

National Identity, Ethnocentrism and Consumer Ethnocentrism, and the Effects of Language Choice in Advertising

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Abstract

Identifying with a social group can help a person to define themselves. This self-categorisation process facilitates the transition from “I” to “we”, and encourages people to value their social group memberships. As a result, people are sensitive about their group interests and the symbols that represent their groups - symbols such as their native language.

New Zealand is a country with citizens from a diversity of cultural backgrounds. As a result, some local New Zealand businesses may try to attract immigrant consumers by using their native language in advertisements. However, how domestic consumers feel about these advertisements that include foreign languages is unknown.

This research seeks to explore the effects of language choices in advertising from a social identity perspective, in particular, whether choice of language in advertisements influences New Zealand consumers’ attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products. Also, this research seeks to explore several social identity-related constructs (national identity, ethnocentrism, and consumer ethnocentrism) that may influence the relationship between choice of language and consumers’ attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products. Thus, two research questions are developed:

RQ1. Do language choices in advertising have an impact on consumers’ attitudes towards an advertised product and an advertisement?

RQ2. Do consumer ethnocentrism, ethnocentrism and/or national identity moderate the impact of language used in advertising on consumers’ attitude towards an advertisement and an advertised product?

Quantitative methodology is utilised to answer the research questions. A pilot study was conducted to finalise the product categories for the main study. The potential moderation effects of the social identity-related constructs were tested in a 3x3 between-subjects factorial experiment, conducted via an online survey throughout New Zealand. In total, the responses from 355 participants were taken into account. The findings of the research indicate that choice of language in advertisements influences consumers’ attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products, when advertisements use the Chinese language compared to English, as well as when the advertisements use Chinese language compared to English + Chinese.

Additionally, national identity and ethnocentrism partially moderate the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products, but consumer ethnocentrism does not. The results provide local New Zealand companies with suggestions when they wish to target immigrant consumers through advertising, at the same time avoiding negative responses from native-born New Zealanders.

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Attestation of Authorship

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor materials which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

Signature_____

Date_____

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Ethical Approval

This research was granted ethical approval by Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 24 November 2017 (application number 17/387) and on 29 March 2018 (application number 18/125).

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Nations of immigrants like New Zealand provide local people with opportunities to interact with others with diverse cultural norms and values, who speak different languages, but this also creates problems regarding managing the relationships between people coming from multicultural backgrounds such as inter-group conflicts (Ward & Masgoret, 2008). As for local New Zealand companies, the increasing number of immigrants brings opportunities for them to expand their market, increase their revenue, and therefore gain more profits. Considering advertising effectiveness, local companies may try to use immigrants' languages to reduce the distance between the immigrants and the advertisements, as language is an important element of a person's national identity (Maldonado, 2011). However, local New Zealand consumers may also see these advertisements in their daily life, even though they are not targeted in these advertisements. Therefore, this research seeks to test how local New Zealanders feel about advertisements that target immigrants through using foreign languages, and thus provide local New Zealand companies with guidelines when they create advertising.

Through locating themselves and other people in a system of social categorisation, people find ways to define themselves and others, a process of social identification. The sum of these social identifications that people use to define themselves can be described as their social identity, and the cognitive output of social identity has impacts on both intragroup and intergroup behaviours (Tajfel, 2010). Social identity (one of the cognitive models) may play a role in generating consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements (Hoyer, MacInnis, & Pieters, 2013). From a social identity perspective, congruent choice of language in advertisements may signal their social identity (Lauring, 2008), and their attitude towards advertised products and advertisements may be generated based on the information regarding their social identity.

Additionally, emotional investment in group membership is one of the necessary components that impact the achievement of identification (Tajfel, 1982). Therefore, New Zealanders who develop strong emotional ties towards their country (i.e., national identity) may show less positive attitude towards advertised products and advertisements that include foreign languages (Meier-Pesti & Kirchler, 2003). Moreover, in the process of self-categorisation, there is a

transition from a people's personal identity to the collective and shared group identity, which may finally result in collective group behaviours and attitudes, and even ethnocentrism (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Robinson & Tajfel, 1996). Ethnocentric consumers usually focus on "group self-centeredness" and "group self-importance" (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2012), therefore, they may show less positive attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements that use the foreign languages, as they may perceive the advertisements that include other languages as a threat to the national group superiority, group importance, and group interests (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2008).

When people perceive a threat to their social identity from the out-group, intergroup conflicts may arise, as a result, and people may take actions to against the out-group (Hogg, Abrams, & Brewer, 2017; Tajfel, 2010). Therefore, some consumers perceive buying foreign products is not acceptable (i.e., consumer ethnocentrism) (Shimp & Sharma, 1987), as they think this kind of purchasing behaviours may put their group in a "loss situation", where other groups will gain important economic resources from them (Tajfel, 1982). Similarly, when consumers who have a high level of consumer ethnocentrism see the advertisements that target foreigners using foreign languages, they may also perceive they are in a "lose situation", as the targeted out-group may gain advantages (e.g., investment return), therefore generating negative attitudes towards these advertisements and advertised products (Tajfel, 1982).

1.2 Importance of this Research

According to Tajfel (2010), the situations in which social identity can be "switched on" and prompt social behaviours are unknown. Thus, this research focuses on whether choice of language in advertisements can "switch on" consumers' social identity, and consequently, influencing their attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements. According to the 2013 New Zealand census report, ethnic diversity in New Zealand has increased a lot, with one of the most significant increases being in the broader Asian category. Chinese, India, and Filipino are the top three Asian ethnic groups in the Asian category (*New Zealand has more ethnicities than the world has countries*, 2013). People who live in New Zealand come from different cultural backgrounds, and tend to use different languages in communications. According to Luna and Peracchio (2005), when targeting bilingual consumers' (e.g., immigrants in New Zealand), using their first language in the advertisement might be the best

way to approach them. However, if local New Zealand companies don't know how local New Zealanders feel about these advertisements that target immigrants, this may backfire, as it may generate negative attitudes towards these advertisements and the advertised products. Thus, through conducting this research, suggestions can be provided to local New Zealand companies regarding consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements that target immigrants.

This research will compare local New Zealand consumers' attitudes towards the advertised products and advertisements that involve different language choices (foreign language, English, and English + foreign language). Understanding what social identity-related factors may influence the relationship between choice of language and local New Zealand consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements may help local New Zealand companies to find solutions to reduce the local New Zealand consumers' negative attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements that include foreign languages.

1.3 Research Aim and Gap

Past research regarding language effects in advertising is related to language effectiveness, for example, how to let bilingual consumers process information easily (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008; Luna & Peracchio, 2005) and the language associations of monolingual consumers (e.g., perceptions that English is associated with high quality) (Liu, Murphy, Li, & Liu, 2006; Zhao, Dholakia, Cai, & Zhang, 2013). However, this research deals with whether local New Zealand consumers show less positive attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements that include a foreign language from a social identity perspective. Past research seldom mentions the moderators that have impact on consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements when the choice of language in advertisements is different. Therefore, this research focuses on three potential moderators—national identity, ethnocentrism, and consumer ethnocentrism that may influence the relationship between choice of language in an advertisements and consumers' attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products.

1.4 Research Questions

Based on the research gaps identified, two research questions are developed as below:

RQ1. Do language choices in advertising have an impact on consumers' attitudes towards an advertised product and an advertisement?

RQ2. Do consumer ethnocentrism, ethnocentrism and/or national identity moderate the impact of language used in advertising on consumers' attitude towards an advertisement and an advertised product?

1.5 Methodology

A 3x3 between-subjects factorial experimental design is developed for this research. The experiment is implemented in an online survey, and three language conditions are compared- English, English + Chinese, and Chinese. In the online survey, each participant is shown advertisements for three products (identified from a pilot study) in the same language condition, and then completes the scales for their attitude towards the advertised products and advertisements, three potential moderators, and demographic questions. Data analysis is completed using SPSS. A one-way ANOVA is conducted to test the main effect of this research-whether the choice of language influences consumers' attitudes towards the advertisement and the advertised product. Additionally, Hayes Process Analysis Model One is used to test the moderating roles of national identity, ethnocentrism, and consumer ethnocentrism in the relationship between the choice of language in the advertisement and consumers' attitudes towards the advertisements and advertised products.

1.6 Organisation of the Thesis

The following chapters include a literature review, methodology and research design, data analysis, and discussion. The literature review chapter will firstly focus on social identity theory, and relevant concepts within social identity theory (self-categorisation, intergroup comparison, self-enhancement, intergroup conflicts and competition, and affective dimension of group identity and intergroup relation). Then, the relevant constructs in this research will be

introduced from a social identity perspective-language in advertising, national identity, ethnocentrism, and consumer ethnocentrism. At the end of this chapter, hypotheses and a conceptual framework will be developed based on the research gap. The methodology and research design chapter will include a pilot study (to identify the product categories for the main study), the research design for the main study, the measurement of constructs, refining the survey, data collection method, sample information, data cleaning methods, and the statistical analysis methods. In the data analysis chapter, the findings of the research will be explained. The last chapter presents a discussion of the research findings. Based on the discussion, theoretical contributions, business implications, limitations and future research directions will be identified. Finally, the thesis presents a conclusion.

Chapter Two: Literature Review and Development of Hypotheses

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the literature review for this research, and also indicates how the conceptual framework is developed, based on the relevant literature.

The first part of the literature review introduces social identity theory, which is the fundamental theory and starting point of this research (Table 2.1). In particular, it explains the three constructs that are involved in the identification process - self-categorisation, intergroup comparison, and self-enhancement motivation - and the relationship between these three constructs. Secondly, the literature review moves to the discussion of intergroup conflicts and competition, which result from the protection and enhancement of people's social identity. Then, the literature review explains the affective dimension of group identity - the emotional investment that people make towards their group after identifying with a group.

Following this, the key constructs in this research are illustrated from a social identity perspective - language in advertising, national identity, ethnocentrism, and consumer ethnocentrism. A discussion of the research gaps follows. Finally, based on the research gaps, the hypotheses and a conceptual framework are developed, regarding the roles that national identity, ethnocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism play in the relationship between the choices of language in advertisements and liking of advertised products and advertisements.

Table 2.1: Structure of Chapter Two

2.2 Social Identity	2.2.1 Self-categorisation and Intergroup Comparison
	2.2.2 Self-enhancement and Intergroup Comparison
	2.2.3 Intergroup Conflict and Competition
	2.2.4 Affective Dimension of Group Identity and Intergroup Relation
2.3 Language in Advertising	
2.4 National Identity	
2.5 Ethnocentrism	
2.6 Consumer Ethnocentrism	
2.7 Research Gap	2.7.1 Language in Advertising
	2.7.2 National Identity
	2.7.3 Ethnocentrism
	2.7.4 Consumer Ethnocentrism
2.8 Hypothesis Development	2.8.1 Main Effects (Language)
	2.8.2 Moderation Effect (National Identity)
	2.8.3 Moderation Effect (Ethnocentrism)
	2.8.4 Moderation Effect (Consumer Ethnocentrism)

2.2 Social Identity

From a psychological perspective, identity can be defined as a cognitive concept of the self, which people use to answer the question of who they are. The identities of a person usually relate to individual aspects (an individual as a person), and social aspects (an individual as a group member) (Korte, 2007). A “group” can be defined as two or more people who have interactions with other members; in this process, every group member influences and is influenced by other group members (Tajfel, 2010). According to Zeugner-Roth, Zabkar, and Diamantopoulos (2015), both individual and group aspects are involved in a person’s self-image, referred to as a person’s personal and social identity respectively. People usually not only put emphasis on their personal image (personal identity), but also emphasis on membership of the social groups to which they belong and the emotional significance that is attached to these memberships (social identity). When a person’s social identity is notable, they will consider using their social identity to distinguish themselves from others instead of using their personal identity, and the group’s values and norms may also be internalised by those people. As a result, people may focus more on group interests, fulfilling group-based needs, and reaching group goals (Wang & Zheng, 2012).

Social identity theory explains how social group memberships impact an individual’s self-concept (Tarrant, North, & Hargreaves, 2004); therefore, it puts great emphasis on group behaviour and group membership, which help individuals to understand themselves and others in the social environment. From a social identity perspective, individuals define and evaluate themselves according to the social groups they belong to, and those social groups offer them a collective self-concept (Delamater, 2003). Similarly, according to Huddy and Khatib (2007), social identity refers to people’s awareness of their objective membership in groups and their psychological sense of group attachment; the process in which people identify themselves and other people in groups may result in specific behaviours and outcomes (Willem, Scarbrough, & Buelens, 2008). Social identity also relates to the interactions between individual and both in-groups (the group which they belong to) and out-groups (the group they do not belong to) (Korte, 2007). Because people value group membership, they may, therefore, be influenced by in-group norms in terms of their opinions, behaviours, and feelings (Crocetti, Avanzi, Hawk, Fraccaroli, & Meeus, 2014).

2.2.1 Self-categorisation and Intergroup Comparison

According to Wang and Zheng (2012), the two main steps in the identification process are self-categorisation and intergroup comparison. Firstly, self-categorisation can be defined as a social cognitive process, in which people identify with groups and describe themselves and other people in group terms (Hogg & Reid, 2006). The process of self-categorisation can help people to build the meaning of their social identity and, at the same time, use the norms of those social groups to guide their behaviours (Korte, 2007). Additionally, according to Robinson and Tajfel (1996), through the process of self-categorisation, people's perceptions, behaviours and attitudes could be changed to be consistent with the in-group prototype. Disagreement and diversity of people can be displaced in this process, thereby improving homogeneity and agreement with the in-group. One of the primary motives of self-categorisation is related to uncertainty reduction. In the process of self-categorisation, people may be able to keep the distinctiveness of the in-group through social comparisons, thereby reducing their uncertainty (Garcia, Avishalom, Bazerman, & Miller, 2005). Moreover, people's feelings of uncertainty may be reduced through the process of identifying with a group, as group identification can provide individuals with information as to who they are, and what the proper behaviours are in a social environment (Hogg, Sherman, Dierselhuis, Maitner, & Moffitt, 2007). However, if there are changes in the in-group prototype, uncertainty may be created again. Again, self-categorisation can be the solution to reducing uncertainty (Garcia et al., 2005).

People may cognitively put themselves and others into an in-group and out-groups through social-categorisation. Through the process of self-categorisation, people may try to assimilate themselves to the prototype of the in-group (depersonalisation), and shape their self-perception and behaviours in accordance with the prototype of the in-group, which generally results in collective group behaviours and attitudes (including attitudes towards out-groups), shared norms (Hogg & Terry, 2000), and even ethnocentrism (people always consider their groups are the centre of everything) (Cargile & Bolkan, 2013). In other words, the process of self-categorisation shows the transition from personal identity to a collective and shared group identity (Robinson & Tajfel, 1996), a process that includes a shift of thinking from "my" side to thinking from "our" side (Jackson, 1999). When an individual's social identity is salient, they may consider themselves to be prototypes of their group, instead of perceiving themselves as unique individuals. Group membership become very important at that time, and the attributes implied by that membership may guide an individual's behaviour instead of individual

personality characteristics (Tajfel, 2010). Individuals may also emphasise the similarities between themselves and other group members, and they may mix their own characteristics with the typical features of the in-group. Therefore, in this case, in-group membership becomes the individual's self (Mackie, Devos, & Smith, 2000).

The process of self-categorisation may result in people striving to make positive evaluations of their own group, which can be accomplished by intergroup comparison (Tarrant et al., 2004). People tend to differentiate themselves from other social groups through intergroup comparisons (Li, Wang, & Chen, 2011). Robinson and Tajfel (1996) mentioned that, under certain conditions, the process by which people categorise themselves and other people into different groups may enhance their favourability towards the in-group and discrimination towards the out-group (Crocetti et al., 2014). A positive relationship between the individual's identification with the in-group and intergroup discrimination has been established in past research; therefore, the more individuals identify with the in-group, the more they are to be motivated to display intergroup discrimination (Tajfel, 1982; Tarrant et al., 2004). However, even though intergroup relations incline to be ethnocentric, the degree of an individual's ethnocentrism is still varied. For example, some people may only generate friendly rivalry, but for some individuals, the results may be violent conflict. Extreme examples might be prejudice, authoritarianism, and ethnocentrism. Social dominance theory suggests that those who consider their groups to be dominant and superior to out-groups tend to reject equality and are more likely to be prejudiced (Delamater, 2003).

2.2.2 Self-enhancement and Intergroup Comparison

Another reason why people try to make positive evaluations of the in-group compared to the out-group is related to self-enhancement (Stets & Burke, 2000), that is, people tend to protect and enhance their positive social identity by categorising themselves as a member of an attractive group; Self-esteem can be enhanced and maintained based on membership of a positive in-group (Chattopadhyay, George, & Lawrence, 2004). Moreover, an individual's self-esteem may also be boosted in the process of favourable social comparisons, as in-group distinctiveness may be shown through favourable comparisons with outgroups (Garcia et al., 2005; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). Evaluating the in-group positively or showing the in-group to be better than the out-group, individuals may be able to maintain a positive social identity

(Tarrant et al., 2004). Hogg (2003) also explained self-enhancement motivation in a very simple way, that is, people incline to be motivated to have positive feelings towards themselves as well as a positive sense of self-esteem. Therefore, they are willing to engage in a struggle to protect and promote positive group distinctiveness, as well as to secure their positive social identity. Reducing intergroup distinctiveness may be seen as a threat to the identity of the in-group; therefore, people tend to differentiate their groups from out-groups through intergroup comparisons (Jetten, Spears, & Postmes, 2004; Tajfel, 2010). Additionally, when in-group members perceive their group to be in an inferior position, or their superior position is attacked because of some forms of injustice, in-group members are inclined to take actions to maintain their social psychological distinctiveness (Tajfel, 2010).

Additionally, according to optimal distinctiveness theory, people try to be the same as others in the social group (i.e. assimilation and inclusiveness), but at the same time to be different from others (referred to as differentiation/uniqueness) through intergroup comparisons; therefore, conflicts may be created. Large groups may not be able to make people feel distinctive, but if their groups are very small, individuals may feel too distinctive (Brewer, 1991). For example, young consumers like to buy luxuries, because they want to be unique and to be different from the general public, but they also don't want to be too unique (Ngai & Cho, 2012). Optimal distinctiveness (i.e. the equilibrium) refers to the situation where the in-group is not too large, so in-group members can feel distinctive through intergroup comparisons (Delamater, 2003). Therefore, mid-size groups may reach the equilibrium (i.e. optimal distinctiveness), as people's needs for both distinctiveness and inclusiveness can be balanced at the same time (Hogg et al., 2017).

2.2.3 Intergroup Conflict and Competition

In order to enhance and protect in-group distinctiveness and social identity, people are motivated to compete with other groups. When group members feel their distinctive social identity is threatened by other groups, intergroup conflicts may be generated (Hogg et al., 2017). Intergroup relations explain how people in groups think and feel about people from other groups, and how they act towards people from other groups. When the concept of intergroup relations is put in the context of international relations, it usually refers to the relations between different nations and the conflicts between different nations (Delamater, 2003). As previous

mentioned, through favourable intergroup comparison, individuals may be able to maintain the distinctiveness of the in-group, thereby achieving positive social identity (Turner, 1975). When there is a threat to the distinctiveness of the in-group, intergroup conflicts may arise. Additionally, if in-group goal achievement is threatened by another group, intergroup conflicts may arise, and those cognitive self-conceptual threats may result in actions that are related to group status and protection of group boundaries (Tajfel, 2010). Intergroup conflicts may also relate to the scarcity of resources (e.g., natural resources, and wealth) for which the in-group and out-group compete (Realistic group conflict theory) (Stephan, Ybarra, & Bachman, 1999; Tajfel, 1982)

Additionally, discrimination and prejudice against out-groups are also associated with in-groups' perceptions of the threats that come from out-groups, that is, their own group may lose as other groups gain. Those perceptions may result in in-group members' negative and hostile attitudes towards out-groups, but also may enhance the feelings of membership, cohesiveness and common identity within the in-group (Tajfel, 1982). For example, people from the in-group country may perceive another country as threatening their economy's limited financial resources. Then, in-group consumers may take action against out-groups in their purchasing behaviours, such as refusing to buy products from other countries and only purchasing domestic products. This is termed "consumer ethnocentrism" (Huang, Phau, & Lin, 2010).

