses Testing	51
4 RESULTS AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS	58
4.1 Interpretation of results	58
4.2 Managerial Implications.....	59
4.3 Research Contribution, Limitations and Future Research Suggestions	64
CONCLUSION	66

REFERENCE LIST	68
-----------------------------	-----------

APPENDIXES

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. The Consumer Attraction-Repulsion Matrix	19
Table 2. Operationalization of the Constructs of Consumer Ethnocentrism	39
Table 3. Operationalization of the Constructs of Patriotism and National Identity	39
Table 4. Operationalization of the Constructs of National Disidentification	40
Table 5. Demographic characteristics of the respondents	43
Table 6. Exploratory factor analysis	45
Table 7. Correlations between four components, conducted with Oblimin rotation method	46
Table 8. Factor loading and reliability for researched constructs (factors)	46
Table 9. Descriptive statistics of consumer ethnocentrism items	49
Table 10. Descriptive statistics of socio-psychological factors: patriotism, national identity and national disidentification items	50
Table 11. One sample t-test results for the scale consumer ethnocentrism	52
Table 12. One sample t-test results for the scale patriotism	53
Table 13. One sample t-test results for the scale national identity	53
Table 14. One sample t-test results for the scale national disidentification	54
Table 15. Spearman's rho Correlation coefficient and its statistical significance for variables of consumer ethnocentrism and socio-psychological factors	55
Table 16. Division of respondents into two regions	56
Table 17. Results of the independent sample t-test for two regions for four constructs in the questionnaire	57

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. The Consumer Ethnocentrism-Disidentification Model	18
Figure 2. Map: Between East and West – the Strategic Importance of Ukraine	23
Figure 3. Ethno-linguistic map of Ukraine	25
Figure 4. The Language Map of Ukraine, 2001	26
Figure 5. Conceptual model and research hypotheses	31
Figure 6. Kyiv's Maidan Nezalezhnosti, or Independence Square, in early December 2013	34
Figure 7. Division of respondents into two regions of Ukraine	56
Figure 8. Examples of advertising of domestic goods using Ukrainian symbols	61
Figure 9. Examples of advertising of domestic goods using Ukrainian symbols	61
Figure 10. Examples of advertising of domestic goods using Ukrainian symbols	62

INTRODUCTION

In this time of globalisation, internationalisation and growing competition, consumer behaviour can be characterised as dynamic and changeable. Consumer attitude towards products is a continuous concern of global marketers. From the aspect of international trade and marketing, consumers' ethnocentric attitudes can be a barrier to gaining competitive edge of enterprises in international markets. Understanding consumers' product preferences and their ethnocentric tendencies allows enterprises to elaborate efficient marketing strategies and to strongly position their products in domestic and foreign markets (Wolanin-Jarosz, 2013, pp. 13–14).

Consumer ethnocentrism (hereinafter: CET) has become a highly relevant concept in explaining consumer behaviour regarding purchase decisions when selecting between foreign and local products. Ethnocentric consumers believe that purchasing imported products is unacceptable because it harms the domestic economy, causes unemployment and is purely unpatriotic (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280). Consumers' bias towards domestic goods, i.e., ethnocentrism, offers a vital clue to strategies of global corporations (Upadhyay & Shiv, 2006, pp. 381–389). Researchers and firms have been making considerable efforts to understand consumers' positive "bias towards locally produced products" (Cleveland, Laroche, & Papadopoulos, 2009).

Ukraine is a multi-ethnic, multilingual and multicultural country, which became independent after the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991. After Ukraine became independent, its post-Soviet economy could not easily shift to new market mechanisms due to the slow progress of reforms (Gonchar & Babirad-Lazunin, 2013, p. 43). In the past two decades substantial economic changes in Ukraine affected its international economic activity and the country's position in international trade. In May 2008, Ukraine became a member of the World Trade Organisation (hereinafter: WTO), committing itself to reforming its trade practices and liberalising access to its domestic market for imported goods and services. Nowadays, Ukraine is the 51st largest export economy in the world. It is integrated in international customs unions and is expanding its sales markets and manufacturing sector. Arrival of multinationals to the country and growth of Ukrainian firms in global commodity and financial markets testifies to the country's integration into the world economy as well as its involvement in the process of globalization (Lymonova, 2013, pp. 134–135). Many multinational corporations (MNCs) are interested in entering the Ukrainian market with its 45 million potential consumers (Henninger, 2013). MNCs have become important players in international trade relations and cooperate with national governments, businesses and communities of host countries.

Researching the level of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine is important, especially if we take into consideration that Ukraine is a transitional economy where this kind of research has not yet received much attention. While many studies evaluating ethnocentrism have been

conducted, few have focused on researching consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine. Research on consumer ethnocentrism and its antecedents in Ukraine will provide a broader context for understanding consumer behaviour of Ukrainians. Furthermore, input from this research may help marketers make better marketing communication decisions.

In my thesis, I address consumer ethnocentrism and explore how socio-psychological factors such as national identity, national disidentification and patriotism influence consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine. The main **research problem** is to understand and explain the reasons and motives that lead Ukrainian consumers to buy domestic or foreign products and services.

The **purpose** of my master's thesis is to broaden the knowledge in the field of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine and to examine the relationship between socio-psychological factors, namely patriotism, national identity and national disidentification and consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine. In this survey, I also investigate if differences in consumer ethnocentrism exist across various regions in Ukraine.

Based on the received results I will present managerial implications for domestic and foreign companies marketing and positioning of products in Ukraine. Findings of this research should allow company managers in different industries to elaborate efficient marketing strategies for communication with potential customers, adjust product attributes in an attempt to attract consumers' attention to their products and achieve a strategic competitive advantage.

The conducted research generally answers the following questions:

1. What is the level of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine?
2. Are Ukrainians characterised by a high level of ethnocentrism?
3. How socio-psychological factors such as national identity, national identification and patriotism affect consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine?
4. Does consumer ethnocentrism vary across different regions of Ukraine?

This thesis is divided into four chapters. The **first chapter** provides a comprehensive review of the literature on the examined constructs. The chapter begins with the concept and definition of consumer ethnocentrism, continues with an overview of empirical studies on the concept of consumer ethnocentrism and measuring consumer ethnocentrism tendencies. Further, we focus on the three chosen socio-psychological factors, namely national identity, national disidentification and patriotism that are described in detail and tested in the empirical part of the thesis. Furthermore, we provide overview of regional differences and their influence on consumer preferences. The chapter concludes with the presentation of research setting in Ukraine with an emphasis on the historical background and economy of

Ukraine in order to provide a better understanding of the cultural and socio-economic situation in Ukraine.

The **second chapter** is devoted to empirical research of the previously mentioned constructs. The chapter begins with the presentation of the conceptual model and research hypotheses. Further we describe methodological aspects of this research, operationalization of variables and questionnaire design.

The **third chapter** starts with data analysis, where the sample characteristics are described and graphically presented. Further statistical analysis is performed, validity and reliability of gathered data are defined, and descriptive statistics is provided. Finally, we conclude with an overview of hypothesis testing results explaining the meaning of the obtained results and possible reasons for particular outcomes.

The **fourth chapter** is dedicated to the interpretation of results, managerial implications and recommendations for both domestic and foreign companies on how to deal with consumer ethnocentrism in their business operations. The chapter concludes with the research contribution, limitations and implications for further research.

1 SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS AFFECTING CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM

The first chapter provides a review of the existing literature and provides a theoretical framework for better understanding of consumer ethnocentrism. Firstly, the concept, definition of consumer ethnocentrism and the role of consumer ethnocentrism for marketing are presented. Then, I turn attention to the measurement of consumer ethnocentrism and CETSCALE. Next, I describe three socio-psychological factors, namely, national identity, national disidentification and patriotism in more details. The chapter is concluded with description of consumer ethnocentrism in Eastern Europe and especially Ukraine.

1.1 Concept and Definition of Consumer Ethnocentrism

The term consumer ethnocentrism originally evolved from the general sociological concept of ethnocentrism which was introduced in 1906 by Sumner, who defined it as a “view of things in which one’s group is the centre of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it” (Shankarmahesh, 2006, p. 147; Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280). According to Shimp (in Al Ganideh, El Refae, & Al Omari, 2012, pp. 1–2) ethnocentrism is a purely sociological concept that distinguishes between in-groups and out-groups. It refers to blind acceptance of the in-group and blind rejection of out-groups. It leads individuals to overstate everything in their own culture that differentiates them from others (Al Ganideh, 2010). Yu and Alba (2002) stated in their research that most individuals view their own

group as the centre of the universe and evaluate other cultural groups from their perspective. Worchel and Cooper (in Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280) finalized the mentioned concept of ethnocentrism having noted that people with ethnocentric attitudes tend to reject persons who are culturally dissimilar while blindly accepting those who are culturally like themselves.

American scholars T. A. Shimp and S. Sharma were the first to define the term consumer ethnocentrism and conduct a wider empirical research in the USA, prompting more detailed studies of this phenomenon in different countries of the world (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, pp. 280–289). The researchers defined consumer ethnocentrism as “the beliefs held by the consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign made products” and introduced the concept of ethnocentrism to marketing literature at the international level (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280).

Ethnocentrism represents a tendency in the individuals to be ethnically centred in their acceptance of the in-groups and their rejection of the out-groups (Durvasula, Andrews, & Netemeyer, 1997). Consumer ethnocentrism is a concept of considering whether purchase behaviour is acceptable or unacceptable within a certain group. The general idea of consumer ethnocentrism is that consumers have alternatives to selecting foreign made products. Ethnocentric behaviour of consumers concerns decisions connected to the choice, the purchase and the use of domestic products. The construct has been defined as an important antecedent to the buying intentions of consumers (Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995).

Ethnocentric consumers tend to distinguish between products of the in-group (home country) and out-groups (foreign countries) and, consequently, to consider purchasing of foreign products as incorrect due to perceptions of losses to the national economy. According to Shimp and Sharma (1987), consumers refuse to buy foreign products because they consider them as harmful to the national economy and a cause of unemployment. As demonstrated by Shimp and Sharma (1987), some consumers also avoid buying foreign products because they consider it morally wrong, not only because it is unpatriotic, but also because it hurts the national economy and results in the loss of jobs due to increased imports (Kaynak & Kara, 2000).

Ethnocentric consumers find it wrong to purchase foreign products, believing this is unpatriotic, hurts domestic economy and causes unemployment. The consequences of consumer ethnocentrism include an overestimation of the quality and value of domestic products or underestimation of imports, a moral obligation to buy domestic products and an intense preference for domestic products (Sharma et al., 1995, p. 27).

Highly ethnocentric consumers tend to purchase their local products and keep away from purchasing foreign products due to ethnic and nationalistic purposes (Poon, Evangelista, & Alba, 2010). In addition, domestic products are viewed as superior, while foreign

products are evaluated negatively and their purchases get discouraged (Auruskeviaciene, Vianelli, & Reardon, 2012, p. 23). Consumers who are non-ethnocentric or with low ethnocentric tendencies evaluate products objectively regardless of the products' country of origin (Netemeyer, Durvasula, & Lichtenstein 1991). However, these consumers might also have positive attitudes towards foreign products (Durvasula, Andrews, & Netemeyer, 1997). The above-stated concepts might be further affected by different cultural and socio-economic factors.

Consumer ethnocentrism can also be defined as a personality trait that can affect attitudes, intentions, preferences and purchase behaviour when choosing between domestic and imported products or services (Lindquist, Vida, Plank, & Fairhurst, 2001). The concept of ethnocentrism means that consumers avoid purchasing products sourced from foreign countries due to high ethnocentric tendencies, however, they might still buy products from a particular country due to the affinity toward that country (Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011). Consumer ethnocentric tendencies are not always indicated in such a radical manner. If connected to a developed country with a good image and high level of industrialization, foreign products will be evaluated positively, even if ethnocentric consumers will still prefer domestic product. Moreover, Sharma et al. (1995) state that the concept of ethnocentrism cannot be generalised to all brands and product categories equally.

With increasing globalisation, internationalisation of trade, development of emerging markets, diverse consumer attitudes towards other countries, the impact of consumer ethnocentrism became interesting also for other countries. The concept of consumer ethnocentrism was also researched in developing countries (e.g. Russia, China, India) (Kreckova, Odehmalova, & Reardon, 2012, p. 272). Some studies found the existence of low ethnocentric tendencies of consumers or favouring of foreign products in developing countries (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004). Consumer ethnocentrism, therefore, is likely to be a factor in a consumers' preference for domestic products over imported products (Soumava, 2012, p. 307).

It can be regarded as a general tendency to avoid buying foreign products, as opposed to the country-of-origin image (Shankarmahesh, 2006, p. 148). Consumer ethnocentrism affects product attitudes and consumer behaviour, which are influenced by different variables such as product and brand knowledge, consumer and country characteristics, perception of price, purchase intention, nationalism, patriotism, and internationalism (Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, & Melewar, 2001).

1.2 Overview of Consumer Ethnocentrism Studies

In more than twenty years following the publication of Shimp and Sharma, researches have tested and refined the concept of consumer ethnocentrism in various markets and settings. The contemporary research has indicated that there is no question that consumer

ethnocentrism has a major influence on consumers' tendency to buy foreign products. Herche (1992), Wang and Chen (2004) also verified that it has an impact on buyers' decisions.

The studies by Lillis and Narayana (1974), Morello (1984), Reiersen (1966), Samiee (1994), Schweiger, Haubl and Friederes (1995) (in Usunier & Lee, 2005, p. 139) show that in developed countries domestically produced goods enjoy a more favourable image than foreign ones. The study by Nagashima (1970) provides proof of domestic product preference among Japanese consumers, the work of Bannister and Saunders (1978) provides such evidence for the United Kingdom, Graby (1980) for France, and Cattin (1982) for France and the United States (in Usunier & Lee, 2005, p. 139). Papadopoulos, Heslop and Bennett (1993) showed that the most positive opinions about domestic products are held by French, Dutch and German consumers. Yu and Albaum's research (2002) indicates that consumers from Hong Kong and China prefer to purchase domestic goods over foreign ones.

On the contrary, Bon and Ollivier (in Usunier & Lee, 2005, p. 134) demonstrate that in developing countries domestic products are usually not preferred over the foreign alternatives, for example in Iran. Home country bias is a deeply enrooted belief that comes to light when a consumer buys domestic products instead of their foreign alternatives (Yagci, 2001). As stated in Jiménez & Martín (2010), consumers' social and moral beliefs determine the level of ethnocentrism they display.

Consumer ethnocentrism influences the willingness of consumers to buy foreign products, which ultimately affects their purchasing tendencies in the market place (Shoham & Brencic, 2003). Consumer ethnocentrism is suggested by Suh & Kwon (2002) as a factor influencing general product selection process based on personal beliefs and reluctance when making buying decisions about foreign products in general.

According to research conducted by E. Wolanin-Jarosz in Poland, purchasing products made in other countries is not only an economic matter but it also a moral one for Polish consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism. In extreme cases, this moral engagement results in Polish consumers looking for domestic products regardless the price, even though their quality might be lower than the quality of imported ones (Wolanin-Jarosz, 2013, p. 15). Therefore, consumer ethnocentrism might result in overestimating domestic products, depreciating the meaning of imports and the feeling of moral duty to buy domestic products which in consequence creates barriers for the international trade development (Wolanin-Jarosz, 2013).

Overall, the existence of consumer ethnocentric tendencies and their negative impact on foreign product purchases have been confirmed by many researches (Puzakova, Kwak, & Andras, 2010). Hsu & Nien (2008) indicated that the concept of consumer ethnocentrism has helped researchers to justify consumers' bias toward purchasing their home country

products. Consumers' evaluation of a product is influenced by the country associated with the product (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Many country-of-origin studies conducted in countries such as the United States (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Suh & Kwon, 2002), Germany (Evanschitzky, Wangenheim, Woisetschläger, & Blut, 2008), Netherlands (Josiassen, 2011), Australia (Poon, Evangelista, & Albaum, 2010) and South Korea (Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995; Suh & Kwon, 2002) have illustrated that consumers with ethnocentric tendencies have a proclivity to evaluate domestic products unreasonably favourably compared to imported products. This indicates a definite positive association between ethnocentrism and the evaluation of products made domestically, and a negative association between ethnocentrism and the evaluation of imported products (Vida & Reardon, 2008). Kaynak and Kara (2001) verified that the effect of ethnocentrism in developing countries is associated with other factors such as the levels of their socio-economic and technological development.

The majority of consumer ethnocentrism studies examined consumers' ethnocentric tendencies towards purchasing domestic products without referring to a particular product (Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Kaynak & Kara, 2002; Balabanis et al., 2001; Nguyen, Nguyen, & Barrett, 2008, Vida et al., 2008; Poon et al., 2010; Puzakova et al., 2010; Rybina, Reardon, & Humphrey, 2010).

1.3 Measuring Ethnocentrism and the CETSCALE

A scale that measures ethnocentric attitudes of consumers is very important for the study of consumer ethnocentrism and international marketing. Shrimp and Sharma (1987) were the researchers who first presented a comprehensive scale for measuring consumer ethnocentrism and named it the Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale (hereinafter: CETSCALE). This scale was developed on the basis of the sociological concept of ethnocentrism, which encompasses rating people or objects from other cultures and ethnic groups based on one's own cultural perspective (Al Ganideh et al., 2012, p. 51). The CETSCALE measures the extent to which consumers believe that purchasing foreign products is unpatriotic and morally wrong (Al Ganideh, 2010). The CETSCALE is a measure of tendency and not of attitude, since it assumes that people behave in a consistent manner towards all foreign products (Sharma & Shimp, 1987, p. 281). The predictive validity of the CETSCALE has been found to be inconsistent across product categories (Herche, 1992). It incorporates emotional dimensions of purchasing foreign goods and the implications of such acts on the domestic economy (Herche, 1992).

The development of the CETSCALE is considered as a central contribution allowing researchers to measure consumer ethnocentrism across different cultures (Kaynak & Kara, 2002). In its first version, the CETSCALE was meant exclusively for researches conducted in selected regions of the USA (most questions referred only to America). It has been proven to be very reliable there. In order to adapt the above mentioned scale for other countries the questionnaire was translated into several foreign languages. Then, in order to eliminate

possible inaccuracies in data collection, these were back translated into English and tested on a chosen group of respondents. Although the original purpose of the scale was to measure Americans' ethnocentric tendencies towards purchasing domestic or foreign products, the CETSCALE became the most important research instrument used to measure ethnocentric attitudes and an integral part of almost all studies related to consumer ethnocentrism after its introduction in 1987.

The scale consists of 17 questions that were developed based on the views of American nationals. All the CETSCALE 17 questions are conceptualised by Shimp and Sharma (1987) based on the perception of whether purchasing foreign products hurts the domestic economy and causes unemployment. The original 17-item CETSCALE version is presented in the Appendix A. Consumers scoring high on this scale will tend to purchase domestic products, while low CETSCALE scores mean that consumers have no preferences towards purchasing domestic products (Puzakova et al., 2010). The reliability and validity of the 17-item CETSCALE have been demonstrated by various studies (Netemeyer et al., 1991, Sharma et al., 1995, Luque-Martinez, Ibanez-Zapata, & Barrico-García, 2000, Douglas & Nijssen, 2002; Bawa, 2004).

Netemeyer, Durvasula and Lichtenstein in 1991, conducted a study in four different countries that actively traded with each other, in order to test the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE in their national contexts. Business students from US, West Germany, France and Japan, were selected as respondents and they responded to the 17-item CETSCALE and other scales measuring preference for domestic or foreign products. The obtained results confirmed the proposition about the internal reliability of the CETSCALE across the four countries. This study demonstrated that the CETSCALE can be very useful for international consumer research.

Saffu & Walker (2005) conducted a research among students from Canada and Russia in order to determine the reliability and dimensionality of the CETSCALE in those two countries (Canada as an advanced country and Russia as a country in transition). The 17 items of the CETSCALE were tested and the results showed internal consistency and stability of the scale. In 2012, the reliability and validity of CETSCALE was once again demonstrated by conducting consumer ethnocentrism study in Croatia (Renko, Karanovic, & Matić, 2012) and Jordan (Al Ganideh & Al Taei, 2012).

Some studies pointed out that the scale was unidimensional, meaning that it was only used to measure the level of respondents' ethnocentrism (Sharma & Shimp, 1987; Luque-Martinez et al., 2000). Although Douglas & Nijssen (2002) did not find the CETSCALE to be unidimensional in Netherland. A study done in India by Bawa (2004) did also not find it to be unidimensional. Shimp and Sharma (1987) introduced a 10-item short version of their 17-item CETSCALE, which was employed in various studies (Lindquist et al., 2001; Douglas & Nijssen, 2003; Al Ganideh, 2010).

A number of researchers have applied the CETSCALE to specific products: gas stations (Supphellen & Rittenburg, 2001), autos (Klein, 2002), mobile phones (Hsu & Nien, 2008). Puzakova et al. (2010) criticized the CETSCALE as respondents sometimes thought that some domestic products with foreign brand names were not actually domestic. Thus, the researchers suggested that before answering the CETSCALE questions, respondents should specify the type of domestic that they have in mind.

Considering all the above mentioned, the CETSCALE was accepted as a reliable and valid scale that can be used across nations and countries to measure the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers. All the previously mentioned studies were conducted around the world, applying the construct to different nations and cultures and demonstrating the validity and reliability of the CETSCALE in different countries.

1.4 Socio-psychological Antecedents of Consumer Ethnocentrism

As the world and societies have developed, people have faced many different situations that shaped them not only as individuals, but also as consumers, forming their purchasing habits and preferences. In this process, a number of antecedents emerged and were identified as drivers of ethnocentric behaviour.

Consumer ethnocentric tendencies do not develop in isolation, they result from a combination of socio-psychological, economic, political and demographic influences. (Sharma et al., 1995). According to the literature review, many factors such as demographic and socio-psychological significantly influence consumer ethnocentric tendencies that will predict consumers' final purchase decisions. Shankarmahesh (2006, p. 161) provided a comprehensive review of the findings and developed a framework with focus on antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism in terms of consumer characteristics. The most interesting and relevant for the present research are of socio-psychological and demographic antecedents. There are a lot of studies which explore the influence of socio-psychological variables on ethnocentrism.

Regarding the antecedents of CET, an overwhelming body of empirical evidence supports the notion that this attitude is influenced by demographic characteristics, such as gender, education and income (Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995; Shimp, 1984). Nadiri and Tümer (2010) confirmed the importance of examining the demographic variables' influence on consumer ethnocentric tendencies toward their national products. Demographic variables could help marketers to get better understanding of the roots of the consumer ethnocentrism phenomenon (Al Ganideh, 2010).

Socio-psychological antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism comprise: cultural openness, world mindedness, patriotism, conservatism, collectivism/individualism, materialism and dogmatism (Shankarmahesh, 2006, p.149). A number of researchers have focused on

examining patriotism (Sharma et al., 1995; Balabanis et al., 2001; Javalgi, Khare, Gross, & Scherer, 2005; Al Ganideh, Jackson, & Marr, 2007), nationalism (Balabanis et al., 2001; Al Ganideh et al., 2007), internationalism (Balabanis et al., 2001; Al Ganideh et al., 2007), conservatism (Sharma et al., 1995; Javalgi et al., 2005) and collectivism/individualism (i.e. Sharma et al., 1995; Javalgi et al., 2005) as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism.

According to Dressler (1973), beliefs related to race, nationality, religion or family may underlie ethnocentric attitudes. They are manifested by various social groups, revealing for example religious prejudice, racial discrimination or patriotism (Murdock, 1931). When choosing products, ethnocentric consumers may take into consideration not only rational economic preferences but also patriotic and moral ones. Ethnocentric consumers believe that it is unpatriotic to buy foreign-made products due to adverse effects such behaviour may have on the domestic economy and employment (Netemeyer et al., 1991; Kaynak & Kara, 2002).

1.4.1 Patriotism and Its Relation to Consumer Ethnocentrism

Academic researchers have also pointed to patriotism as antecedent of CET. Patriotic individuals show higher ethnocentric tendencies than those who are less patriotic, thus patriotism was found to be positively related to consumer ethnocentrism (Balabanis et al., 2001; Sharma et al., 1995). A relationship and a positive correlation between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism was established also in Klein & Ettenson (1999) and Albarq and Mat (2007). Sharma & Shimp (1987, Fritsch, 2008; Albarq & Mat, 2007) confirmed that patriotism is an antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism. The same was done by Rybina et al. (2010) and Erdoğan & Burucuoglu (2016), who demonstrated that patriotism is an antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism among consumers in Kazakhstan and Turkey.

Patriotism is defined as a “strong feeling of attachment and loyalty to one’s country, but without corresponding hostility toward other nations” (Balabanis et al., 2001, p. 160). Patriotic person tends to favour products coming from one’s own country, because of love and devotion to their country (Jain & Jain, 2013, p. 3), while not rejecting other countries and considering other cultures and traditions as equally legitimate to their own. The words patriot and patriotism come from the Greek *patria* – homeland (Mykoliuk, 2012). According to the American researcher Snyder and Russian scientist Kasianov (1999), patriotism is closer to concepts such as homeland, a country of residence. It reflects love, sense of loyalty to country and willingness to serve it.

Some studies have indicated that patriotism is the emotional feeling people have about their own country and does mean they ignore other countries. Other studies have found patriotism to be a good and positive feeling about one’s nation and the ability to see through borders. Emotional feeling about traditional customs, symbols, values and about national attributes can be part of the idea (Morse & Shive, 2011). **Emotions** of national pride and personal

experience with the global image of products can influence one's point of view on foreign product (Spillan & Harcar, 2013). The emotional attachment to their own country leads to the reduction of information seeking about other countries and, as a consequence, about their products (Druckman, 1994). Druckman (1994) suggested that patriotic attitudes are developed in early phases of the socialization process and are therefore very resistant to change.