2.2.4 Affective Dimension of Group Identity and Intergroup Relation

According to Tajfel (2010), one of the attributes of a crowd's social identity is emotion. Similarly, Tajfel (1982) explained one of the necessary components that influence the achievement of identification is emotional investment in group membership. This is consistent with the emphasis that is put in the definition of social identity: "emotional significance of group membership". The affective aspect of social identity is also mentioned by Jackson (1999), when it comes to the dimensions that are involved in conceptualisations of social identity. In particular, he mentions "attraction to the in-group", which refers to in-group members expressing positive emotions towards their own groups (e.g., "I identify with this group"). Jackson (2002) also illustrated that the affective aspects of social identity usually go with the cognitive and evaluative aspects of social groups and group membership. Past research has found different factors that could be categorised as emotional aspects of social identity. Firstly,

Hinkle, Taylor, Fox-Cardamone, and Crook (1989) found the key elements of the emotional aspects of social identity through factor analysis, such as: individuals are glad to be part of their group, and individuals view themselves as important parts of their group. Moreover, the affective dimensions of social identity may be related to “shared experience”, for example, when individuals perceive the success of their groups as their own success. When they mention their groups, instead of using “I” they are more likely to use “we” (Mael & Tetrick, 1992). Furthermore, Jackson (1999) also mentioned that the emotional aspects of social identity refers to an individuals’ high satisfaction with group membership, and their sense of belonging or commitment to the group.

Different emotions that individuals may generate can be triggered by appraisals of whether the appearance of an event could be harmful or favourable to their goals or desires and whether they have enough resources to deal with the event. Those cognitive appraisals may trigger different emotions, and those emotions may encourage behaviour or action (e.g., to go against other people) (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988). This appraisal theory could be applied to intergroup context. Once individuals categorise themselves into a specific group, the group membership will become part of themselves (Hogg & Terry, 2000); thus, if an event is harmful or favourable to the in-group, it is the same as that event being harmful or favourable to themselves. In this case, individuals may experience emotion on behalf of their group. The cognitive appraisal of different situations will emphasise group concerns, rather than individual concerns. Therefore, the emotions that individuals may experience will depend on whether a particular situation may be favourable or harmful to their group and their social identity (Mackie et al., 2000).

2.3 Language in Advertising

From a social identity perspective, language is used as an individual differentiation that can help people to express their ethnic identity (Lauring, 2008). As language can be seen as a source of social identity, an attribute that people can utilise to develop their social identity (Mok, 2010), it can be a non-visual characteristic that plays an important role in the social categorisation process, as it may make a contribution to intragroup similarity and inter-group differences (Klitmøller, Schneider, & Jonsen, 2015). People may choose a specific language to signal their social identity or belonging to a group (Luna & Peracchio, 2005). People may also associate language with belongingness, pride, and family. As a result, they may tend to be sensitive about

the choice of language in advertisements (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008). Moreover, language is one of the important cultural symbols, which plays a significant role in presenting national identity: when consumers perceive the language characters match their ethnicity, they are more likely to generate emotional and favourable responses towards that advertisement (Maldonado, 2011).

Marketers may use language to attract consumers' attention and make them favour their products in advertisements, as language is associated with culture (De Run, Manickam E., & Jee, 2010). The choice of language in advertisements has attracted researchers' attention, as it is related to communication effectiveness and, therefore, may influence consumers' purchasing intentions and preferences. In particular, the choice of language in advertisements may have impacts on ease of processing of information in advertisements, the persuasiveness of advertisements, and consumers' memory of the advertisements (Noriega & Blair, 2008). For example, bilingual consumers may find it is easier to memorise information in their first language, when there are two languages in the same advertisements (Luna & Peracchio, 2001). Additionally, choosing different language combinations (e.g. English + French) in advertisements may bring more "fun" to consumers. For instance, when consumers see an advertisement containing both English and French, they may think the advertisement is romantic, as "French is the language of love" (Piller, 2001).

In past research, when it came to communication with bilingual consumers' through advertising, generally keeping bilingual consumers' native language in advertisements was thought to be a good idea. For example, Luna and Peracchio (2005) mentioned that putting words or expressions of bilingual consumers' first language in an advertising slogan (creating a mixed-language message) may help to attract bilingual consumers' attentions. Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008) suggested that appropriate choice of language (foreign & local) may depend on whether the products is a luxury or necessity. Indian consumers show more positive attitudes towards necessities advertised in Hindi, and luxury products advertised in English. Also, Chinese consumers prefer seeing the English version of luxury products advertisements rather than a localised version (advertisement in Chinese), due to positive associations with English (i.e. better product quality, more reliable choices (Liu et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2013).

Additionally, ethnocentric consumers may generate a higher level of negative attitudes towards the advertised product and the advertisements that involve other languages. Ethnocentric consumers may be very sensitive about incongruent languages in advertisements, as they may

not accept the cultural elements (e.g., language) from out-groups (Zolfagharian, Braun, & Saldivar, 2017).

2.4 National Identity

National identity refers to people's internalised psychological sense of belonging to a nation. National identity is a form of collective identification which can hold people together in a community, helping them to understand their place in the world, offering them a sense of membership of an ethnic group (Bulmer & Buchanan-Oliver, 2010). For example, Americans who have strong national identity are most likely to follow what good Americans are supposed to do (Huddy & Khatib, 2007). This is consistent with the social identity theory; after people categorise themselves into social groups, those groups will have impacts on people's opinions, behaviours, and their feelings (Crocetti et al., 2014).

Additionally, Blank and Schmidt (2003) defined national identity as the positive and subjectively significant emotional tie to a nation. People with a high degree of national identity - they are most likely to experience positive emotions after choosing to follow group norms (Huddy & Khatib, 2007). For instance, people may develop emotional attachments to their national traditions and symbols (e.g., language, traditional festivals), which are distinguishing as attributes of national identity (Meier-Pesti & Kirchler, 2003). Similarly, Fischer and Zeugner-Roth (2017) explained that national identity illustrates the extent to which people recognise and feel positively about the affiliation with their own countries as well as the significance that they connect to this positive feeling. According to the definition of national identity, the emphasis is on the emotional bond that people build towards their nations, which is consistent with one of the main aspects of social identity: "emotional significance of the group membership" (Tajfel, 1982).

Moreover, social identity theory assumes that people usually aim to achieve positive self-image through a positive comparison of their own groups and other groups, thereby improving their self-esteem (self-enhancement motivation) (Arbore, Soscia, & Bagozzi, 2014). Because of the emotional bond that people build with their countries (national identity), and the desires to maintain a positive self-image, people are motivated to have in-group bias towards the groups which they belong to (e.g., their nations), and their group members in comparison to out-groups. Therefore, national identity can also be defined as an affective construct, which influences

people's evaluations of in-groups and out-groups, and their behaviours (Fischer & Zeugner-Roth, 2017). National identity is dynamic. Through history, the concepts of national identity have changed a lot, such as with the USA and Germany. These changes have taken place in the process of globalisation, which has impacts on the status of minorities and immigrants in different nations, and also influences the way that people define themselves in the social environment. However, conflicts still exist. The process of globalisation offers the chances to break the boundaries between different national groups; therefore, negative attitudes towards out-groups (e.g., immigrants) may be reduced. On the other hand, there is still incentive for in-group members to maintain their unique significance, and to differentiate themselves from other national identities (Ariely, 2012).

Keillor and Hult (1999) explained that national identity is also related to a sense of one's culture. In particular, culture can help people to identify who they are, where they belong, and their unique characteristics compared to other nations. Therefore, national identity can be defined as "a set of meanings" that is held by a given culture that can be used to differentiate it from other cultures (Keillor, Hult, Erffmeyer, & Babakus, 1996). One of the main parts of national identity is "culture focus", which provides marketers with clues when they develop marketing strategies - create standardisation globally, but also make specialisation locally (Bruce, Hult, Robert, & Emin, 1996). Additionally, in this case, "cultural focus" is not on the similarities and differences between cultures; it is on the role that cultural and national uniqueness (e.g., language) play in the formation of sense of identity. According to Batat (2015), French people consider their culture (e.g., language) help them to maintain their distinctiveness and differentiate themselves from people of other nations; it is a source of pride, thereby improving self-esteem. Language, especially, is one of the most important symbols of national identity (Mohammadpur, Karimi, & Mahmoodi, 2014).

2.5 Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism can be defined as "the view of things in which one's own group is the center of everything" (Sumner, 2013), and can also be conceptualised as "group self-centeredness" and "group self-importance". Ethnocentric people consider their own group (e.g., the country that they come from) to be the standard when they evaluate and judge other groups, and put emphasis on the superior position of their group (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2012). Additionally,

people may also put a great emphasis on their ethnic group interests and their culture, and also consider what the best is for their group members (e.g., welfare) (refers to Exploitativeness). (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2008). People with a high level of ethnocentrism may perceive that in-group interests are threatened when the in-group and the out-group compete for scarce resources (Schlueter & Scheepers, 2010). This is consistent with the social identity theory (Tajfel, 2010).

Additionally, ethnocentrism also includes some intragroup expressions: ethnocentric people put great emphasis on the integration of their ethnic group or cultural group, and they believe cohesion should be their foremost goal. Moreover, ethnocentric people usually show a strong dedication to their group and the group interests, regardless of personal sacrifices (refers to devotion) (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). These expressions may be associated with in-group positivity, and may result in a positive evaluation of the in-group. Ethnocentrism may be triggered when people perceive the in-group is under attack or is threatened by another group (Neuliep, 2017), and these expressions of ethnocentrism have different reactions to various types of threats. However, the association between in-group positivity and ethnocentrism is not always strong under certain conditions (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2012), and it sometimes has a strong correlation with a negative attitude towards out-groups and even prejudice (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2008). Additionally, Bizumic and Duckitt (2012) mention that ethnocentric people may display different levels of negative attitudes towards out-groups, such as indifference and hatred, which means that, although the outgroup attitudes are not always hostile, ethnocentric people's in-group attitude is more positive than their out-group attitude (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2008).

Ethnocentrism usually creates barriers in intergroup interactions, as it sometimes links to the tendency that people hold negative evaluations and even hostile attitudes towards the out-groups. These negative evaluations of out-groups are often considered as a hindrance of intercultural interactions (Lwin, Stanaland, & Williams, 2010). According to Cargile and Bolkan (2013), in intercultural communications, ethnocentrism reduces people's motivation to have interactions with people from other cultures, and may create emotional reactions to the cultural differences, which may result in reduced interests in understanding other cultural messages. Additionally, people with a high level of ethnocentrism may consider other cultures to be less attractive than their in-group culture, therefore reducing interest in knowing about other cultures (Neuliep, 2017).

Ethnocentric people may show in-group culture preferences in intercultural communications (Yoo & Donthu, 2005), such as preferences for cultural symbols (e.g., language) (Mensah, Bahhouth, & Ziemnowicz, 2011), and consider the out-group culture to be inferior (Yoo & Donthu, 2005). This may be because they treat their national symbols as part of their identity and, at the same time, they may also try to reject symbols from dissimilar cultures (Mensah et al., 2011). Thus, ethnocentrism is also defined as “lacking acceptance of cultural diversity”, therefore, resulting in negative stereotypes of other cultures (Dong, Day, & Collaço, 2008), and contempt for other cultural symbols. Ethnocentric people may also put emphasis on the distinction between the in-group and out-group, therefore, they may generate negative attitude when their cultural symbols are put together with other cultural symbols, as they treat out-group cultures as subordinate (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997).

2.6 Consumer Ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism can be defined as a unique economic form of ethnocentrism that creates consumers' beliefs in terms of the appropriateness and norms of consuming foreign products (Shankarmahesh, 2006). A high degree of ethnocentrism may not always directly link to a high degree of consumer ethnocentrism. For instance, Indian consumers are generally ethnocentric and have a high level of patriotism, but they are still willing to purchase foreign products (Marinkovic, 2017). Shimp and Sharma (1987) also define consumer ethnocentrism as the view of consumers who believe the group that they belong to is better than other groups and their domestic products are superior compared to foreign products; therefore, ethnocentric consumers reject purchasing foreign products, and may reject people who come from dissimilar cultures. In contrast to non-ethnocentric consumers, ethnocentric consumers consider that purchasing foreign products is wrong, instead of making purchase decisions based on product features, prices, quality, and other reasons, and they perceive consuming foreign products to be bad for their domestic economy (Shankarmahesh, 2006). This is consistent with the intergroup conflict theory (Tajfel, 2010).

Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism usually show different attitudes towards people from the national out-group compared to people from the national in-group, and use the national in-group as a standard to judge people from the national out-group (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004). Ethnocentric consumers' attitudes may be associated

with negative and positive stereotypes for the in-group (own ethnic group) and out-group (foreign countries). However, the stereotypes formed may not be fixed all the time: when ethnocentric consumers gather information, which tells the differences between one and other foreign countries, their original stereotypical attitudes of that country could be changed (either diluted or enhanced) (Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, & Melewar, 2001).

The antecedents and principal sources of consumer ethnocentrism include cultural openness, conservatism, patriotism, nationalism, cultural homogeneity, collectivism, individualism, economic factors, and political factors (Irena & James, 2008; Marinkovic, 2017). According to Shih-Tung, Strombeck, and Chia-Ling (2013), collectivists may be careful about the influences of their behaviours on their groups (e.g., nations). Collectivists tend to show a higher level of consumer ethnocentrism compared to individualists, and they prefer consuming domestic products over foreign products. As for collectivist countries, the reason why consumers are ethnocentric is because they love their countries and are emotionally attached to their countries (patriotism). Collectivists may perceive purchasing foreign products as showing that they don't love their country (Shankarmahesh, 2006). As regards individualistic countries, ethnocentric consumers may put emphasis on the economic superiority of their countries, as well as national dominance, which refers to nationalism (Balabanis et al., 2001).

Ethnocentric consumers usually have a strong sense of identity and belonging. This is directly linked to what they choose to purchase (Liu et al., 2006). To be more precise, people tend to purchase products to express their identity and to describe who they are and where they belong (self-expression); purchasing behaviour can support consumers' sense of social identity (Smith et al., 2008). This is similar to how Shimp and Sharma (1987) have described-ethnocentric consumers: they usually have negative attitudes towards foreign products, and have favourable attitudes towards products from their own country, or countries which have similar cultures as them (Shih-Tung et al., 2013). In this situation, they may consider that buying products from their country is a way of showing they are members of the in-group (their social identity), and also to differentiate themselves from out-groups. Additionally, according to self-congruity theory, people may consider purchasing products including domestic products that are congruent with their self-image, or fit well with themselves (Quester, Karunaratna, & Goh, 2000).

Additionally, the different attitudes that ethnocentric consumers hold may follow the attitudes of other members who belong to the same social group as them (their ethnic group) instead of

considering their personal attitudes. This is because ethnocentric consumers categorise themselves into a national group, and they tend to act according to their group norms and values (Korte, 2007). Therefore, ethnocentric consumers consider whether their buying behaviour is acceptable or not according to the in-group members' behaviours and values (Taylor & Jaggi, 1974). This is similar to what Fischer and Zeugner-Roth (2017) stated, that consumer ethnocentrism can be defined as a normative construct which guides consumers' purchasing behaviour, and ethnocentric consumers believe that consuming products from other countries is morally inappropriate, as that will be harmful for their country's economy. That's why ethnocentric consumers choose to consume domestically-produced products, as they believe it is morally appropriate and could be beneficial for the development of national economy (Marinkovic, 2017). Therefore, ethnocentric consumers usually have the motives of anti-out-group motives, and foreign products are usually portrayed as the antithesis in their mind (Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). This is consistent with the explanation of intergroup conflicts by Tajfel (1982), as in-group and out-group compete for the "scarce resources"; therefore, in-group members may perceive out-groups as threats, which will result in certain behaviours of in-group members, especially when in-group members perceive their groups losing benefits because out-groups gain.

Moreover, according to Zolfagharian et al. (2017), ethnocentric consumers may favour the elements and meanings of their culture (e.g., language) compared to other cultures. They may try to keep the salient features of their groups (e.g., their own cultures) and maintain their group distinctiveness, to draw boundaries from out-groups. Therefore, in-group members may try to avoid showing the behaviours that could relate them to other groups. In other words, in-group members may engage in certain behaviours to minimise associations with out-groups. According to Jackson (1999), people from higher status social groups are more likely to be attracted to their own groups (emphasis on the affect towards their own groups), and tend to have a more negative attitude towards the out-groups. In destination countries for immigrants (e.g., New Zealand), immigrants are generally seen as low status group members. When the host majority's dominant social status is legitimate, they are likely to show a negative attitude towards the minority or out-group (e.g., immigrants) if their existing status is threatened or the benefits to the in-group are reduced (Mana, Orr, & Mana, 2009).

2.7 Research Gap

This section explains current gaps in research regarding the roles that national identity, ethnocentrism, and consumer ethnocentrism play in the relationship between choice of language in an advertisement and a consumer's attitude towards advertised products and advertisements.

2.7.1 Language in Advertising

Past research has found that choice of language in advertisements may create differences in people's attitude towards the advertisements and advertised products because of language associations (e.g., English may be associated with high quality) (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008; Liu et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2013). As for bilingual consumers, past research suggests that keeping their first language in the advertisement is a good idea in order to attract their attention (Luna & Peracchio, 2005), because when consumers see language matching their ethnicity, this may generate an emotional response towards the advertisements. For example, the use of a combination of local and foreign languages has been recommended, where the advertised product is not a necessity or a luxury (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008). Therefore, when local companies target bilingual consumers (e.g., immigrants), including their first language might generally be a good idea. However, whether local consumers who can only speak the national language will have a positive attitude towards bilingual advertisements and the advertised products in these advertisements is unknown. Testing local consumers' attitudes towards advertisements with different language choices may offer suggestions to local companies when they plan to target foreign consumers.

2.7.2 National Identity

After people have identified with their national group, a collective identification (national identity) may be generated (Bulmer & Buchanan-Oliver, 2010), which results in collective behaviours, feelings, opinions (Crocetti et al., 2014), and a significant emotional tie towards their nation (Blank & Schmidt, 2003). Moreover, people who have a high level of national

identity usually focus on cultural uniqueness (e.g., language) and favour their own cultural symbols (Bruce et al., 1996). Thus, they may like their own cultural symbols more than other groups' cultural symbols (e.g., language), or the combination of other groups' cultural symbols and their own cultural symbols. For example, in advertisements, people with a high level of national identity may prefer advertised products and advertisements that contain their language more, compared to the advertised products and advertisements that include foreign languages. However, whether the level of national identity plays a role in the relationship between choice of language in advertisements and consumers' attitudes towards the advertisements and advertised product has not been clearly explored in the past research.

2.7.3 Ethnocentrism

According to Sumner (2013), ethnocentric people consider their group is the centre of everything, and they put greater emphasis on “group self-centeredness”, “group self-importance” and in-group interests; therefore, they judge other groups according to their group (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2012). Ethnocentric people always show in-group preference over the other groups, such as through their preference for cultural symbols (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2008). In intercultural communications, ethnocentric people generally display less interest in information of other cultures, and tend to perceive other cultural symbols (e.g., language) as less attractive compared to their own culture (Neuliep, 2017). However, whether this tendency will be apparent when they view advertisements that include other languages has not been clearly examined in past research. Additionally, as ethnocentric people are sensitive about the distinction of their in-group from out-groups (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997), when ethnocentric people see their language alongside other languages in an advertisement, they may experience a less positive attitude towards that advertisements and even the advertised product, especially when the advertised products represent limited economic or natural resources (e.g., job). Therefore, knowing whether ethnocentrism plays a role in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products is important for marketers.

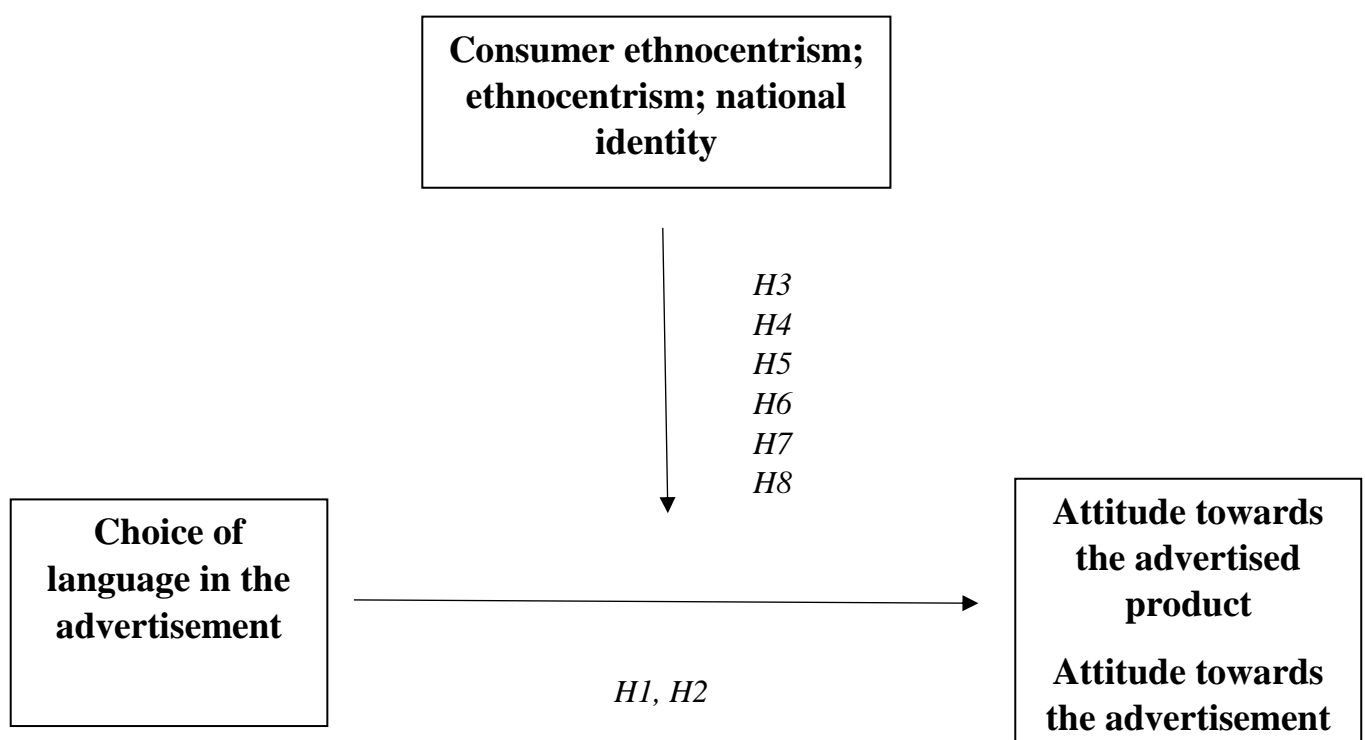
2.7.4 Consumer Ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism can be defined as a unique economic form of ethnocentrism that forms consumers' beliefs regarding the appropriateness and norms for consuming foreign products (Shankarmahesh, 2006), and is, therefore, also defined as a “normative construct” (Zolfagharian et al., 2017). The reason why ethnocentric consumers believe that they should reject foreign products is because they believe buying foreign products may put them into the “loss” situation, as the out-group gains from them (Tajfel, 1982). However, whether consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism also perceive the sense of “loss” and generate negative attitude towards advertisements and the advertised products, when they see local companies target out-groups, has not been explored in the past research, especially when the advertised products involve limited economic or natural resources (e.g., real estate) (Tajfel, 1982). Additionally, consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism always try to maintain the in-group distinctiveness and superiority, reduce connections to out-groups (Zolfagharian et al., 2017), and maintain the distance from lower status groups (e.g., immigrants) (Jackson, 1999). Thus, whether the combination of a foreign language and the native language or a foreign language alone in advertisements will prompt negative attitudes among ethnocentric consumers, needs to be explored.

2.8 Hypothesis Development

This section presents hypothesis development for the main effect (language), and the moderation effects (national identity, ethnocentrism, and consumer ethnocentrism) of this research based on the research gaps and identified above. A conceptual framework will be developed based on the hypotheses.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework



2.8.1 Main Effects (Language)

The choice of language in an advertisement may create differences in consumers' attitudes towards the advertisements or the advertised products due to language associations (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008; Liu et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2013). Consumers may be more likely to show a positive attitude towards advertisements that match their ethnicity, such as through language (Maldonado, 2011), as the choice of language could differentiate them from an out-group

(Hansen & Liu, 1997), and people also aim to keep the psychological distinctiveness (i.e. superior position) (Tajfel, 2010). The combination of two languages in an advertisement may not clearly show the differences in status of the in-group and the out-group, which may influence consumers' attitudes towards these advertisements or the advertised products. Moreover, the advertisements that only contain the foreign language may clearly signal the out-group, and, therefore, people may show negative attitude towards the advertisement and advertised products (Tajfel, 2010). Therefore, eight hypotheses are generated as below:

Hypothesis 1: The choice of language in an advertisement will influence a consumer's attitude towards the advertised product.

Hypothesis 1a: Consumers will like an advertised product more when this product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 1b: Consumers will like an advertised product more when this product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 1c: Consumers will like an advertised product more when this product is advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 2: The choice of language in an advertisement will influence a consumer's attitude towards the advertisement.

Hypothesis 2a: Consumers will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 2b: Consumers will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 2c: Consumers will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a moderator can be defined as a variable that can change the strength of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. Consumer ethnocentrism, ethnocentrism, and national identity may play moderating roles in the relationship between the choice of language in the advertisement, and consumers' attitude towards advertised products and advertisements.

2.8.2 Moderation Effect (National Identity)

National identity is used as an “affective construct” that influences how people evaluate the in-group and out-group (Fischer & Zeugner-Roth, 2017). It emphasises the emotional bond that people build towards their nations (Blank & Schmidt, 2003), and people with a high level of national identity are usually emotionally attached to their national traditions and national symbols (e.g., language, traditional festivals) (Meier-Pesti & Kirchler, 2003). Additionally, people with a high level of national identity usually put emphasis on their cultural uniqueness, and may use cultural symbols (e.g., language) to differentiate themselves from other groups (Batat, 2015). Therefore, companies may need to be careful with the language that they choose to use in advertising to avoid offending consumers' sense of national identity, as consumers who have a strong sense of national identity may be very sensitive about the choice of language, and always prefer their own language (“attraction to the in-group”) (Jackson, 1999) in communication activities (Mohammadpur et al., 2014) over foreign languages or even the combination of foreign language and their own language (Batat, 2015). On the other hand, for consumers who have a low level of national identity, there may be no differences in their attitudes towards the advertisements or the advertised products when the choice of language in advertisements is varies. Therefore, two main hypotheses (and several sub-hypotheses) are generated as below:

Hypothesis 3: Consumers' level of national identity moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the product advertised.

Hypothesis 3a: Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertised product more when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 3b: Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertised product more when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 3c: Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertised product more when the product is advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 3d: Consumers with a low degree of national identity will display no difference in their attitude towards a product advertised using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 4: Consumers' level of national identity moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the advertisement.

Hypothesis 4a: Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 4b: Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 4c: Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 4d: Consumers with a low degree of national identity will display no difference in their attitude towards an advertisement using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

2.8.3 Moderation Effect (Ethnocentrism)

“Group self-centeredness” and “group self-importance” can be used to explain why ethnocentric people put emphasis on their own group interests, and judge other groups by using their group as the standard, and build boundaries between the in-group and the out-group (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2012; Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). Therefore, it can be said that ethnocentric people prefer their culture over other cultures, and they may not be interested in other cultures (Cargile & Bolkan, 2013). Also, ethnocentric people care about the in-group salience of intercultural communications, therefore, they may always prefer that their own cultural symbols (e.g., language) are involved in intercultural communications (Lwin, Stanaland, & Williams, 2010). Additionally, as ethnocentric people consider their groups to be superior to out-groups (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997), when they see their culture symbols (e.g., language) put together with other cultural symbols (e.g., other languages) in the same advertisement, they may manifest a less positive attitude towards these advertisements and advertised products. Furthermore, competition for scarce resources between the in-group and the out-group may be perceived as a threat to in-group interests (Schlueter & Scheepers, 2010). Therefore, consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism may generate less positive attitudes towards the advertised product and the advertisement that includes a foreign language, if the advertised product represents limited economic or natural resources. Additionally, according to Delamater (2003), even though intergroup relations incline to be ethnocentric, people may exhibit different levels of ethnocentrism, and those who have a lower level of ethnocentrism may display a similar attitude towards the advertisements or the advertised products that use different languages. Therefore, two main hypotheses (and several sub-hypotheses) are generated as below:

Hypothesis 5: Consumers’ degree of ethnocentrism moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the product advertised, if the product involves limited economic or natural resources.

Hypothesis 5a: Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 5b: Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 5c: Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 5d: Consumers with a low degree of ethnocentrism will display no difference in their attitude towards an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 6: Consumers' degree of ethnocentrism moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources.

Hypothesis 6a: Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 6b: Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 6c: Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 6d: Consumers with a low degree of ethnocentrism will display no difference in their attitude towards the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources, using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

2.8.4 Moderation Effect (Consumer Ethnocentrism)

Consumer ethnocentrism can be defined as a unique economic form of ethnocentrism that forms consumers' beliefs regarding the appropriateness and norms of consuming foreign products (Shankarmahesh, 2006). The reason ethnocentric consumers believe that they should reject the foreign products is because they believe this kind of behaviour will have a negative impact on their economy, and cause unemployment (Shankarmahesh, 2006), and buying foreign products may put them into a "loss" situation, as the out-group gains from them (Tajfel, 1982). Therefore, when companies try to target immigrants by using foreign languages in advertisements, and if the advertised products also represents limited economic or natural resources, ethnocentric consumers may feel the out-group gains from their group therefore generating a negative attitude towards the advertisement and / or the advertised products.

Additionally, ethnocentric consumers normally have a strong sense of social identity (Liu et al., 2006); therefore, ethnocentric consumers are motivated to maintain the in-group distinctiveness, keep the salient features of their group (e.g., language), and reduce the associations with the out-group (Zolfagharian et al., 2017), especially with lower status groups (e.g., immigrants) (Jackson, 1999). Native consumers, especially those with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism, may try to differentiate themselves from immigrants, and perceive immigrants as the out-group. Therefore, when they see advertisements that only contain other languages, their negative attitude towards these advertisements and even the advertised products may be triggered, as these languages are in-congruent with their identity. Also, when

they see their language and other countries' languages are on the same advertisement, they may feel uncomfortable, as they may feel the distinctiveness of their group cannot be maintained. However, for those people who have a lower level of consumer ethnocentrism, there might be no differences in their attitude towards advertised products and advertisements when the choice of language in advertisements is different. Therefore, two main hypotheses (and several sub-hypotheses) are generated as below:

Hypothesis 7: Consumers' degree of consumer ethnocentrism moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the product advertised, if the product involves limited economic or natural resources.

Hypothesis 7a: Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 7b: Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 7c: Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 7d: Consumers with a low degree of consumer ethnocentrism will display no difference in their attitude towards an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 8: Consumers' degree of consumer ethnocentrism moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources.

Hypothesis 8a: Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Hypothesis 8b: Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 8c: Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).

Hypothesis 8d: Consumers with a low degree of consumer ethnocentrism will display no difference in their attitude towards the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources, using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).

Chapter Three: Methodology and Research Design

3.1 Introduction

There are seven main parts in this chapter. Firstly, a pilot study is explained to identify the product categories for the main study. Then, to test the moderating roles of ethnocentrism, consumer ethnocentrism, and national identity in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards the advertised product and attitude towards the advertisement, a 3x3 between-subjects factorial experimental design is introduced together with the measurement of constructs, and the structure of the online survey. Additionally, refining of the survey was conducted to improve the quality of the online survey (e.g., delete the errors in the online survey). Moreover, data collection method, sample information (sample size, respondent characteristics, and respondent recruitment), and data cleaning methods are indicated. Lastly, the statistical analysis methods that will be used in the data analysis are explained (e.g., One-way ANOVA).

3.2 Pilot Study

A pre-test was conducted to identify three high-involvement products – two that are perceived to involve scarce economic or natural resources and one that does not for the main study. In past research, consumers from developing countries showed more ethnocentrism or in-group bias when they purchase low-involvement products compared to high-involvement products (Kinra, 2006). However, consumers from developed countries have shown different attitudes towards high-involvement products compared to those from developing countries, and they preferred the high-involvement products (e.g., TV sets) from their home countries to high-involvements from foreign countries (Henderson & Hoque, 2010; Nagashima, 1970; Okechuku, 1994). As the data collection for the main study was completed in New Zealand, therefore, in the main study, high-involvement products will be a control factor in the main study, which is different from the product categories that past research focus on (e.g., necessary products) (Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1994). Moreover, according to Zaichkowsky (1985), high-involvement is associated with personal relevance. When people perceive the product is highly relevant to them, they will be motivated to process the information in the advertisements, and

information regarding social identity may influence their attitude towards advertisements and advertised products (Hoyer et al., 2013). Additionally, another boundary condition of the main study is related to resource scarcity. According to Tajfel (1982), one of the main reasons for intergroup conflicts is associated with “scarce resources”, and might also be the reason why anti out-group attitudes are generated. In-group members, especially ethnocentric members often consider out-groups as threats to scarce economic or natural resources. Therefore, consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism and ethnocentrism may show different attitudes towards products that involve limited economic or natural resources (Sharma et al., 1994).

There are two main parts to the survey for the pilot study. The first part is the screening questions; participants were asked to complete the screening questions before they moved to the second part of the survey. All the participants that were included in this study are New Zealanders who were born in New Zealand, who can only speak English, and are aged 18 and above. This is because this research aims to test local consumers’ attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements that use different languages. Therefore, all participants need to be New Zealanders. Additionally, bilingual consumers may process information differently compared to people who can only speak the local language fluently (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008), therefore, participants need to be people who can only speak the local language (i.e., English).

Seven products (Auckland house or apartment, university course of education, financial loan or mortgage, job, greeting card, large screen TV, and laptop computer) were tested in the second part of the survey. 62 participants were recruited by the CINT Company, and they were asked to answer on a 7-point scale whether those products are important to them or not (1=Extremely important, 2=Very important, 3=Moderately important, 4=Neither important nor unimportant, 5=Somewhat unimportant, 6= Not at all important, 7=Of no important), and whether those products involve a limited economic or natural resource (1=Strongly agree, 2=Agree, 3=Somewhat agree, 4=Neither agree nor disagree, 5=Somewhat disagree, 6=Disagree, 7=Strongly disagree) (see Appendix Two).

After participants finished the survey, the mean of each question was compared. To begin with, the descriptive statistics are used to compare the means of each question, and then paired-sample T-test was conducted to finalise the products that will be used for the main study.

3.2.1 Pilot Study Results

Table 3.2.1: Mean Importance Ratings

	N	Mean
A job - How important would getting a job be to you?	62	1.56
Financial loan or mortgage - How important would this purchase be to you?	62	2.16
University course of education - How important would this purchase be to you?	62	2.35
A new laptop computer - How important would this purchase be to you?	61	2.46
Auckland house or apartment - How important would this purchase be to you?	62	2.48
A greeting card - How important would this purchase be to you?	62	2.97
A large screen TV - How important would this purchase be to you?	62	3.35
Valid N (listwise)	61	

Table 3.2.2: Mean Rating of Economic or Natural Resources

	N	Mean
A job - In your opinion, does a job represent a limited economic or natural resource?	62	3.13
Auckland house or apartment - In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?	62	3.32
A new laptop computer - In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?	62	3.81
Financial loan or mortgage - In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?	62	3.70
A greeting card - In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?	62	3.78
University course of education - In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?	62	4.00
A large screen TV - In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?	62	4.03
Valid N (listwise)	62	

Descriptive statistics were used to compare the means for each question. According to Table 3.2.1 and Table 3.2.2, job ($\bar{x}=1.56$), Auckland house or apartment ($\bar{x}=2.48$) and laptop computer ($\bar{x}=2.46$) are relatively important to participants. Respondents also thought job ($\bar{x}=3.13$), and Auckland house or apartment ($\bar{x}=3.32$) represent limited economic or natural resource. Then, paired-samples T-test was conducted for further analysis.

Table 3.2.3: Results from Paired-Samples T-test (Importance Ratings of House vs. Laptop)

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)
Auckland house or apartment - How important would this purchase be to you?	2.49	61	1.795	.141	60	.888
A new laptop computer - How important would this purchase be to you?	2.46	61	1.177			

Paired-samples T-tests were conducted to compare the differences between the importance of purchasing an Auckland house or apartment and a new laptop computer. According to Table 3.2.3, there is no significant differences between the degree of importance of Auckland house or apartment and a lap top computer was not significant ($t(60) = .14, p > .10$). Therefore, as for participants, both products are important to them, which may be considered as high-involvement products (Zaichkowsky, 1985).

Table 3.2.4: Results from Paired-Samples T-test (Rating of Economic or Natural Resources - House vs. Laptop)

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Auckland house or apartment - In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?	3.32	62	1.607	-2.027	61	.047
A new laptop computer - In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?	3.81	62	1.556			

According to Table 3.2.4, there was a significant difference between whether Auckland house or apartment and a laptop computer include a limited economic or natural resource ($t(61) = -2.03, p < .05$) with the mean of group one (Auckland house or apartment) being 3.32 and the mean of group two (laptop computer) being 3.81. The results indicate that Auckland houses or apartments are perceived to involve limited economic or natural resources, whereas, a laptop computer is not considered to involve limited economic or natural resource.

In conclusion, based on the results above, a job, an Auckland house or apartment and a laptop computer are considered as high-involvement products, and Auckland houses or apartments and jobs are considered as products that involve limited economic or natural resources. On the other hand, laptop computers do not involve limited economic or natural resources. Based on the results, these three products will be used in the main study.

3.3 Research Design

A 3x3 between-subjects factorial analysis was conducted to test the moderating effects in the conceptual framework (Figure 2.1). The independent variable is the choice of language in the advertisement, the dependent variables are consumers' attitudes towards the advertised product or attitudes towards the advertisement, and the moderators are ethnocentrism, consumer ethnocentrism, and national identity.

According to the results from the pilot study, the high-involvement product categories that were used in the main study are-a job, an Auckland house, and a laptop computer. The product categories that involve limited economic or natural resource are job and Auckland house. A laptop does not include limited economic or natural resource. Therefore, three advertisements were created for these three products, and each advertisement had three versions-Chinese version, English version, and Chinese + English version (see Appendix Five). The only difference between the advertisements for each product category is language; the pattern, style, and background colours are controlled (Liu et al., 2006). Additionally, the company names in the advertisements were made-up names - New Zealand Recruitment Agency, New Zealand Electronics, and New Zealand Real-Estate. These three companies were introduced as New Zealand owned and operated companies in the online survey, as this research aims to help companies to make advertising strategies (focus on the choice of language in the advertisements) to target immigrants while taking local consumers' attitudes towards these advertisements and advertised products into consideration. Another reason is to avoid bias when participants see these advertisements, if real company names are used in the advertisements, participants' attitude towards advertisements and advertised products may be influenced by their previous attitude towards these real companies (Swaminathan, Stilley, & Ahluwalia, 2008).

Additionally, to make the laptop advertisement closer to reality, the phrase "Mid-Year Sale" was included in the advertisement, as the data collection happened in late May and early June 2018 in New Zealand. These nine advertisements were grouped into three conditions - condition 1 (English), condition 2 (English + Chinese), and condition 3 (Chinese), each condition includes three advertisements (for three product categories). Participants were randomly exposed to one condition in the survey – three product categories, based on the advertisements that they saw, and then completed the scales for each variable in the conceptual

framework. Moreover, except for the ethnocentrism scale (the sequence of the questions can't be changed according to the instruction), the questions in national identity scale and consumer ethnocentrism scale were presented in random order in the online survey to avoid order bias (Dommeyer & Moriarty, 2000).

3.4 Measurements of Constructs

In total, five measurements were used to test three moderators (ethnocentrism, consumer ethnocentrism and national identity), and the two dependent variables (attitude towards advertised products and advertisements). According to Desselle (2005) and Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998), a scale needs to involve at least three items, and all scales that were used in the survey followed this standard. In the online survey, all the scales either come from highly cited journal articles or textbooks, or high-ranking journals. As the ethnocentrism scale is calculated by a special formula, therefore a 5-point scale is used as in the original source. All the other constructs were measured using 7-point scales, to maintain the consistency of the survey. According to Dawes (2008), 5-point and 7-point scales produce almost the same mean score; therefore, the usage of a 5-point scale for the ethnocentrism scale should not create significant bias in the results.