Patriotism generally represents love, pride and commitment to one's own country, as well as devotion and loyalty to the group to which one belongs (Fritsch, 2008). Patriots are committed to their country and to their group, but do not necessarily idealize them, and they are not hostile towards other countries or nations (Fritsch, 2008, p. 30). It is believed that patriotism leads to preference of domestic products, which accordingly leads to protecting the domestic economy (Fritsch, 2008). In the field of consumer behaviour, patriotic consumers believe that their purchase and favouritism of domestic products acknowledge their loyalty and have a positive impact on the whole country (Rybina et al., 2010). Patriotic consumers regard consumption as a duty to their home country, its economy and domestic producers, and they strive to prevent the entry of foreign products in their home country (Balabanis et al., 2001).

In scientific literature the terms **patriotism** and **nationalism** are sometimes used interchangeably. Patriotism and nationalism likewise represent positive attitudes toward one's home country. However, it is clear that these concepts differ and have a purely moral, ethical context. Patriotism is defined as "commitment – a readiness to sacrifice for the nation – while nationalism is commitment plus exclusion of others, a readiness to sacrifice bolstered by hostility towards others" (Balabanis et al., 2001). Nationalism deals mostly with the problems of independence and unity of a nation. Nationalism, apart from preferences for the home country, also encompasses negative attitudes toward foreign nations. Frietsch, Zeugner-Roth and Diamantopoulos (2010, pp. 4–6), thus posited that nationalism will result in a home-country bias and avoidance of foreign products, however they found no empirical support for their hypotheses.

An individual's patriotic and nationalistic sentiments tend to sway in response to economic and political circumstances. Patriotism is said to flow periodically and to ebb after experiencing some peak "patriotic excesses" (Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989). Moreover, when a country considers itself under attack or threatened by outsiders, foreignness tends to take on negative meanings; as a consequence, nationalism and ethnocentrism grow in intensity (Sharma et al., 1995). These perceived threats or fears, resulting from political or economic situations, influence not only people's values and views on broader issues, but also their consumer behaviour. Although many consumer behaviour studies have observed consumers' patriotic prejudices against imports, they did not investigate how and why such effects existed (Sharma et al., 1995). The concept of patriotism has been extensively studied in literature. Patriotism is associated with a feeling "of love for and pride in one's nation"

and relates to the loyalty to one's country (Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989, p. 271). Madupu, Sandipan and Sampath (2012) discovered that it is the uncritical patriotism which is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism. The issue of evaluation bias with respect to in-group and out-group has also been explored in the literature on patriotism. Adorno, Frankel-Brunswick, Levinson, Sanford, Levinson and Morrow (1950) distinguish between healthy patriotism and ethnocentric patriotism. **Ethnocentric patriotism** is associated with prejudices towards products from foreign countries, while in healthy patriotism love of one's country is not associated with such prejudices (Akhter, 2007). What Adorno et al. (1950) define as **ethnocentric patriotism** closely resembles what Kosterman and Feshbach (1989) define as nationalism.

Kosterman and Feshbach (1989) made a conceptual distinction between nationalism and patriotism. Unlike nationalism, patriotism involves positive feelings towards one's own country, without the need for national power and dominance, two important characteristics of nationalism. Druckman (1994, pp. 47–8) also distinguishes between nationalism and patriotism by noting that patriotism is “commitment and readiness to sacrifice for the nation, while nationalism is commitment plus exclusion of others, a readiness to sacrifice bolstered by hostility toward others.” In both, nationalism and patriotism, evaluative judgments are involved. However, patriotism, in contrast to nationalism, does not include a negative evaluation bias against other countries.

Zajonc and Markus (1982) indicated that patriotic reactions to foreign products may **affect a consumer's behavioural responses**. Patriotism was found to directly affect domestic consumption, not because consumers would feel obliged to buy domestic, but rather because they are attached to their home country, its people and national symbols (Vida & Reardon, 2008, pp. 39–40). Han (1988, p. 30) found that patriotism not only resulted in the preference for domestic products, but, in some cases, also in the tendency to rate foreign products less favourably, so he suggested that patriotism had a negative effect on the purchase of foreign made products. He also found that consumer choice of products depended more on patriotism than on their quality perception or product serviceability. The author showed a positive effect of consumer patriotism on purchase intentions of domestic products. Patriots see buying domestic products as part of their duty to their country and duty to protect its economy and show support for domestic producers. On the other side, patriots are likely to prevent arrival of foreign products, if they appear to be harmful to the economy of one's country (Han, 1988).

Wang & Chen (2004) argued that patriotic consumers do not blindly reject products from other countries. Consumers can be patriotic, and at the same time not indicate their preference towards domestic over foreign products. Patriotic consumers might prefer domestic products, if their quality is the same or better, in comparison to imported product. The study by Rawwas, Rajendran and Wuehrer (1996) showed that patriotic individuals can be world-minded and without ethnocentric tendencies. According to Shah (2012), the

product quality remains important for patriotic consumers, even when they see the promotion campaigns such as “Buy domestic-made product”.

Although the above mentioned studies support the proposition that patriotism is an antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism, there are also a number of studies that do not support this relationship as significant. In line with this, in a study among Jordanian consumers, Albarq & Mat (2007) demonstrate that such relationship is not significant, and they do not consider patriotism as an antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism. The same was found among Danish consumers (Fritsch, 2008). In 2001 Balabanis et al. conducted a study among Czech and Turkish consumers, only to find that in the Turkish sample patriotism was a significant antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism, which was not the case in the Czech sample. Thus, they claim that patriotism has no consistent influence on consumer ethnocentrism and that its effects are **not universal and differ among various countries and cultural settings**. Due to these conflicting results, Shankarmahesh (2006) suggested that relationships with antecedents are too simplistic to completely explain how they affect consumer ethnocentrism. Further, he argued that contradicting findings need to be explored in future research. According to Balabanis et al. (2001), patriotism indeed influences consumer ethnocentrism, but its magnitude differs from country to country.

The effects of patriotism on consumer ethnocentrism may vary from country to country (Vassella, Fountain, & Fountain, 2010). Studies indicated that such relationship depends on a country's culture. Balabanis et al. (2001) and Albarq and Mat (2007) also found the relationship between patriotism and **consumer ethnocentrism to be country specific**. In some countries, consumers are ethnocentric due to attachment to and pure love for their country (patriotism). In other countries, such ethnocentric tendencies may be associated with feelings of economic superiority and national dominance (nationalism). This may be the result of historical or institutional differences among countries (Spillan & Harcar, 2013). Good and Huddleston (1995) found that people tend to be more patriotic if their country was oppressed or conquered.

Overall, patriotic individuals show stronger consumer ethnocentric tendencies than individuals who are less patriotic. Consumer patriotism has a significant effect on intentions to purchase domestic vs. foreign products. When entering a foreign market, international marketers have to address nationalism as one of the factors affecting consumers' choice of domestic over foreign products. The study by Balabanis et al. (2001) has several implications for marketing practice. First, marketers should not be intimidated by the level of patriotic feelings of consumers and should make sure that their strategy does not facilitate the shift from patriotism to consumer ethnocentrism. Further, they have to make sure that domestic consumers understand that the consumption of foreign products is not economically harmful for one's own country. Secondly, if patriotism is the underlying factor for prejudice against imports, marketers might have to change their products' symbols to national and therefore show consumers that a foreign product does not present a threat to country's economy.

1.4.2 Concept of National Identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism

In recent decades, the modern world has been characterized by processes of globalization and integration as well as by reverse trends related to the mainstreaming of national identity, awakening of nations and their national life, and growth of nationalist aspirations. The revival of national consciousness strengthens national identity and acts as one of the priority factors in the development of nations. Scholars are turning their attention to the re-emergence of nationalism in a world that is becoming increasingly interconnected economically, legally, socially and politically. The role of nation-states and national identities is changing (Bruter, 2016; Pelkmans, 2016).

Since the beginning of the twenty-first century, we have observed a concurrent rise of two major forces: nationalism and globalization. Balabanis et al. (2001) prove that nationalism, in spite of growing awareness of globalization, plays an ever more important role in many countries, and is one of the main phenomena that the world faces today. This is partly due to the growing uncertainty and fear of the growing importance of globalization.

Consumer ethnocentrism and national identification are two different, yet complementary constructs. While the former primarily captures economic aspects of home-country bias, the latter is of socio-psychological nature. They complement each other in the sense that they both help to explain consumers' evaluation and purchase intentions toward domestic and foreign products (Verlegh, 2007, pp. 362, 364, 367, 370). Whereas consumer ethnocentrism can be described as a cognitive concept, national identity as a determinant of purchase decision highlights the affective aspects of consumer home country bias.

National identity is defined by Keillor, Hult, Erffmeyer and Babakus (1996, p. 58) as "the set of meanings owned by a given culture that sets it apart from other cultures". Individuals reveal a strong sense of national identity when they identify with religious, historical, cultural and social aspects of their nation, embodying a strong sense of national uniqueness.

National identity is a direct result of modern means of communication, mass market, urbanization, the growing influence of the state on the population through taxes and military duty and, above all, the school system, social media, print culture, which comprises all forms of publications and press materials, and other forms of modern communications. National identity is perceived as love, respect for the country, its culture, traditions, language, endowed with a powerful unifying effect, and strength. National identity shows as recognition of the nation itself, knowledge and respect for history, national culture, territory, peoples' awareness of their special features, national team members understanding of their interests, aspirations, goals, ideals and needs.

Research of the problems associated with the growth of national identity is especially important in today's world of globalization and integration. Druckman (1994) believes that

the nation begins to play a significant role for individuals when they become emotionally attached to their homeland, and when they feel motivated to support it, even by identifying with it.

When exploring national identity in the economic context, we may address **economic nationalism**, which derives from concerns for economic security and economic power. It is perceived as a readiness to support nationalist economic policy as a function against the economic threat posed by foreign competition, and is thus linked with personal job insecurity, authoritarianism and intolerance of ambiguity (Baughn & Yaprak, 1996; Burnell, 1986; Mort & Duncan, 2003). Economic nationalism should be understood as a set of practices to create, bolster and protect national economies in the context of world markets. The rise and institutionalisation of economic nationalism in the 20th century was a product of economic crisis, nationalist movements and enlarged states (Pryke, 2012). Economic nationalism can affect buying behaviour directly and independently of product judgment (Klein et al., 1998).

National identity appears to be stronger in the times of transition, during political reforms and dramatic transformation in Europe's former communist countries and former Soviet republics. National identity has adapted significantly, given relatively recent independence of some transitional countries. The concept of national and cultural identity in transitional societies got special attention after the shock of nationalism and national identification in the Southeast and Eastern European countries in the last decade of the 20th century, when the search for cultural and national identities and very dynamic changes in political world became crucial for the establishment of the new states, as well as for the systemic transformation and transition from socialism to capitalism (Shvob-Đokić & Milohnić, 2011). It seems that national identities have gradually been overshadowed by new cultural values and more open cultural communication. In the context of post-transitional developments, individual and collective identification may proceed towards standpoints that are trans- and intercultural, more tolerant and based on the acceptance of cultural diversities, cultural democratization and the professionalization of cultural production (Shvob-Đokić & Milohnić, 2011).

The fact that the Soviet Union was a multinational state project containing over a hundred different nationalities suggests that national identity could not simply be ignored by leaders of the Soviet Union. The post-Soviet states themselves are multinational political units, meaning that the 'one nation one state' principle could not possibly be fulfilled within the newly created states. Instead, issues of national identity and the relationship of nationalism to the post-Soviet state building projects remain essential aspects affecting the post-Soviet state building projects today. Post-Soviet states show that, even in an era of globalization, nationalism has retained its importance as a dynamic force in the world of nation states. One of the important issues in building strong cohesive states in the post-Soviet context is the relationship among various national groups. In the context of cohesiveness, this involves

choosing the cultural and/or ethnic basis of the state's identity and the relationship between the state identities and other national identities (Goshulak, 2002).

Identities can be expressed at many levels – the local, regional, national and international. Multiple attachments can be conceptualised as a dimension of 'transnational belonging', in which mobile individuals forge and sustain multi-stranded social relations that link together their societies of origin and settlement. Transnationalism refers to a form of cross-border living that may have become more prevalent in recent decades due to technological changes such as the vastly increased ease and immediacy of communication and the availability of cheap travel over large distances. The core of transnationalism is the view that the transnational individual is able to live their life engaged in two or more societies simultaneously: the society of origin and the society/-ies of destination (Schunz, 2012). **Transnational identities** play a very important part in both historical and contemporary social and political events. These transnational identities overlap with people's national identities and have a great psychological impact in defining their values, attitudes, beliefs, and lifestyle concerns. Additionally, state-centric nationalist or patriotic feelings might be weakened by local and regional identities. These other types of identities are also grounded on a specific territory and can be sometimes considered as important as the national identities. Localism and regionalism thrive in particular in societies with low geographical mobility, where people attach great importance to the language, traditions, folklore, and other cultural manifestations of their village, town or county or region (Bruter, 2016; Pelkmans, 2016).

National identification reflects the desire for a positive national identity and is rooted in the consumers' motive to have a positive image of their home country and need for self-engagement (Verlegh, 2007, p. 370). Using samples of American and Dutch consumers, Verlegh showed that national identity had stronger impact on the evaluation of the quality of domestic products than consumer ethnocentrism. Consumers having a strong degree of national identification tend to purchase domestic products due to an inner bond with their nation and reward themselves by showing their affiliation to a certain identity (Mackie & Smith, 1998). Vida et al. (2008) found that national identity is a significant predictor of consumer ethnocentrism and directly influences consumers' preferences toward domestic and foreign products.

1.4.3 Consumer Disidentification and Consumer Ethnocentrism

Researchers found a strong positive relationship between the level of consumer ethnocentrism and country-based bias. Later studies found that the CET construct is more accurate in explaining buyers' positive home country bias than their negative bias towards foreign-made products (Klein et al., 1998; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004). As negative attitudes toward one's home country have received attention in international marketing only

recently, the relation to consumer disidentification remains an under-researched area in consumer behaviour theory.

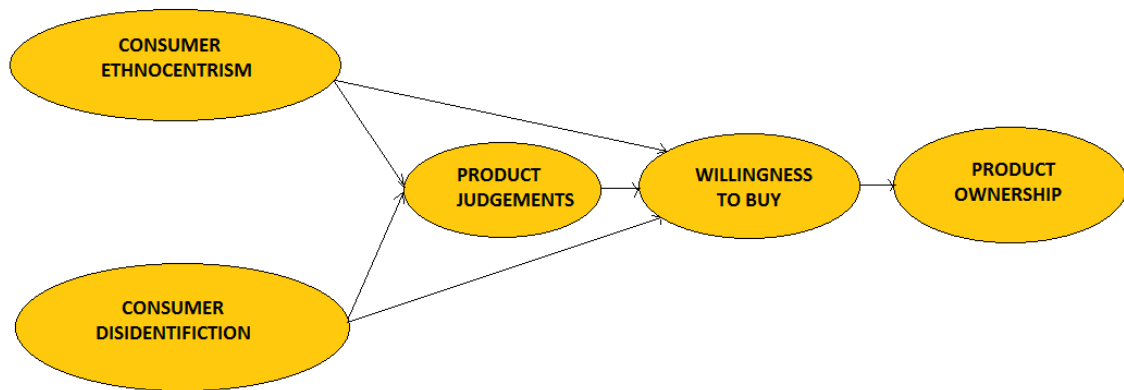
Identification (a positive motivational state) is said to predict positive behavioural intentions towards one's in-group, while disidentification (a negative motivational state) is said to predict negative in-group directed intentions (Becker & Tausch, 2013). International marketers need to understand both identification and disidentification, their antecedents and their consequences.

Active distancing from and psychological rejection of the nation-state among minority groups fosters development of so-called oppositional identities. The resulting national disidentification (hereinafter: NDI) is much more harmful to the cohesion and stability of the domestic civil society than mere low levels of state-level commitment. In ethnic minority groups defined by immigration, lower education and higher religiosity proved to be significant predictors of NDI (Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007).

A consumer disidentification construct (hereinafter: CDI) was proposed by Verkuyten and Yildiz in 2007. The concept of CDI, introduced by Josiassen (2011), is derived from the more general psycho-sociological construct of national disidentification (NDI), describing individuals' reactive, oppositional attitudes toward the country of their residence (Verkuyten & Yildiz, 2007). Josiassen (2011, pp. 125–126) used the term **consumer disidentification** to describe consumers' repulsion toward their home country which results in the negative home-country bias. Antecedents of CDI range from strong identification with religious, political, ethnic, age, and interest groups to perceived negative stereotypes associated with typical domestic purchase and consumption patterns to perceived rejection and devaluation by the majority group. It is proposed that people with high levels of CDI avoid purchasing domestic products because they want to disidentify themselves from the typical domestic consumer (Josiassen, 2011).

However, CDI and CET measure different consumer dispositions, and ought to be treated as independent rather than bipolar constructs, as depicted by Josiassen's (2011) consumer ethnocentrism-disidentification model (see Figure 1). Both CDI and CET were found to be indirectly related to product judgments. Just as the conviction about the superiority of domestic over imported products is not inherent but often complementary to CET (Klein et al., 1998; Sharma et al., 1995; Shimp & Sharma, 1987), CDI was also found to – conversely – affect consumers' evaluations of home-country products, and not only the willingness to buy them or actual ownership (Josiassen 2011).

Figure 1. The Consumer Ethnocentrism-Disidentification Model



Source: A. Josiassen, *Consumer Disidentification and Its Effects on Domestic Product Purchases: An Empirical Investigation in the Netherlands*, 2011, p. 127.

In the same series of studies, Josiassen (2011) operationalized the CDI construct, developing and validating a measure for the degree of consumers' disidentification with the home country consumer group, in the form of a six-item scale. In addition, potential antecedents and moderators of CDI were explored. The findings demonstrated that cultural adaptation of consumers belonging to a subculture defined by immigration, predicts their dispositional responses towards the purchase of domestic products. Stronger ethnic identification (EI) of study participants resulted in more salient CDI and lower CET levels, while acculturation was clearly linked to more ethnocentric and less disidentification consumer tendencies. However, empirical evidence did not support the potential role of control variables of age and gender in the model, showing that CDI is uniformly important across these consumer segments (Josiassen, 2011).

It is vital to point out, however, that Josiassen's (2011) study is inherently explorative, providing an introduction to the pan-cultural construct of CDI and its initial test in a developed country setting, featuring a sub-national group of immigrants. Aware of the study's limitations, the author called for further research on the CDI construct, including examination of other national contexts and subcultures other than migrants (challenging national societies), and for the investigation of additional antecedents or moderators of CDI (Josiassen, 2011).

The construct of CDI predicts that consumers' repulsion toward their domestic country negatively influences their purchase of domestic products. The Consumer Attraction-Repulsion Matrix is shown in Table 1, presenting how this construct determines consumer's attitude towards domestic or foreign products. The construct has been validated in a study of second-generation immigrants in the Netherlands (Josiassen, 2011). Josiassen (2011) argued that **consumer ethnocentrism** and **consumer disidentification** were both related to products originating in the consumers' home country and that consumers' repulsion toward

their domestic products negatively influenced the purchasing of products made in their home country or by domestic firms (Al Ganideh et al., 2012).

According to Klein et al. (1998), consumer ethnocentrism (CET) and consumer animosity (CAN) are distinct constructs, which influence consumer purchase behaviour differently. The authors introduced the concept of animosity toward a particular country or nation to describe, “the remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events” and provided empirical evidence of its influence on consumers’ buying decisions. As shown in the Consumer Attraction-Repulsion Matrix presented in Figure 2, while CAN is country-specific and might impact buying decisions concerning products of different foreign origin, CET affects choices made between domestic and foreign goods in general (Klein et al., 1998). However, CET can mediate the effect of CAN on foreign product evaluation (Nijssen & Douglas, 2004).

Table 1. The Consumer Attraction-Repulsion Matrix

	Attraction	Repulsion
Home country	Consumer ethnocentrism (CET) Shimp and Sharma (1987)	Consumer disidentification (DIS) Josiassen (2011)
Foreign country	Consumer affinity Oberecker et al. (2008)	Consumer animosity (CAN) Klein et al. (1998)

Source: modified from A. Josiassen, *Consumer Disidentification and Its Effects on Domestic Product Purchases: An Empirical Investigation in the Netherlands*, 2011, p. 126.

Research conducted by Szcześniak (2015) provided a further test of the consumer ethnocentrism-disidentification model and in particular the CDI construct and the CDI measurement scale developed by Josiassen (2011). It tested the consumer disidentification construct in the setting of a European multi-national, post-communist and post-war state, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and demonstrated that consumer disidentification affected buying decisions to a greater extent than consumer ethnocentrism. The three major autochthonous ethnic groups inhabiting the country, the Bosnians (Bosnian Muslims), Bosnian Serbs and Bosnian Croats, continue to disagree on the question of the political set-up of the state since the Bosnian War of the early nineties. As a result, the three nations differ significantly when it comes to the levels of identification with their home state in its current configuration. The conceptual framework of the study predicted that repulsion towards the home country of Bosnia and Herzegovina negatively affects the willingness to buy and actual purchase of domestic products.

The results of this research confirmed Josiassen's (2011) findings that consumer ethnocentrism (CET) and consumer disidentification (CDI) are distinct phenomena, measuring different dispositions toward domestic products (Szczęśniak, 2015). The results reveal not only that CET and CDI levels varied significantly within the respondent sample, but also that CET and CDI differed greatly with regard to their antecedents and consequences. Bosnian Serb consumers' disidentification with their home country of Bosnia and Herzegovina (B&H) has a negative effect on their willingness to buy (WTB) home country products: both directly and indirectly, i.e. through product judgments (PJ). "Consumer disidentification reflects a rejection of the domestic consumer group, and this affects [both:] evaluations of the products and the willingness to buy them" (Josiassen, 2011, p. 131). Thus, the results of this study also support the thesis that CDI is distinct from consumer animosity (Josiassen, 2011), which in turn demonstrates itself through a general unwillingness to purchase products from a given country regardless of judgments about the products' actual quality, that is e.g. despite recognizing their high quality (Klein et al., 1998).

Furthermore, Bosnian Serbs' CDI was found to affect both their judgments of domestic products and the willingness to purchase them much more potently than their respective CET. Negative motivational states (such as CDI) are more likely to incur more radical behavioural implications than positive ones (such as CET). People have an inner drive to align their attitudes and beliefs to avoid disharmony. Positive dispositions usually do not cause cognitive disharmony in the first place. It is the negative ones that tend to produce a feeling of discomfort, leading people to alter either their attitudes, beliefs or behaviours, in order to restore inner balance. Moreover, the results confirmed that Bosnian Serb consumers' product judgement predicts their willingness to buy domestic products, which in turn predicts their ownership of such. It also confirmed that CDI is a construct relevant and consistent across different demographic segments. Overall, the findings confirmed Josiassen's (2011) conclusion that CDI is an important factor that influences consumers' purchase behaviour (Szczęśniak, 2015).

1.5 Regional Differences in Consumer Preferences

Regional differences have important effect on consumer diversity. People living in different regions perceive themselves in different ways. In addition to the attitudes and behaviours of the regional culture, individuals carry with them the customs, traditions, values, and behaviours of their national or religious heritage. Consumer behaviour and consumption patterns vary across states, regions and countries, leading international marketers to tailor their strategy to meet the needs of consumers residing in different regions of the country and of the world. Any attempt to market to them based on a region must be tempered by an understanding of other subcultural influences to which they have been exposed.

Europe is legally a single market. However, it is not a mass (monolith) market, but a culturally and linguistically diverse market with a number of divergent, sub-markets.

(Kaynak & Jallat, 2004, p. 6). There are regional, national, and local differences in consumption, buying behaviour, and purchasing within the market. In the United Kingdom, there are vast purchasing and consumption differences, and the level of economic development differs between England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. A case example is England, with vast differences between northern England (Yorkshire or Lancashire) and southern part of the country (Carnwall) (Kaynak & Jallat, 2004). The difference between the north and the south versus the east and the west are indeed enormous.

The same applies to Greece and Italy, where there are vast differences between northern and southern parts of the countries. Tastes vary from country to country – and product marketing and positioning should be done at a local, not Pan-European, level. The look and feel of the product must work within the cultural context of the individual European country. Companies must find ways to reconcile the advantages of a pan-European market with increasing consumers' demand for choice, and persistent differences in national or regional consumer preferences. The United States is a vast country in which various regions have developed distinctive identities, apart from the overall American culture, based on different ethnic and cultural histories. Regional differences in USA are tied to the nationality, ethnic background, or religion of the original settlers in a region. Regional subcultures can be as small as neighbourhoods within a city or as large as the geopolitical divisions of the Northeast, the Midwest, the South, and the West (Sirgy, Rahtz, & Portolese, 2016).

Cross-cultural and regional variations exist in just about every aspect of consumer behaviour. Region can determine cultural patterns that affect behaviours, such as patience. Consumers in Western cultures tend to be less patient and value immediate consumption more than consumers of Eastern cultures do.

It is believed that people who live in an area with lots of foreign competition, and who perceive their jobs as threatened, are more likely to exhibit ethnocentric tendencies, which was demonstrated on a sample of Mexican respondents, where the highest level of consumer ethnocentrism was demonstrated by the respondents from Tijuana (Witkowski, 1998).

Malaysian consumers who live in big cities in the central and southern regions of Malaysia are less ethnocentric than people who live in smaller cities near the border with Thailand. Authors attribute this to the differences in income level, purchasing power and exposure to foreign products, among the regions in Malaysia (Shah & Ibrahim, 2012). However, despite the results supporting the proposition that a region does have an effect on the level of consumer ethnocentrism, there are also findings that show no relationship between the two dimensions (Kamaruddin, Mokhlis, & Othmon, 2002; Witkowski, 1998).