3.4.1 Ethnocentrism

As participants' ethnocentrism level was calculated by a formula according to the instruction of the ethnocentrism scale-using 18 minus the sum of scale item 4, 7, and 9, and then add the result to the sum of items 1, 2, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 18, 20, 21 and 22. All the items were measured by a 5-point scale (the same version from the original source) from "strongly disagree=1" to "strongly agree=5" (McCroskey, 2015)(cited by 1010). Items used are detailed in Table 3.4.1 below:

Table 3.4.1: Ethnocentrism Scale (McCroskey, 2015)

Ethnocentrism Scale Item
“Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.”
“My culture should be the role model for other cultures.”
“People from other cultures act strange when they come into my culture.”
“Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.”
“Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.”
“I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.”
“People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.”
“Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.”
“I respect the values and customs of other cultures.”
“Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.”
“Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.”
“I have many friends from different cultures.”
“People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.”
“Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.”
“I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.”
“I apply my values when judging people who are different.”
“I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.”
“I do not cooperate with people who are different.”
“Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.”
“I do not trust people who are different.”
“I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.”
“I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.”

3.4.2 Consumer Ethnocentrism

Participants' consumer ethnocentrism level was measured by the four highest-loading items from the 17-ITEM CETSCALE, which was created by Shimp and Sharma (1987) (JMR, cited by 2759), and also used by Steenkamp, Hofstede, and Wedel (1999) (JM, cited by 1277). As this research is conducted in New Zealand, therefore, all items were changed to the New Zealand version. All the items were measured on a 7-point scale from "strongly disagree=1" to "strongly agree=7". The score of consumer ethnocentrism was calculated as the mean of the following four items. Items used are detailed in Table 3.4.2 below:

Table 3.4.2: Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (Shimp & Sharma, 1987)

Original consumer ethnocentrism scale item	Adapted consumer ethnocentrism scale item
"Americans should not buy foreign products, because this hurts American business and causes unemployment."	"New Zealanders should not buy foreign products, because this hurts New Zealand business and causes unemployment."
"A real American should always buy American-made products."	"A real New Zealander should always buy New Zealand-made products."
"It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Americans out of jobs."	"It is not right to purchase foreign products, because this puts New Zealanders out of jobs."
"We should purchase products manufactured in America instead of letting other countries get rich off us."	"We should purchase products manufactured in New Zealand instead of letting other countries get rich off us."

3.4.3 National Identity

The final moderator, national identity, was measured by four items which load strongly on national identity in the factor analysis (Huddy & Khatib, 2007) (AJPS, cited by 463). Items were measured by using different 7-point scales from “not at all =1” to “very much =7”, from “not at all well =1” to “very well=7”, from “never=1” to “always=7”, or from “not at all important=1” to “very important=7”. The score of national identity was calculated as the mean of the following four items. Items were used are detailed in Table 3.4.3 below:

Table 3.4.3: National Identity Scale (Huddy & Khatib, 2007)

Original national identity scale item	Adapted national identity scale item
“To what extent do you see yourself as a typical American?”	“To what extent do you see yourself as a typical New Zealander?”
“How well does the term American describe you?”	“How well does the term New Zealander describe you?”
“When talking about Americans, how often do you say “we” instead of “they”?”	“When talking about New Zealanders, how often do you say "we" instead of "they”?”
“How important is being American to you?”	“How important is being a New Zealander to you?”

3.4.4 Attitude towards the Advertised Product and Attitude towards the Advertisement

The dependent variables-attitude towards the advertised product or attitude towards the advertisement were measured by using the scale for attitude towards a general object from Bruner (2017)'s *Marketing Scales Handbook*. Moreover, these items are also similar to the measurements of this construct in past research that focus on "favourability and unfavorability of the advertising" or "positivity or negativity of the advertising". However, as this research focuses on the effects of language on consumers' attitudes towards an advertisement and a advertised product, therefore the scale items did not include other aspects of advertising effectiveness measurements, such as the entertainment and functional value (Mehta, 2000). All the items were measured by 7-point scales from "not at all favorable" to "extremely favorable", from "not at all likable" to "extremely likable", from "not at all positive" to "extremely positive". The scores of attitude towards the advertised product and the advertisement were calculated as the mean of the following 3 items separately. Items used are detailed in **Table 3.4.4** below:

Table 3.4.4: Attitude towards a General Object Scale (Bruner, 2017)

Original attitude towards a general object scale item	Adapted attitude towards a general object scale item
"How favourable do you feel about ____?"	"How favorable do you feel about this advertisement?"
"How likable is this ____?"	"How likable is this advertisement?"
"How positive is ____?"	"How positive is this advertisement?"
	"How favorable do you feel about the advertised product or service?"
	"How likable is the product or service in this advertisement?"
	"How positive is the product or service in this advertisement?"

3.5 Structure of the Online Survey

The six sections of the online survey are detailed in Table 3.5.1. Firstly, participants were shown an information sheet (see Appendix Four) at the beginning of the online survey. In the information sheet, participants were informed about the purpose of this research, informed they are not obliged to participate in this research, and they could withdraw from the study if they want to. More importantly, participants were informed that respondents would be anonymous, and the researchers would not get information about their identity. To give participants some idea about the topics of the online survey, a general instruction about the language environment in New Zealand was given for the priming purpose after they completed the screening questions (Brace, 2018).

Table 3.5.1 Online Survey Structure

Sections in the online Survey
1. Screening questions (to only get answers from people who can only speak English or Māori and were born in New Zealand).
2. Measure of consumers' attitudes towards three advertised products and three advertisements (in one language condition)
3. Measure of national identity
4. Measure of consumer ethnocentrism
5. Measure of ethnocentrism
6. Demographics (age, gender, ethnicity, education level, income level, region of New Zealand)

3.6 Refining the Survey

Before sending out the survey to participants, refining of the online survey was completed within AUT Marketing department. In total, 10 lecturers and PhD candidates were involved in the process of survey refining, they pretended to be participants and completed the survey. After getting comments from them, the wording of some questions, instructions, and the presentation of the survey were adjusted.

3.7 Data Collection Method and Sample

This section explains the details of sample size, respondent characteristics, the respondent recruitment method, and the data cleaning method.

3.7.1 Sample Size, Respondent Characteristics, and Respondent Recruitment

For the main study, in total, 604 participants were recruited by CINT Company, the online survey was sent out to all participants through Qualtrics. Participants were recruited nationwide, throughout New Zealand. As bilingual consumers may process information differently compared to people who can only speak their language (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008), therefore, all participants in this study are people who can only speak New Zealand's local languages (i.e., English or Māori). Additionally, this research aims to give local New Zealand companies suggestions when they plan to target immigrants, and also take local consumers' reactions into account; therefore, all participants were people who were born in New Zealand. Moreover, the product categories for the main study were a house, a job, and a laptop. People aged 18 and above may be more likely to consider purchasing their own houses, finding jobs, and purchasing their own computers. Therefore, all participants also needed to be New Zealanders who are 18 years old or above. People who could not meet these requirements were screened out automatically after completing the screening questions.

3.7.2 Data Cleaning

According to Johnson (2005), one of the disadvantages of using an internet survey to collect the data is related to the invalid responses, as participants may have a sense of reduced accountability when they complete the online survey compared to the printed survey. However, online panels such as Qualtrics could generate paradata for researchers to improve the validity of the responses. For example, Qualtrics can record how long participants spend on the online survey. This information is further used to clean the data, after the data collection is finished (Kreuter, 2013).

When the data cleaning was adopted in this study, two types of invalid data were considered to delete-Speeders and straightliners. The reason why speeders need to be deleted is that these participants generally don't think about the questions carefully, and they may also make hasty judgements, therefore providing the invalid responses (Aust, Diedenhofen, Ullrich, & Musch, 2013). Following Schoenherr, Ellram, and Tate (2015), speeders were selected according to the average time that a respondent spent to complete the online survey, and 50% less than average time in this study were considered as speeders. Additionally, straightliners were checked according to response answer patterns. For example, if a respondent chose "4" for all questions on the same page, that respondent was judged to be a straightliner and that respondent deleted from the data set. In total, around 10 straightliners were deleted in the data cleaning process. Finally, after removing the speeders and straightliners and screened out people who cannot meet the participation requirements (e.g., participants need to be people who were born in New Zealand), we finally kept 355 respondents, which is acceptable, as larger sample size usually can improve the power of the moderation analysis (Fairchild & MacKinnon, 2009).

3.8 Statistical Analysis

Firstly, the internal consistency method was applied to test the reliability of scales in this research; coefficient alpha and item-to total correlations were checked (Cronbach, 1951). The sample demographics characteristics were tested by conducting one-way ANOVA, which explained whether there are differences between consumers' national identity level, ethnocentrism level, and consumer ethnocentrism level according to demographic characteristics (e.g., gender and income level). Additionally, correlation analysis was

conducted to test the relationship between national identity, ethnocentrism, and consumer ethnocentrism. As for the main effects of this research, one-way ANOVA was conducted to test whether the choice of language result in differences in consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements (the main effects). As the data on national identity is identified as substantially non-normal in distribution, therefore, log data transformation was applied to the measurement of this construct (Osborne, 2002). Lastly, the potential moderating effects of ethnocentrism, consumer ethnocentrism, and national identity in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards advertised products or advertisements were tested by using Hayes Process Analysis Model One (Hayes, 2018).

Chapter Four: Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on findings of the study, which will be presented in three parts. The first part focuses on the sample demographics. The second part is the reliability assessment; the reliability of all scales are examined using Cronbach's alpha and item-to total correlations (Churchill, 1979; Cronbach, 1951). The last part is hypothesis testing. Hypotheses that are related to main effects are tested using one-way ANOVA, and hypotheses that are related to moderating effects are tested by using Hayes Process Analysis Model One.

4.2 Sample Demographics

One-way ANOVA is conducted to analyse the differences between respondents' national identity level, ethnocentrism level, and consumer ethnocentrism level according to demographic characteristics (gender, age, income level, education level, ethnicity, and regions of New Zealand).

4.2.1 Gender

Table 4.2.1: Gender of Respondents

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Male	171	48.9
	Female	179	51.1
	Total	350	100.0

Table 4.2.2: Results from One–Way ANOVA - Differences between Males’ and Females’ Ethnocentrism, National Identity, and Consumer Ethnocentrism

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	2011.569	1	2011.569	13.566	.000
	Within Groups	51603.288	348	148.285		
	Total	53614.857	349			
Consumer Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	.347	1	.347	.129	.720
	Within Groups	937.332	348	2.693		
	Total	937.679	349			
National Identity	Between Groups	.939	1	.939	.626	.429
	Within Groups	521.826	348	1.500		
	Total	522.765	349			

According to Table 4.2.1, 350 respondents provided information about their gender. 48.9% of respondents are male (n=171), and 51.1% of respondents are female (n=179). Therefore, the number of female and male respondents are almost equal. According to Table 4.2.2, there are significant differences in males’ and females’ ethnocentrism level ($P < .000$). The descriptive table also shows that males ($\bar{x} = 37.31$) are more ethnocentric compared to females ($\bar{x} = 32.51$).

4.2.2 Age Groups

Table 4.2.3: Age Groups of Respondents

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	18 - 24	53	15.1
	25 - 34	72	20.6
	35 - 44	63	18.0
	45 - 54	58	16.6
	55 - 64	39	11.1
	65 - 74	64	18.3
	75 - 84	1	0.3
	Total	350	100.0

Table 4.2.4: Results from One-way ANOVA - Differences between Age Groups on Ethnocentrism, National Identity, and Consumer Ethnocentrism

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	2114.782	6	352.464	2.347	.031
	Within Groups	51500.075	343	150.146		
	Total	53614.857	349			
Consumer Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	14.509	6	2.401	.892	.501
	Within Groups	923.270	343	2.692		
	Total	937.679	349			
National Identity	Between Groups	21.655	6	3.609	2.470	.024
	Within Groups	501.110	343	1.461		
	Total	522.765	349			

According to Table 4.2.3, 350 respondents provided information about their age. 15.1% of respondents aged between 18-24 years old (n=53), 20.6% of them aged between 25-34 years old (n=72), 18% of them aged between 35-44 years old (n=63), 16.6 % of them aged between 45-54 years old (n=58), 11.1% of them aged between 55-64 (n=39), and 18.3% of them aged between 65-74 years old (n=64). According to Table 4.2.4, for people who are in different age groups, there are significant differences in their ethnocentrism level and national identity level ($p < .05$). The Descriptive table also shows that younger people tend to be more ethnocentric compared to older people (e.g., people aged between 18 to 24 years old ($\bar{x} = 39.08$) compared to people aged between 65 to 74 years old ($\bar{x} = 32.64$). However, the Descriptive table shows that older people tend to have higher level of national identity (e.g., people aged between 65 to 74 years old ($\bar{x} = 6.23$) compared to people aged between 18 to 24 years old ($\bar{x} = 5.77$).

4.2.3 Income Level

Table 4.2.5: Income Level of Respondents

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Less than \$10,000	29	8.3
	\$10,000 - \$19,999	29	8.3
	\$20,000 - \$29,999	49	14.1
	\$30,000 - \$39,999	44	12.6
	\$40,000 - \$49,999	37	10.6
	\$50,000 - \$59,999	24	6.9
	\$60,000 - \$69,999	17	4.9
	\$70,000 - \$79,999	24	6.9
	\$80,000 - \$89,999	21	6.0
	\$90,000 - \$99,999	24	6.9
	\$100,000 - \$149,999	33	9.5
	More than \$150,000	17	4.9
	Total	348	100.0

Table 4.2.6: Results from One-way ANOVA - Differences between Income Levels on Ethnocentrism, National Identity, and Consumer Ethnocentrism

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	3453.267	11	313.933	2.124	.018
	Within Groups	49662.695	336	147.806		
	Total	53115.963	347			
Consumer Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	68.590	11	6.235	2.423	.007
	Within Groups	864.519	336	2.573		
	Total	933.109	347			
National Identity	Between Groups	16.403	11	1.491	.991	.454
	Within Groups	505.556	336	1.505		
	Total	521.959	347			

According to Table 4.2.5, 348 respondents provided information about their income levels. The biggest three groups are people who earn \$20,000 - \$29,999 a year (14.1%) (n=49), people who earn \$30,000 - \$39,999 a year (12.6%) (n=44), and people who earn \$40,000 - \$49,999 a year (10.6%) (n=37). According to Table 4.2.6, for people with different income levels, there are significant differences in their ethnocentrism level ($p < .05$) and consumer ethnocentrism levels ($p < .01$). According to the Descriptive table, people who earn more money annually tend to be less ethnocentric (e.g., people who earn \$100,000 - \$149,999 annually ($\bar{x} = 31.73$) compared to people who earn \$10,000 - \$19,999 annually ($\bar{x} = 38.62$)). Similarly, according to the Descriptive table, people who earn more money annually tend to have a lower level of consumer ethnocentrism (e.g., people who earn \$100,000 - \$149,999 annually ($\bar{x} = 4.00$) compared to people who earn \$10,000 - \$19,999 annually ($\bar{x} = 4.37$)).

4.2.4 Education Level

Table 4.2.7: Education Level of Respondents

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Less than level 1 NCEA	57	16.6
	Level 1, 2, 3 NCEA	106	30.9
	Level 4, 5, 6 diploma	68	19.8
	Bachelor's degree	72	21.0
	Postgraduate, Honours, Master's	33	9.6
	Doctorate	7	2.0
	Total	343	100.0

Table 4.2.8: Results from One-Way ANOVA - Differences between Education Levels on Ethnocentrism, National Identity, and Consumer Ethnocentrism

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	2390.146	5	478.029	3.218	.007
	Within Groups	50061.854	337	148.551		
	Total	52452.000	342			
Consumer Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	40.258	5	8.052	3.132	.009
	Within Groups	866.287	337	2.571		
	Total	906.545	342			
National Identity	Between Groups	11.059	5	2.212	1.472	.198
	Within Groups	506.482	337	1.503		
	Total	517.542	342			

According to Table 4.2.7, there are 343 respondents who provided information about their education level. 16.6 % of respondents completed less than level 1 NCEA (n=57), 30.9% of respondents completed Level 1, 2, 3 NCEA (n=106), 19.8% of respondents completed Level 4, 5, 6 diploma (n=68), 21% of respondents completed Bachelor's degree (n=72), and 9.6% of respondents completed Postgraduate, Honours, or Master's degree (n=33). Moreover,

according to Table 4.2.8, people with different education levels show significant differences in their ethnocentrism level ($p < .01$) and consumer ethnocentrism level ($p < .01$). According to the Descriptive table, people who completed lower level qualification tend to be more ethnocentric (e.g., people who completed Less than level 1 NCEA ($\bar{x} = 38.35$) compared to people who completed Postgraduate, Honours, or Master's degree ($\bar{x} = 33.45$). Similarly, according to the Descriptive table, people who completed lower level qualification tend have a higher level of consumer ethnocentrism (e.g., people who completed Less than level 1 NCEA ($\bar{x} = 4.38$) compared to people who completed Postgraduate, Honours, Master's degree ($\bar{x} = 3.21$)).

4.2.5 Ethnicity

Table 4.2.9: Ethnicity of Respondents

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	European New Zealander	277	79.1
	Māori	47	13.4
	Pacific Island	10	2.9
	Asian (e.g., Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Indian)	9	2.6
	Other	7	2.0
	Total	350	100.0

Table 4.2.10: Results from One–Way ANOVA - Differences between Ethnicities on Ethnocentrism, National Identity, and Consumer Ethnocentrism

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	607.837	4	151.959	.989	.413
	Within Groups	53007.020	345	153.644		
	Total	53614.857	349			
Consumer Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	13.490	4	3.372	1.259	.286
	Within Groups	924.189	345	2.679		
	Total	937.679	349			
National Identity	Between Groups	12.055	4	3.014	2.036	.089
	Within Groups	510.710	345	1.480		
	Total	522.765	349			

According to Table 4.2.9, 350 respondents provided information about their ethnicity. Most respondents (79.1%) are European New Zealanders (n=277), only 13.4% of respondents are Māori (n=47), 2.9% of them are Pacific Islanders (n=10), and 2.6 % of them are Asians (n=9) (e.g., Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Indian). According to Table 4.2.10, people from different ethnicities show marginally significant differences in their level of national identity ($P < .10$). According to the Descriptive table, respondents who are European New Zealanders have the highest level of national identity ($\bar{x} = 5.93$) compared to other groups, which is followed by Māori respondents ($\bar{x} = 5.82$). However, Asian New Zealanders have a relatively lower level of national identity ($\bar{x} = 5.00$).

4.2.6 Regions

Table 4.2.11: Regions of Respondents

		Frequency	Valid Percent
Valid	Northland	13	3.7
	Auckland	88	25.2
	Waikato	38	10.9
	Bay of Plenty	17	4.9
	Gisborne	6	1.7
	Hawke's Bay	17	4.9
	Taranaki	7	2.0
	Manawatu-Wanganui	29	8.3
	Wellington	42	12.0
	Tasman	4	1.1
	Nelson	11	3.2
	Marlborough	1	.3
	West Coast	4	1.1
	Canterbury	40	11.5
	Otago	25	7.2
	Southland	7	2.0
	Total	349	100.0

Table 4.2.12: Results from One–Way ANOVA - Differences between Regions of New Zealand on Ethnocentrism, National Identity, and Consumer Ethnocentrism

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	2200.402	15	146.693	.965	.492
	Within Groups	50620.165	333	152.013		
	Total	52820.567	348			
Consumer Ethnocentrism	Between Groups	84.799	15	5.653	2.232	.005
	Within Groups	843.463	333	2.533		
	Total	928.262	348			
National Identity	Between Groups	20.792	15	1.386	.922	.540
	Within Groups	500.670	333	1.504		
	Total	521.462	348			

According to Table 4.2.11, 349 respondents provide information about the place where they live in New Zealand. The three biggest groups are people who live in Auckland (25.2%) (n=88), people who live in wellington (12%) (n=42), and people who live in Canterbury (11.5%) (n=40). According to Table 4.2.12, people live in different regions show significant differences in their level of consumer ethnocentrism ($p < .01$). According to Descriptive table, people who live in Otago ($\bar{x} = 4.55$), Waikato ($\bar{x} = 4.50$), and Manawatu-Wanganui ($\bar{x} = 4.00$) show relatively higher level consumer ethnocentrism compared to people who live in Auckland ($\bar{x} = 3.76$), Wellington ($\bar{x} = 3.35$), and Canterbury ($\bar{x} = 3.56$).

To sum up, males are more ethnocentric compared to females, younger people tend to be more ethnocentric compared to older people, people who earn less money annually tend to be more ethnocentric, people who with a lower level of education tend to be more ethnocentric. Additionally, people who earn less money annually tend to have a higher level of consumer ethnocentrism, and people who with a lower level of education tend have a higher level of consumer ethnocentrism. Also, people who live in Otago, Waikato, Manawatu-Wanganui tend to have a higher level of consumer ethnocentrism compared to people who live in big cities (e.g., Auckland) in New Zealand. Moreover, older people tend to have higher level of national identity.

4.3 Reliability of Scale Measurement

According to Churchill (1979) and Cronbach (1951), Cronbach's alpha and item-to total correlation should be used as a measure of internal consistency. Strong internal consistency can be shown when Cronbach's alpha is greater than 0.70, and it also shows that the items within each scale represent the construct (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Additionally, an item-to total correlation value should be more than .30 for each item, otherwise, it shows that the item does not correlate with the overall scale very well.

Table 4.3.1: Reliability Analysis Results for Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale

Scale	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-to total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Consumer Ethnocentrism	New Zealanders should not buy foreign products, because this hurts New Zealand business and causes unemployment.	3.76	1.760	.880	0.917
	A real New Zealander should always buy New Zealand-made products.	3.77	1.904	.801	
	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because this puts New Zealanders out of jobs.	3.70	1.794	.796	
	We should purchase products manufactured in New Zealand instead of letting other countries get rich off us.	4.51	1.847	.768	

Table 4.3.2: Reliability Analysis Results for National Identity Scale

Scale	Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-to total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
National Identity	To what extent do you see yourself as a typical New Zealander?	5.80	1.446	.699	0.830
	How well does the term New Zealander describe you?	5.98	1.436	.729	
	When talking about New Zealanders, how often do you say "we" instead of "they"?	5.65	1.661	.535	
	How important is being a New Zealander to you?	6.04	1.450	.691	

Table 4.3.3: Reliability Analysis Results for Ethnocentrism Scale

Scale	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-to total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Ethnocentrism	Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.	2.30	1.248	.752	0.923
	My culture should be the role model for other cultures.	2.71	1.275	.677	
	Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.	2.54	1.259	.706	
	Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.	2.31	1.260	.747	
	Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.	2.80	1.125	.628	
	Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.	2.59	1.157	.730	
	People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.	3.02	1.118	.521	
	Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.	2.24	1.216	.820	

Table 4.3.3 Continued

Scale	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-to total correlation
Ethnocentrism	I do not cooperate with people who are different.	2.02	1.198	.752
	I do not trust people who are different.	2.23	1.240	.797
	I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.	2.12	1.250	.735
	I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.	2.03	1.264	.765
	Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture. (Reversed)	1.93	1.130	.305
	People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures. (Reversed)	2.11	1.020	.268
	I respect the values and customs of other cultures. (Reversed)	1.93	1.035	.326

Table 4.3.4: Reliability Analysis Results for Attitude towards Laptop Advertisement Scale

Scale	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-to total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Attitude towards Laptop Advertisement	How favourable do you feel about this advertisement?	3.28	1.733	.870	.943
	How likable is this advertisement?	3.21	1.697	.918	
	How positive is this advertisement?	3.47	1.760	.855	

Table 4.3.5: Reliability Analysis Results for Attitude towards Laptop Scale

Scale	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-to total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Attitude towards Laptop	How favourable do you feel about the advertised product or service?	3.39	1.647	.876	.947
	How likable is the product or service in this advertisement?	3.45	1.730	.918	
	How positive is the product or service in this advertisement?	3.46	1.716	.876	

Table 4.3.6: Reliability Analysis Results for Attitude towards House Advertisement Scale

Scale	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-to total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Attitude towards House Advertisement	How favourable do you feel about this advertisement?	3.32	1.810	.932	.958
	How likable is this advertisement?	3.33	1.758	.927	
	How positive is this advertisement?	3.57	1.813	.877	

Table 4.3.7: Reliability Analysis Results for Attitude towards House Scale

Scale	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-to total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Attitude towards House	How favourable do you feel about the advertised product or service?	3.37	1.765	.948	.974
	How likable is the product or service in this advertisement?	3.44	1.770	.949	
	How positive is the product or service in this advertisement?	3.51	1.809	.936	

Table 4.3.8: Reliability Analysis Results for Attitude towards Job Advertisement Scale

Scale	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-to total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Attitude towards Job Advertisement	How favourable do you feel about this advertisement?	3.28	1.788	.932	.966
	How likable is this advertisement?	3.24	1.796	.944	
	How positive is this advertisement?	3.40	1.783	.903	

Table 4.3.9: Reliability Analysis Results for Attitude towards Job Scale

Scale	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-to total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Attitude towards Job	How favourable do you feel about the advertised product or service?	3.28	1.767	.952	.975
	How likable is the product or service in this advertisement?	3.26	1.808	.954	
	How positive is the product or service in this advertisement?	3.44	1.845	.931	

According to Table 4.3.1, Table 4.3.2, Table 4.3.3, Table 4.3.4, Table 4.3.5, Table 4.3.6, Table 4.3.7, Table 4.3.8, and Table 4.3.9, the Cronbach's Alpha values in all scales are above 0.70, and the values of item-to total correlations are all above 0.30, except for one item in the Ethnocentrism scale "People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures. (Reversed)" ($r=.268$). However, smaller correlation coefficient in big samples may still be acceptable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1978), and the sample size for the current study is 355, therefore the internal consistency can still be demonstrated in all scales.

4.4 Correlations between Moderators (Consumer Ethnocentrism, National Identity, and Ethnocentrism)

Table 4.4.1: Results for Correlations between Consumer Ethnocentrism, National Identity, and Ethnocentrism

	Consumer Ethnocentrism	National Identity	Ethnocentrism
Consumer Ethnocentrism	-	.314**	.437**
National Identity		-	.049
Ethnocentrism			-

** $p < 0.001$ (2-tailed)

According to the Table 4.4.1 above, there is a significant ($p < .000$) and weak correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and national identity ($r=.31$). Similarly, the correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and ethnocentrism is also significant ($p < .000$) and moderate ($r=.44$). However, the correlation between national identity and ethnocentrism ($r=.049$) is not significant ($P > .10$).

4.5 Hypothesis Testing

4.5.1 Main Effects

A one –way ANOVA was conducted to test **Hypothesis 1** (Field, 2013):

Hypothesis 1: *The choice of language in an advertisement will influence a consumer's attitude towards the advertised product.*

Hypothesis 1a: *Consumers will like an advertised product more when this product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Hypothesis 1b: *Consumers will like an advertised product more when this product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Hypothesis 1c: *Consumers will like an advertised product more when this product is advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Table 4.5.1: Results from One –Way ANOVA - Differences between Consumers’ Attitudes towards Three Advertised Products

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Laptop	Between Groups	97.200	2	48.600	20.703	.000
	Within Groups	826.304	352	2.347		
	Total	923.504	354			
House	Between Groups	111.897	2	55.949	20.582	.000
	Within Groups	956.843	352	2.718		
	Total	1068.741	354			
Job	Between Groups	75.897	2	37.948	13.032	.000
	Within Groups	1024.981	352	2.912		
	Total	1100.878	354			

According to the results in Table 4.5.1, there are significant differences in participants’ attitude towards the three advertised products when the languages used in the advertisement are different ($P < .000$). There are significant differences in participants’ attitude towards the laptop ($F(2, 352) = 20.70, P < .000$), the job ($F(2, 352) = 13.03, P < .000$), and the house ($F(2, 352) = 20.58, P < .000$).

Tukey post-hoc analysis and the Descriptive table show significant differences in liking of the laptop between Condition 1 and 3 (English $\bar{x} = 3.87$; Chinese $\bar{x} = 2.70, p < .000$) and condition 2 and 3 (English + Chinese $\bar{x} = 3.74$; Chinese $\bar{x} = 2.70, p < .000$), but not between condition 1 and 2 (English $\bar{x} = 3.87$; English + Chinese $\bar{x} = 3.74, p > .10$).

Tukey post-hoc analysis and the Descriptive table show significant differences in liking of the job between condition 1 and 3 (English $\bar{x} = 3.58$; Chinese $\bar{x} = 2.69, p < .000$) and condition 2 and 3 (English + Chinese $\bar{x} = 3.73$; Chinese $\bar{x} = 2.69, p < .000$), but not between condition 1 and 2 (English $\bar{x} = 3.58$; English + Chinese $\bar{x} = 3.73, p > .10$).

Tukey post-hoc analysis and the Descriptive table show significant differences in liking of the house between condition 1 and 3 (English \bar{x} =3.90; Chinese \bar{x} =2.66, $p < .000$) and condition 2 and 3 (English + Chinese \bar{x} =3.78; Chinese \bar{x} =2.66, $p < .000$), but not between condition 1 and 2 (English \bar{x} =3.90; English + Chinese \bar{x} =3.78, $p > .10$). Therefore:

Hypothesis 1a is not supported

Hypothesis 1b is supported

Hypothesis 1c is supported

Thus, Hypothesis 1 is partially supported.

One –way ANOVA was also conducted to test **Hypothesis 2** (Field, 2013):

Hypothesis 2: *The choice of language in an advertisement will influence a consumer's attitude towards the advertisement.*

Hypothesis 2a: *Consumers will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Hypothesis 2b: *Consumers will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Hypothesis 2c: *Consumers will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Table 4.5.2: Results from One–Way ANOVA-Differences between Consumers’ Attitudes towards Three Advertisements

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Laptop ad	Between Groups	109.543	2	54.772	22.915	.000
	Within Groups	841.366	352	2.390		
	Total	950.910	354			
House ad	Between Groups	129.665	2	64.832	24.754	.000
	Within Groups	921.924	352	2.619		
	Total	1051.589	354			
Job ad	Between Groups	81.147	2	40.574	14.591	.000
	Within Groups	978.793	352	2.781		
	Total	1059.941	354			

Results from Table 4.5.2 show that there are significant differences in participants’ attitudes towards three advertisements when the languages used in the advertisement are different ($P<.000$). There are significant differences in participants’ attitude towards the laptop advertisement ($F(2, 352) = 22.92, P<.000$), the job advertisement ($F(2, 352) = 14.59, P<.000$), and the house advertisement ($F(2, 328) = 24.75, P<.000$).

Tukey post-hoc analysis and the Descriptive table show significant differences in liking of the laptop advertisement between condition 1 and 3 (English $\bar{x} = 3.83$; Chinese $\bar{x} = 2.55, p < .000$) and condition 2 and 3 (English + Chinese $\bar{x} = 3.58$; Chinese $\bar{x} = 2.55, p < .000$), but not between condition 1 and 2 (English $\bar{x} = 3.83$; English + Chinese $\bar{x} = 3.58, p > .10$).

Tukey post-hoc analysis and the Descriptive table show significant differences in liking of the job advertisement between condition 1 and 3 (English $\bar{x} = 3.65$; Chinese $\bar{x} = 2.64, p < .000$) and condition 2 and 3 (English + Chinese $\bar{x} = 3.64$; Chinese $\bar{x} = 2.64, p < .000$), but not between condition 1 and 2 (English $\bar{x} = 3.65$; English + Chinese $\bar{x} = 3.64, p > .10$).

Tukey post-hoc analysis and the Descriptive table show significant differences in liking of the house advertisement between Condition 1 and 3 (English \bar{x} =3.94; Chinese \bar{x} =2.57, $p < .000$) and Conditions 2 and 3 (English + Chinese \bar{x} =3.72; Chinese \bar{x} =2.57, $p < .000$), but not between Conditions 1 and 2 (English \bar{x} =3.94; English + Chinese \bar{x} =3.72, $p > .10$). Therefore:

Hypothesis 2a is not supported

Hypothesis 2b is supported

Hypothesis 2c is supported

Thus, Hypothesis 2 is partially supported.

4.5.2 Results of Testing Main Effects

Table 4.5.3: Results of Testing main effects

Main Hypothesis	Results
H1	Partially Supported
H1a	Not Supported
H1b	Supported
H1c	Supported
H2	Partially Supported
H2a	Not Supported
H2b	Supported
H2c	Supported

4.5.3 Moderation effects

The first moderation effects considered were H3a – H8a:

Hypothesis 3a: *Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertised product more when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Hypothesis 4a: *Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Hypothesis 5a: *Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Hypothesis 6a: *Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Hypothesis 7a: *Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Hypothesis 8a: *Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), to test a moderation effect, the first step is to demonstrate the main effect – that the dependent variables (attitude towards the advertised product and attitude towards the advertisement) are influenced by the independent variable (choice of language in the advertisement). The main effects in this study have been demonstrated by conducting one-way ANOVA, which shows that there are significant

differences in people's attitude towards advertisements and advertised products, when advertisements use the foreign language (Chinese) compared to the local language (English), and when advertisements use the foreign language (Chinese) compared to the combination of foreign language and local language (Chinese + English).

However, when advertisements use the local language (English) (condition 1) compared to the combination of foreign language and local language (English +Chinese) (condition 2), there are no significant differences in consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements. Therefore, as they are all relate to the comparison of condition 1 (English) and condition 2 (English +Chinese):

Hypotheses 3a is not supported

Hypotheses 4a is not supported

Hypotheses 5a is not supported

Hypotheses 6a is not supported

Hypotheses 7a is not supported

Hypotheses 8a is not supported.

Hayes Process Analysis Model One was then used just to assess the moderating effects of national identity, consumer ethnocentrism, and ethnocentrism in the relationship for condition 1 (English) versus condition 3 (Chinese), and condition 2 (English + Chinese) versus condition 3 (Chinese) for the three advertised products and the three advertisements (Hayes, 2018). The results of testing these moderation effects follow.

4.5.3.1 Moderating Effect of National Identity in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers' Attitudes towards the Advertised Product

Hypothesis 3b: *Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertised product more when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Hypothesis 3d: *Consumers with a low degree of national identity will display no difference in their attitude towards a product advertised using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Table 4.5.4: National Identity as a Moderator – Condition 1 (language=English) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		National identity		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop	-.586	.000	.412	.346	-.949	.031
Job	-.450	.000	.434	.378	-1.058	.032
House	-.622	.000	.406	.378	-.957	.038

A moderation effect can be demonstrated when the interaction term (predictor X moderator) is significant (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Therefore, according to Table 4.5.4, national identity moderates the relationship between choice of language in the advertisements and consumers' attitudes towards all three products (laptop, house, and job) when these advertisements use foreign language (Chinese) compared local language (English) ($P < .05$).

Laptop - The first significant interaction effect in Table 4.5.4 ($b = -.949$, 95% CI [-1.809, -.090], $t = -2.18$, $p < .05$) means that national identity moderates the relationship between language choice (Chinese versus English) and consumers' attitudes towards laptop in the advertisement. Also, the simple slopes are examined (Figure 4.5.1) to interpret the moderation effect in detail as below:

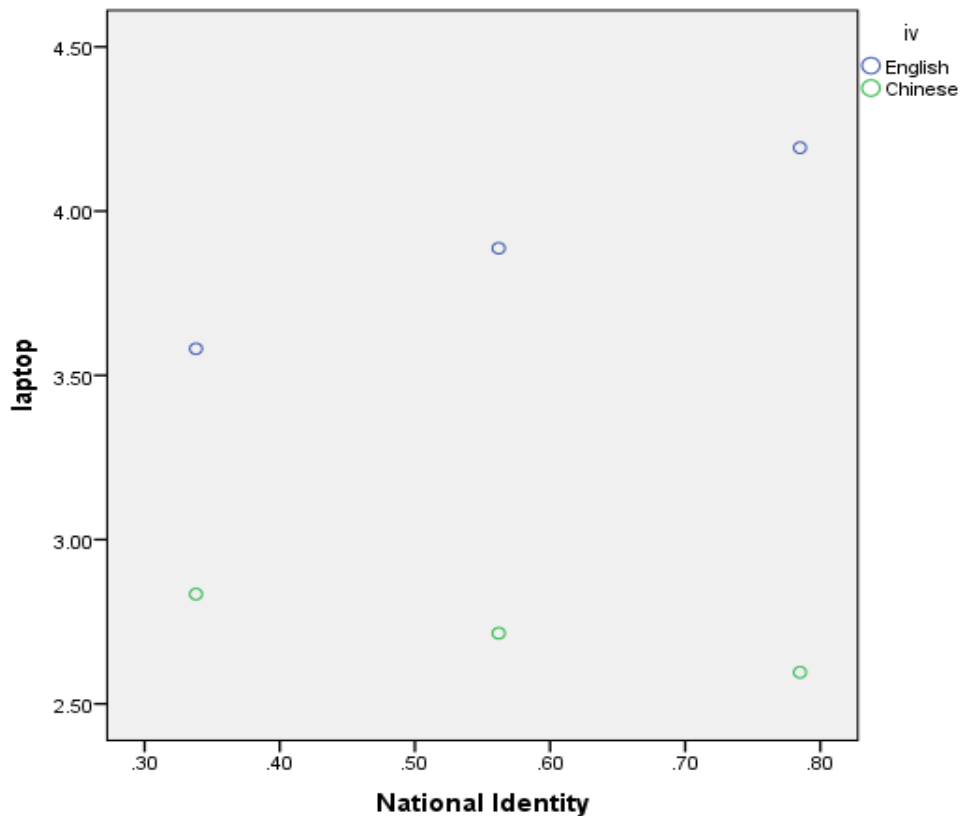
1. When consumers have a high level of national identity, there are significant differences in their attitudes towards the laptop in the Chinese advertisement and the English advertisement, ($b = -.798$, 95% CI [- 1.070, - .527], $t = -5.79$, $p < .000$). Consumers who have a high level of national identity like English-language laptop advertisement more compared to the same advertisement in Chinese.

Hypothesis 3b is supported.

2. When consumers have a low level of national identity, there are also significant differences in their attitudes towards the laptop in the Chinese advertisement and the English advertisement, ($b = -.373$, 95% CI [- .645, -.102], $t = -2.71$, $p < .01$). Therefore,

Hypothesis 3d is not supported.

Figure 4.5.1: National Identity as a Moderator - Conditional Effects of Choice of Language on Consumers' Attitudes towards Laptop in the Advertisement (English & Chinese)



Job - Moreover, there is another significant result in Table 4.5.4, ($b = -.1058$, 95% CI [- 2.025, -.092], $t = - 2.16$, $p < .05$), which means national identity moderates the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus English) and consumers' attitudes towards job in the advertisement. Also, the simple slopes are examined (Figure 4.5.2) to interpret the moderation effect in detail as below:

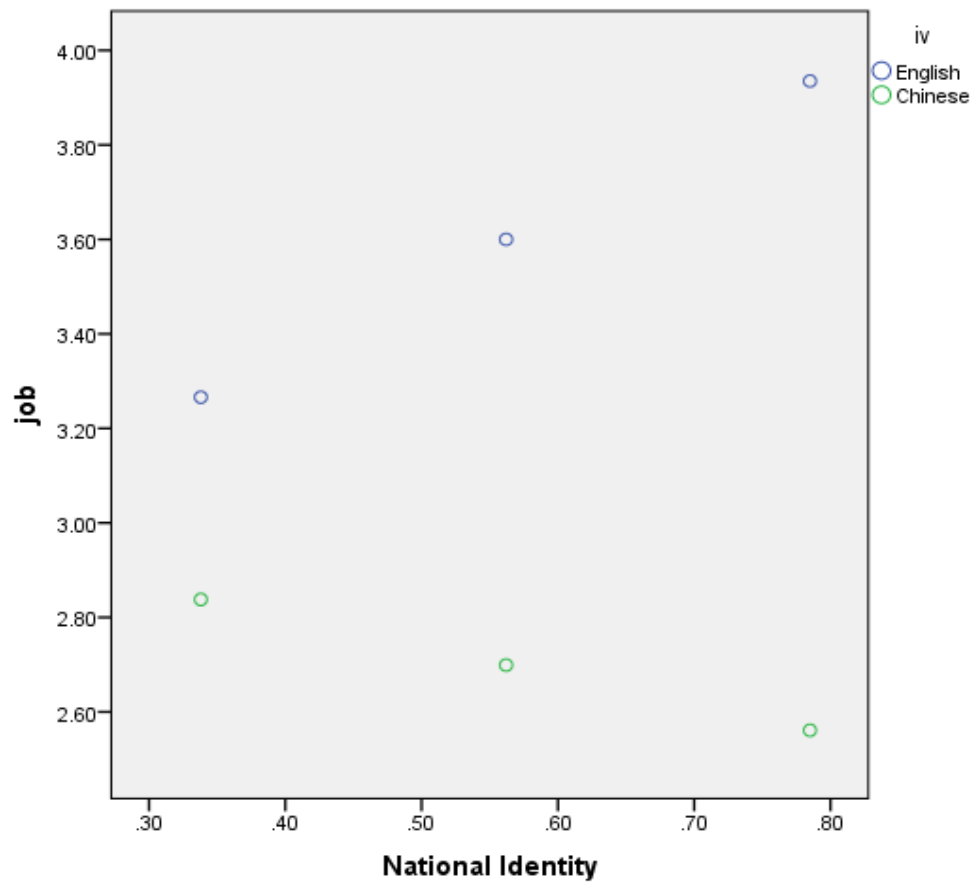
1. When consumers have a high level of national identity, there are significant differences in their attitudes towards the job in the Chinese advertisement and the English advertisement, ($b = -.687$, 95% CI [-.992, - .382], $t = - 4.44$, $p < .000$). Consumers who have a high level of national identity like the English-language job advertisement more compared to the same advertisement in Chinese.