The study of Frank, Abulaiti and Enkawa (2014) examined whether a single marketing strategy is sufficient to cover the Chinese market. Using data from four regions and nine industries, the authors found that major regional differences in consumer preferences made

regional market segmentation an attractive option. In more developed regions, consumers relied more on perceived quality and public brand image and less on quality expectations. Uyghurs cared more about perceived quality and personal recognition, but less about quality expectations than Han Chinese. Personal recognition was more important to the southern than the northern Chinese. Overall, consumer preference structures were influenced more strongly by differences in economic development than subculture (Frank et al., 2014).

Geographical regions and religions are essential in the formation of sub-culture. Hawkins, Roupe & Coney's research (1981) demonstrated that geographic subcultures exert strong influences on the consumption patterns of customers. These influences have important implications for both marketing practice and the development of marketing theory. Geographic subcultures can be an important variable for detecting differences in consumption and non-consumption behaviours. Physical regional and urban-rural-suburban categories provide the basis for specifically identifying rational subcultures, while the nature of geographical influence is defined as being physical or psychological. The behaviour of the urban consumers is different from that of the rural. There appears to be reason to believe that geographic subcultures are fairly stable and that significant behavioural differences of interest to marketers do exist (Hawkins et al., 1981).

The geographical origin might be used as a quality cue by consumers who are unsure about the quality and safety of the product. This effect may result from two processes. First, the region of the origin is a "signal" for the general product quality. Based on this there might be a positive bias in the consumers' perception of other attributes that are not necessarily linked to the region of origin. Second, local food is perceived to be fresher, healthier and more environmentally friendly (Darby, Batte, Ernst, & Roe, 2006).

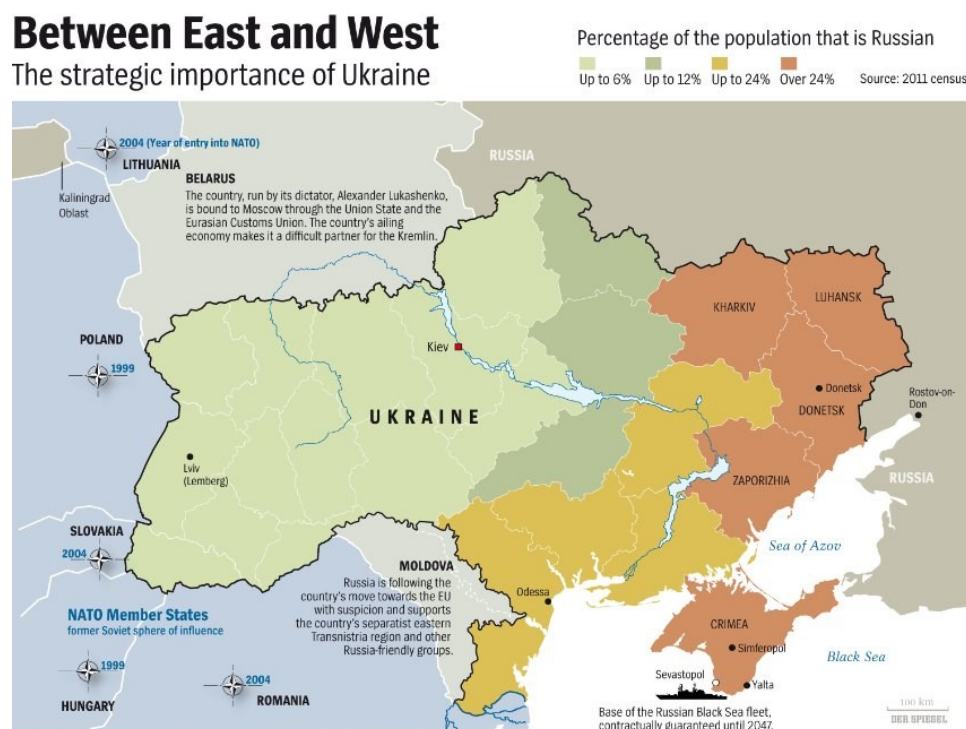
Social norms, especially the wish to support local economy with purchase decisions also have important influence on preferences. Van Ittersum (1998) assumed that the preference for local food is influenced by consumer ethnocentrism. The impact of ethnocentric and patriotic norms might also be influenced by emotional aspects. Thus, emotions like pride of and sympathy to one's region may be transferred directly to the product. Moreover, Von Alvensleben (2000) suggests that sympathy to the region leads to a positive bias in the perception of the product and its attributes. Hollebeek, Jaeger, Brodie and Balemi (2007) used purchase intention as the outcome based on price, price discount and region. It appeared that region was more important for high involvement consumers and price more important for low involvement consumers. Lockshin, Wade, d'Hauteville and Perrouty (2006) used simulated choices to measure the importance of price, region, brand, and awards. Low involvement consumers more commonly used price and awards to make their decision compared to high involvement consumers, who used region and also combined attributes in a more complex decision-making process.

Marketers can develop communication strategies to appeal to different regions. Due to considerable variations in values and lifestyles among consumers within a region, researchers have looked for ways to segment consumers on the basis of more specific characteristics, a technique called clustering. Marketers use clustering systems to find new customers, learn what customers like, develop new products, buy advertising, locate stores and target consumers through media. Consumers from the same neighbourhood tend to buy the same types of cars, homes, appliances, and other products or services, that is why retailers use clustering to identify neighbourhoods of customers that are most likely to purchase certain merchandise (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2008).

1.6 Research Setting in Ukraine

Ukraine is the biggest European country by area with the size over 233 thousand square miles and the population of over 52 million people. It is a transitional country gradually advancing on the path of political and economic reforms towards strengthening its open market economy. Ukraine is strategically located just at the crossroads of Europe, between Poland (member country of NATO and the EU), and Russia, as shown in Figure 2. Ukraine's name means a "borderland". Due to centuries of Russian colonization, Ukraine is ethnically and linguistically divided between the Russian dominated southeast and the native Ukrainian population in the northern and western parts of the country.

Figure 2. Map: Between East and West – the Strategic Importance of Ukraine



Source: P. Lawrence, *Gearing Up For War: Russia Conducts War Games On Ukraine Border As US Troops Enter Poland*, 2014.

Ukraine is a multi-ethnic, multi-language and multi-culture country, which became independent after the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991. It was composed of ethnically diverse regions, which were unified within a single state. According to the latest census, it is home to almost 130 nationalities (Gulamov, 2014). Twenty-two per cent of Ukraine's population is made up of ethnic minorities, that is why people in Ukraine may have different ideologies and attitudes regarding consumer ethnocentrism.

1.6.1 Historical and Socio-demographic Background of Ukrainian Multicultural Society

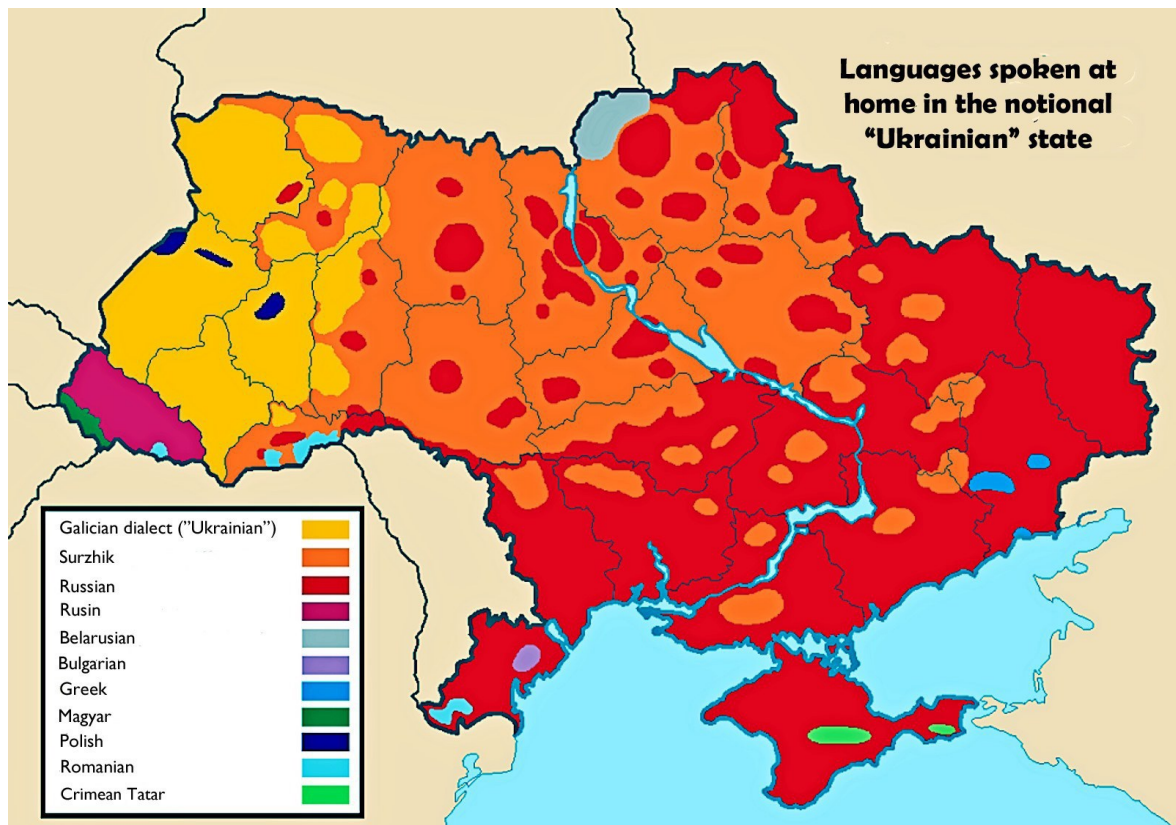
Nowadays Ukraine is a deeply divided country with two regions, Western Ukraine (Eastern Galicia) and Eastern Ukraine (Little Russia) (Urban-Klaehn, 2014). Ethnic divisions in Ukraine go back several centuries and are a result of imperial fighting between Russia, Austro-Hungary and Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth.

The ethno-linguistic map of Ukraine in Figure 3 is based on information from the Kiev National Linguistic University (2009) and the 2001 Ukrainian census data, showing Ukrainian (Galician-Polish dialectical pidgin speakers in yellow areas, the Russian-Ukrainian creole Surzhik in orange, Russian in red areas, and Rusin (spoken in Podkarpatskaya) in pink. The map also highlights the Bulgarian, Greek, Hungarian, Polish, Romanian, Crimean Tatar, and Belarusian minorities (Kalnysh, 2014).

The southern and eastern parts of the country have historically been a part of the Russian Empire and mostly populated by ethnic Russians and predominantly Russian-speaking Ukrainians. These regions have always had a very close cultural and economic relationship with Russia (Gulamov, 2014).

A quarter of Ukraine's population – about 12 million people – are Russians or identify themselves as Russian. They live mainly in the eastern part of Ukraine, the region which was industrially developed during the Soviet times, as well as in Crimea and the Black Sea coast. People from eastern industrial regions (Donetsk, Dnepropetrovsk) are characterised by either Russian or Soviet mentality. They speak Russian, feel Russian and would not mind if Ukraine would be reunited with Russia. It is important to note that 40% of Ukrainians either do not speak the Ukrainian language, or speak and understand it poorly. In regions like Crimea, Ukrainian comes in at a distant third place among spoken languages (Gulamov, 2014).

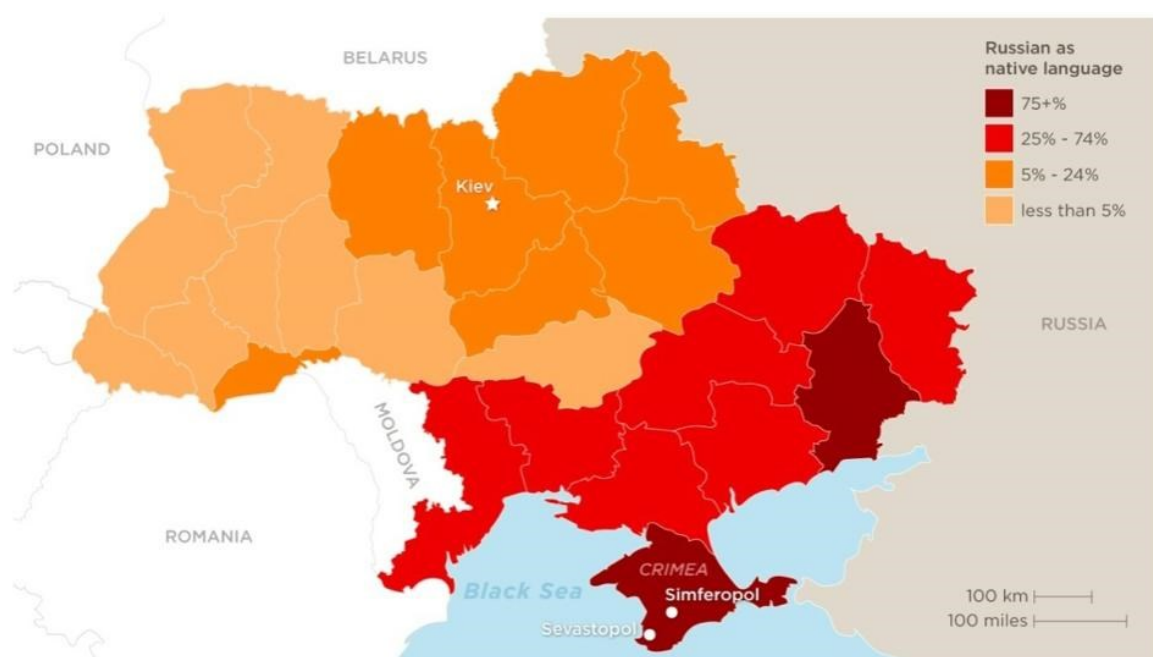
Figure 3. Ethno-linguistic map of Ukraine



Source: *Ethno-linguistic map of Ukraine*, 2014.

Ukrainian is the official language, spoken by 70% of the country's population. Russian is also spoken widely and is the mother tongue of many Ukrainians, especially in the east and in the southern region of Crimea, where ethnic Russians are in the majority. The language map in Figure 5 below shows division of Ukraine into Russian speakers in the southeast and Ukrainian speakers in the northwest. The Western Ukraine has always been the land of Ukrainian nationalism with strong pro-European feelings (Gulamov, 2014). People in the western part of Ukraine developed strong feelings of national identity as Ukrainians (Urban-Klaehn, 2014). Citizens in the northwestern Ukraine are strong supporters of Ukrainian as the only language.

Figure 4. The Language Map of Ukraine, 2001



Source: *The Language Map of Ukraine, 2001*.

The source of this map is the 2001 census. It is important to remember that, when the census was conducted, every Ukrainian was asked to identify their “mother tongue.” Around 68% of Ukrainians answered “Ukrainian” and about 30% of Ukrainians answered “Russian.” Ukrainians who identified themselves as ethnic Russians constituted only 17% of the population. At that time, 90% of the population were older than nine years of age and thus were born and raised in the Soviet Ukraine where Russian was the primary language. Ukraine only gained its independence in 1991. At the time of the census, only a kid who was nine years old or younger could have grown up in the independent Ukraine where the primary language was switched from Russian to Ukrainian. It is no wonder that almost one-third of Ukrainians consider Russian their mother tongue. The census failed to ask the individuals if they also spoke any other languages (Krasnozhon, 2014).

The majority of Ukrainians speak both Russian and Ukrainian. Most of them speak Russian at work, and use Ukrainian at home. Citizens living in urban areas primarily speak Russian and those in rural areas speak primarily Ukrainian or mixed Russian-Ukrainian. Russification was implemented heavily in urban areas during the Soviet era. It is a form of cultural assimilation process during which non-Russian communities are forced to give up their culture and language in favour of Russian. Most urban areas are located in the eastern part of Ukraine, which explains the composition of the 2001 census language map, showing these areas to be predominantly Russian speakers. These areas include Donetsk, Luhansk, and Crimea with 90%, 86%, and 63% urbanization rate. There are 38% of ethnic Russians and 75% of Russian native speakers in Donetsk province. In Luhansk province, ethnic Russians and Russian native speakers represent 39% and 69%, respectively. Crimea is home

to 58% of ethnic Russians and 77% of Russian native speakers. In Sevastopol, a Russian navy base and home to retired Russian navy officers, the choice of the mother tongue is very homogenous. The census data show that 72% of ethnic Russians and 91% of Russian native speakers live in Sevastopol. The southeastern provinces, especially their urban centres, have been Russified. Urban centres prefer Russian and rural areas choose Ukrainian as their everyday language (Krasnozhon, 2014).

Since the first day of Independence of Ukraine, the Ukrainian leaders were faced with a challenging task of building a national identity that would unite various regions with ethnically diverse populations. Because of regional, ethnic and linguistic differences, the complex and slippery nature of Ukrainian national identity has proven to be a challenge even for Ukrainian scholars. This highlights the need for more research into the nature and causes of national identity and nationalism today (Goshulak, 2002).

Ukraine is a post-totalitarian society where the role of supporting the patriotic views in the society belongs to the state. There is Galici, the region in western Ukraine, where nearly unconditional patriotism dominates, and then there is Crimea together with Donbas, where the trends are exactly the opposite. There are citizens with Ukrainian passport who pay taxes, but do not feel like being patriots of Ukraine and do not want to be one. The state has to balance these positions without imposing the patriotism of western Ukraine style as well as east Ukrainian pseudo internationalism. One of the main social functions of the state is to regulate interaction between different groups of people with opposing views to save Ukraine from contraposition (Mykoliuk, 2012).

1.6.2 Influence of Globalization on the Nature of the Economy of Ukraine

The processes of globalization that are taking place in the modern world increasingly influences the economy of Ukraine. Over the last decade countries from the eastern and central Europe have transitioned from centrally planned in to free market economies. This process of transition requires fundamental changes in the behaviour of business units, whose primary goal must be to achieve a competitive position within the marketplace. Ukrainian economy was developing from transitional economy into market economy under conditions of economic decline and great systemic changes accompanied by considerable social and economic changes. Nowadays Ukraine can be still characterised as a country with the developing character of the market (Akimova, 2000). The transformational nature of the Ukrainian economy in times of insufficient domestic investment and limited own financial resources makes it necessary to raise capital of international organizations and transnational companies. Market transformation of the Ukrainian economy is actively incorporating it into the system of international economic relations and into the globalized world economy. The loss of the significant portion of technical and production capacity, deteriorating structure of production and foreign trade, along with a weak and inefficient financial system have made

the Ukrainian economy critically dependent on the foreign market and the behaviour of strong competitors – the industrialized countries.

The current export structure reflects the existing specialization of the country's economy, which has become an agrarian appendix of the European Union and the Russian Federation. Due to poor product quality and their "obsolescence", Ukrainian producers are not able to enter international markets even despite the WTO membership (Baier & Bergstrand, 2001). This is also reflected by the changes in the geographical structure of export: the proportion of countries which agree to buy Ukrainian products of low quality at an appropriate price is increasing (Motoryn & Motoryna, 2008). In 2013, Ukraine exported 64.7 billion USD and imported 83 billion USD, resulting in a negative trade balance of 18.3 billion USD (Government of Ukraine, Ministry of Finance, 2014). Natural resources (mostly natural gas) and raw materials dominate the country's imports as well as its exports. This points to the fact that Ukrainian goods fail to conquer the highly competitive markets of Europe and America. Therefore, Ukraine remains a supplier of raw materials and semi-finished products in markets that are historically inherited from the Soviet Union (McPherson, Redfearn, & Tieslau, 2001).

Foreign multinationals (MNCs) are willing to carry out their activities in Ukraine. The main motives of MNCs entering the Ukrainian market are: the conquest of new, large, undeveloped, and often promising markets, the potential for convenient use of Ukrainian means of production, especially labour, and the desire to diversify their business activities to expand into new markets. The most attractive industries for MNC in Ukrainian economy are food processing, machinery and metalworking, finance, insurance and commercial areas. However, the following factors stand in their way: unstable and excessive adjustment, absence of permanent strategy and corresponding national plan of actions in Ukraine, imperfection of national legislation, untransparent legal system, instability of economic and political situation, high level of corruption, overload of regulator norms and complexity of the tax system, substantial tax loading, and sub-zero solvent demand of the Ukrainian consumers.

Ukraine does not set the stage for innovation and technological development, although the country's scientific and technological potential is quite highly valued in international surveys (Beck, 2002). However, the rate of growth of modern production is extremely low, and its share in total production in the economy is also low (Gonchar & Babirad-Iazunin, 2012).

There are several obstacles to the formation of trans-Ukrainian national structures: activities of transnational corporations; strong competition of existing global multinationals which are leaders in the most industries, low competitiveness of Ukrainian products, the lack of relevant scientific and technical innovation platform, which would be able to compete with the technology of foreign MNCs; relatively low level of management; high rate of shadowing of the economy, tax burden, and high levels of inflation.

Another obstacle for MNCs which are willing to do business in Ukraine is the politics of protectionism by the Ukrainian government, which declares and creates all conditions to support local producers and stimulates building new factories and domestic production. (Yurchyshyn, 2013).

Behaviour of Ukrainian consumers is influenced by socio-economic conditions, political system, level of economic development, cultural, moral and spiritual environment (Scherba, 2007). Nowadays most of the population of Ukraine lives below the poverty line, a lot of people are involved in gardening as a way to survive. The economic situation persuaded people to purchase cheap goods, mostly necessities, machinery and clothing. Thus, low quality western goods are in a favourable situation and can flood the Ukrainian market (Scherba, 2007).

2 THE EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE ROLE OF SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM IN UKRAINE

The literature review showed that the issue of consumer ethnocentrism has been widely examined. Despite the increasing internationalization and globalisation, consumer ethnocentrism remains a significant factor in international business and marketing, allowing for a better understanding of consumer behaviour. However, researchers have observed that the results are not consistent across nations and cultures (Khan & Rizvi, 2008, p. 52). Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004) showed that ethnocentric attitudes disperse across different product categories and different countries and regions. Factors, such as age, education, income, openness to foreign cultures, patriotism, conservatism, have been found to influence consumers' purchasing behavior towards foreign-made products.

The concept of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine was not widely examined by researches, that is why there is a need for extensive study of consumer ethnocentrism of the Ukrainian consumers and its antecedents. This study will be a first study of this kind applied on the territory of Ukraine. When it comes to examination of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine, it is important to add national identity, national disidentification and patriotism on the list of socio-psychological factors, which influence consumer ethnocentric attitudes of Ukrainian consumers. Moreover, demographic factors, such as regional and language differences, are also expected to play a significant role in determining consumer ethnocentric attitudes of Ukrainians.

The empirical part focuses on the concept of consumer ethnocentrism applied to the territory of Ukraine and has the following objectives:

1. To determine the level of the consumer ethnocentrism among Ukrainian consumers.

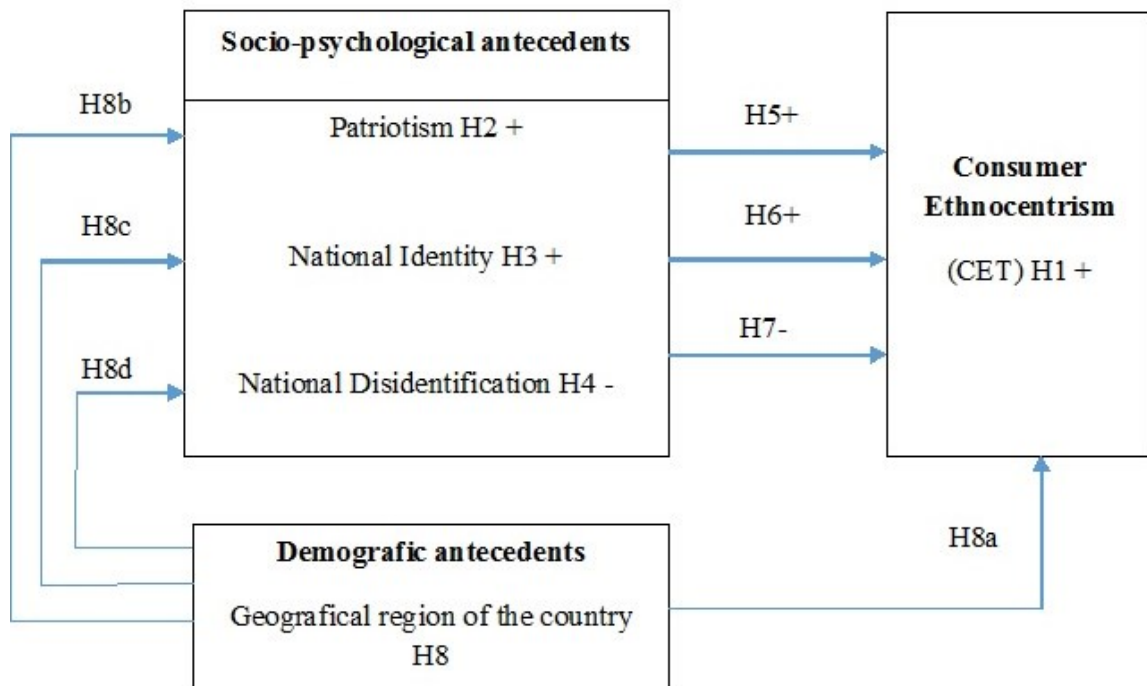
2. To determine the level of national identity, patriotism and national disidentification among Ukrainians.
3. To examine the effect of the socio-psychological factors, such as national identity, national identification and patriotism, on consumer ethnocentric attitudes of Ukrainians.
4. To empirically test whether regional differences have an impact on consumer ethnocentric tendencies in Ukraine.

Quantitative approach was chosen to formulate and test the proposed hypotheses, measure construct variables, and analyse the relationship between them. The study is based on primary data collected by means of a survey questionnaire on a consumer sample in Ukraine. The questionnaire was comprised of two parts. The first part was dedicated to consumer ethnocentrism and its socio-psychological antecedents. The second part outlines some general socio-demographic characteristics of consumers, such as gender, age, marital status, education, and household size. The respondents were asked to express their degree of agreement or disagreement with statements, measured by the seven-point Likert scale. The collected data were subjected to quantitative data analyses with the help of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). On the basis of constructs measured in a questionnaire, the set of hypotheses, derived from the literature review in Chapter 1, will be tested.