Hypothesis 3b is supported.

2. When consumers have a low level of national identity, there are no significant differences in their attitudes towards the job in the Chinese advertisement and the English advertisement, ($b = -.214$, 95% CI [- .519, .092], $t = - 1.38$, $p > .10$). Therefore,

Hypothesis 3d is supported.

Figure 4.5.2: National Identity as a Moderator - Conditional Effects of Choice of Language on Consumers' Attitudes towards Job in the Advertisement (English & Chinese)



House - Moreover, the final significant result in Table 4.5.4, ($b = -.957$, 95% CI [- 1.863, -.052], $t = - 2.08$, $p < .05$) indicates that national identity moderates the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus English) and consumers' attitude towards the house in the advertisement. Also, the simple slopes are examined (Figure 4.5.3) to interpret the moderation effect in detail as below:

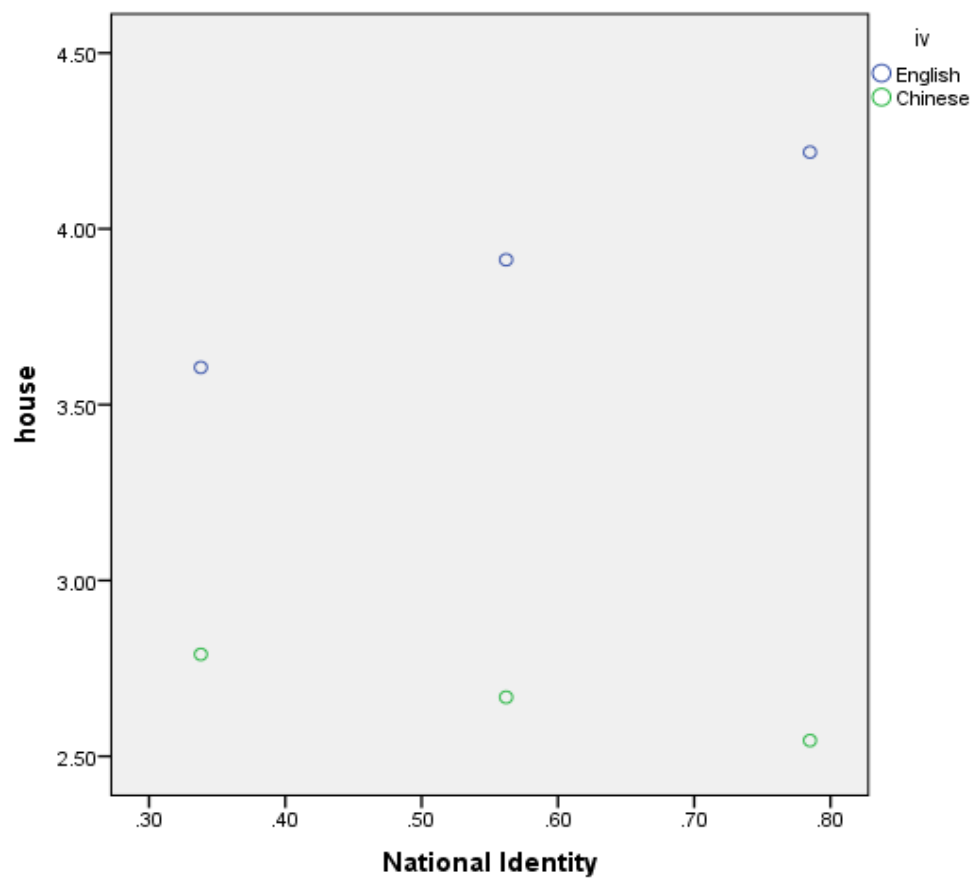
1. When consumers have a high level of national identity, there are significant differences in their attitudes towards the house in the Chinese advertisement and the English advertisement, ($b = -.836$, 95% CI [-1.122, - .551], $t = -5.76$, $p < .000$). Consumers have a high level of national identity like the English-language house advertisement more compared to the same advertisement in Chinese.

Hypothesis 3b is supported.

2. When consumers who have a low level of national identity, there are also significant differences in their attitudes towards the house in the Chinese advertisement and the English advertisement, ($b = -.408$, 95% CI $[-.694, -.122]$, $t = -2.81$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 3d is not supported.

Figure 4.5.3 National Identity as a Moderator - Conditional Effects of Choice of Language on Consumers' Attitudes towards House in the Advertisement (English & Chinese)



Hypothesis 3c: *Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertised product more when the product is advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Table 4.5.5: National Identity as a Moderator – Condition 2 (language=English + Chinese) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

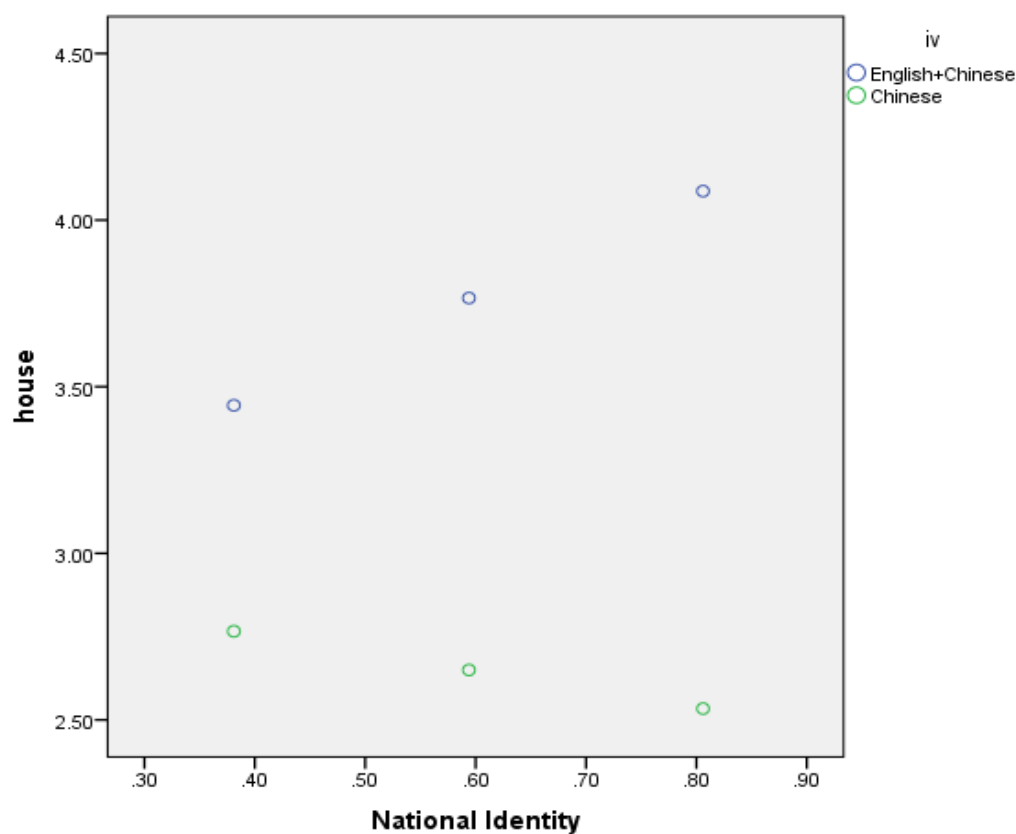
	Choice of language		National Identity		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop	-1.044	.000	.057	.907	-1.196	.226
Job	-1.039	.000	.099	.853	-1.458	.177
House	-1.15	.000	.471	.376	-2.061	.053

House - Additionally, according to Table 4.5.5, the moderating role of national identity is marginally significant in the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus Chinese + English) and consumers' attitudes towards the house in the advertisement ($b = -2.061$, 95% CI [- 4.152, .030], $t = -1.942$, $p < .10$), but not towards the laptop or job. Also, the simple slopes are examined (Figure 4.5.4) to interpret the moderation effect in detail as below:

1. When consumers have a high level of national identity, there are significant differences in their attitudes towards the house in the Chinese advertisement and the English + Chinese advertisement, ($b = -1.552$, 95% CI [- 2.174, -. 931], $t = -4.92$, $p < .000$).
2. When consumers have a low level of national identity, there are also significant differences in their attitudes towards the house in the Chinese advertisement and the English + Chinese advertisement, ($b = -.678$, 95% CI [-1.306, -.050], $t = -2.13$, $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 3c is partially supported.

Figure 4.5.4: National Identity as a Moderator - Conditional Effects of Choice of Language on Consumers' Attitudes towards House in the Advertisement (English + Chinese & Chinese)



In summary then, regarding H3:

Hypothesis 3: *Consumers' level of national identity moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the product advertised.*

Hypothesis 3a is not supported

Hypothesis 3b is supported

Hypothesis 3c is partially supported

Hypothesis 3d is partially supported

Thus, Hypothesis 3 is partially supported.

4.5.3.2 Moderating Effect of National Identity in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers' Attitudes towards Advertisements

Hypothesis 4b: *Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Hypothesis 4d: *Consumers with a low degree of national identity will display no difference in their attitude towards an advertisement using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Table 4.5.6: National identity as a Moderator – Condition 1 (language=English) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		National identity		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop ad	-.642	.000	.431	.329	-.815	.066
Job ad	-.511	.000	.516	.285	-.592	.220
House ad	-.692	.000	.616	.178	-.707	.122

According to Table 4.5.6, the moderating role of national identity is marginally significant in the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus English) and consumers' attitudes towards the laptop advertisement ($b = -.815$, 95% CI [- 1.685, .055], $t = -1.85$, $p < .10$). National identity does not play a moderating role in the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus English) and consumers' attitudes towards job advertisement and house advertisement. Also, the simple slopes are examined (Figure 4.5.5) to interpret the moderation effect in details as below:

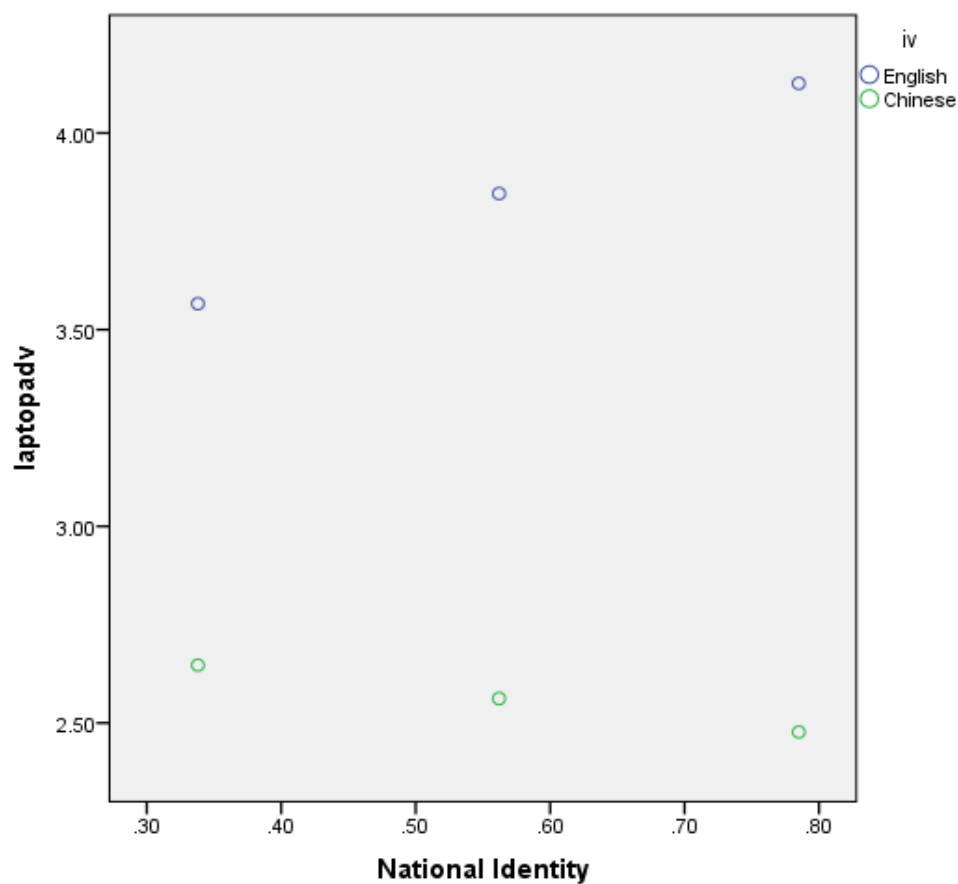
1. When consumers have a high level of national identity, there are significant differences in their attitudes towards the Chinese laptop advertisement and the same advertisement in English, ($b = -.824$, 95% CI [- 1.099, -. 550], $t = -5.91$, $p < .000$). Consumers who have a high level of national identity like the English-language laptop advertisement more compared to the same advertisement in Chinese.

Hypothesis 4b is partially supported.

2. When consumers have a low level of national identity, there are significant differences in their attitudes towards the Chinese laptop advertisement and the English laptop advertisement, ($b = -.460$, 95% CI $[-.735, -.185]$, $t = -3.29$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis 4d is not supported.

Figure 4.5.5: National Identity as a Moderator - Conditional Effects of Choice of Language on Consumers' Attitudes towards Laptop Advertisement in the Advertisement (English & Chinese)



Hypothesis 4c: *Consumers with a high level of national identity will like an advertisement more when the advertisement uses a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Table 4.5.7: National Identity as a Moderator – Condition 2 (language=English + Chinese) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		National Identity		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop ad	-1.041	.000	.124	.802	-1.022	.302
Job ad	-.991	.000	.411	.433	-.980	.350
House ad	-1.144	.000	.505	.330	-1.202	.247

Additionally, according to Table 4.5.7, national identity does not play a moderating role in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards three advertisements, when these advertisements use Chinese compare to use English + Chinese ($P > .10$). **Therefore, Hypothesis 4c is not supported.**

In summary then, regarding H4:

Hypothesis 4: *Consumers' level of national identity moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the advertisement.*

Hypothesis 4a is not supported

Hypothesis 4b is partially supported

Hypothesis 4c is not supported

Hypothesis 4d is not supported

Thus, Hypothesis 4 is partially supported.

4.5.3.3 Moderating Effect of Ethnocentrism in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers' Attitudes towards the Advertised Product

Hypothesis 5b: *Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Hypothesis 5d: *Consumers with a low degree of ethnocentrism will display no difference in their attitude towards an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Table 4.5.8: Ethnocentrism as a Moderator – Condition 1 (language=English) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		Ethnocentrism		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop	-.584	.000	.019	.014	-.014	.069
Job	-.457	.000	.026	.003	-.017	.048
House	-.621	.000	.024	.004	-.004	.603

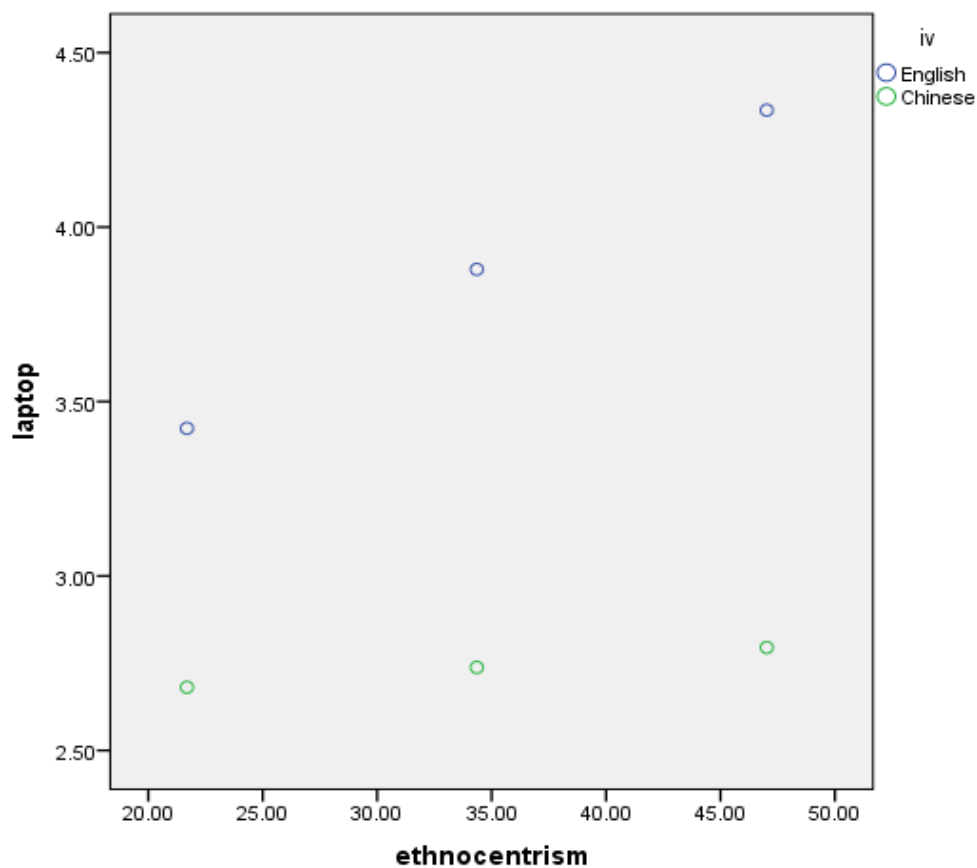
Laptop - According to Table 4.5.8, the moderating role of ethnocentrism is marginally significant in the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus English) and consumers' attitudes towards the laptop in the advertisement ($b = -.014$, 95% CI $[-.029, .001]$, $t = -1.83$, $p < .10$). Also, the simple slopes are examined (Figure 4.5.6) to interpret the moderation effect in detail as below:

1. When consumers have a high level of ethnocentrism, there are significant differences in their attitudes towards the laptop in the Chinese advertisement and the English advertisement, ($b = -.761$, 95% CI $[-1.032, -.491]$, $t = -5.55$, $p < .000$). Consumers who

have a high level of ethnocentrism like the English-language laptop advertisement more compared to the same advertisement in Chinese.

2. When consumers have a low level of ethnocentrism, there are also significant differences in their attitudes towards the laptop in the Chinese advertisement and the English advertisement, ($b = -.406$, 95% CI $[-.677, -.136]$, $t = -2.96$, $p < .01$).

Figure 4.5.6: Ethnocentrism as a Moderator - Conditional Effects of Choice of Language on Consumers' Attitudes towards Laptop in the Advertisement (English & Chinese)



Job - According to Table 4.5.8, ethnocentrism moderates the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards the job when the advertisements use foreign language (Chinese) compared local language (English) ($b = -.017$, 95% CI $[-.034, .000]$, $t = -1.99$, $p < .05$). Also, the simple slopes (Figure 4.5.7) are examined to interpret the moderation effect in detail as below:

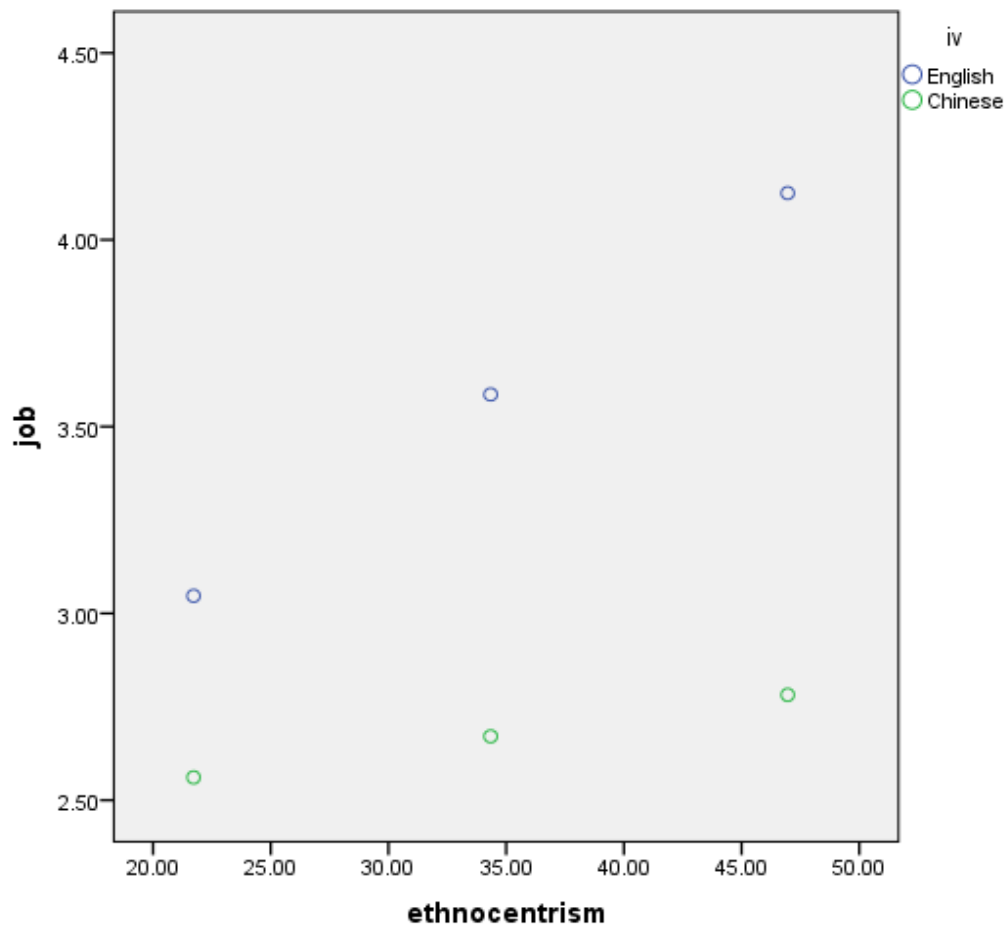
1. When consumers have a high level of ethnocentrism, there are significant differences in their attitudes towards the job in the Chinese advertisement and the English advertisement, ($b = -.672$, 95% CI $[-.972, -.371]$, $t = -4.41$, $p < .000$). Consumers who have a high level of ethnocentrism like the English-language job advertisement more compared to the same advertisement in Chinese.

Hypothesis 5b is supported.

2. When consumers have a low level of ethnocentrism, there are no significant differences in their attitudes towards the job in the Chinese advertisement and the English advertisement, ($b = -.243$, 95% CI $[-.543, .057]$, $t = -1.59$, $p > .10$).

Hypothesis 5d is supported.

Figure 4.5.7: Ethnocentrism as a Moderator - Conditional Effects of Choice of Language on Consumers' Attitudes towards Job in the Advertisement (English & Chinese)



House - According to Table 4.5.8, the moderation effect of ethnocentrism is not shown in the house advertisement ($P > .10$).

Hypothesis 5c: *Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Table 4.5.9: Ethnocentrism as a Moderator – Condition 2 (language=English + Chinese) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		Ethnocentrism		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop	-1.042	.000	.010	.229	-.011	.530
Job	-1.027	.000	.014	.130	-.011	.563
House	-1.100	.000	.022	.016	-.005	.783

According to Table 4.5.9, the moderating effect of ethnocentrism is not demonstrated when the advertisements about three products use Chinese compared to using the combination of Chinese and English. **Therefore, hypothesis 5c is not supported.**

In summary then, regarding H5:

Hypothesis 5: *Consumers' degree of ethnocentrism moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the product advertised, if the product involves limited economic or natural resources.*

Hypothesis 5a is not supported

Hypothesis 5b is partially supported

Hypothesis 5c is not supported

Hypothesis 5d is partially supported

Thus, Hypothesis 5 is partially supported.

4.5.3.4 Moderating Effect of Ethnocentrism in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers' Attitudes towards the Advertisement

Hypothesis 6b: *Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Hypothesis 6d: *Consumers with a low degree of ethnocentrism will display no difference in their attitude towards the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources, using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

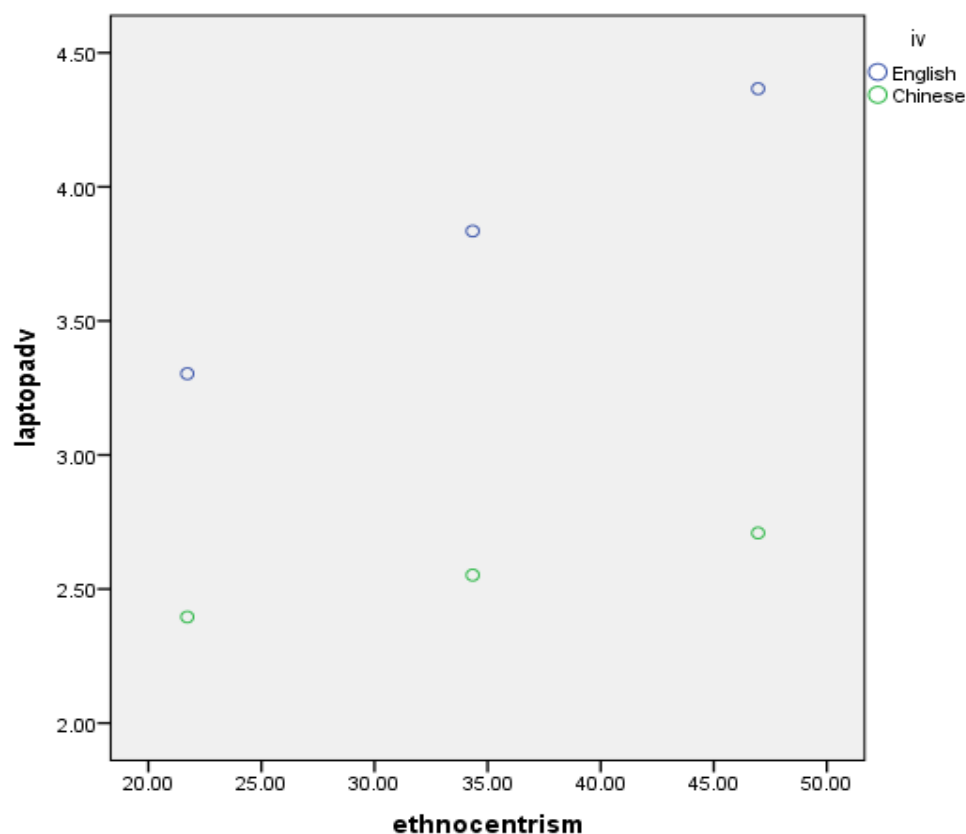
Table 4.5.10: Ethnocentrism as a Moderator – Condition 1 (language=English) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		Ethnocentrism		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop ad	-.641	.000	.027	.000	-.015	.054
Job ad	-.517	.000	.031	.000	-.019	.020
House ad	-.689	.000	.029	.000	-.007	.362

Laptop Advertisement - Additionally, according to Table 4.5.10, there is a marginally significant interaction effect ($b = -.015$, 95% CI $[-.030, .000]$, $t = -1.94$, $P < .10$), that is the moderating role of ethnocentrism in the relationship between choice of language (English versus Chinese) and consumers' attitudes towards the laptop advertisement is marginally significant. Also, the simple slopes are examined (Figure 4.5.8) to interpret the moderation effect in detail as below:

1. When consumers have a high level of ethnocentrism, there are significant differences in their attitudes towards laptop advertisement in English and in Chinese, ($b = -.828$, 95% CI $[-1.097, -.560]$, $t = -6.07$, $p < .000$). Consumers have high level of ethnocentrism like the English-language laptop advertisement more compared to the same advertisement in Chinese.
2. When consumers have a low level of ethnocentrism, there are also significant differences in their attitudes towards the laptop advertisement in English and in Chinese, ($b = -.454$, 95% CI $[-.723, -.185]$, $t = -3.33$, $p < .01$).

Figure 4.5.8: Ethnocentrism as a Moderator - Conditional Effects of the Language Choices on Consumers' Attitudes towards Laptop Advertisement (English & Chinese)



Job Advertisement- According to Table 4.5.10, ethnocentrism moderates the relationship between choice of language (English versus Chinese) and consumers' attitudes towards the job advertisement, ($b = -.019$, 95% CI $[-.036, -.003]$, $t = -2.35$, $P < .05$). Also, the simple slopes are examined (Figure 4.5.9) to interpret the moderation effect in detail as below:

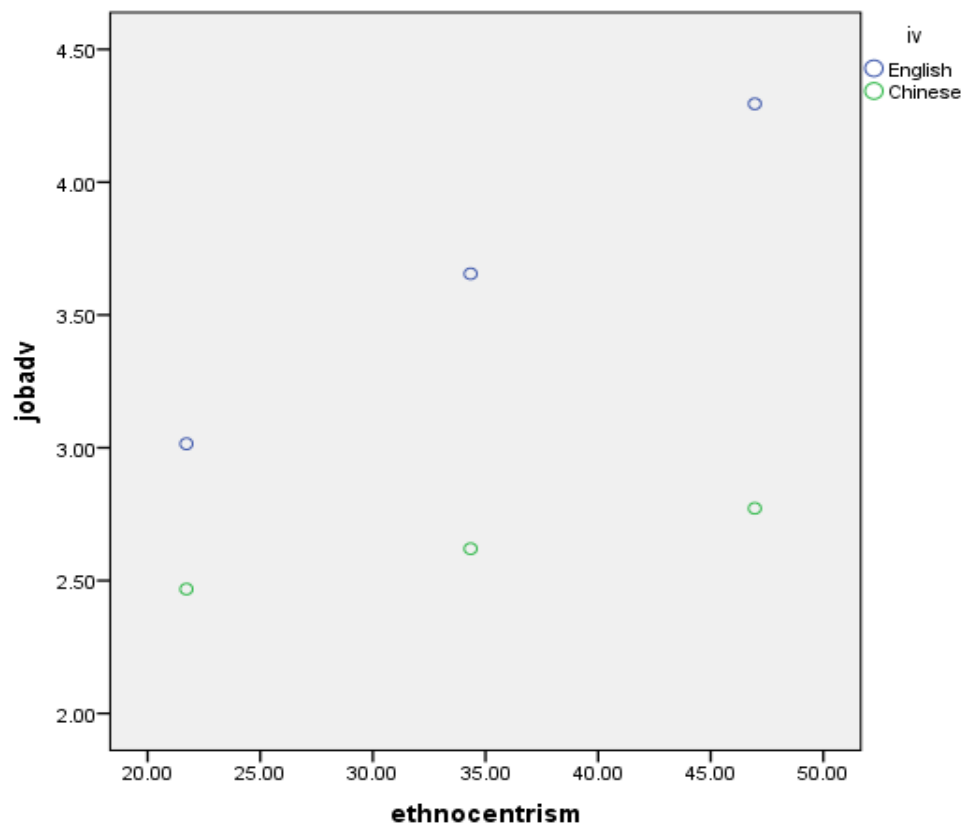
1. When consumers have a high level of ethnocentrism, there are significant differences in their attitudes towards job advertisement in English and in Chinese, ($b = -.761$, 95% CI $[-1.050, -.472]$, $t = -5.19$, $p < .000$). Consumers who have a high level of ethnocentrism like the English-language job advertisement more compared to the same advertisement in Chinese.

Hypothesis 6b is supported.

2. When consumers have a low level of ethnocentrism, there are marginally significant differences in their attitudes towards the job advertisement in English and in Chinese ($b = -.273$, 95% CI $[-.562, .015]$, $t = -1.87$, $p < .10$).

Hypothesis 6d is not supported.

Figure 4.5.9: Ethnocentrism as a Moderator - Conditional Effects of Choice of Language on Consumers' Attitudes towards Job Advertisement (English & Chinese)



House - According to Table 4.5.10, however, ethnocentrism does not play a moderating role in the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus English) and consumers' attitudes towards house advertisement.

Hypothesis 6c: *Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Table 4.5.11: Ethnocentrism as a Moderator – Condition 2 (language=English + Chinese) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		Ethnocentrism		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop ad	-1.025	.000	.015	.070	-.006	.722
Job ad	-1.005	.000	.016	.067	-.009	.617
House ad	-1.138	.000	.023	.011	-.003	.873

According to Table 4.5.11, ethnocentrism does not play a moderating role in the relationship between choice of language (English + Chinese versus Chinese) and consumers' attitudes towards all three advertisements. **Hypothesis 6c is not supported.**

In summary then, regarding H6:

Hypothesis 6: *Consumers' degree of ethnocentrism moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources.*

Hypothesis 6a is not supported

Hypothesis 6b is partially supported

Hypothesis 6c is not supported

Hypothesis 6d is not supported

Thus, Hypothesis 6 is partially supported.

4.5.3.5 Moderating Effect of Consumer Ethnocentrism in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers' Attitudes towards the Advertised Products

Hypothesis 7b: *Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a local language (English), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Hypothesis 7c: *Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when the product is advertised using a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same product advertised using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Hypothesis 7d: *Consumers with a low degree of consumer ethnocentrism will display no difference in their attitude towards an advertised product that involves limited economic or natural resources using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Table 4.5.12: Consumer Ethnocentrism as a Moderator – Condition 1 (language=English) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		Consumer Ethnocentrism		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop	-.578	.000	.121	.049	.007	.903
Job	-.450	.000	.126	.066	-.089	.194
House	-.614	.000	.138	.033	.001	.992

Table 4.5.13: Consumer Ethnocentrism as a Moderator – Condition 2 (language=English + Chinese) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		Consumer Ethnocentrism		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop	-1.026	.000	.090	.154	.079	.530
Job	-1.052	.000	.042	.540	-.010	.944
House	-1.110	.000	.106	.119	.065	.632

According to Table 4.5.12 and Table 4.5.13, consumer ethnocentrism does not play a moderating role in the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus English, Chinese versus English + Chinese) and consumers' attitude towards three advertised products.

In summary then, regarding H7:

Hypothesis 7: *Consumers' degree of consumer ethnocentrism moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the product advertised, if the product involves limited economic or natural resources.*

Hypothesis 7a is not supported

Hypothesis 7b is not supported

Hypothesis 7c is not supported

Hypothesis 7d is not supported

Thus, Hypothesis 7 is not supported.

4.5.3.6 Moderating Effect of Consumer Ethnocentrism in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers' Attitudes towards the Advertisement

Hypothesis 8b: *Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a local language (English), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Hypothesis 8c: *Consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism will like the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources more, when this advertisement uses a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese), compared to the same advertisement using a foreign language (Chinese).*

Hypothesis 8d: *Consumers with a low degree of consumer ethnocentrism will display no difference in their attitude towards the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources, using a local language (English), a foreign language (Chinese), or a combination of local and foreign languages (English and Chinese).*

Table 4.5.14: Consumer Ethnocentrism as a Moderator – Condition 1 (language=English) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		Consumer Ethnocentrism		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop ad	-.634	.000	.109	.079	.034	.579
Job ad	-.511	.000	.099	.140	-.028	.675
House ad	-.681	.000	.144	.025	.013	.841

Table 4.5.15: Consumer Ethnocentrism as a Moderator – Condition 2 (language=English + Chinese) vs. Condition 3 (language=Chinese)

	Choice of language		Consumer Ethnocentrism		Choice of language X Ethnocentrism	
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Laptop ad	-1.026	.000	.094	.136	.100	.426
Job ad	-1.005	.000	.088	.185	-.034	.795
House ad	-1.139	.000	.113	.086	.087	.511

According to Table 4.5.14 and Table 4.5.15, consumer ethnocentrism does not play a moderating role in the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus English, Chinese versus English + Chinese) and consumers' attitudes towards three advertisements.

In summary then, regarding H8:

Hypothesis 8: *Consumers' degree of consumer ethnocentrism moderates the effect of choice of language on attitudes towards the advertisement of a product that involves limited economic or natural resources.*

Hypothesis 8a is not supported

Hypothesis 8b is not supported

Hypothesis 8c is not supported

Hypothesis 8d is not supported

Thus, Hypothesis 8 is not supported.

4.5.4 Results of Testing Moderating Effects

Table 4.5.16: Results of Testing Moderating Effects

Moderating effects Hypothesis	Results
H3	Partially supported
H3a	Not Supported
H3b	Supported
H3c	Partially Supported
H3d	partially supported
H4	Partially supported
H4a	Not Supported
H4b	Partially supported
H4c	Not Supported
H4d	Not Supported

H5	Partially supported
H5a	Not Supported
H5b	Partially supported
H5c	Not Supported
H5d	Partially supported
H6	Partially supported
H6a	Not Supported
H6b	Partially supported
H6c	Not Supported
H6d	Not Supported
H7	Not Supported
H7a	Not Supported
H7b	Not Supported
H7c	Not Supported
H7d	Not Supported

H8	Not Supported
H8a	Not Supported
H8b	Not Supported
H8c	Not Supported
H8d	Not Supported

Chapter Five: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This research aims to give local New Zealand companies suggestions when they plan to target foreign consumers, while at the same time also take into account local New Zealand consumers' attitudes towards their advertised products and advertisements that include a foreign language. According to the results from this study, the choice of language (English versus Chinese, English + Chinese versus Chinese) in an advertisement influences consumers' attitudes towards the advertised products and advertisements. The moderating roles of national identity and ethnocentrism in the relationship between choice of language in an advertisement and consumers' attitudes towards the advertised products and the advertisements are demonstrated under certain conditions. This finding does not hold for consumer ethnocentrism. Therefore, this chapter aims to explain these outcomes with reference to existing theory and literature review. Then, theoretical contributions, business implications of the research, limitations and future research directions will be discussed.

5.2 Answers to the Research Questions

RQ1. Do language choices in advertising have an impact on consumers' attitudes towards an advertised product and an advertisement?

RQ2. Do consumer ethnocentrism, ethnocentrism and/or national identity moderate the impact of language used in advertising on consumers' attitude towards an advertisement and an advertised product?

According to the main effects results from Table 4.5.3, consumers show significant differences in their attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements when the advertisements use Chinese language compared to English, and also when the advertisements use Chinese language compared to English + Chinese, but not when the advertisements use English language compared to English + Chinese. Therefore, the answer to RQ1 is that when the advertisements use Chinese versus English or English + Chinese, language choices in

advertisements have impacts on consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements.

According to moderation effects identified in Table 4.5.16, the moderating role of ethnocentrism in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards the advertisement and the advertised product is partially supported. Secondly, consumer ethnocentrism does not moderate the impact of the choice of language used in advertisements on consumers' attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products. Lastly, national identity partially moderates the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards the advertisement and the advertised product.

5.3 Discussion of Findings

5.3.1 Language Effects in Advertising

The results show that there are significant differences in consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements when the advertisements use Chinese language compared to English, and when the advertisement uses Chinese compared to English + Chinese. However, when advertisements use English compared to English + Chinese, consumers show similar attitudes towards the advertisements and the advertised products. These results could link to the explanation from Luna and Peracchio (2005), that language can signal the group that people belong to. Language plays an essential role in presenting national identity, and people are more likely to generate positive attitudes and emotional responses towards the advertisements when the choice of language match their ethnicity (Maldonado, 2011). Therefore, people generate relatively negative attitudes towards the advertisements that only use Chinese language compared to the advertisements that use English or English + Chinese, as it does not match their ethnic identity.

Also, people generate similar attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements that use English language or English + Chinese, perhaps because both language choices signal the group the consumers belongs to, therefore, there are no significant differences in their attitudes towards these advertisements and advertised products. Moreover, according to Klitmøller et al. (2015), languages may make contributions to inter-group differences in the social categorisation process, and in-group distinctiveness could help people to reduce their

uncertainty (Garcia et al., 2005). However, according to the study findings, different language choices in advertisements may not always contribute to inter-group differences. For example, people show similar attitudes towards the advertised products and the advertisements, when the advertisements use English compared to English + Chinese.