2.1 Conceptual Model and Research Hypotheses

Based on the provided literature background, the conceptual model of the study and the hypotheses were developed. The proposed model is based on the conceptual model on the antecedents and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism from Shankarmahesh (2006), outlined in Appendix E. The proposed model was adapted to the research setting of Ukraine, excluding the variables that are not relevant for this study. It focuses on investigation of relationship between socio-psychological factors and consumer ethnocentrism, adding two further factors, i.e. national identity and national disidentification to the list of socio-psychological antecedents. Moreover, it complements the mentioned model by adding geographical region of the country to the set of demographic antecedents to investigate its impact of the consumer ethnocentric attitudes. The conceptual model for this study is presented in Figure 5. and graphically presents a summary overview of all hypotheses tested in this research.

Figure 5. Conceptual model and research hypotheses



Following the literature overview and the presented conceptual model, the hypotheses were developed. Hypotheses, tested in this empirical study, may be divided into three sets. The first set of hypotheses includes hypotheses related to overall assumption about the level of consumer ethnocentrism, patriotism, national identity and national disidentification in Ukraine (H1-H4). The second set of hypotheses is concerned with the relation of socio-psychological factors to consumer ethnocentrism (H5-H7). The third set of hypotheses delves into the question of variation of consumer ethnocentrism and the researched socio-psychological factors by regions (H8 a-d). The list of hypotheses tested in this study is presented below.

- H1: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a high level of consumer ethnocentrism.
- H2: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit strong patriotism.
- H3: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a strong national identity.
- H4: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a low level of national disidentification.
- H5: Patriotism is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine.
- H6: National identity is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine.
- H7: National disidentification is negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine.
- H8: We expect that socio-psychological factors will vary across regions in Ukraine.

- H8a: We expect that the level of consumer ethnocentrism will vary across regions in Ukraine.
- H8b: We expect that the level of national identity will vary across regions in Ukraine.
- H8c: We expect that the level of patriotism will vary across regions in Ukraine.
- H8d: We expect that the level of national disidentification will vary across regions in Ukraine.

In the post-soviet countries, the consumer values and attitudes, including consumer ethnocentrism, were inevitably shaped by factors like centrally planned economy, import restrictions and lack of international competition, limited advertising and sales promotion techniques of the past (Reardon, Miller, Vida, & Kim, 2005; Kreckova, Odehnalova & Reardon, 2012), as well as recent liberalization of economies and integration into the European Union. The results of the studies on the effect of product's country of origin and manifestation of ethnocentrism in transitional economies are controversial. Kreckova, Odehnalova and Reardon (2012) stated in their research that after 1998, when "the iron curtain" fell, consumers felt great passion for foreign-made products. In the post-communist countries consumers queued up to purchase foreign-made products because most of the products that had been in deficit in the centrally planned economy became available (Huddleston, Good, & Stoel, 2000). Unusual campaigns of advertising the foreign products induced the demand for foreign-made products, while the local companies did not use the above mentioned promotions. When local producers have learnt how to compete with foreign-made products, the post-communist consumer again returned back to domestic products (Kreckova, Odehnalova, & Reardon, 2012).

As there was little research dedicated to examination of consumer ethnocentric tendencies in Ukraine, in developing the hypotheses I applied data from researches conducted in neighbouring countries with transitional economy and common tendencies or other post-soviet countries, which possess economical, historical and/or cultural similarities.

Kipnis, Kubacki, Broderick, Siemieniako and Pisarenko (2012) suggest that consumers in Kazakhstan, Poland and Ukraine prefer imported products that are viewed as incorporating the image of their societies. Puzakova, Kwak and Andras (2010) demonstrate that the impact of Russian consumer ethnocentrism on the frequency of buying imported products is diminished by consumers' exposure to mass communication. In Lithuania's market, consumer ethnocentrism is below average (Šmaižienė & Vaitkienė, 2014, p. 96). The stronger the consumer ethnocentrism, the more factors the consumers are prone to name as very important and important in making decisions on the purchase of products. The findings of the research performed in Lithuania's market of dietary supplements indicate that the higher the level of consumer ethnocentrism, the better the consumers' opinion about the quality of dietary supplements produced in Lithuania. The stronger the consumer ethnocentric approach, the worse the attitude towards the quality of the dietary supplements produced in Germany, Switzerland, the USA and Great Britain (Šmaižienė & Vaitkienė,

2014, p. 96). Elżbieta Wolanin-Jarosz (2013) conducted research among Polish, Hungarian, and Ukrainian respondents from December 2011 to April 2012 and established a high level of consumer ethnocentrism in the researched communities. Direct interviews were conducted in three towns which belong to Karpacki Euroregion: Rzeszów (Poland), Debrecen (Hungary) and Iwano-Frankowsk (Ukraine). The survey indicated that Ukrainians from Western Ukraine, in their marketing choices, showed the highest ethnocentric tendencies. This statement is true for the Western Ukraine, whereas there were no researches that can claim the same for the whole Ukrainian population. Based on these findings, we hypothesize for the whole Ukraine:

H1: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a high level of consumer ethnocentrism.

Patriotism is a concept filled with positive feelings towards one's country. In other words, patriotism is the degree of love for and pride in one's nation and the degree of attachment to the nation. (Mykoliuk, 2012). According to the research conducted by Research & Branding Group in summer of 2011, 76 per cent of the Ukrainian citizens considered themselves to be patriots of Ukraine. In addition, 72 per cent were proud to be citizens of Ukraine and every other Ukrainian (52 per cent) was willing to protect their country if there would be such a need. The vast majority of respondents – 93 per cent considered Ukraine as their homeland (Mykoliuk, 2012). In general, the level of Ukrainian political patriotism can be defined as growing. According to the results of the annual national surveys conducted since 1994, the number of people, who spoke in support of Ukraine's independence remained at the level of 60 to 65 per cent, while those against it comprised 15 to 20 per cent. In the concept of "National Target Social Program for Patriotic Education of the Population in 2013–2017" it was stated that there was a need to increase the level of patriotism in Ukraine. There were certain fluctuations observed. During the Orange Revolution in 2004 the level of patriotism significantly increased, but as the government showed its inability to properly govern the country, it decreased considerably. The highest level of patriotism was observed in late 2004, in early 2005 and in 2012 (Mykoliuk, 2012). By winter 2014 more than half of Ukraine's population desired a tight alliance with Russia, but the situation changed since the Revolution of Dignity in December 2014 (Kuzmychova, 2015). Patriotism has become the driving force of Maidan, the authority's independent land in central Kiev. These protests were marked by chanting "Glory to Ukraine" and the national anthem "Ukraine has not yet Perished".

According to a sociological survey, 86% of Ukrainians at that time considered themselves patriots and wished for a membership in the European Union. After Russia's annexation of Crimea and its aggression in east Ukraine, many Ukrainians experienced a feeling of solidarity. Patriotism reverberated across Ukraine following Russia's annexation of Crimea, invasion of Donbas and its forced submission of the country, taking away its hopes of liberty and democracy.

Figure 6. Kyiv's Maidan Nezalezhnosti, or Independence Square, in early December 2013



Source: F. Najibullah, *A rally on Kyiv's Maidan Nezalezhnosti, or Independence Square, in early December 2013*, 2014.

Modern Ukrainian patriotism is represented by the Heaven's Hundred, Ukrainian heroes who were shot down by the police. The people of Ukraine showed their love and devotion to their country. Aside from the popular Ukrainian patriotism, there is also a false national sentiment embodied by the modern Ukrainian authority. Since the events in Maidan, values of responsibility, will and national solidarity hold an increasingly important place in each Ukrainian's heart (Kuzmychova, 2015). Thus, based on the events described above, the following hypothesis is derived:

H2: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit strong patriotism.

National identity, as an important aspect of an entire social identity, involves some sense of political community which again implies a definite social space, a fairly well demarcated and bounded territory (Smith, 1991). National identity is accompanied not only by a shared understanding of what that nation presents, but also by the feeling of pride with positive characteristics of the country (Quin, 2011). When analysing the problems of national identity in Ukraine, one must be aware that the process of formation of the Ukrainian nation at the end of XX–beginning of XXI century, during globalization, integration and an infinite number of global challenges is much more complex than that of most European nations, which have gone through the establishment of their identities in the eighteenth or nineteenth century. Definition of national identity was also complicated by the fact that the Ukrainian ethnic lands have been governed by different foreign government entities: Poland, Hungary, Romania, Austro-Hungarian, The Russian Empire, and later the Soviet Union.

The fact that the Soviet Union was a multinational state project, containing over a hundred different nationalities, suggests that national identity could not simply be ignored by leaders of the Soviet Union. Issues of national identity and the relationship between nationalism and the post-Soviet states, such as Ukraine, all remain essential aspects affecting the post-Soviet state building projects today. The post-Soviet states reveal that, even in the era of globalization, nationalism has retained its importance as a dynamic force in the world of nation-states. Ukrainian nationalism provides a bountiful source of empirical research into identity and state building today. Because of regional, ethnic, and linguistic differences, in addition to a separatist movement in Crimea, the stability and viability of the Ukrainian state during the last decade was questioned by many observers. For the emerging social and political movements within Ukraine, the environment, national identity, autonomy (both economic and political), and eventually independence began to emerge as a means of protest against Moscow. The complex nature of Ukrainian nationalism and national identity have proven to be a challenge for Ukrainian scholars. The Ukrainian case is also interesting because the role of national identity has proved to be a controversial issue in the post-Soviet scholarship. This highlights the need for more research into the nature and causes of national identity and nationalism today (Goshulak, 2002). In conditions of the relatively recent independence and transitional Ukrainian economy, national identity of Ukrainian society can be assumed to be in the stages of formation (Goshulak, 2002). The systematic crisis of national identity, economic disintegration, social differentiation of society, and devaluation of moral values, are acute problems of modern Ukraine (Mykoliuk, 2012).

Nowadays attempts are made to create a new national identity in Ukraine. The "Orange revolution" which took place in Ukraine in late 2004 to early 2005 demonstrated the important moment of spiritual self-determination and political formation of Ukrainian national identity, and gave people a sense of unity (Kozlovets, 2009). Since this event, the national identity in Ukraine has been getting stronger, so taking into consideration the above stated facts, we hypothesize that:

H3: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a strong national identity.

The term consumer disidentification is used to describe consumers' repulsion toward their domestic country which results in the negative home-country bias. Consumers with high levels of consumer disidentification perceive themselves as different from the majority group and find it difficult to identify with the typical domestic consumer Josiassen's (2011). Although the majority of Ukrainian population have patriotic or neutral views, there are citizens who have a Ukrainian passport, pay taxes, but do not feel like being patriots of Ukraine and do not want to be them. Moreover, it is estimated, that the approximate number of people, who genuinely hate everything Ukrainian, was 7 to 8 per cent in 2011 (Mykoliuk, 2012). Based on the assumption that Ukrainians exhibit strong national identity, we suggest the opposite to the phenomena of disidentification and state the next hypothesis:

H4: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a low level of national disidentification.

The issues of nationalism, patriotism and internationalism have been researched mostly in political science, and have been considered antecedents to ethnocentrism and consumer ethnocentric tendencies. In 1995, Sharma et al. found a relationship and showed a positive correlation between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism. A linkage between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism was also established in research by Balabanis et al. (2001) and Albarq and Mat (2007). The results of the study in Polish market conducted by Nowak (2011) showed positive correlation between ethnocentric tendencies and collectivist tendencies, patriotic and conservative attitudes towards domestic goods. Previous studies have discovered that through consumers' patriotism, people more favourably evaluate their own country's products than foreign consumers do (Nagashima, 1970; Han, 1988). These findings lead to the following hypothesis:

H5: Patriotism is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine.

Ethnocentrism is included in the national identity framework (Keillor & Hult, 1999) and national pride, and as a crucial aspect of national identity, it is closely linked to consumer ethnocentrism (De Mooij, 2010). The concept of consumer ethnocentrism reflects consumer feelings, attitudes and behavior towards domestic products as subjects of pride and identity (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Among the possible sources of consumer ethnocentric tendencies, national identity appears to be of great interest in the times of transition. Some of the recent empirical studies have found a positive relation between national identity and consumer ethnocentrism in the West Balkans (Dmitrović, Vida, & Reardon, 2009; and in Bosnia and Herzegovina (Vida, Dmitrović, & Obadia, 2008). It was also found that national identity is a significant predictor of consumer ethnocentrism (Vida et al., 2008). Consequently, it is reasonable to expect that national identity will affect consumer ethnocentrism also in Ukraine. Based on these findings, the next hypothesis can be derived is:

H6: National identity is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine.

As national identity is considered to be a controversial issue in Ukraine, it is important to also research the construct of consumer disidentification. It is suggested that people with high levels of consumer disidentification avoid domestic products because they want to disidentify themselves from the typical domestic consumer (Josiassen, 2011). In his article Josiassen (2011) used consumer disidentification to represent consumers' active rejection of and distancing from the perceived typical domestic consumer. Research made by Szcześniak (2015) provided a test of the consumer disidentification construct in the setting of a European multi-national, post-communist and post-war state, Bosnia and Herzegovina and demonstrated that consumer disidentification affected buying decisions to a much greater extent than consumer ethnocentrism. Ukrainian society could also be characterized as multi-

national, post-communist, with European mentality. Thus, according to this fact, we hypothesize:

H7: National disidentification is negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine.

Because of the long-standing regional variation in Ukraine, region cannot be neglected as a factor in this research to find out if citizens from the northwestern region and the southeastern region of Ukraine express different consumer ethnocentric attitudes. In my research I will try to determine whether Ukrainians vary regionally in questions of national identity, national disidentification, and patriotism in connection to consumer ethnocentrism. In particular, I will investigate whether there are differences in ideology and attitudes between citizens of the northwestern region and citizens of the southeastern region of Ukraine. Thus, based on this statement we hypothesize:

H8: We expect that socio-psychological factors will vary across regions in Ukraine.

Consumer research has found that the general level of consumer ethnocentrism varies across geographic areas, with economically depressed areas displaying a higher level of consumer ethnocentrism (Imber, 2009). Based on that we can expect that the respondents from western region, which is economically less developed than the eastern region of Ukraine, might express higher consumer ethnocentric attitudes than the respondents from the east part of Ukraine. As it is confirmed by various studies, consumers' ethnocentric tendencies vary across cultures, so we can expect different customer ethnocentric attitudes because of different ethnicities in the two regions. Therefore, we propose the next hypothesis:

H8 a: We expect that the level of consumer ethnocentrism will vary across regions in Ukraine.

The level of traditional Ukrainian patriotism (concern about native country, commitment to the Ukrainian language and Ukrainian historical values that are, as a rule, opposed to Russian) is the highest in western Ukraine (Mykoliuk, 2012). Based on these statements the next proposed hypothesis is:

H8 b: We expect that the level of patriotism will vary across regions in Ukraine.

People in the western part of Ukraine developed strong feelings of national identity as Ukrainians (Urban-Klaehn, 2014). In the Crimea along with Donbas the trends are exactly the opposite. The southern and eastern parts of the country historically have been a part of the Russian Empire and mostly populated with ethnic Russians and predominantly Russian-speaking Ukrainians. These regions have always had a very close cultural and economic relationship with Russia and could be characterised with a Russian mentality (Gulamov,

2014). Based on such differences in cultures between regions the next proposed hypothesis is:

H8 c: We expect that the level of national identity will vary across regions in Ukraine.

Due to the historical dominance of Russia, almost one third of Ukrainians consider Russian as their mother tongue, predominantly in the southeastern part of Ukraine. This fact may influence the decision of respondents regarding how they identify themselves with the nation. As there are major native language differences across regions, we also predict certain differences in the level of national disidentification. Based on this we propose the next hypothesis:

H8 d: We expect that the level of national disidentification will vary across regions in Ukraine.

All of these hypotheses address some of the basic research questions in this area and determine the importance of researching the concept of ethnocentrism in Ukraine in relation to the indicated socio-psychological factors.

2.2 Research Methodology

This part of the thesis is focused on describing the research methodology, defining the constructs in the conceptual model in Figure 6, as well as explaining the process of the questionnaire design and data collection. For the purpose of the present research, survey was chosen as the research methodology of the study. In order to collect the required data, a questionnaire was composed of two basic parts.

2.2.1 Operationalization of Variables

The literature overview presented in the previous section serves as a solid basis for investigating the concept of consumer ethnocentrism in the territory of Ukraine. As mentioned above, the study is based on a questionnaire composed of two parts. The first part of the questionnaire comprises statements measuring the level of consumer ethnocentrism and its antecedents (patriotism, national identity and national disidentification). The questions in this section refer to Ukraine, its economy and feelings toward the country. The constructs of the variables in the questionnaire are represented with statements measured on a seven-point Likert scale, where the respondents have to evaluate them on a scale from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 7 = “strongly agree”. The second part outlines several general socio-demographic characteristics of consumers, such as gender, age, marital status, education, household size, and income.

The consumer ethnocentrism (CET) is measured by the CETSCALE, a scale for measuring the general ethnocentric tendencies of consumers. Having in mind that the original scale developed by Sharma and Shimp (1987) comprises 17 items, the scale is modified, so that it includes only 4 items taken from the original CETSCALE and adapted to the Ukrainian context. Table 2 presents the operationalization of the construct of consumer ethnocentrism, along with its measurement items, labels and the sources for adaptation.

Table 2. Operationalization of the Constructs of Consumer Ethnocentrism

ITEM	LABEL	ADAPTED FROM
Consumer ethnocentrism		
We, Ukrainians, should not let other countries get rich off us.	CET1	The original 17-item CETSCALE by Sharma & Shimp (1987)
Ukrainians, who buy mainly foreign-made products, hurt the Ukrainian economy and cause unemployment.	CET2	
It may cost me more in the long run but I prefer to buy products made in Ukraine.	CET3	
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within Ukraine.	CET4	

To measure patriotism (PAT) and national identity (NAT), the Patriotism and Nationalism Scale developed by Kosterman and Feshbach's (1989) was used (Anastasiadou, 2014, pp. 402–406). The original scale, the instrument of Patriotism and Nationalism, a 12-item scale to evaluate levels of patriotism, was adapted to the Ukrainian context and includes 4 items for the construct of Patriotism and 5 items for the construct of National Identity, taken from the original scale. Table 3 summarizes the operationalization of the two constructs.

Table 3. Operationalization of the Constructs of Patriotism and National Identity

ITEM	LABEL	ADAPTED FROM
Patriotism		
Ukraine may not be perfect, but the quality of life here is high.	PAT1	Patriotism and Nationalism Scale developed by Kosterman and Feshbach's (1989)
I love my country.	PAT2	
I am proud of my country.	PAT3	
Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to Ukraine remains strong.	PAT4	
National Identity		
To be a Ukrainian means a lot to me.	NID1	Patriotism and Nationalism Scale developed by Kosterman & Feshbach's (1989)
I see myself as a typical Ukrainian.	NID2	
The term "Ukrainian" describes me well.	NID3	
When talking about Ukrainians I say "we" instead of "they".	NID4	
The fact that I am a Ukrainian is an important part of my identity.	NID5	

National disidentification (NID) is adapted and operationalized from Josiassen, 2011, taken from Verkuyten & Yildiz (2007). Consumer disidentification predicts that consumer's repulsion from their home country negatively affects the purchase of products made in their home country or by domestic firms (Josiassen, 2011). The degree to which a consumer

actively rejects the perceived domestic consumer culture and distances him/herself from it is measured in the original scale of six seven-point Likert-type items. For the purpose of this study the original scale was shortened to four items being adapted to the research setting of Ukraine. Table 4 summarizes the operationalization of the construct of National Disidentification.

Table 4. Operationalization of the Constructs of National Disidentification

ITEM	LABEL	ADAPTED FROM
National Disidentification		
I certainly do not want others to see me as a typical Ukrainian.	DIS1	Josiassen, J.M., 2011, taken from Verkuyten & Yildiz (2007)
I often have the tendency to distance myself from other Ukrainians.	DIS2	
When I am in a foreign environment, I do not want to have much to do with other Ukrainians.	DIS3	
I never feel addressed when others are saying something about Ukraine and the Ukrainians.	DIS4	

In the second part of the questionnaire the respondents provided some demographic characteristics about themselves. They were asked about their gender (Gender), year of birth, transformed into age groups (Age – Group), nationality (Nationality), level of education (Education) and work status (Work). Respondents also had to provide their place (Residence) and region of residence (Region) and the number of family members (Household). There was also a question regarding income (Income).

2.2.2 Questionnaire Design and Data Collection

To attain the objectives of the present study, collect the right data and test the hypotheses, a questionnaire with all the needed constructs was developed in the middle of 2013. The questionnaire is composed of two parts, reflecting the study assumption about consumer ethnocentrism being the focal construct. As already mentioned, the first part is dedicated to the consumer ethnocentrism and constructs related to it. It consists of the adapted CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma, 1987), measuring consumers' ethnocentricity level among respondents, scales for measuring patriotism, national identity and national disidentification.

Since the questionnaire was originally developed in English and the research was done in Ukraine, the questionnaire was translated into Ukrainian languages, since the majority of Ukrainian population has poor knowledge of English. Since the population of the southeastern and central Ukraine is predominantly Russian speaking, the questionnaire was also translated to Russian, to offer the choice to people with a different native language. To ensure the correct translation and understanding of the constructs, the back translation from Ukrainian and Russian to English was also done.

Having translated and constructed the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted on a group of five respondents, before the actual research started. Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire, and report if there was any difficulty in understanding or answering the questions. The pilot survey showed that the meaning of some questions was not clear to the respondents, so it was necessary to improve the language to make it easier and more understandable to the general public. Final versions of the questionnaire used in the research can be seen in Appendix B (English version), Appendix C (Ukrainian version), and Appendix D (Russian version of the questionnaire).

In order to reach a sample of at least 200 respondents from Ukraine, two approaches were used – a survey among Ukrainian tourists in Slovenia and a survey among family, friends and other known people in my hometown in Ukraine. Firstly, questionnaires were distributed to Ukrainian tourists, who were travelling by bus from Ukraine to Italy and crossing Slovenia with a stay in a hotel for a night. The survey was accompanied with a message asking each addressee, if they would be willing to participate in a 20-minute questionnaire, which dealt with questions concerning their attitude to Ukraine, its economy and their feelings toward their country. Before giving the questionnaire to the respondents, they were informed about the time needed for completion of the survey, and that the survey was voluntary and anonymous. The completion of the questionnaire took 20 minutes on average. Every participant took part in the questionnaire survey by choice and without a monetary incentive. The leader of the travel group made introduction and explained the purpose of the survey and then distributed the printed questionnaires to the tourists on the bus. Tourist had a chance to fill in the questionnaire during the 3 days of travelling across Europe and return the completed questionnaires on the way back home at the hotel. The return rate from the tourists in the bus groups sample was over 80%. Collecting filled out questionnaires from tourists turned out to be quite difficult and time consuming, as the groups were not too frequent and the number of 160 participants was first reached after 4 months in November 2013. Only 14 participants of the survey from western Ukraine chose the questionnaire in the Ukrainian language.

After that the research was continued in the field; additional survey was done among Ukrainians in Central Ukraine, in my hometown Dnepropetrovsk. Questionnaires were distributed to friends, family members and colleagues with different socio-demographic characteristics. In this way additional 58 questionnaires were collected. A total number of relevant questionnaires was 213.

Questionnaires were distributed to Ukrainians of different age, social status and from different regions. By spreading the questionnaire in printed form to different people, it was not possible to exactly predict how well the sample was going to be built, that is why a non-probability sampling technique was chosen. The process of data collection continued from August 2013 to December 2013 until the required sample size of minimum 200 respondents was reached (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2003).

3 DATA ANALYSIS

This part of the thesis is focused on the actual research conducted in Ukraine and on the results obtained from the survey. The quantitative approach was used to develop this study and to formulate the variables. To test the hypotheses, data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program (SPSS). Some new variables (indices) were produced from the gathered data, such as the cumulated national identity index, cumulated patriotism index, cumulated national disidentification index and cumulated consumer ethnocentrism index, which helped to define relationships among different variables (Saunders et al., 2009). Statistical methods such as factor analysis, correlation and t-test analysis were used. In this chapter I present the characteristics of the sample and statistical analysis of the obtained data, followed by hypotheses testing and explanations.

3.1 Characteristics of the Sample

Primary data were collected in the period between August and November 2013. Our final sample consists of 212 usable questionnaires. Before going into further analysis, it is necessary to understand the characteristics of the respondents. The purpose of this section is to take a closer look at the respondents who provided information for this study. The demographic profile of the respondents is represented by their gender, age, nationality, education, employment status, place and region of residence, number of household members and income. Table 5 provides a summary of the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

In terms of gender, the survey included more females (76 %) than males (24 %). The next characteristic, age (AGE), was obtained based on the respondents' year of birth, and classified into six groups in order to show age distribution. With regards to the age variable, we divided the respondents into 6 groups: 15–24, 25–34, 35–44, 45–54, 55–64, and above 65 years of age. The respondents were rather evenly distributed through all age groups, with slightly larger number of respondents who are younger than 24 (25%) and older respondents (above 55 years old) – 33%. The average age of respondents was 41.81 years, with standard deviation ± 16.62 years.

When it comes to education, the results indicated a larger number of respondents with high education level – over 95% of the respondents spent more than 12 years in schools. The level of education is examined by five different categories ((1) elementary school or less, (2) 3- or 4-year vocational school, (3) secondary school, (4) junior college, and (5) university degree or more). Most of the respondents (82.6%) have university degrees or more, followed by those with secondary school or junior college degrees (17%). Only two of the respondents have only finished elementary school or less (less than 1% of the respondents). Employment status data shows that the majority (47.8%) of the respondents are employed in non-

management positions, 1.5% are unemployed, 20% are retired, 14% are students, 10.3% are self-employed, and 1.5% work in a household or on a farm.

Table 5. Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Demographic characteristics	Groups	Frequency	Relative frequency (%)
Age	15–24 years old	50	24
	25–34 years old	37	17
	35–44 years old	21	10
	45–54 years old	36	17
	55–64 years old	52	25
	above 65 years old	16	8
Gender	Female	162	76
	Male	50	24
Education	Elementary school or less	1	0
	3- or 4-year vocational school	1	0
	Secondary school	8	4
	Junior college	28	13
	University education or more	174	62
Employment status	Work in household or on farm	3	1
	Self-employed	23	11
	Employed – management position	32	15
	Employed – non-management position	73	34
	Unemployed	3	1
	Retired	43	20
	Student	36	17
Household	1 person	18	8
	2 people	65	31
	3 people	54	25
	4 people	52	25
	5 people	16	8
	6 and more	7	3
Income	Above average	47	22
	Below average	32	15
	Average	133	63
Place of residence	City (above 100,000 inhabitants)	162	77
	Town (from 10,000 to 100,000 inhabitants)	42	20
	Settlement (up to 10,000 inhabitants)	8	4
Region	Southeastern region	132	62
	Northwestern region	80	38

The majority of the respondents (84.5%) are Ukrainians by nationality, with 33 respondents being of other nationalities (15.5%). With regard to the place of residence, most of the respondents live in cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants (77%), some of the respondents live in towns (20%), and only 8 respondents (4%) live in villages or small towns with less than 10,000 inhabitants. A big percentage of respondents (62%) live in the southeastern part

of Ukraine, with 30% of them living in the Dnieper region. The number of respondents from northwestern part of Ukraine is significantly lower (38%).

The questionnaire also collected data on the number of members in a household and on the household's monthly income compared to the Ukrainian average. Most of the respondents live in households of two (31%), three (25%) or four (25%). The majority of them have an average income (61.5%), and 22 % estimate their income as being above average, and 14% estimate their income as being below average.

3.2 Statistical Analysis

This section presents the statistical analysis of the studied constructs. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to measure and structure variables into constructs. SPSS was used to perform the exploratory factor analysis for each construct, to specifically identify possible commonalities and to extract factors from the data. The reliability and validity of the measured scales and descriptive statistics of each of the constructs provide basis for the actual hypotheses testing. The last part is dedicated to descriptive statistics where we outline the mean values of scale items.

3.2.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is a generally used method for assessing the underlying structure among all variables used in the analysis, and is therefore a standard procedure for constructing a questionnaire to measure underlying variables. Generally, data reduction in exploratory factor analysis is achieved by looking for variables that correlate highly with a group of other variables, but do not correlate with variables outside of that group (Field, 2012). In our analysis, the factor analysis was conducted on 17 variables, which compose 4 constructs in the questionnaire.

The Kaiser-Meier-Olkin (KMO) coefficient was 0.85. The value of this coefficient ranges between 0 and 1. The KMO can be calculated for individual and multiple variables and indicates diffusion in the pattern of correlations between all variables in the model. It therefore represents an important indicator whether the factor analysis is the appropriate method for the collected data. When its value is close to 0.00, the correlation between variables is very diffused and the factor analysis is inappropriate. A value close to 1.00 indicates that the pattern of correlations is relatively compact and that factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable factors. The value greater than 0.50 is barely acceptable for conducting factor analysis, values between 0.50 and 0.70 are moderate, values between 0.70 and 0.80 are good and values above 0.90 are superb (Field, 2012). In our data analysis, the Kaiser-Meier-Olkin coefficient was high and therefore the factor analysis is a useful method for determining the underlying structure of the used questionnaire.

Furthermore, the approximate value of chi square in Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant at 0.001 ($\chi^2(136) = 1622.76, p < 0.001$). When Bartlett's test is significant, it means that the correlations between variables are significantly different from zero (Field, 2012). The data set of correlations is appropriate for conducting factor analysis.

As Table 6 shows, the factor analysis revealed that there were four components with eigenvalue greater than 1. These components accounted for 62.69% of the total variance. The eigenvalues associated with each factor represent the amount of variance explained by that particular linear component. The first few components (factors) explain relatively large amounts of variance, especially the first component, whereas every next component explains a lesser amount of variance. The hierarchical organization of component loadings is a general characteristic of factor analysis (Field, 2012). Our first component therefore accounted for nearly 34% of total variance, and the next three components accounted for 12%, 9% and 7% (components 2, 3 and 4, respectively). The correlation matrix of components is presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Exploratory factor analysis

Component	Initial eigenvalues			Extraction sums of squared loadings			Rotation sums of squared loadings ^a
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	5.770	33.942	33.942	5.770	33.942	33.942	4.965
2	2.103	12.372	46.314	2.103	12.372	46.314	2.323
3	1.602	9.423	55.736	1.602	9.423	55.736	3.081
4	1.182	6.954	62.691	1.182	6.954	62.691	3.061
5	1.850	5.003	67.693				
6	1.803	4.724	72.418				
7	1.752	4.425	76.843				
8	1.681	4.007	80.850				
9	1.653	3.841	84.691				
10	1.529	3.114	87.806				
11	1.471	2.773	90.578				
12	1.389	2.288	92.866				
13	1.326	1.919	94.785				
14	1.277	1.632	96.417				
15	1.248	1.457	97.874				
16	1.191	1.124	98.998				
17	1.170	1.002	100.000				

According to the statistical guidelines (Field, 2012), at the beginning we requested factor analysis with oblimax rotation. The rotation is a group of methods used to further analyse initial factor analysis results with the goal of making the pattern of loadings clearer. Rotated structure is therefore easier for interpreting single components. There are two different rotations. The oblique rotation is used when components are depended or correlated, whereas

the components must be completely independent for conducting the orthogonal rotation. The factor correlation matrix is a useful indicator when deciding which rotation method is appropriate. If correlations between components exceed 0.30, oblique rotation should be used due to the inter-dependency of components. Table 7 presents the correlations of our four components.

According to Table 7, the four components were inter-correlated. Many correlations were above 0.30, and therefore oblique rotation was suggested. In the table below (Table 7), we present the main rotated structure of the four components.

Table 7. Correlations between four components, conducted with Oblimin rotation method

Component	1	2	3	4
1	1.000	.184	-.356	.381
2	.184	1.000	-.005	.161
3	-.356	-.005	1.000	-.124
4	.381	.161	-.124	1.000

Table 8 shows factor loadings for consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, patriotism and national disidentification. The 17 variables were grouped in four different components. For all of these constructs, factor loadings were sufficiently high and loaded well onto a single factor. Components consisted of the same variables as predicted in the questionnaire. Therefore, we suggest that our questionnaire provided valid and reliable results.

Table 8. Factor loading and reliability for researched constructs (factors)

CONSTRUCT (FACTOR)	ITEM	FACTOR LOADING	CRONBACH'S ALPHA
CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM (CET)	CET1: We should not let other countries get rich off us.	0.676	0.661
	CET2: Buying foreign products hurts Ukrainian economy.	0.716	
	CET3: I prefer to buy Ukrainian products.	0.671	
	CET4: Only buying foreign when products cannot be obtained in Ukraine.	0.725	
NATIONAL IDENTITY (NID)	NID1: To be a Ukraine means a lot to me.	0.833	0.908
	NID2: I see myself as a typical Ukrainian.	0.835	
	NID3: The term "Ukrainian" describes me well.	0.898	
	NID4: When talking about Ukrainians I say "we" instead of "they".	0.722	
	NID5: Ukraine is an important part of my identity.	0.850	

table continues

Table 8. Factor loading and reliability for researched constructs (factors) (con.)

CONSTRUCT (FACTOR)	ITEM	FACTOR LOADING	CRONBACH'S ALPHA
PATRIOTISM (PAT)	PAT1: The quality of life in Ukraine is high.	0.680	0.768
	PAT2: I love my country.	0.573	
	PAT3: I am proud of my country.	0.779	
	PAT4: Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to Ukraine remains strong.	0.551	
NATIONAL DISIDENTIFICATION (DIS)	DIS1: I do not want others to see me as a typical Ukrainian.	0.630	0.725
	DIS2: I have a tendency to distance myself from other Ukrainians.	0.815	
	DIS3: In foreign environment I do not want to have much to do with Ukrainians.	0.772	
	DIS4: I never feel addressed when others are saying something about Ukraine.	0.727	

3.2.2 Reliability and Validity of the Measurement Scale

Our next step in analysing the data was to examine the reliability and validity of each construct measured. Reliability is one of the most important characteristics of a questionnaire, besides its objectivity and validity. Validity means that an instrument actually measures what it sets out to measure. Validity is a necessary but not sufficient condition for a measurement. The second consideration is reliability, which is the ability of the measure to produce the same results under the same conditions. To be valid the instrument must first be reliable (Field, 2012). The concepts measured in our study were mainly taken from international literature, where their reliability and validity have been widely confirmed by several studies.

Reliability means that a questionnaire consistently reflects the construct that it is measuring. One form of reliability is internal consistency, which applies to the consistency among the variables in a summated scale. There are some simple statistical methods (for example, test-retest methods, split-half reliability or Cronbach alpha coefficient) that bring out whether the used questionnaire is internally reliable enough to provide a good measurement of research constructs (Field, 2012).

Cronbach's alpha is the most common measure of scale reliability. It reflects the average correlation, and is obtained by splitting data in two in every possible way and computing correlation for each split. In our study, Cronbach's alpha was the most appropriate method for estimating the reliability of our questionnaire. Because Cronbach's alpha is actually the measure of a construct's unidimensionality, it was, to determine the internal consistency and reliability of the scales, calculated for each construct (consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, national disidentification and patriotism) separately.

According to various statistical guidelines, the value of Cronbach's alpha above 0.80 indicates a reliable scale. Furthermore, when dealing with socio-psychological constructs, values around 0.70 are also accepted due to the diversity of constructs measured. When exploratory research is conducted, this value may decrease to 0.60. According to guidelines from Ferligoj, Leskošek and Kogovšek (1995) for coefficient alpha values: if $\alpha \geq 0.80$, the results are exemplary, if $0.70 \leq \alpha \leq 0.80$, the results are very good, if $0.60 \leq \alpha \leq 0.70$, the results are moderate, and if $\alpha \leq 0.60$, the results are barely acceptable.

The verification of scale reliability and its Cronbach's alpha coefficient are presented in Table 8. The results of reliability analysis show that the alpha coefficient values for the scales of *national identity*, *patriotism* and *national disidentification* were above 0.70, indicating exemplary values of the coefficients. It means that the scales of these constructs exhibit high internal consistency. The *consumer ethnocentrism* had the value of 0.66, which is slightly lower than the generally accepted limit of 0.70. This may be a potential weakness of our questionnaire, therefore we will keep this fact in mind during the analysis below. We can conclude that our questionnaire provided reliable data for *national identity*, *patriotism* and *national disidentification*, whereas the data were slightly less reliable for consumer ethnocentrism. In the future, there should be some additional questions used to achieve more reliable results for consumer ethnocentrism.

3.2.3 Descriptive Statistics

Since all of the scales proved to be valid and reliable, the next step in analysing the data was calculating parameters of descriptive statistics. Before testing the hypotheses, we provide an overview and present the main findings obtained by using the descriptive statistics procedure of SPSS. Composite scale, mean and standard deviation of each of the constructs are computed, all for the purpose of testing the proposed hypotheses. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to explore the normality of the data distribution for each variable. The test showed that most of the variables were not normally distributed, with exception of the average value of Consumer Ethnocentrism. Therefore, the use of non-parametric measures and non-parametric analyses in the process of hypothesis testing is most appropriate.

Table 9 provides descriptive statistics of consumer ethnocentrism items. The average scores were calculated in order to determine the level of consumer ethnocentrism, patriotism, national identity and national disidentification, which are needed for the purpose of hypothesis testing.

Consumer ethnocentrism was measured with a shortened version of CETSCALE consisting of 4 items, which were adapted from the 17-item scale developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). Statements were measured on a seven-point Likert scale. Respondents evaluated the statements on the scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Table 9. Descriptive statistics of consumer ethnocentrism items

Construct	Scale item	Mean	Standard Deviation (SD)	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test	
				Z	p
CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM	CET1: We, Ukrainians, should not let other countries get rich off us.	5.06	1.73	3.327	0.001
	CET2: Ukrainians who buy mainly foreign-made products hurt the Ukrainian economy and cause unemployment.	3.86	1.82	3.254	0.001
	CET3: It may cost me more in the long run but I prefer to buy products made in Ukraine.	3.56	1.73	2.791	0.001
	CET4: We should only buy from foreign countries those products that we cannot obtain within Ukraine.	4.78	1.91	3.309	0.001
	Average score	4.31	1.79		

Average scores for ethnocentrism were calculated in order to determine the level of consumer ethnocentrism of Ukrainian consumers. Respondents were categorised as having high ethnocentric tendencies if they scored in the top half of CETSCALE (3.5), and vice versa. Table 8 shows mean and standard deviation for all items measuring the consumer ethnocentrism construct. The average composite scale scores at 4.31, which is close to the neutral point 4, with the standard deviation of 1.91, indicating that respondents do not express high ethnocentric tendencies. Most of Ukrainians strongly agree that they should buy from foreign countries only those products that they cannot obtain within Ukraine and in this way do not let other countries get rich off them. At the same time, Ukrainian consumers do not think it will cost them more to buy products of the Ukrainian origin, as domestic products are usually less expensive than foreign ones. The statement that buying mainly foreign-made products might hurt the Ukrainian economy and cause unemployment did also not find much support.

Mean values and standard deviation of items measuring patriotism, national identity and national disidentification are depicted in Table 10. All the constructs were measured on the 7-point Likert scale, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

The scale value of patriotism is measured with four statements on the scale from 1 to 7. The scale value of patriotism is 4.69 with standard deviation of 1.49. Respondents express the highest agreement with the statement “I love my country”. The statement “I am proud of my country” scored at 4.92, and the majority of respondents expressed their strong commitment to Ukraine. Statement “The quality of life in Ukraine is high” received the least support and actually does not fit into the construct. Having eliminated or rephrased this question we could receive a higher score on this construct. This should be kept in mind for further research.

The scale value of national identity is measured with five statements on the scale from 1 to 7. The composite scale value is 4.96 with standard deviation 1.74, which means that respondents scored high almost in all questions. Being a Ukrainian means a lot to most of the respondents. The majority of respondents feel Ukraine is an important part of their identity. Most of the respondents agreed on the statement that say “we” instead of “they” when talking about Ukraine. The least supported item appeared to be the term “Ukrainian” describes me well. As there are different known prejudices about Ukrainian people in the world, this question might have to be changed in order to give it a more understandable context.

The scale value of national disidentification, computed as the mean of the four items, is 2.78 with standard deviation 1.55. While higher scores represented higher reluctance of the respondents to identify themselves as Ukrainian and vice versa, the results are suggesting that respondents rated statements about distancing themselves from other Ukrainians and preferring to keep together in the foreign environment differently. The scale value of national disidentification was measured with four statements on the 7-item Likert scale. Respondents expressed the biggest disagreement with the statement “In foreign environment I do not want to have much to do with Ukraine”, and they seem to largely disagree also with other three statements listed.

Table 10. Descriptive statistics of socio-psychological factors: patriotism, national identity and national disidentification items

Construct	Scale item	Mean	Standard deviation (SD)	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test	
				Z	p
PATRIOTISM	PAT1: The quality of life in Ukraine is high.	2.79	1.62	4.013	0.001
	PAT2: I love my country.	5.92	1.19	4.149	0.001
	PAT3: I am proud of my country.	4.92	1.55	3.399	0.001
	PAT4: Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to Ukraine remains strong.	5.15	1.63	3.259	0.001
	Average score	4.69	1.49		
NATIONAL IDENTITY	NID1: To be a Ukrainian means a lot to me.	5.14	1.66	3.335	0.001
	NID2: I see myself as a typical Ukrainian.	4.66	1.93	3.118	0.001
	NID3: The term “Ukrainian” describes me well.	4.35	1.83	2.618	0.001
	NID4: When talking about Ukrainians I say “we” instead of “they”.	5.72	1.46	4.991	0.001
	NID5: Ukraine is an important part of my identity.	4.92	1.81	2.914	0.001
	Average score	4.96	1.74		

table continues

Table 10. Descriptive statistics of socio-psychological factors: patriotism, national identity and national disidentification items (con.)

Construct	Scale item	Mean	Standard deviation (SD)	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test	
				Z	p
NATIONAL DISIDENTIFICATION	DIS1: I do not want others to see me as a typical Ukrainian	3.71	1.79	2.437	0.001
	DIS2: I have a tendency to distance myself from other Ukrainians.	2.57	1.44	4.743	0.001
	DIS3: In foreign environment I do not want to have much to do with Ukraine.	2.26	1.34	4.934	0.001
	DIS4: I never feel addressed when others are saying something about Ukraine.	2.60	1.63	4.444	0.001
	Average score	2.78	1.55		

As the Table 10 shows, the mean was highest for the construct of national identity followed by the mean of the construct of patriotism. Respondents expressed the lowest average degrees of agreement for the construct of national disidentification, as it was expected.

3.3 Hypotheses Testing

In this section, each of the eight proposed hypotheses presented in the previous chapter are statistically tested. For each hypothesis, a specific test and procedure was employed. Data processing was conducted with a statistical procedure: measurement of variability, parametric and non-parametric. The following statistical methods were used to test the hypotheses: one sample t-test (Hypothesis 1), One Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test (Hypothesis 2, 3 and 4), Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient (Hypothesis 5, 6 and 7) and the Independent Samples Test (Hypothesis 8). Based on the hypothesis testing a conclusion was generated regarding their acceptance or rejection.

In order to analyse our first hypothesis, we wanted to test whether our sample of respondents corresponds to the ethical composition of the population (i.e. all nations). First we conducted one sample Wilcoxon signed rank test which is a nonparametric variant of one-sample t-test. This nonparametric test determines whether the median of the sample is equal to some specified value. Since the results of this test are quite imprecise and lack information, we also conducted parametric one sample t-test. Nevertheless, the most appropriate results for our analysis are the results of the Wilcoxon signed rank test that are shown in hypothesis output from SPSS in Appendix F. Since there is no difference in the conclusions from both parametric and nonparametric analyses, the results of one sample t-test are shown and explained below.

H1: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a high level of consumer ethnocentrism.

For Hypothesis 1, the consumer ethnocentric tendencies of Ukrainians were measured by means of a four-item consumer ethnocentric scale on a seven-point Likert scale. Using the CETSCALE we tested whether Ukrainian consumers are ethnocentric or not. As already mentioned before, the Cronbach's alpha reliability score is 0.66, which exhibits moderate degree of internal consistency.

Ukrainian consumers mainly think that other countries should not get rich off them and that buying foreign products hurts Ukraine's economy and causes unemployment. Nevertheless, Ukrainian consumers find it acceptable to buy those foreign products that cannot be obtained within Ukraine. Surprisingly, at the same time Ukrainians mainly do not prefer buying Ukrainian products. This phenomenon could be explained by the fact that consumers in developing countries tend to perceive local products as being of lower quality than imported goods (Upadhyay & Singh, 2006; Chryssochoidis, Krystallis, & Perreas, 2007). Hence, Ukrainian consumers have lower level of consumer ethnocentrism than it was expected.

In the null hypothesis we suggested the arithmetic mean would be lower than or the same as 3.5, which means that respondents exhibit a low level of consumer ethnocentrism. In the alternative hypothesis, we stated that the arithmetic mean is higher than 3.5, suggesting that Ukrainian consumers tend to exhibit high ethnocentric tendencies. The results of the parametric one sample t-test presented in Table 11 showed that the means of three out of the proposed four questions on consumer ethnocentrism scale were statistically higher than the middle value of 3.50. As the results showed, only the mean of CET3 question did not exceed the value of 3.50, which is the middle value on the Likert scale from 1 to 7. All other questions exceeded the median of 3.50. The average value of total consumer ethnocentrism scale was statistically higher and significant at Sig. 0.001, therefore the null hypothesis can be rejected and the alternative hypothesis can be accepted. We conclude that Ukrainians on average exhibit moderate consumer ethnocentric tendencies and **accept Hypothesis 1**.

Table 11. One sample t-test results for the scale consumer ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism	Mean	SD	t*	p
CET1: We should not let other countries get rich off us.	5.06	1.73	13.100	0.001
CET2: Buying foreign products hurts Ukrainian economy.	3.85	1.82	2.881	0.004
CET3: I prefer to buy Ukrainian products.	3.56	1.73	0.536	0.296
CET4: Only buying foreign when products cannot be obtained in Ukraine.	4.78	1.91	9.780	0.001
Average total	4.31	1.79	9.388	0.001

Note. *Test value = 3.5.

M – mean, SD – standard deviation, t – test statistic, p – statistical significance

H2: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit strong patriotism.

To test this hypothesis a one sample t-test was applied to the data referring to patriotism.

The results of the parametric one sample t-test (Table 12) showed that means of the three questions on patriotism scale (PAT2, PAT3 and PAT4) and also the value of the average total for patriotism were statistically higher (4.69) than the middle value of 3.50 and significant at Sig. 0.05, $p < 0.01$. Therefore, we can reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. The results that support Hypothesis 2 are presented in Appendix F. So we can conclude that Ukrainians tend to exhibit high level of patriotism and **accept Hypothesis 2**.

Table 12. One sample t-test results for the scale patriotism

Patriotism	Mean	SD	t	p
PAT1: The quality of life in Ukraine is high.	2.79	1.61	-6.374	0.001
PAT2: I love my country.	5.91	1.18	29.710	0.001
PAT3: I am proud of my country.	4.92	1.55	13.397	0.001
PAT 4: Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to Ukraine remains strong.	5.15	1.63	14.783	0.001
Average total	4.69	1.15	15.087	0.001

Note. *Test value = 3.5.

SD – standard deviation, t – test statistic, p – statistical significance

H3: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a strong national identity.

The results of the parametric one sample t-test (Table 13) showed that means of all five questions on the national identity scale were statistically higher than the middle value of 3.50 and significant at Sig. 0.05. and $p < 0.01$. Also, the average total value for the national identity scale was statistically higher (4.95). Therefore, we can reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. The results presented in Appendix F support the proposed hypothesis, concluding that Ukrainians have strong national identity. Hence, **Hypothesis 3 was accepted**.

Table 13. One sample t-test results for the scale national identity

National identity	Mean	SD	t	p
NID1: To be a Ukrainian means a lot to me.	5.14	1.65	14.456	0.001
NID2: I see myself as a typical Ukrainian.	4.66	1.93	8.750	0.001
NID3: The term Ukrainian describes me well.	4.35	1.82	6.766	0.001
NID4: When talking about Ukrainians I say “we” instead of “they”.	5.72	1.45	22.244	0.001
NID5: Ukraine is an important part of my identity.	4.91	1.80	11.414	0.001
Average total	4.95	1.16	-9.029	0.001

Note. *Test value = 3.5.

SD – standard deviation, t – test statistic, p – statistical significance

H4: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a low level of national disidentification

Results of the parametric one sample t-test (Table 14) showed that means of three questions on the national disidentification scale and also the average total for national disidentification (2.78) were statistically lower than the middle value of 3.5. Only the mean value of first question (I do not want others to see me as a typical Ukrainian) is statistically higher than the middle value of 3.50 and significant at Sig. 0.05 and $p < 0.01$. Thus based on the results (Appendix F) we can reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis, stating that Ukrainians tend to exhibit a low level of national disidentification, resulting in **the acceptance of the Hypothesis 4.**

Table 14. One sample t-test results for the scale national disidentification

National disidentification	Mean	SD	t	p
DIS1: I do not want others to see me as a typical Ukrainian	3.70	1.79	1.695	0.092
DIS2:I have a tendency to distance myself from other Ukrainians.	2.56	1.43	-9.460	0.001
DIS3: In foreign environment I do not want to have much to do with Ukraine.	2.26	1.34	-13.428	0.001
DIS4: I never feel addressed when others are saying something about Ukraine.	2.59	1.63	-8.078	0.001
Average total	2.78	1.15	-9.029	0.001

Note. *Test value = 3.5.

SD – standard deviation, t – test statistic, p – statistical significance.

H5: Patriotism is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism.

Hypothesis 5 was tested with Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient. Correlation means dependency that exists between two variables. Their relationship could be different in three ways: (1) positively related, when the values of both variables increase together; (2) negatively related, when values of one variable decreases as values of other variable increases; and (3) not related at all, when values of both variables are not linked. Different correlation coefficients represent a measure of the strength and direction of the relationship that exists between two variables. The Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient is a nonparametric measure of the strength and direction of association that exists between two variables measured on at least an ordinal scale. The correlation coefficient lies between -1 and $+1$, where coefficient of $+1$ indicates a perfect positive relationship, a coefficient of -1 indicates a perfect negative relationship and a coefficient of 0 indicates no linear relationship at all. The value from 0 to ± 0.20 is commonly interpreted as weak relationship, the value from ± 0.20 to ± 0.40 as medium relationship and the values from ± 0.40 to ± 0.60 as moderate relationship. The values above ± 0.60 indicate strong relationship between the two variables (Field, 2012). As the correlation analysis showed, the correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and patriotism was moderate and positive, which means that a higher degree

of patriotism is connected with a higher degree of consumer ethnocentrism. The Spearman's rho Correlation coefficient is 0.211 and this correlation is statistically significant at level 0.001. Therefore it can be concluded that Ukrainians who took part in the survey exhibit a high level of patriotism and are likely to be ethnocentric consumers. (Table 15). On the basis of correlation analysis, the alternative hypothesis can be accepted, so we **accept Hypothesis 5** and conclude that a weak positive relationship exists between consumer ethnocentrism and patriotism.

H6: National identity is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism.

In order to assess the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and national identity, Spearman's correlation coefficient was used. As the correlation analysis showed, the correlation between the two variables, consumer ethnocentrism and national identity was positive and medium ($r=0.281$), which means that a higher degree of consumer ethnocentrism is connected with a higher degree of national identity. This correlation is statistically significant at level 0.001 (Table 14). On the basis of correlation analysis, the alternative hypothesis can be accepted. Ukrainian citizen who completed the questionnaire are likely to be very ethnocentric consumers and will probably exhibit a high level of national identity. Hence, **Hypothesis 6 was accepted**.

H7: National disidentification is negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine.

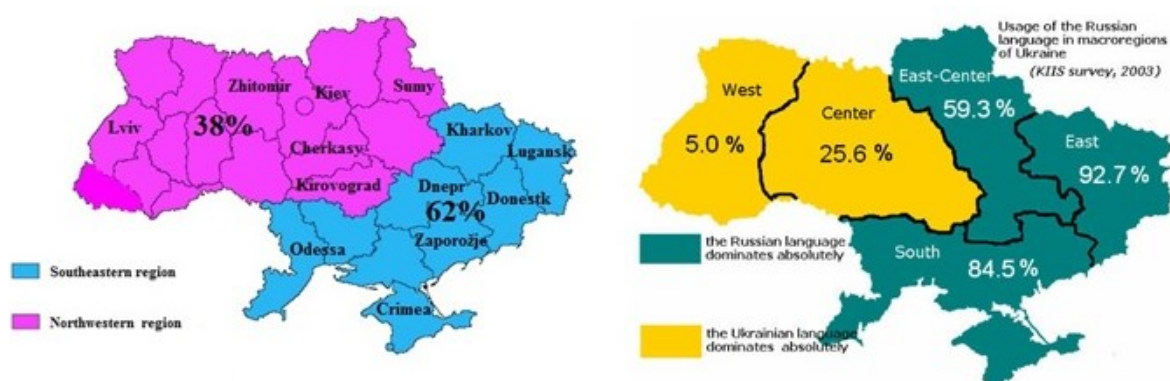
As the correlation analysis showed, the correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and national disidentification was negative and close to zero ($r = -0.018$). It was not statistically important, as the p-value is 0.397, which is more than the level of acceptable error 0.05 (Table 14). It indicated that there is no relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and national disidentification. On the basis of correlation analysis, the alternative hypothesis cannot be accepted. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted and **Hypothesis 7 was rejected**. The previous three hypotheses examined the effect of socio-psychological factors on the level of consumer ethnocentrism of Ukrainian consumers. To examine the correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and its antecedents, we computed Spearman's rho coefficient correlations. All the results are summarized in Table 15, and in more detail in Appendix F.

Table 15. Spearman's rho Correlation coefficient and its statistical significance for variables of consumer ethnocentrism and socio-psychological factors

Hypothesis	Variables	Correlation coefficient	Sig. (1-tailed), p-value
Hypothesis 5	Patriotism	0.211	0.001
Hypothesis 6	National identity	0.281	0.001
Hypothesis 7	National disidentification	-0.018	0.397

International marketing literature suggests that consumers' ethnocentric tendencies differ across demographic characteristics (Jain & Jain, 2013). In our research we decided to test the demographic variable REGION, which was computed by grouping cities into two regions according to the historical, cultural and language differences described in Chapter 1 in the section on the research setting, and defined based on the data shown in Figure 7. Using languages and political views as main criteria, two regions were created – southeastern region and northwestern region.

Figure 7. Division of respondents into two regions of Ukraine



Source: *Ukrainian Presidential Elections 2010, First round, 2013; Russian Language Usage, 2013.*

Cities were allocated to one of the regions as shown in Table 16 with the majority of respondents being citizens of Kiev, the capital of Ukraine, Dnieper, industrial and cultural centre of the central region, and a lot of respondents coming from Crimea, Donetsk and Lugansk.

Table 16. Division of respondents into two regions

Demographic characteristics	City	Frequency	Relative frequency (%)
Northwestern region	Kiev	64	30
	Zhitomir	3	1
	Sumi	2	1
	Lviv	9	4
	Kirovograd	1	0
	Cherkasy	1	0
Southeastern region	Crimea	32	15
	Donetsk	11	5
	Lugansk	2	1
	Dnepr	69	33
	Kharkov	4	2
	Odessa	13	6
	Zaporozhia	3	1

In our sample, 62% of the respondents come from the southwestern Ukraine and 38% come from the northwestern Ukraine.

H8: We expect that socio-psychological factors will vary across regions in Ukraine.

a): We expect that the level of consumer ethnocentrism will vary across regions in Ukraine.

b): We expect that the level of national identity will vary across regions in Ukraine.

c): We expect that the level of patriotism will vary across regions in Ukraine.

d): We expect that the level of national disidentification will vary across regions in Ukraine.

For testing Hypothesis H8 and its variations, we employed the independent sample t-test. The means were calculated in order to compare the level of consumer ethnocentrism, patriotism, national identity and national disidentification in two regions. As Table 17 shows, the mean of national identity was lower for the southeastern region (Mean = 4.67) than for the northwestern region (Mean = 5.46). This difference is statistically significant at the level of $p = 0.000$. Thus it **supports the Hypothesis 8b**, therefore we can conclude that customers from northwestern part of Ukraine tend to exhibit higher level of national identity than customers from southeastern Ukraine. Furthermore, the mean of patriotism was also lower for the southeastern region (Mean = 4.48) than for the northwestern region (Mean = 5.04) and this difference is statistically significant at the level 0.001. Therefore we can accept the Hypothesis 8c and state that citizens of northwestern Ukraine tend to exhibit higher level of patriotism than citizens from southeastern Ukraine. The differences in means for consumer ethnocentrism and national disidentification were not statistically significant ($p = 0.853$ and $p = 0.854$). Also the differences in means for national disidentification were not statistically significant ($p = 0.134$ and $p = 0.141$). Based on the analysis, **Hypotheses H8a and H8d are rejected**.

Therefore, our **Hypothesis 8 is partly confirmed**. Results of the nonparametric t-test for four constructs for the two regions are presented in Table 17. We concluded that Ukrainian consumers differ in the level of their patriotism and national identity by region, with higher level of these two socio-psychological factors, namely national identity and patriotism, in the northwestern region.

Table 17. Results of the independent sample t-test for two regions for four constructs in the questionnaire

Scale	Region	N	Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed), p-value
Consumer ethnocentrism	Southeastern region	132	4.33	0.185	0.853
	Northwestern region	80	4.30	0.184	0.854
National identity	Southeastern region	132	4.67	-3.886	0.000
	Northwestern region	80	5.46	-3.977	0.000

table continues

Table 17. Results of the independent sample t-test for two regions for four constructs in the questionnaire (con.)

Scale	Region	N	Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed), p-value
Patriotism	Southeastern region	132	4.48	-3.501	0.001
	Northwestern region	80	5.04	-3.544	0.001
National disidentification	Southeastern region	132	2.88	1.505	0.134
	Northwestern region	80	2.63	1.481	0.141

t – test statistic, p – statistical significance.

4 RESULTS AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

In this section, we outline and interpret the main findings of the research and discuss managerial implications of consumer ethnocentrism in the Ukrainian context. Further, the main contribution is explained. In conclusion, we highlight some limitations of the study and make suggestions for future research.

4.1 Interpretation of results

The study conducted examined consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine and explored how socio-psychological factors such as patriotism, national identity, national disidentification influence consumer ethnocentric tendencies in a developing country with transition economy. Furthermore, we explored whether the constructs researched vary across southeastern and northwestern regions of Ukraine.

The results indicate that Ukrainian consumers can be considered as moderately ethnocentric with the mean value of 4.31 on a 7-point scale. Ukrainians mainly think that other countries should not get rich off them and that buying foreign products hurts Ukrainian economy and causes unemployment. However, the results reveal that Ukrainians like to buy foreign products and find it acceptable to buy foreign. Results of the research allow us to generally conclude that consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine might be one of the factors driving the purchase decision for domestic products, although it does not seem to have a strong effect on purchasing foreign products. The likely reason for such an attitude is a continued tendency, as after having little access to foreign-made consumer goods for several decades of state policy promoting self-reliance, increasingly affluent Ukrainian consumers today are rushing to buy imported products available in the liberalized local market (Jain, Raval, & Mehra, 1997). Imported goods are generally perceived of being of high quality. On the other hand, imported products are sometimes of lower price, even if the quality might not be always the highest.

The levels of national identity and patriotism can be determined as high among respondents from Ukraine, so Hypotheses 2 and 3 were confirmed. Most of Ukrainians indicated that

they love their country and stay strongly committed to it, but not all are proud of it and see the quality of life as high. These contradictions could be explained by the general socio-economic and political instability in Ukraine. It was also expected in Hypothesis 4 that Ukrainians in general exhibit low level of national disidentification, although some of the respondents appeared not to be willing to be seen by others as typical Ukrainians. As the majority of respondents who answered this questionnaire are tourists, their reply might be influenced by negative attitude or negative prejudice about Ukrainian tourists or workers abroad, which cannot and should not be applied as characteristic for all Ukrainians.

Another important dimension of our research is the relationship between socio-psychological factors and consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine. The results for Hypotheses 5 showed weak but positive relationship between patriotic feelings and the level of ethnocentric tendencies. It can be concluded that Ukrainian consumers who love and are proud of their country are more ethnocentric than less patriotic Ukrainian consumers are. The relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and national identity was also confirmed to be positive, with a moderate strength of correlation coefficient. Therefore, Hypothesis 6 was confirmed and suggested that consumers who exhibits high levels of national identity are likely to be more ethnocentric consumers in comparison to consumers with lower national identity.

The results for Hypothesis 7 revealed that national disidentification has no impact on consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine. The last part of the analysis identified the existence of differences in socio-psychological factors between the two regions in Ukraine, which are characterised by significant cultural differences and political views. The analysis of the data and results for Hypothesis 8a suggests that the region of residence does not have a significant influence on ethnocentrism. There are no significant differences in the obtained values. However, eastern consumers are less ethnocentric in comparison to western consumers. The results demonstrated that the region has a statistically significant influence on the level of patriotism and national identity. The level of national disidentification was not affected by the region. The analysis of the research defined several contradictions, which could be explained by the heterogeneous sample. The research deals with very contradictory concepts, such as national identity, patriotism and national disidentification, which are still at the stage of formation in Ukraine. It should also be noted that the findings present opinions of different people from different geographical regions of Ukraine.

4.2 Managerial Implications

When looking for new business opportunities and expanding to foreign market, companies should be aware of potential risks and non-tariff barriers, which could be caused by cultural differences in consumer behaviour and consumer preferences. As part of the post-Soviet market, Ukraine offers many opportunities for international firms and this research is one of the basic studies that can help both, foreign and domestic companies (the first to enter the

market and the second to fight the increased foreign competition). Entering the WTO gave Ukrainian companies the advantages of free access to the markets and equal terms with the foreign participants in the global market. On the other hand, it gave foreign MNCs easier access to the Ukrainian market, and created a threat for local producers, which cannot compete with global corporations.

Research on consumer ethnocentrism and its antecedents in Ukraine provides a broader context for understanding consumer behaviour of Ukrainian consumers. Presented results of the research can be considered as valuable source of information for international marketing managers when developing positioning strategies on the Ukrainian market for both domestic and foreign products. Generally, the insight into the level of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine and its antecedents can help create the right segmenting and positioning strategies and deliver the right communication in order to reach the desired target segment.

These Ukrainian consumers who exhibit a high degree of ethnocentrism are likely to remain the core customer base for Ukrainian producers. As it was stated in the research, Ukrainian consumer in general seem to exhibit a moderate level of consumer ethnocentrism, therefore, Ukrainian producers need the support of the state to be able to aggressively defend their interests in the domestic market. There are campaigns like “Buy Ukrainian” in Ukraine, which enhance the ethnocentric tendencies of a section of consumers, calling on consumers to support Ukrainian producers, and in this way the creation of prosperous and developed nation. Articles in magazines drive attention of consumers by stressing that hard work, honesty in business, thrift and patriotic attitude to domestic producers help overcome economic difficulties and move confidently into the future.

Campaign "Buy Ukrainian" has become a very promising trend that is gaining popularity day by day. Due to a relatively modest level of consumer ethnocentrism, but the high level of national identity and patriotism, a domestic producer in Ukraine can fight a foreign competitor and win over customers by including patriotic motives and national symbols into advertisements, and stressing the values of national identity when highlighting the purchase of the domestic product, as it is demonstrated in Figure 8, 9 and 10.

Figure 8. Examples of advertising of domestic goods using Ukrainian symbols



Source: The promotion "Buy Ukrainian" in support of Ukrainian producers in shops »eko market«, 2014.

Figure 9. Examples of advertising of domestic goods using Ukrainian symbols



Source: Made in Ukraine. Campaign in support of Ukrainian producers by a political party, 2016.

Figure 10. Examples of advertising of domestic goods using Ukrainian symbols



Source: *Promotion of block manufacturing with ukrainian symbols*, 2016.

Good example of a marketing strategy is organizing marketing campaign with well-known Ukrainian celebrities, who would support buying Ukrainian products. It would help to create an exclusive image for Ukrainian brands that are produced in Ukraine. Additional reason to promote local products is their lower price in comparison to imported substitutes. But lack of professional advertising and ability to present their products in a professional manner psychologically prevent producers from competing with imported fashion brands.

It is worth mentioning that advertising of foreign products is usually poorly adapted to the conditions of cultural and social environment of Ukraine. Despite this, they are characterized by aggressiveness in imposing questionable goods and services, inaccurate verbal support and the inadequacy of the videos to Ukrainian realities (Scherba, 2007). The absence of own traditions of consumer advertising in Ukraine led to the imposition of alien values, forming a favourable incentive for choosing foreign production companies. Western goods are designed for other societies, for people with a different mentality, so it is important for managers of foreign companies to study regional differences in consumers and adapt advertising to realities of the Ukrainian society. Ukrainian producers should design their own advertising with Ukrainian symbols and reality to attract Ukrainian customers to buy local products.

More online sites are created for the promotion of Ukrainian goods, such as the online resource madeinua.org, which offers a variety of products: clothing, stationery, food, household goods and more. It promotes that living in Ukraine can become profitable and enjoyable if consumers support local manufacturing. Affordable prices and quality of goods are defined as main criteria for making purchasing decision.

The companies operating in the Ukrainian market should especially devote attention to the

consumers' region. If the target market is western part of Ukraine, where customers are predominantly patriotic with high consumer ethnocentrism, it is advised to highlight the local manufacturing of the product and use promotion tools with messages that point to the domestic origin of the product. For this segment, domestic managers can use different associations between their products and national symbols and patriotic themes (Dmitrović et al., 2009).

When it comes to targeting the consumers from the southeastern part of Ukraine, who are less patriotic and exhibit a slightly lower level of national identity, it is important to note that stressing only the domestic origin of the product will not help them make their decision in favour of the domestic alternative. For these segments, due to their moderate consumer ethnocentrism, the managers of local Ukrainian companies cannot rely exclusively on emphasizing the home origin of the product, but may emphasise local production and patriotic ideas along with highlighting other benefits.

The Ukrainian consumers can be generally characterised as brand conscious and also display intense patriotism. However, consumption patterns are changing, and the demand for foreign products is growing rapidly. Taking into consideration that the level of consumer ethnocentrism is moderate, and Ukrainian consumers are still willing to buy foreign products, foreign companies should, on the other side, include more information about brand, prestige and quality in their communication strategy and highlight the international image of the product when entering the Ukrainian market, as the ethnocentric Ukrainian consumers may choose a product because of advertised values regardless of its origin.

However, using commercial promotions with consumer ethnocentrism themes does not necessarily negatively impact the purchase of products imported from foreign countries. This finding can probably be explained partly by the fact that Ukrainian consumers are enamoured with well-known foreign brands available after a long time (Jain et al., 1997), and partly by previous evidence from the literature that consumers tend to rate products from developed countries higher than those from developing countries (Gaedeke, 1973). This should be good news for foreign marketers from countries such as the United States, Japan, and South Korea entering the Ukrainian market.

Foreign managers should try to focus consumers' attention on other facts or product characteristics, not connected with the origin of the product, nor with the fact that the product is produced elsewhere and not in the home country. It is advisable that they adapt the marketing programme and create a marketing mix that will reflect the proximity with the targeted culture (Singh & Upadhyay, 2006). It is advisable that these companies take into consideration the localization strategy, and by cooperating with Ukrainian suppliers create an affiliation with the domestic economy (Dmitrović et al., 2009).

The present analysis of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine can further help foreign marketing managers choose the optimal market entry mode. Since the level of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine is moderate, it may be advisable that foreign companies enter the market using the more cooperative entry modes, like joint ventures or strategic alliances with local companies, as that can help them overcome consumer resistance toward foreign made products (Rybina et al., 2010). It is suggested that any foreign company developing a market presence in the Ukraine, should seek to buy outright (or at least acquire part ownership) of a Ukrainian producer. This will provide an entrance into the market, and a production/distribution channel for international brands produced under licence. Ownership will also facilitate the importation and distribution of foreign-produced branded products. It is important that international marketers try to localize their brands, as that can decrease the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on the purchase intentions (Al Ganideh & Al Taei, 2012).

By locating production units in Ukraine and promotion of local production, the marketing managers of foreign firms can try to assure domestic consumers that purchasing their products will not have negative effects on the economic conditions in the home country as it created new jobs and increased the level of employment in the region. Ukrainian consumers do not always act in line with ethnocentric tendencies when making purchase decisions of global technological brands. In a technologically developed world, with easier access to information and a world with increased expectations of products, consumers mostly attach significance to quality, durability, reliability, price and other important variables when assessing and purchasing products.

When planning positioning strategies in the Ukrainian market, international marketers should strive to understand the level of ethnocentrism of the consumers they wish to target, and use that information in creating the optimal marketing strategy for the defined segments, as well as use different marketing strategies when they wish to attract consumers with different levels of ethnocentricity in different regions of Ukraine. Socio-psychological antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism would give a better insight and determine what drives consumers in their buying behavior.

4.3 Research Contribution, Limitations and Future Research Suggestions

This master's thesis has offered both theoretical and practical contribution. The influence of socio-psychological factors such as patriotism, national identity and national disidentification on consumer ethnocentrism has not been investigated before in the territory of Ukraine, which means that this research holds a significant contribution for the existing consumer ethnocentrism literature and offers the exploration of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine from the new perspective.

It was confirmed once again that the impact of socio-psychological factors on consumer ethnocentrism is country and culture specific. The research empirically confirmed the existence of differences in socio-psychological factors in different regions of Ukraine and the necessity to take these differences into account when creating marketing strategies. This research could help marketers to understand the sources of consumer ethnocentrism and align their strategies with customer ethnocentric tendencies.

Although the study and its results have provided a better understanding and insight of Ukrainian consumer ethnocentricity, the research is not free from limitations. The study focuses on assessing the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and only three socio-psychological variables (patriotism, national identity, national disidentification). Research could be further widened by investigating and analysing the influence of other antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism.

The current analysis focused on consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine in general without referring to a particular product. Research of consumer ethnocentrism can be criticised for not employing products to measure consumer ethnocentric tendencies as a country's residents might have different views toward different groups of domestic products. It would therefore be more representative to analyse ethnocentrism referring to particular product or market of goods.

Another limitation is the sample which is not considered as representative for the total Ukrainian population. The sample consisted mainly of tourists and citizens from Dnepropetrovsk city in Central Ukraine. Since one third of data was collected in one city in the same region, the results may differ if more residents of other regions took part in the study. The sample was mostly comprised by people from central and southeastern Ukraine, whereas the northwestern region did not get much attention. It should also be noted that the sample comprised relatively few male respondents. Hence, the results cannot be generalised to the entire population with various demographic profiles.

The relative low number of respondents and convenient sample also limits the generalization of the results found in the study. The sample for the present study consists mainly of citizens of big cities, where people are generally more educated, thus the sample is biased towards well educated Ukrainian people. Consequently, results should be generalised with caution to more rural areas of the country where it can be assumed that lower education levels, familiarity with foreign products and a more traditional way of living may influence consumers.

It would be good to conduct a study of this nature in a longitudinal manner and test the changes in values over time in the future. Questionnaires were filled out from August to December 2013, before the beginning of war in the Donetsk and Lugansk regions and separation of Crimea. A big part of the sample consists of people from these regions, who

may have different point of view on ethnocentrism, patriotism national identity and national disidentification after the beginning of war.

The mechanism of formation of consumer choice under the influence of ethnocentrism requires further analysis, especially in terms of the impact of changes in national socio-economic and political environment in Ukraine. It is suggested that future research should focus on investigating the existence of different consumer segments with varying levels of consumer ethnocentrism and identifying them with regard to demographic characteristics. Moreover, future research on the Ukrainian consumers could focus on the impact of the ethnocentricity on the purchasing behaviour of consumers.

CONCLUSION

The phenomenon of consumer ethnocentrism in the Ukrainian research setting has been discussed and the results of the empirical research have been presented in this master thesis. The goal of the empirical research was to expand the knowledge about the ethnocentric attitudes of Ukrainian consumers taking into consideration their national peculiarities.

This research gives theoretical generalizations of the concept of consumer ethnocentrism and provides an initial survey of the socio-psychological factors that influence consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine. Whereas the main focus of the thesis was consumer ethnocentrism, this study also concentrates on the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism and their effect on it. More specifically, attention was devoted to examining patriotism, national identity and national disidentification since they enable us to gain a more profound understanding of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine. A number of recommendations to improve advertising strategies and product placement in Ukraine were given, which emphasizes the practical value of this master's study.

Consumer ethnocentrism is a concept that is widely used to explain consumption and purchase behaviour towards the home country and the products produced in different and diverse cultures. Consumer ethnocentrism is a concept relevant for the field of marketing, consumption and purchase behaviour. However, its intensity does vary among different countries and even among different regions in the same country, due to many different factors, which act as antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism in each different national or cultural setting. The impact of consumers' demographic characteristics and socio-psychological factors may not be consistent across all the countries.

The conclusions drawn based on the acceptance or rejection of the proposed hypotheses answer the questions outlined in the introduction of the thesis. The study conducted and the results obtained clearly demonstrate that Ukrainians are generally **moderately ethnocentric consumers**. Although Ukraine became independent only a quarter of a century ago and is undergoing the formation of its national identity, the Ukrainian nation can be characterised

as a **patriotic society** with a **strong national identity**. As postulated, national identity and patriotism are found to be socio-psychological factors that influence the level of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine. It can be assumed that highly patriotic consumers with a high level of national identity will probably decide to purchase domestic products instead of foreign. Ukrainians can be characterised by a **low level of national disidentification**, whereas the influence of national disidentification on the level of consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine is inconsistent from the statistical point of view. Marketing managers need to incorporate patriotism and national identity in their marketing strategies as they determine the level of consumer ethnocentrism of Ukrainian consumers.

The results demonstrated that the geographical region of the country has proven to have statistically significant influence on the level of patriotism and national identity. As it was expected, the analysis reveals that consumers from western Ukraine have higher national identity and are more patriotic than consumers in eastern Ukraine. Region of residency also appeared to be an important factor that can make a difference when it comes to choosing the right product. Marketers should adapt their product strategies to preferences of citizens from different regions in Ukraine.

The results presented in this research can be considered as a valuable information for marketers when developing positioning strategies in the Ukrainian market for both domestic and foreign products. Although the current research confirmed that Ukrainians are moderately ethnocentric consumers, and patriotic and national attitudes affect the level of consumer ethnocentrism, this is still the area that calls for additional extensive studies of influence of other demographic and socio-psychological factors, so it can be fully researched, examined and understood.

REFERENCE LIST

1. Adorno, T. W., Frankel-Brunswick, D. J., Levinson, N. R., Sanford, B. A., Levinson, M. H., & Morrow, W. (1950). *The Authoritarian Personality*. New York: Harper Row.
2. Akhter, S. H. (2007). Globalization, expectations model of economic nationalism, and consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 24(3), 142–150.
3. Akimova, I. (2000). Development of market orientation and competitiveness of Ukrainian firms Irina Akimova. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(9/10), 1128.
4. Al Ganideh, S. F., & Al Tae, H. (2012). Examining consumer ethnocentrism amongst Jordanians from an ethnic group perspective. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 4, 48–57.
5. Al Ganideh, S. F. (2010). Consumer Ethnocentrism in the Jordanian Market: the Impact of Socio-Psychological Variables on Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies. *Journal of Business & Retail Management Research*, 5(1), 11–20.
6. Al Ganideh, S. F., El Refae, G., & Al Omari, M. (2012). Antecedents to Consumer Ethnocentrism: A Fuzzy Logic-Based Analysis Study. *Journal of Administrative Sciences and Technology*, 1, 1–2.
7. Al Ganideh, S. F., Elrefae, G. A., & Aljanaideh, M. (2012). Can Fuzzy Logic Predict Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies? an Empirical Analysis in Jordan. *Journal of Physical Science and Application*, 1, 100–106.
8. Al Ganideh, S. F., Jackson, H., & Marr, N. (2007). An investigation into ethnocentrism among young Jordanians. *World Journal of Retail Business Management*, 2(1), 40–51.
9. Albarq, A., & Mat, N. K. (2007). Determining the Antecedents of Consumer Ethnocentrism. *ANZMAC Conference Proceedings* (pp. 2102–2108). Auckland: ANZMAC.
10. Anastasiadou, S. D. (2014). A structural equation model describes factors affecting Greek students' consumer behaviour. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 9, 402–406.
11. Auruskeviaciene, V., Vienelli, D., & Reardon, J. (2012). Comparison of consumer ethnocentrism behavioural patterns in transitional economies. *Transformations in Business and Economics*, 11(2), 20–35.
12. Baier, S., & Bergstrand, J. (2001). The Growth of World Trade: Tariffs, Transport costs, and Income Similarity. *Journal of International Economics*, 3(1), 1–27.
13. Balabanis, G., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2004). Domestic country bias, country-of-origin effects, and consumer ethnocentrism: a multidimensional unfolding approach. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(1), 157–175.
14. Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., Mueller, R. D., & Melewar, T. C. (2001). The Impact of Nationalism, Patriotism and Internationalism on Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(1), 157–176.
15. Baughn, C., & Yaprak, A. (1996). Economic Nationalism: Conceptual and Empirical Development. *Political Psychology*, 17(4), 759–778.
16. Bawa, A. (2004). Consumer Ethnocentrism: CETSCALE Validation and Measurement of Extent. *Vikalpa*, 29(3), 43–57.

17. Beck, T. (2002). Financial Development and International Trade. Is there a Link? *Journal of International Economics*, 57(1), 107–131.
18. Becker, J. C., & Tausch, N. (2014). When Group Memberships are Negative: The Concept, Measurement, and Behavioral Implications of Psychological Disidentification. *Self and Identity*, 13(3), 294–321.
19. Bruter, M. (2016). Towards the emergence of European identity? Retrieved August 26, 2016, from <https://netivist.org/debate/multiple-identities-and-nationalism>
20. Burnell, P. (1986). *Economic Nationalism in the Third World*. Brighton: Wheatsheaf.
21. Chryssochoidis, G., Krystallis, A., & Perreas, P. (2007). Ethnocentric beliefs and country-of-origin (COO) effect: Impact of country, product and product attributes on Greek consumers' evaluation of food products. *European Journal of Marketing*, 41(11/12), 1518–1544.
22. Cleveland, M., Laroche, M., & Papadopoulos, N. (2009). Cosmopolitanism, Consumer Ethnocentrism, and Materialism: An Eight-Country Study of Antecedents and Outcomes. *Journal of International Marketing*, 17(1), 116–146.
23. Darby, K., Batte, M. T., Ernst, S., & Roe, B. (2006). *Willingness to Pay for Locally Produced Foods: A Customer Intercept Study of Direct Market and Grocery Store Shoppers. Selected Paper prepared for presentation at the AAEA Annual Meeting California: Long Beach.*
24. De Mooij, M. (2010). *Global marketing and advertising: Understanding cultural paradoxes* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
25. Dmitrović, T., Vida, I., & Reardon, J. (2009). Purchase behavior in favor of domestic products in the West Balkans. *International Business Review*, 18, 523–535.
26. Douglas, S. P., & Nijssen, E. J. (2002). On the Use of 'Borrowed' Scales in Cross National Research: A cautionary Note. *International Marketing Review*, 20(6), 621–642.
27. Dressler, D. (1973). *Sociology: The Study of Human Interaction* (2nd ed.). New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
28. Druckman, D. (1994). Nationalism, Patriotism, And Group Loyalty: A Social Psychological Perspective. *International Studies Quarterly*, 38(51), 43–68
29. Durvasula, S., Andrews, J., & Netemeyer, R. (1997). A Cross-cultural Comparison of Consumer Ethnocentrism in the United States and Russia. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 9(4), 73–93.
30. Erdoğan, E., & Burucuoğlu, M. (2016). *The Effect of Consumer Ethocentrism, Cosmopolitanism and Patriotism on Product Evaluations in Turkey. International Marketing Trend Congress.* Retrieved December 20, 2016, from http://www.marketing-trends-congress.com/archives/2016/pages/PDF/ERDOGAN_BURUCUOGLU.pdf
31. *Ethno-linguistic map of Ukraine.* Retrieved December 20, 2016, from <https://eurasiangeopolitics.files.wordpress.com/2014/07/ethno-summary-map-ukraine.png>

32. Evanschitzky, H., Wangenheim, F., Woisetschlager, D., & Blut, M. (2008). Consumer ethnocentrism in the German market. *International Marketing Review*, 25, 7–32.
33. Ferligoj, A., K. Leskošek, & Kogovšek, T. (1995). *Zanesljivost in veljavnost merjenja* [Reliability and validity of measurement]. Ljubljana: Fakulteta za družbene vede.
34. Field, A. (2012). *Discovering Statistics Using IBM SPSS Statistics* (4th ed.). Brighton: University of Sussex.
35. Frank, B., Abulaiti, G., & Enkawa, T. (2014). Regional differences in consumer preference structures within China, *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 21(2), 203–210.
36. Frietsch, E., Zeugner-Roth, K. P., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2010). Home Country Bonds And Biases: Linkages And Impact On Purchase Intentions. Retrieved September 28, 2016, from <http://ieseg-it.fr/academ/546.pdf>
37. Fritsch, E. (2008). *The concept on national identity: An in-debt analysis of its nature and impact on consumer behaviour* (Master Thesis). Vienna: University of Vienna.
38. Gaedeke, R. (1973). Consumer attitudes toward products ‘made in’ developing countries. *Journal of Retailing*, 49, 13–24.
39. Gonchar, I., & Babirad-Iazunin, V. (2013). Modern Features of Ukraine’s International Trade: Statistical Analysis. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(1), 43–47.
40. Good, L. K., & Huddleston, P. (1995). Ethnocentrism of Polish and Russian consumers: are feeling and intentions related? *International Marketink Rewiew*, 12(5), 35–48.
41. Goshulak, G. (2002). *Beyond modernist approaches: Ukrainian nationalism from a state-society perspective*. Ontario, North York: York university.
42. Gulamov, S. (2014). Understanding National Identity: Ukraine’s Ethnic Diversity. East West Institute. Retrieved April, 2016, from <http://www.ewi.info/idea/understanding-national-identity-ukraine%E2%80%99s-ethnic-diversity>
43. Han, C. M. (1988). The Role Of Consumer Patriotism in the Choice of Domestic Versus Foreign Products. *Journal of Adversiting Research*, 25–32.
44. Hawkins, D. I., Roupe, D., & Coney, K. A.. (1981). The Influence of Geographic Subcultures in the United States. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 8, 713–717.
45. Henninger, S. (2013). Mission Unaccomplished. *The Ukrainian Week*. Retrieved August 26, 2015, from <http://ukrainianweek.com/Economics/77383>
46. Herche, J. (1992). A note on the predictive validity of the CETSCALE. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 20(3), 261–264.
47. Hollebeek, L., Jaeger, S., Brodie, R., & Balemi, A (2007) The influence of involvement on purchase intention for new world wine. *Food Quality and Preference*, 18(1) 1033–1049.
48. Hoyer, W. D., & MacInnis, D. J. (2008). *Consumer Behavior*. Mason, OH: South-Western.
49. Hsu, J. L., & Nien, H. P. (2008), Who are ethnocentric? Examining consumer ethnocentrism in Chinese societies. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 7(1), 436–447.

50. Huddleston, P., Good, L. K., & Stoel, L. (2000). Consumer ethnocentrism, product necessity and quality perceptions of Russian consumers. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 10(2), 167–181.
51. Imber J. B. (2009). *Markets, Morals and Religion*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers.
52. Jain, M., Raval, S., & Mehra, D. (1997). New tastes and toys. *India Today International*, 22(10), 34–40.
53. Jain, S. K., & Jain, R. (2013). Consumer ethnocentrism and its antecedents; an exploratory study of consumers in India. *Asian Journal of Business Research*, 3(1), 1–18.
54. Javalgi, R., Khare, V., Gross, A., & Scherer R. (2005). An application of the consumer ethnocentrism model to French consumers. *International Business Review*, 14, 325–344.
55. Josiassen, A. (2011). Consumer Disidentification and Its Effects on Domestic Product Purchases: An Empirical Investigation in the Netherlands. *Journal of Marketing*, 75, 124–140.
56. Josiassen, A., George Assaf, A., & Karpen, I. (2011), Consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy. Analyzing the role of three demographic consumer characteristics. *International Marketing Review*, 28(6), 627–646.
57. Kalnysh, V. (2014). Who is fighting whom in Ukraine – and why. Retrieved November, 13, 2016, from <https://www.opendemocracy.net/od-russia/valery-kalnysh/whois-fightingwhomnukraineandwhy>
58. Kamaruddin, R. A., Mokhlis, S., & Othmon, N. M. (2002). Ethnocentrism Orientation and Choice Decisions of Malaysian Consumers: The Effects of Socio Cultural and Demographic Factors. *Asia Pacific Management Review*, 7(4), 555–574.
59. Kasianov, G. (1999). Nation and Nationalism: words and terms. *Ukrainian historical journal*. 2, 3–17.
60. Kaynak, E., & Jallat, F. (2004). Marketing Issues in Western Europe: changes and developments. *Journal of Euromarketing*, 14(1/2), 121–129.
61. Kaynak, E., & Kara, A. (2000), Consumer perceptions of foreign products. An analysis of product-country images and ethnocentrism, *European Journal of Marketing*, 36(7/8), 928–949.
62. Kaynak, E., & Kara, A. (2001). An examination of the relationship among consumer lifestyles, ethnocentrism, knowledge structures, attitudes and behavioral tendencies: a comparative study in two CIS states. *International Journal of Advertising*, 20(4), 455.
63. Kaynak, E., & Kara, A. (2002). Consumer Perceptions of Foreign Products: An Analysis of Product-Country Images (PCI) and Ethnocentrism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 36(7/8), 928–949.
64. Keillor, B. D., & Hult, G. T. M. (1999). A five-country study on national identity: Implications for international marketing research and practice. *International Marketing Review*, 16(1), 65–82.

65. Keillor, B. D., Hult, G. T. M., Erffmeyer, R. C., & Babakus, E. (1996). NATID: The Development and Application of a National Identity Measure for Use in International Marketing. *Journal of International Marketing*, 4(2), 57–73.
66. Kipnis, E., Kubacki, K., Broderick, A. J., Siemieniako, D., & Pisarenko, N. L. (2012). They don't want us to become them: Brand Local Integration and consumer ethnocentrism. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 28(7–8), 836–864.
67. Klein, J. G. (2002). Us versus them, or us versus everyone? Delineating consumer aversion to foreign goods. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 33(2), 345–363.
68. Klein, J., & Ettenson, R. (1999). Consumer Animosity and Consumer Ethnocentrism: An Analysis of Unique Antecedents. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 11(4), 5.
69. Klein, J., Ettenson, R., & Morris, M. 1998, The Animosity model of Foreign Product Purchase: An Empirical Test in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Marketing*, 62(1), 89.
70. Kosterman, R., & Feshbach, S. (1989). Toward a measure of patriotic and nationalistic attitudes. *Political Psychology*, 10(2), 257–274.
71. Kozlovets, M. A. (2009). Fenomen natsional'noyi identychnosti: vyklyky hlobalizatsiyi: monohrafiya. *Zhytomyr: ZhDU im. I. Franka*, 29–42.
72. Krasnozhan, L. (2014). The Ethnicities of Ukraine Are United, Forbes, Retrieved December 21, 2016, from <https://www.forbes.com/sites/realspin/2014/03/13/the-ethnicities-of-ukraine-are-united/#7ae7121c110e>
73. Kreckova, Z., Odehnalova, J., & Reardon, J. (2012). Consumer ethnocentrism within the environment of economic crisis. *Engineering Economics*, 23(3), 271–281.
74. Kuzmychova, M. (2015). Ukrainian patriotism, past and present. *Le Journal International Archives*. Retrieved September 28, 2016, from http://www.lejournalinternational.fr/Ukrainian-patriotism-past-and-present_a3201.html
75. Lawrence, P. (2014). Gearing Up for War: Russia Conducts War Games On Ukraine Border As US Troops Enter Poland. Retrieved August 26, 2016, from <http://www.activistpost.com/2014/04/gearing-up-for-war-russia-conducts-war.html>
76. Lindquist, J. D., Vida, I., Plank, R. E., & Fairhurst, A. (2001). The modified CETSCALE validity in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland. *International Business Review*, 10(5), 505–516.
77. Lockshin, L., Wade, J., d'Hauteville, F., & Perrouy, J. P. (2006). Using simulations from discrete choice experiments to measure consumer sensitivity to brand, region, price, and awards in wine choice. *Food Quality and Preference*, 17(3/4), 166–178.
78. Luque-Martinez, T., Ibanez-Zapata, J. A., & Barrico-García, S. (2000). Consumer Ethnocentrism Measurement: An Assessment of the Reliability and Validity of the CETSCALE in Spain. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(11/12), 1353–1373.
79. Lymonova, E. (2013). Transnational corporations' activities in Ukraine: analysis and prospects. *Academic review*, 2(39), 134–138.
80. Mackie, D. M., & Smith E. R. (1998). Intergroup Relations: Insights from a Theoretically Integrative Approach. *Psychological Review*, 105(4), 499–529.

81. *Made in Ukraine. Campaign in support of Ukrainian producer from side of the political party.* <http://unp.ua/partiina-pozytsiia/item/16-kupui-ukrainske-unp>
82. Madupu, V., Sandipan, S., & Sampath, R. (2012). *The Influence of Blind and Constructive Patriotism on Consumer Ethnocentrism and Willingness to Buy Bi-National Products.* Proceedings of the Atlantic Marketing Association, Fall.
83. Mcpherson, M., Redfearn, M., & Tieslau, M. (2001). International trade and developing countries: an empirical investigation of the Linder hypothesis. *Applied Economics*, 33, 649–657.
84. Morse, A., & Shive, S. (2011). Patriotism in your Portfolio. *Journal of Financial Markets*, 14(2), 411–440.
85. Mort, G., & Duncan, M. (2003). Owned by...”Country of Origin’s New Cue’. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 15(3), 49.
86. Motoryn, R., & Motoryna, T. (2008). Ukraina na rynkah nedorogotsinnyh metaliv (Statystychne doslidzhennya) Ukraine at precious metals markets. Statistical research]. *International trade: law and economics*, 6(41), 93–104.
87. Murdock, G. P. (1931). *Ethnocentrism. Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences.* New York: Macmillan.
88. Mykoliuk, O. (2012) The Day Issue: №10. Retrieved August 24, 2015 from <http://www.day.kiev.ua/en/article/topic-day/ukrainian-patriotism-soviet-rite>
89. Nadiri, H. & Tumer, M. (2010). Influence of ethnocentrism on consumers’ intention to buy domestically produced goods: An empirical study in North Cyprus. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 11(3), 444–461.
90. Nagashima, A (1970). A comparison of Japanese and U.S. attitudes towards foreign products. *Journal of Marketing*, 34(1), 68–74.
91. Najibullah, F. (2014. September 4). A rally on Kyiv's Maidan Nezalezhnosti, or Independence Square, in early December 2013. Retrieved September 26, 2016, from <http://www.rferl.org/a/russia-ukraine-maidan-scenario-patrols/26566852.html>
92. Netemeyer, R., Durvasula, S., & Lichtenstein, D. (1991). A Cross- national Assessment of the Reliability and Validity of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, XXVII, 320–327.
93. Nguyen, T. D., Nguyen, T. T. M., & Barrett, N. J. (2008). Consumer ethnocentrism, cultural sensitivity, and intention to purchase local products – evidence from Vietnam. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 7(1), 88–100.
94. Nijssen, E. J., & Douglas, S. P. (2004). Examining the animosity model in a country with a high level offoreign trade. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 21(1), 23–38.
95. Nowak, J. (2011). *Trends in consumer behavior on the Polish market. Consumer ethnocentrism, Country-of-origin effect, national and foreign brands* (Master programme thesis). Aarhus: Aarhus University, Department of Business Administration.

96. Oberecker, E. M., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2011). Consumers' emotional bonds with foreign countries: does consumer affinity affect behavioural intentions? *Journal of International Marketing*, 19(2), 45–72.
97. Papadopoulos, N., Heslop, L. A., & Bennett, D. (1993). National Image Correlates of Product Stereotypes: a Study of Attitudes Towards East European Countries. *E-European Advances in Consumer Research*, 1, 206–213.
98. Pelkmans, M. (2016). *Nations in a globalizing- world: on difference and resemblance* London School of Economics and Political Science. Retrieved May 17, 2016, from <https://netivist.org/debate/multiple-identities-and-nationalism>
99. Poon, P., Evangelista, F., & Albaum, G. (2010). Attitudes of migrants towards foreign-made products: An exploratory study of migrants in Australia. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 27(1), 35–42.
100. *Promotion of blocks manufacturing with Ukrainian symbols*. Retrieved December 20, 2016, from <http://shop.podillya.com.ua/>
101. Pryke, S. (2012). Economic Nationalism: Economic Nationalism: Theory. *Global Policy*, 3(3), 281–291. Retrieved May 17, 2016, from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1758-5899.2011.00146.x/epdf?r3_referer=wol&tracking_action=preview_click&show_checkout=1&purchase_referrer=www.globalpolicyjournal.com&purchase_site_license=LICENSE_DENIED_NO_CUSTOMER
102. Puzakova, M., Kwak, H., & Andras T. L. (2010). Mitigating Consumer Ethnocentrism via Advertising and Media Consumption in a Transitional Market: A Study from Russia. *International Journal of Advertising*, 29(5), 727–764.
103. Quin, P. (2011). Chinese national pride and East Asian regionalism among the elite University students in P.R.C. *Journal of Asia Pacific Studies*, 2(1), 28–54.
104. Rawwas, M. Y. A., Rajendran K. N., & Wuehrer G. A. (1996). The influence of worldmindness and nationalism on consumer evaluation of domestic and foreign products. *International Marketing Review*, 13(2), 20–38.
105. Reardon J., Miller C., Vida I., & Kim I., (2005). The effects of ethnocentrism and economic development on the formation of brand and ad attitudes in transitional economies. *European Journal of Marketing*, 39(7/8), 737–754.
106. Renko, N., Karanovic, B. C., & Matic, M. (2012). Influence of Consumer Ethnocentrism on Purchase Intentions: Case of Croatia. *Ekonomika misao i praksa*, 2, 529–544.
107. *Russian Language Usage*. Retrieved December 20, 2016, from <http://globaleconomicanalysis.blogspot.si/2014/11/ukraine-split-in-two-expect-major-rebel.html>
108. Rybina, L., Reardon, J., & Humphrey, J. (2010). Patriotism, Cosmopolitanism, Consumer Ethnocentrism and Purchase Behavior in Kazakhstan. *Organizations and Markets in Emerging Economies*, 1(2), 92–107.
109. Saffu, K., & Walker, J. H. (2005). An assessment of the consumer ethnocentric scale (CETSCALE) in an advanced and transitional country: the case of Canada and Russia. *International Journal of Management*, 22(4), 556–571.

110. Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business studies* (5th ed.). Harlow: Financial Times/Prentice Hall.
111. Scherba, N. (2007). *Consumer Behavior in the context of the establishment and development of advertising space (sociological analysis)*. Kiev: National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine, Institute of Sociology, Thesis for the degree of Candidate of Social Sciences.
112. Schunz, S. (2012). The development of european identity/identities: unfinished business. European Commission, Directorate-General for Research and Innovation Socio-economic Sciences and Humanities. Retrieved May 17, 2016, from https://ec.europa.eu/research/social-sciences/pdf/policy_reviews/development-of-european-identity-identities_en.pdf
113. Shah, K. A. M. (2012). The effect of consumer animosity, consumer ethnocentrism and patriotism on purchase willingness: a study in Malaysia. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences*, 5(1), 27–35.
114. Shah, K. A. M., & Ibrahim, H. I. (2012). Consumer ethnocentrism: Does it really matter for Malaysian consumers. *West East Journal of Malaysian Sciences*, 1(1), 26–38.
115. Shankarmahesh, M. N. (2006). Consumer ethnocentrism: an integrative review of its antecedents and consequences. *International Marketing Review*, 23(2), 145–172.
116. Sharma, S., Shimp, T. A., & Shin, J. (1995). Consumer ethnocentrism: a test of antecedents and moderators. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23(1), 26–32.
117. Shimp, A. T. (1984). Consumer ethnocentrism: The concept and a preliminary empirical test. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 11, 285–290.
118. Shimp, T. A., & Sharma, S. (1987). Consumer ethnocentrism: construction and validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24(3), 280–289.
119. Shoham, A., & Brencic, M. M. (2003). Compulsive buying behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 20(2), 127–138.
120. Shvob-Đokić, N., & Milohnić, A. (2011). Cultural Transitions in Southeastern Europe Cultural Identity Politics in the (Post-)Transitional Societies. Culturelink. Retrieved March 11, 2016, from http://rci.mirovni-institut.si/Docs/cultural_identity_politics.pdf
121. Sirgy, M. J., Rahtz, D. R., & Portolese, L. (2016). Consumer Behavior Today, v. 1.0. Retrieved December 22, 2014, from http://catalog.flatworldknowledge.com/bookhub/reader/8111?e=sirgy_1_0-ch10_s03#sirgy_1_0-ch00ack
122. Šmaižienė, I., & Vaitkienė, R. (2014). Consumer Ethnocentrism and Attitudes towards the Domestic and Foreign-Made Dietary Supplements (the Case of Lithuanian Market). *Economics and Business*, 26, 88–96.
123. Smith, A. D. (1991). *National Identity*. London: Penguin Books
124. Soumava, B. (2012). Ethnocentrism In Icelandic Consumers And Its Consequences. *International Business & Economics Research Journal*, 11(3), 307–314.
125. Spillan, J. E., & Harcar, T. (2013). A Comparative Study of Patriotism, Protectionism, Social Economic Conservatism between Indian and Vietnamese Consumers: The

- Effects of these Constructs on Buying Inclinations. *Eurasian Journal of Business and Economics*, 6(12), 1–26.
126. Suh T., & Kwon G. (2002). Globalization and reluctant buyers. *International Marketing Review*, 19(6), 663–680.
 127. Supphellen, M., & Rittenburg, T. (2001). Consumer ethnocentrism when foreign products are better. *Psychology and Marketing*, 18(9), 907–927.
 128. Szcześniak, H. (2014). National Disidentification Versus Consumer Disidentification: The Case of Bosnian Serbs. Retrieved March, 3, from http://www.academia.edu/11898983/National_Disidentification_Versus_Consumer_Disidentification_The_Case_of_Bosnian_Serbs
 129. Szromnik, A., & Wolanin-Jarosz, E. (2013). Ethnocentric attitudes and buying decisions of poles and hungarians – the essence and measurement with the use of cetscale analysis. *Poltyki Europejskie, Finanse I Marketing*, 10(59), 717–728.
 130. Terhune, K. W. (1964). Nationalism among Foreign and American Students: An Explanatory Study. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 8(3), 256–270.
 131. *The Language Map in Ukraine*. Retrieved December 20, 2016, from <https://reconsideringrussia.org/2014/03/02/what-is-ukraine/ukraine-language-map/>
 132. *The promotion "Buy Ukrainian" in support of Ukrainian producers in shops eko market*. Retrieved December 20, 2016, from http://www.proinfo.com.ua/novosti/glavnyie_novosti/ctartovala_akeziya_kupuj_ukranske.html
 133. *Ukrainian Presidential Elections 2010, First round*. Retrieved December 20, 2016, from <http://suffragio.org/2013/12/05/why-more-protests-wont-solve-ukraines-political-crisis-and-why-the-orange-revolution-didnt-either/>
 134. Upadhyay, Y., & Shiv, K. S. (2006). Preference for Domestic Goods: A Study of Consumer Ethnocentrism. *The Journal of Business Perspective*, 10(3), 359–368.
 135. Upadhyay, Y., & Singh, S. K. (2006). Preference for domestic goods: a study of consumer ethnocentrism. *Vision: The Journal of Business Perspective*, 10(3), 59–68.
 136. Urban-Klaehn, J. (2014). Ukraine after Election - History of Patriotism & Division. Retrieved December 21, 2014, from <http://culture.polishsite.us/articles/art238fr.htm>
 137. Usunier, J. C., & Lee, J. A. (2005). *Marketing across cultures* (4th ed.). Harlow: Pearson education.
 138. Van Ittersum, K. (1998, October). Consumer Ethnocentrism and Regional Involvement as Antecedents of Consumer's Preference for Products from the Own Region. *AIRCAT Meeting Reports*, 5(1), 45–51.
 139. Vassella, M. C., Fountain, P. D., & Fountain, U. K. (2010). Consumer ethnocentrism, patriotism, global openness and country of origin effect: A literature review. *Proceedings of ASBBS*, 17(1), 868–882.
 140. Verkuyten, M., & Yildiz, A. A. (2007). National (Dis)identification and Ethnic and Religious Identity: A Study Among Turkish-Dutch Muslims. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33(10), 1448–1462

141. Verlegh, P. W. J. (2007). Home country bias in product evaluation: the complementary roles of economic and socio-psychological motives. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38(3), 361–373.
142. Vida I., & Reardon, J. (2008). Domestic consumption: rational, affective and normative choice? *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 25(1), 34–44.
143. Vida, I., Dmitrovic, T., & Obadia, C. (2008). The role of ethnic affiliation in consumer ethnocentrism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(3–4), 327–343.
144. Von Alvensleben, R. (2000). *Verbraucherpräferenzen für regionale Produkte: Konsumtheoretische Grundlagen. agrarspectrum Schriftenreihe, Band 30: Regionale Vermarktungssysteme in der Land-, Ernährungs- und Forstwirtschaft – Chancen, Probleme und Bewertung*. Frankfurt: DLG-Verlag.
145. Wang, C. L., & Chen, Z. X. (2004). Consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy domestic products in a developing country setting: testing moderating effects. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 21(6), 391–400.
146. Witkowski, H. T. (1998). Consumer ethnocentrism in two emerging markets: Determinants and predictive validity. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 25, 258–263.
147. Wolanin-Jarosz E. (2013). Ethnocentric tendencies of polish, hungarian, and ukrainian consumers – the comparative analysis on the basis of direct research. *Studia Ekonomiczne*, 151, 13–24.
148. Worchel, S., & Cooper, J. (1979). *Understanding Social Psychology*. Homewood, IL: The Dorsey Press.
149. Yagci, M. (2001). Evaluating the Effects of Country-of-Origin and Consumer Ethnocentrism: A Case of a Transplant Product. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 13(3), 63–85.
150. Yu, J. H., & Albaum, G. (2002). Sovereignty change influences on consumer ethnocentrism and product preferences: Hong Kong revisited one year later. *Journal of Business Research*, 55(11), 891–899.
151. Yurchyshyn, V. (2013). *Ukrainian policy of protectionism is incompatible with WTO membership*. Retrieved December 20, 2016, from http://euprostitir.org.ua/news/ukrainian_policy_of_protectionism_is_incompatible_with_wto_membership/
152. Zajonc, R. B., & Markus, H. (1982). Affective and cognitive factors in preferences. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(2), 123–131.

APPENDIXES

TABLE OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Standard 17-item CETSCALE.....	1
Appendix B: Questionnaire (English version).....	2
Appendix C: Questionnaire (Ukrainian version).....	6
Appendix D: Questionnaire (Russian version).....	10
Appendix E: Consumer ethnocentrism, its antecedents and consequences.....	14
Appendix F: Hypotheses output	15
Appendix G: Abbreviations.....	21

APPENDIX A: Standard 17-item CETSCALE

Table 1. Standard 17-item CETSCALE

No.	Item
1	American people should always buy American-made products instead of imports
2	Only those products that are unavailable in USA should be imported
3	Buy American-made products. Keep American working
4	American products, first, last, and foremost
5	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-American
6	It is not right to purchase foreign products
7	A real American should 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 the USA
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: T. A. Shimp & S. Sharma, *Consumer ethnocentrism: construction and validation of the CETSCALE*, 1987.

APPENDIX B: Questionnaire (English version)

SURVEY ON ATTITUDES TOWARD COUNTRIES AND PRODUCTS

0. Are you a citizen of UKRAINE? Yes/No

I. The statements below refer to Ukraine, its economy and your feelings toward your country.

Although the statements are similar, they are not the same. Please consider each statement separately and indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with it on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Disagree somewhat 3	Undecided 4	Agree somewhat 5	Agree 6	Strongly agree 7
CET1: We, Ukrainians, should not let other countries get rich off us.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
CET2: Ukrainians who buy mainly foreign-made products hurt the Ukrainian economy and cause unemployment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
CET3: It may cost me more in the long run but I prefer to buy products made in Ukraine.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
CET4: We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within Ukraine.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NATIONAL IDENTITY/ NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Disagree somewhat 3	Undecided 4	Agree somewhat 5	Agree 6	Strongly agree 7
NID1: To be a Ukrainian means a lot to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID2: I see myself as a typical Ukrainian.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID3: The term “Ukrainian” describes me well.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID4: When talking about Ukrainians I say “we” instead of “they”.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID5: The fact that I am a Ukrainian is an important part of my identity.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PATRIOTISM	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Disagree somewhat 3	Undecided 4	Agree somewhat 5	Agree 6	Strongly agree 7
PAT1: Ukraine may not be perfect, but the quality of life here is high.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PAT2: I love my country.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PAT3: I am proud of my country.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PAT4: Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to Ukraine remains strong.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

NATIONAL DISIDENTIFICATION	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Disagree somewhat 3	Undecided 4	Agree somewhat 5	Agree 6	Strongly agree 7
DIS1: I certainly do not want others to see me as a typical Ukrainian.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
DIS2: I often have the tendency to distance myself from other Ukrainians.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
DIS3: When I am in a foreign environment, I do not want to have much to do with other Ukrainians.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
DIS4: I never feel addressed when others are saying something about Ukraine and the Ukrainians.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

II. We kindly ask you to provide some information about yourself.

1. Gender (GENDER):

- ☐ Female
☐ Male

2. Year of birth (YEAR_BIRTH): 19____

3. Nationality (NATION):

☐ Ukrainian

5 ☐ Russian

☐ Other (please specify): _____ (NATION_OTHER)

4. Please specify the highest level of education you have achieved (EDUCATION).

- ☐ Elementary school or less
☐ 3- or 4-year vocational school
☐ Secondary school
☐ Junior college
☐ University education or more

5. What is your current employment status (WORK)?

- ☐ Work in a household or on a farm
- ☐ Self-employed
- ☐ Employed – management position
- ☐ Employed – non-management position
- ☐ Unemployed
- ☐ Retired
- ☐ Student

6. Your place of residence (where you stay at least 3 days a week) (RESIDENCE):

- ☐ City (above 100,000 inhabitants)
- ☐ Town (from 10,000 to 100,000 inhabitants)
- ☐ Settlement (up to 10,000 inhabitants)

7. Region of your residence (REGION):

8. Please specify the number of people living in your household (HOUSEHOLD):

9. How would you estimate your household's monthly income as compared to the national average (INCOME)?

- ☐ Above average
- ☐ Below average
- ☐ Average

APPENDIX C: Questionnaire (Ukrainian version)

Опитувальник «Ваше ставлення до зарубіжних країн та товарів»

0. Ви громадянин України? Так / Ні

I. Твердження нижче відносяться до України, її економіки та Вашим почуттям відносно нашої країни.

Не дивлячись на те, що твердження схожі мед собою, вони не однакові. Будь ласка, уважно прочитайте кожне твердження окремо і оцініть, наскільки сильно Ви згодні або не згодні з ним за шкалою від 1 (абсолютно не згоден) до 7 (повністю згоден).

СПОЖИВЧИЙ ЕТНОЦЕНТРИЗМ	Абсолютно не згоден 1	Не згоден 2	Частково не згоден 3	Ще не вирішив/ла 4	Частково згоден 5	Згоден 6	Повністю згоден 7
СЕТ1: Українці не повинні дозволяти іншим країнам багатіти за наш рахунок.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
СЕТ2: Українці, які купують переважно іноземні товари, шкодять українській економіці і спричиняють безробіття.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
СЕТ3: Можливо це буде коштувати мені дорожче на довгий рок, але я переважно купую товари українського виробництва.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
СЕТ4: Нам слід купувати у зарубіжних країн лише ті товари, які ми не можемо виробити в межах України.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

НАЦІОНАЛЬНА ІДЕНТИТЕТА	Абсолютно не згоден 1	Не згоден 2	Частково не згоден 3	Ще не вирішив/ла 4	Частково згоден 5	Згоден 6	Повністю згоден 7
NID1: Бути українцем означає для мене дуже багато.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID2: Я вважаю себе типовим українцем/українкою	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID3: Термін « українець» добре мене характеризує.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID4: Коли мова йде про українців я кажу " ми ", а не " вони ".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID5: Той факт, що я українець є важливою частиною моєї особистості.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

ПАТРІОТИЗМ	Абсолютно не згоден 1	Не згоден 2	Частково не згоден 3	Ще не вирішив/ла 4	Частково згоден 5	Згоден 6	Повністю згоден 7
RAT1: Україна, можливо, не досконала, але якість життя тут висока.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
RAT2: Я люблю свою Батьківщину.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
RAT3: Я пишаюся свою Батьківщиною.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
RAT4: Не дивлячись на те, що часом я не можу погодитися з урядом, моя прихильність Україні залишається сильною.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

НАЦІОНАЛІЗМ	Абсолютно не згоден	Не згоден	Частково не згоден	Ще не вирішив/ла	Частково згоден	Згоден	Повністю згоден
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NAT1: Україна краще, ніж більшість інших країн.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NAT2: Світ був би кращим, якби більше людей з інших країн були такі як українці.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NAT3: Україна повинна намагатися допомагати іншим країнам бути більш схожими на неї.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NAT4: Україна – гарний приклад для наслідування для інших країн.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

НАЦІОНАЛЬНЕ РОЗТОТОЖНЕННЯ	Абсолютно не згоден	Не згоден	Частково не згоден	Ще не вирішив/ла	Частково згоден	Згоден	Повністю згоден
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DIS1: Я не хочу, щоб інші вважали мене типовим українцем.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
DIS2: Я часто намагаюся дистанціюватися від інших українців.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
DIS3: Коли я опиняюся в чужому середовищі, я не хочу мати нічого спільного з іншими українцями.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
DIS4: Коли говорять щось про Україну або українцях, я ніколи не відчуваю, що звертаються до мене.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

II. Ми просимо Вас надати деяку особисту інформацію.

1. Стать:

- ☐ Жіноча
- ☐ Чоловіча

2. Рік народження 19 ____

3. Національність:

Українець/Росіянин

Інша (вказіть): _____

4. Будь ласка, вкажіть вищий рівень Вашої освіти

- ☐ початкова школа
- ☐ 3 - або 4-літні професійні школи
- ☐ Сердня школа
- ☐ Технікум
- ☐ Університетська освіта або вище
- ☐

5. Який Ваш поточний соціальний статус /зайнятість?

- ☐ Робота в домашньому господарстві чи на фермі
- ☐ Приватний підприємець
- ☐ Працюючий за наймом - керівна посада
- ☐ Працюючий за наймом - не керівна посада
- ☐ Безробітний
- ☐ Пенсіонер
- ☐ Студент

6. Ваше місце проживання (місце, де Ви зупиняєтеся принаймні 3 дні на тиждень):

- ☐ Велике місто (понад 100 000 жителів)
- ☐ Невелике місто (від 10 000 до 100 000 жителів)
- ☐ Село/ Селище (до 10 000 жителів)

7. Регіон Вашого проживання (область):

8. Будь ласка, вкажіть кількість людей, що живуть у Вашій родині: _____

9. Як би Ви оцінили щомісячний дохід Вашої сім'ї в порівнянні з середньому по країні?

- ☐ Вище середнього
- ☐ Нище середнього
- ☐ Середній

APPENDIX D: Questionnaire (Russian version)

Опросник «Ваше отношение к зарубежным странам и товарам»

0. Вы гражданин Украины? Да / Нет

I. Утверждения ниже относятся к Украине, ее экономике и Вашим чувствам по отношению к нашей стране.

Не смотря на то, что утверждения похожи между собой, они не являются одинаковыми.

Пожалуйста, прочитайте внимательно каждое утверждение в отдельности и оцените, насколько сильно Вы согласны или не согласны с ним по шкале от 1 (категорически не согласен) до 7 (полностью согласен).

ПОТРЕБИТЕЛЬСКИЙ ЭТНОЦЕНТРИЗМ	Совершенно не согласен 1	Не согласен 2	Частично не согласен 3	Еще не решил/а 4	Частично согласен 5	Согласен 6	Полностью согласен 7
СЕТ1: Украинцы не должны позволять другим странам богатеть за наш счет.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
СЕТ2: Украинцы, которые покупают в основном иностранные товары, вредят украинской экономике и являются причиной безработицы.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
СЕТ3: Возможно это будет мне стоить дороже в долгосрочной перспективе, но я предпочитаю покупать товары, произведенные в Украине.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
СЕТ4: Нам следует покупать у зарубежных стран только те продукты, которые мы не можем произвести в пределах Украины.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

НАЦИОНАЛЬНАЯ ИДЕНТИЧНОСТЬ	Совершенно не согласен	Не согласен	Частично не согласен	Еще не решил/а	Частично согласен	Согласен	Полностью согласен
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NID1: Быть украинцем/украинкой значит для меня очень много.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID2: Я считаю себя типичным украинцем/украинкой.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID3: Выражение «украинец» хорошо меня характеризует.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID4: Когда речь идет об украинцах я говорю "мы", а не "они".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NID5: Тот факт, что я украинец/украинка является важной частью моей личности.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

ПАТРИОТИЗМ	Совершенно не согласен	Не согласен	Частично не согласен	Еще не решил/а	Частично согласен	Согласен	Полностью согласен
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PAT1: Украина, возможно, не совершенна, но качество жизни здесь высокое.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PAT2: Я люблю свою родину.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PAT3: Я горжусь своей родиной	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PAT4: Не смотря на то, что временами я не могу согласиться с правительством, моя приверженность Украине остается сильной.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

НАЦИОНАЛИЗМ	Совершенно не согласен	Не согласен	Частично не согласен	Еще не решил/а	Частично согласен	Согласен	Полностью согласен
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
NAT1: Украина лучше, чем большинство других стран.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NAT2: Мир был бы лучше, если бы больше людей из других стран были такие как украинцы.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NAT3: Украина должна стараться помогать другим странам быть более похожими на нее.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
NAT4: Украина является хорошим примером для подражания другим странам.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

НАЦИОНАЛЬНОЕ РАСТОЖДЕСТВЛЕНИЕ	Совершенно не согласен	Не согласен	Частично не согласен	Еще не решил/а	Частично согласен	Согласен	Полностью согласен
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DIS1: Я совершенно не желаю, чтобы другие считали меня типичным украинцев.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
DIS2: Я часто пробую дистанцироваться от других украинцев.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
DIS3: Когда я оказываюсь в чужой среде, я не хочу иметь ничего общего с другими украинцами.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
DIS4: Когда другие говорят об Украине и украинцах, я никогда не чувствую, что обращаются ко мне.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

II. Пожалуйста предоставьте некоторую информацию о себе.

1. Пол:

- ☐ Женский
- ☐ Мужской

2. Год рождения 19_____

3. Национальность:

Украинец/Русский

Другое (укажите): _____

4. Пожалуйста, укажите высший уровень Вашего образования

- ☐ Начальная школа или менее
- ☐ 3 - или 4-летние профессиональные школы
- ☐ Средняя школа
- ☐ Техникум
- ☐ Университетское образование или более

5. Каков Ваш текущий социальный статус/занятость?

- ☐ Работа в домашнем хозяйстве или на ферме
- ☐ Частный предприниматель
- ☐ Работающий по найму - руководящая должность
- ☐ Работающий по найму - не руководящая должность
- ☐ Безработный
- ☐ Пенсионер
- ☐ Студент

6. Ваше место жительства (место, где Вы останавливаетесь по крайней мере 3 дня в неделю):

- ☐ Большой город (свыше 100 000 жителей)
- ☐ Небольшой город (от 10 000 до 100000 жителей)
- ☐ Село/ Поселок (до 10 000 жителей)

7. Регион Вашего проживания (область):

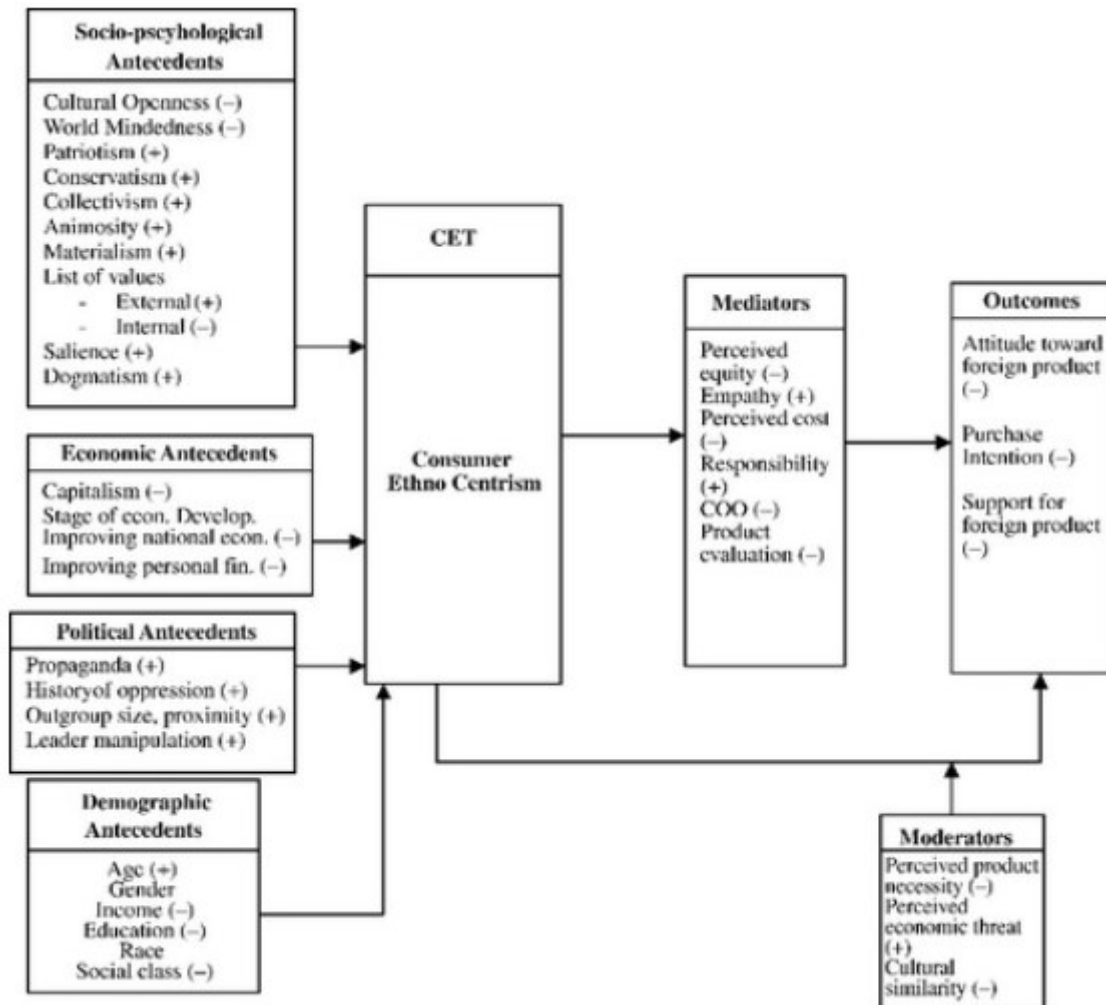
8. Пожалуйста, укажите количество людей, живущих в Вашей семье : _____

9. Как бы Вы оценили ежемесячный доход Вашей семьи по сравнению с средним по стране?

- ☐ Выше среднего
- ☐ Ниже среднего
- ☐ Средний

APPENDIX E: Consumer ethnocentrism, its antecedents and consequences

Figure 1. Consumer ethnocentrism, its antecedents and consequences



Source: N. M. Shankarmahesh, *Consumer ethnocentrism: an integrative view of its antecedents and consequences*, 2006, pp. 146–172.

APPENDIX F: Hypotheses output

H1: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a high level of consumer ethnocentrism.

Table 2. Hypothesis H 1 Output. One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for Consumer Ethnocentrism

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The median of cet1 equals 3,50	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The median of cet2 equals 3,50	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,003	Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The median of cet3 equals 3,50	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,653	Retain the null hypothesis.
4	The median of cet4 equals 3,50	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

Table 3. Mean, Standard Deviation and Standard Error Mean for Consumer Ethnocentrism

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CET1	212	5.0563	1.73385	.11880
CET2	212	3.8592	1.81941	.12466
CET3	212	3.5634	1.72713	.11834
CET4	212	4.7793	1.90905	.13081
CET_average	212	4.3146	1.26626	.08676

Table 4. One-Samle T-Test for Consumer Ethnocentrism

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 3.5					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
CET1	13.100	212	.000	1.55634	1.3222	1.7905
CET2	2.881	212	.004	.35915	.1134	.6049
CET3	.536	212	.593	.06338	-.1699	.2967
CET4	9.780	212	.000	1.27934	1.0215	1.5372
CET_average	9.388	212	.000	.81455	.6435	.9856

H2: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a strong national identity.

Table 5. Hypothesis H 2 Output. One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for National Identity

Hypothesis Test Summary			
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig. Decision
1	The median of nidi1 equals 3,500	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000 Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The median of nidi2 equals 3,500	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000 Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The median of nidi3 equals 3,500	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000 Reject the null hypothesis.
4	The median of nidi4 equals 3,500	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000 Reject the null hypothesis.
5	The median of nidi5 equals 3,500	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000 Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

Table 6. One-Sample Statistics for National Identity

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
NID1	212	5.1408	1.65657	.11351
NID2	212	4.6573	1.93037	.13227
NID3	212	4.3474	1.82784	.12524
NID4	212	5.7183	1.45547	.09973
NID5	212	4.9155	1.80993	.12401

Table 7. One-Sample Test for National Identity

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 3.5					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
NID1	14.456	212	.000	1.64085	1.4171	1.8646
NID2	8.750	212	.000	1.15728	.8966	1.4180
NID3	6.766	212	.000	.84742	.6005	1.0943
NID4	22.244	212	.000	2.21831	2.0217	2.4149
NID5	11.414	212	.000	1.41549	1.1710	1.6600

H3: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit strong patriotism.

Table 8. Hypothesis H 3 Output. One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for Patriotism

Hypothesis Test Summary				
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The median of pat1 equals 3,50	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000	Reject the null hypothesis.
2	The median of pat2 equals 3,50	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000	Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The median of pat3 equals 3,50	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000	Reject the null hypothesis.
4	The median of pat4 equals 3,50	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000	Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

Table 9. One-Sample Statistics for Patriotism

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PAT1	212	2.7934	1.61787	.11085
PAT2	212	5.9155	1.18656	.08130
PAT3	212	4.9249	1.55223	.10636
PAT4	212	5.1549	1.63379	.11195
PAT_average	212	4.6972	1.15812	.07935

Table 10. One-Sample Test for Patriotism

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 3.5					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
PAT1	-6.374	212	.000	-.70657	-.9251	-.4881
PAT2	29.710	212	.000	2.41549	2.2552	2.5758
PAT3	13.397	212	.000	1.42488	1.2152	1.6345
PAT4	14.783	212	.000	1.65493	1.4343	1.8756
PAT_average	15.087	212	.000	1.19718	1.0408	1.3536

H4: Overall, we expect Ukrainian consumers to exhibit a low level of national disidentification.

Table 11. Hypothesis H 4 Output. One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for National Disidentification

Hypothesis Test Summary			
	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig. Decision
1	The median of dis1 equals 3,50.	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,086 Retain the null hypothesis.
2	The median of dis2 equals 3,50.	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000 Reject the null hypothesis.
3	The median of dis3 equals 3,50.	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000 Reject the null hypothesis.
4	The median of dis4 equals 3,50.	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000 Reject the null hypothesis.
5	The median of disidentification_povprečje equals 3,50.	One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	,000 Reject the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is ,05.

Table 12. One-Sample Statistics for National Disidentification

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
DIS1	212	3.7089	1.79879	.12325
DIS2	212	2.5681	1.43780	.09852
DIS3	212	2.2629	1.34459	.09213
DIS4	212	2.5962	1.63291	.11189
DIS_average	212	2.7840	1.15730	.07930

Table 13. One-Sample Test for National Disidentification

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 3.5					
	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
DIS1	1.695	212	.092	.20892	-.0340	.4519
DIS2	-9.460	212	.000	-.93192	-1.1261	-.7377
DIS3	-13.428	212	.000	-1.23709	-1.4187	-1.0555
DIS4	-8.078	212	.000	-.90376	-1.1243	-.6832
DIS_average	-9.029	212	.000	-.71596	-.8723	-.5597

H5: National identity is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism.

Table 14. Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient on the Relationship between the Consumer Ethnocentrism and National Identity in Ukraine

Spearman's correlations			Ethnocentrism_ average	National_Identity_ average
Spearman's rho	Consumer ethnocentrism	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.281**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	212	212
	National_identity	Correlation Coefficient	.281**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	212	212

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

H6: Patriotism is positively related to consumer ethnocentrism.

Table 15. Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient on the Relationship between the Consumer Ethnocentrism and Patriotism in Ukraine

Spearman's correlations			Ethnocentrism_ average	Patriotism_ average
Spearman's rho	Consumer ethnocentrism	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.211**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.002
		N	212	212
	Patriotism	Correlation Coefficient	.211**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.
		N	212	212

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

H7: National disidentification is negatively related to consumer ethnocentrism in Ukraine.

Table 16. Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation Coefficient on the Relationship between the Consumer Ethnocentrism and National Disidentification in Ukraine

Spearman's correlations			Ethnocentrism_ average	Disidentification_a verage
Spearman's rho	Consumer ethnocentrism	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.018
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.795
		N	212	212
	National disidentification	Correlation Coefficient	-.018	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.795	.
		N	212	212

H8: We expect that socio-psychological factors will vary across regions in Ukraine.

- a) We expect that the level of consumer ethnocentrism will vary across regions in Ukraine.
- b) We expect that the level of national identity will vary across regions in Ukraine.
- c) We expect that the level of patriotism will vary across regions in Ukraine.
- d) We expect that the level of national disidentification will vary across regions in Ukraine.

Table 17. Differences among the Respondents from two different regions

Group statistics

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Consumer ethnocentrism	Southeastern region	132	4.33	1.25	.109
	Northwestern region	80	4.30	1.30	.145
National identity	Southeastern region	132	4.67	1.49	.130
	Northwestern region	80	5.46	1.36	.152
Patriotism	Southeastern region	132	4.48	1.15	.100
	Northwestern region	80	5.04	1.10	.123
National disidentification	Southeastern region	132	2.88	1.13	.098
	Northwestern region	80	2.63	1.20	.134

Table 18. Independent Samples Test on SCALE CET, PAT, NID, DIS

		t-test for Equality of Means						
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Consumer ethnocentrism	Equal variances assumed	.185	210	.853	.033	.180	-.321	.388
	Equal variances not assumed	.184	162,065	.854	.033	.181	-.325	.392
National identity	Equal variances assumed	-3.886	210	.000	-.793	.204	-1.196	-.391
	Equal variances not assumed	-3.977	179,124	.000	-.793	.199	-1.187	-.400
Patriotism	Equal variances assumed	-3.501	210	.001	-.561	.160	-.877	-.245
	Equal variances not assumed	-3.544	173,256	.001	-.561	.158	-.873	-.248
National disidentification	Equal variances assumed	1.505	210	.134	.246	.164	-.076	.569
	Equal variances not assumed	1.481	158,529	.141	.246	.166	-.082	.575

APPENDIX G: Abbreviations

CDI - consumer disidentification

CET - Consumer ethnocentrism

CETSCALE - Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale

KMO - Kaiser-Meier-Olkin coefficient

MNC - multinational corporations

NAT- national identity

NDI - national disidentification

PAT - patriotism

SPSS - Statistical Package for Social Sciences

WTB - willingness to buy

WTO - World Trade Organisation