5.3.2 Population Characteristics

National Identity

According to the results, older people tend to have a higher level of national identity compared to young people, which is consistent with past research (Huddy & Khatib, 2007; Meier-Pesti & Kirchler, 2003). However, there are no differences in consumers' level of national identity according to different levels of education, which is different from past research which suggested that people with lower educational levels tend to show lower levels of national identity (Huddy & Khatib, 2007; Meier-Pesti & Kirchler, 2003). Additionally, the average level of national identity among participants is relatively high, which shows the research participants emphasized their national identity as “kiwis” (Walters, 2001).

Ethnocentrism

The results indicate that males tend to have a higher level of ethnocentrism compared to females, which is consistent with past research (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2008). This might be related to males generally showing higher levels of dominance orientation in society compared to females, therefore tending to show higher level of ethnocentrism compared to females (Sidanius, Pratto, & Mitchell, 1994), which is also consistent with one of the generalisations of New Zealand culture, that it is a male-dominated (chauvinistic) culture (Walters, 2001). Also, younger people tend to be more ethnocentric compared to older people, which is different from past research (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2008; Judd, Park, Ryan, Brauer, & Kraus, 1995); this might be because half of the participants aged between 18-24 years old come from relatively small towns in New Zealand, and people who live in these places are generally more conservative compared to people who live in big cities (e.g., Auckland) (Brown & Schafft, 2011). Additionally, ethnocentric people tend to have lower levels of income and education levels (Good & Huddleston, 1995; Hooghe, 2003), which is consistent with the results from past

research. This might be because people with a low-income level are more anxious about economic uncertainty and may experience status anxiety easily (Scheepers, Felling, & Peters, 1992). People with a higher level of education tend to accept and understand other cultures easily, and are generally more “open” (Good & Huddleston, 1995; Hooghe, 2003).

Consumer ethnocentrism

The results show that people with a lower income level and lower level of education tend to have a higher degree of consumer ethnocentrism, which is similar to past research (Sharma et al., 1994; Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Watson & Wright, 2000), this may also be because of the consumers’ anxiety about economic uncertainty; people with higher education levels are more likely to accept the products from other countries (Yoo & Donthu, 2005). However, there are no significant differences in females’ and males’ consumer ethnocentrism levels, or in consumers’ consumer ethnocentrism levels according to age, which is different from past consumer ethnocentrism research in New Zealand (Watson & Wright, 2000), that identified ethnocentric people as tended to be older and female. Additionally, people who live in big cities tend to show lower levels of consumer ethnocentrism compared to people who live in provincial areas. This might be because rural people tend to be more conservative compared to urban people, therefore hardly accepting products from the out-group, and being more likely to keep distance from the out-groups (Brown & Schafft, 2011).

5.3.3 Correlations between National Identity, Ethnocentrism, and Consumer Ethnocentrism

In this research, the focus of national identity is on the positive attitudes and the emotional tie towards the in-group (e.g., “To what extent do you see yourself as a typical New Zealander?”), the focus on ethnocentrism is mainly on the preference for and superiority of in-group culture (e.g., “Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.”), and the focus of consumer ethnocentrism is on the negative attitudes towards out-groups (“New Zealanders should not buy foreign products, because this hurts New Zealand business and causes unemployment”). The correlations identified between these three constructs are consistent with past research. Firstly, there is a weak correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and national identity, which is consistent with past research; the correlation between consumers’ positive attitudes

towards the in-group and attitude towards the out-group may be weak even not significant (Lwin et al., 2010; Turner, 1975). Secondly, the moderate correlation between ethnocentrism and consumer ethnocentrism is also consistent with past research, as the definition of consumer ethnocentrism is “a unique economic form of ethnocentrism” (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Lastly, the correlation between national identity and ethnocentrism is not significant; this may be because the associations between in-group positivity and ethnocentrism sometimes might be quite weak (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2012).

5.3.4 Moderating effect of National Identity in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers’ Attitudes towards the Advertised Product

According to the results, national identity plays a moderating role in the relationship between choice of language and consumers’ attitudes towards the advertised product (laptop, job and house), when the advertisement uses English language compared to Chinese. People with a high level of national identity prefer all these three products in the English advertisement over the Chinese advertisement. Also, when consumers’ level of national identity increases, the differences in their attitudes towards the advertised products in Chinese advertisements and English advertisements become more pronounced. This might be because one of the main elements of national identity is “cultural focus” (Bruce et al., 1996), and culture is sometimes considered as a source of pride (Batat, 2015). Therefore, the strong emotional tie that people generate to their language (one of the cultural symbols) results in positive attitudes towards the three advertised products in the English advertisements (Blank & Schmidt, 2003).

Additionally, the moderating role of national identity is only marginally significant in the relationship between the choice of language and consumers’ attitudes towards house, when the advertisements use Chinese compared to English + Chinese. Therefore, in general, national identity does not moderate the relationship between choice of language and consumers’ attitudes towards the advertised products, when the advertisements use Chinese compared to Chinese + English. This might be because the differences in consumers’ attitudes towards the advertised products when the advertisements use Chinese compared to English is bigger than consumers’ attitudes towards the advertised products when the advertisements use Chinese compared to Chinese + English. Therefore, statistically, when consumers’ level of national

identity increase, the differences in their attitudes towards the advertised products when advertisements use Chinese compared to Chinese +English is not significant.

5.3.5 Moderating Effect of National Identity in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers' Attitudes towards the Advertisement

According to the results, national identity only partially moderates the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards the laptop advertisements, when the advertisements use Chinese compared to English. Additionally, national identity does not play a moderating role in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards the advertisements about these three products, when the advertisement uses Chinese compared to Chinese + English. The reason why these results are quite different from the results of the moderating effects on attitudes towards the advertised products might be because consumers' attitudes towards advertisements is generally influenced by different factors such as hedonic factors, credibility, and attention. So, consumers may feel other elements in the advertisements are not so attractive, therefore generating different attitudes towards the advertisements compared to their attitudes towards the advertised products (Ling, Piew, & Chai, 2010).

5.3.6 Moderating Effect of Ethnocentrism in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers' attitudes towards the Advertised Product

According to the results, ethnocentrism moderates the impact of language choice in advertisements on consumers' attitudes towards the advertised job, and also partially moderates the impact of the choice of language on consumers' attitudes towards the advertised laptop, but not for house, when these advertisements use Chinese compared to English. Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism show negative attitudes towards the advertised job and the advertised laptop in the Chinese advertisement. This result could link to one of the explanations of ethnocentrism as "lacking acceptance of cultural diversity" in intercultural communications (Dong et al., 2008), therefore reducing interests in cultural information from out-groups, especially information from dissimilar cultures (e.g., Chinese) (Mensah et al., 2011). Additionally, ethnocentric people consider group interests and in-group superiority as very

important (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2008), and they may perceive that in-group interests are threatened when the in-group and the out-group compete for scarce resources (Schlueter & Scheepers, 2010). Moreover, job security is very important in New Zealand culture, and some Kiwis believe Asian immigrants are taking valuable jobs (Walters, 2001). Therefore, the impacts of ethnocentrism on the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards job is more significant compared to the moderating role of ethnocentrism in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards laptop.

However, the moderating role of ethnocentrism is not significant in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards the advertised products, when the advertisements use Chinese compared to Chinese + English. Again, this might be because the differences in consumers' attitudes towards the advertised products are relatively smaller, when the advertisements use Chinese compared to Chinese + English than the advertisements use Chinese compared to English.

5.3.7 Moderating Effect of Ethnocentrism in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers' Attitudes towards the Advertisement

Similarly, the significant moderating role of ethnocentrism in the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus English) and consumers' attitudes towards the job advertisement is demonstrated. Additionally, the moderating role of ethnocentrism in the relationship between choice of language (Chinese versus English) and consumers' attitudes towards the laptop advertisement is marginally significant. Consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism show negative attitudes towards the Chinese job advertisement and laptop advertisement. These results might also link to one of the explanations of ethnocentrism "lacking acceptance of cultural diversity", and choice of language might be an important factor that influences ethnocentric consumers' evaluations of advertisements compared to other factors (e.g., credibility) (Ling et al., 2010). Moreover, people with a high level of ethnocentrism put great emphasis on in-group interests and in-group superiority, they may perceive that in-group interests are threatened when the in-group and the out-group compete for scarce resources (Schlueter & Scheepers, 2010). Therefore, the moderating role of ethnocentrism in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards job advertisement is more significant compared to the moderating role of ethnocentrism in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards laptop advertisement, as job is

more crucial to ethnocentric consumers in New Zealand (Walters, 2001), and also represent limited economic or natural resources (identified in the pilot study). This result may also show that when people with a high level of ethnocentrism evaluate the advertisements, they may be more sensitive about choice of language in advertisements of products that represent economic or natural resources instead of other factors (e.g., entertainment) (Ling et al., 2010).

5.3.8 Moderating effect of Consumer Ethnocentrism in the Relationship between Choice of Language and Consumers' Attitudes towards the Advertised Product and the Advertisement

According to the results, consumer ethnocentrism does not play a moderating role in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards the three advertised products and three advertisements. This might be because respondents didn't perceive they are in a "loss situation", when they see these advertisements using different language choices to target an out-group, even when the advertised products involve limited economic or natural resources (e.g. real estate) (Tajfel, 1982). Additionally, another possibility may be associated with the ethnocentrism scale that was used in the online survey. Even though the New Zealand version was created based on the original American version, but only 4 out of the 17 highest loading items were used in the online survey (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). This is because the whole survey would be too long for respondents to read if all the items were included. However, the four items that are chosen might not be the best items that can represent this construct in the New Zealand context. Additionally, the null result might also be associated with the product categories that were chosen for this research. Even though all laptops sold in New Zealand are imported products, to get rid of potential country-of-origin effects, no information was provided in the advertisements regarding the places where the laptop was manufactured. Therefore, when people see the laptop advertisement, there is no direct information that could trigger consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp & Sharma, 1987).

5.4 Contributions and Business Implications

5.4.1 Theoretical Contributions

Past research that focuses on the monolingual consumers' attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products has demonstrated that associations with foreign language may influence consumers' attitudes towards the advertised products and the advertisements (Liu et al., 2006; Piller, 2001; Ray, Ryder, & Scott, 1991). For example, Chinese consumers usually associate English with high-quality, modernisation, or internationalisation in advertisements (e.g., high-end products), therefore they may prefer advertisements that include English or are only in English and show relatively positive attitudes towards these advertised products and the advertisements (Hsu, 2008; Zhao et al., 2013). However, this research tries to compare monolingual consumers' attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products when the choices of language in advertisements are different, but from a social identity perspective. Additionally, this research also focuses on whether ethnocentrism, consumer ethnocentrism, or/and national identity create impacts on consumers' attitudes towards the advertised products and advertisements when people see different choices of language in advertisements. Moreover, the relatively small differences in consumers' attitudes towards the Chinese advertisement compared to the Chinese + English advertisement, and no differences in consumers' attitudes towards English advertisements compared to Chinese + English advertisements may be related to New Zealanders' attitudes towards immigrants. According to Ward and Masgoret (2008), New Zealanders' attitudes towards immigrants are relatively positive compared to Australians and Europeans, and multicultural ideology has been accepted by a majority of New Zealanders. Therefore, when they see advertisements that target foreigners, as long as they are involved in the communication activities, it is still acceptable.

As for national identity, this research has demonstrated the moderating role of national identity in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards the advertised products, when the advertisement uses English compared to Chinese, and people with a high level of national identity always prefer all advertised products in the English advertisements. This result indicates that in-group positivity (Fischer & Zeugner-Roth, 2017) has a strong influence on consumers' preferences when it comes to intercultural communications. Additionally, the research also indicates how important job is for ethnocentric people, and also demonstrates the strong associations between job security and New Zealand culture (Walters,

2001). Also, ethnocentric people may perceive that in-group interests are threatened when they see an advertisement only using foreign language, especially if the advertised product is important in their culture. These results have been shown by the moderating role that ethnocentrism plays in the relationship between choice of language and consumers' attitudes towards both the job and the job advertisement, when the advertisement uses Chinese compared to English. Moreover, the results also indicate that consumers with a high level of consumer ethnocentrism may not perceive they are in a "loss situation" when they see an advertisement that targets immigrants by using a foreign language, even though the advertised products include natural and economic resources. Additionally, one of the contributions that this research makes is showing the differences in consumer ethnocentrism levels of people who live in big cities (e.g., Auckland and Wellington) versus provincial areas (e.g., Manawatu-Wanganui and Otago).

Additionally, this research also shows that consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements are not always the same. The advertised product may only express one element of information, but the advertisement expresses multiple elements (e.g., entertainment, attention) (Ling et al., 2010).

5.4.2 Business Implications

Based on the research results, there are several recommendations for local New Zealand companies. Firstly, when local companies target immigrants or tourists, using combinations of the native language and the foreign language in advertising might be a good idea, which can avoid cultural backlashes; the research identified no differences in New Zealanders' attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products, when the advertisements use English compared to Chinese + English. Also, local New Zealand companies may need to avoid using the foreign language only to target foreigners, as local consumers show a very negative attitudes towards the advertised products and advertisements that exclude them. If local companies still consider using just the foreign language to target immigrants or tourists, at least, they should put advertisements in the communication channels that Kiwi consumers seldom use. For example, if local companies want to target Chinese consumers, they can choose to only post their Chinese advertisements on social media that only Chinese consumers use (e.g., Wechat, and Weibo) instead of using Facebook or Instagram, especially for the job

advertisement. Even though there are not that many significant results regarding the house or house advertisements, unlike job or job advertisements, local companies may still need to be careful with the choice of language when they create advertisements for the products that include natural or economic resources, as consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism may be very sensitive about these products.

Additionally, local companies could think about putting elements in the advertisements that acknowledge the dominant status and superiority of the in-group. When kiwis who have a higher level of ethnocentrism see these advertisements, they may generate a more positive attitudes towards these advertisements; for example, explaining the products are mainly made for New Zealanders in the advertisements. Additionally, companies could always include more “Kiwi” elements in advertisements even when they target foreigners; this may also improve New Zealanders’ positive attitudes towards these advertisements (Keillor & Hult, 1999). For example, companies can include cultural symbols such as the All Blacks, as this is strongly associated with the national identity of New Zealanders (Bulmer & Buchanan-Oliver, 2010).

5.5 Limitations

The first limitation of this research is associated with the design of the house advertisements. To reduce other effects (i.e. people may just personally like the house picture in the advertisement regardless of the language effects), a cartoon house drawing was used in the house advertisement. However, the cartoon house drawing may be less attractive and quite different from the genuine real-estate photographs. Therefore, the respondents’ attitudes towards the house advertisements may have been influenced. This might also be the reason why respondents show different attitudes towards the advertised job compared to the advertised house, or the job advertisement compared to the house advertisement, even though both products are important to respondents and involve limited economic or natural resource.

Secondly, due to budget and time limitations, all three constructs are tested in the same online survey. Therefore, the whole consumer ethnocentrism scale was not used in this research, as participants may feel tired to complete a long survey (if the whole consumer ethnocentrism scale is used in the survey, participants would need to complete 13 extra questions and 67 questions in total, therefore the researcher only chose the four items with the highest loadings), which may create bias in the research results. However, if the whole consumer ethnocentrism

scale was used in the survey, the research results may be more accurate. Additionally, a pre-test should be done to test respondents' attitudes towards Chinese culture. The results may help researchers to understand the reason why respondents dislike the advertised products or the advertisements in Chinese is because they don't like dissimilar cultures or just because they dislike Chinese culture. Moreover, the pilot study asked respondents to react to an Auckland house or apartment; given the sample for the pilot study was people from all over the New Zealand, perhaps the stimulus for the pilot study could have been a New Zealand house or apartment instead of an Auckland house or apartment.

5.6 Future Research Direction

The Future research could explore whether the numbers and font size of the foreign languages and the native language in the same advertisement will influence consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements, as ethnocentric people may be sensitive towards the superiority or dominance of their language in advertisements. For example, testing whether consumers can generate more positive attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements that include English words in a larger font size compared to Chinese words in the same advertisement, and whether consumers can generate more positive attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements that include a greater number of English words compared to Chinese words in the same advertisement. Moreover, instead of only focusing on print advertisements, future research can focus on TV and online advertisements, to test whether other combinations of native and foreign languages (e.g., Chinese sound + English subtitles) can influence consumers' attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements. Furthermore, future research could also test whether using foreign languages that are considered similar to New Zealand culture (e.g., French) will influence consumers' attitudes towards the advertisements and advertised products. This may give local New Zealand companies more choices when they consider approaching consumers from similar cultural background, and also take local New Zealand consumers' attitudes into account.

Moreover, as for people who originally come from other countries, but who have lived in New Zealand for a long time, they may have two social identities; which one is more salient under what conditions could be explored in the future, as this links to their attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products that include two languages. Additionally, future

research could also focus on the effects of other social identity stimuli on consumers' evaluations of advertised products and advertisements that include a foreign language. For example, testing by adding a Kiwi bird (national symbols) in the advertisements, whether consumers' attitudes towards advertisements and the advertised products will be influenced, especially for people who have a higher level of national identity. Furthermore, this research only focus on intergroup aspects of ethnocentrism, therefore future research could focus on whether the intragroup aspects of ethnocentrism (e.g., group cohesion may create impacts on consumers' attitudes towards the advertised products and the advertisements, when the choices of language in the advertisements are different) (Bizumic & Duckitt, 2008).

Regarding product type, future research could focus on low-involvement products, and test whether national identity and ethnocentrism also play a moderating role in the relationship between the choices of language in advertisements and consumers' attitudes towards the low-involvement advertised products and the advertisements (Ahmed et al., 2004).

5.7 Conclusion

The uncertainty reduction motive and self-enhancement motive each encourage people to categorise themselves as member of a positive social group (Chattopadhyay et al., 2004). After identifying with a social group, people are likely to express positive emotions towards group membership (Tajfel, 1982), and be motivated to protect their distinctive social identity. When they perceive their group identity and benefits are threatened by an out-group, intergroup conflict may occur, and people are likely to generate negative attitudes towards the out-group (Hogg et al., 2017). Language is not only a communication tool in a society with diverse cultural backgrounds, but also a social identity symbol that represents the social group that people belong to (Lauring, 2008). Therefore, people who have a high level of ethnocentrism and national identity may be sensitive about the choice of language in advertisements, as language is associated with ethnic identity and in-group distinctiveness, which can influence attitudes towards advertised products and advertisements. Thus, local New Zealand companies need to be very careful when they choose languages in advertising, especially for the products which are important in the national culture, as information signalling social identity can play a significant role in consumers' attitudes towards advertisements and advertised products.

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Appendices

Appendix One- Ethics Approval Letter for Pilot Study

AUTEC Secretariat

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The logo for Auckland University of Technology (AUT) is displayed in white, bold, sans-serif capital letters on a black rectangular background.

17 November 2017

Ken Hyde
Faculty of Business Economics and Law
Dear Ken

Ethics Application: 17/387 Consumer ethnocentrism and the effects of language choice in advertising

Thank you for submitting your application for ethical review. I am pleased to advise that a subcommittee of the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) approved your ethics application subject to the following conditions:

1. Clarification of the statement in section K.1 of the application of the researcher statement about being familiar with participants through common contacts serving as a point of reference, given that this is an anonymous survey;
2. Amendment the inconsistency of the number of questions in the invitation and the Information Sheet;
3. Clarification of how the title of the study corresponds to the content of the survey. Section B.9 of the application refers to 'social identity' 'native language' and purchasing products made in their own country'. The questions in the survey do not relate to these matters;
4. Amendment of the Information Sheet as follows:

- a. Clarification of how participants will gain insight into own consumer behaviour from the survey. The content of survey does not appear to reveal this;
 - b. Removal of the reference to withdrawing from the research as this will not be possible for an anonymous survey.
 - c. Inclusion of advice that they don't have to answer the question if they don't want to;
5. Amendment of the survey as follows:
- a. Use of the current AUT logo;
 - b. Consistent use of font size and layout in survey introduction.

Please provide me with a response to the points raised in these conditions, indicating either how you have satisfied these points or proposing an alternative approach. AUTEK also requires copies of any altered documents, such as Information Sheets, surveys etc. You are not required to resubmit the application form again. Any changes to responses in the form required by the committee in their conditions may be included in a supporting memorandum.

Please note that the Committee is always willing to discuss with applicants the points that have been made. There may be information that has not been made available to the Committee, or aspects of the research may not have been fully understood.

Once your response is received and confirmed as satisfying the Committee's points, you will be notified of the full approval of your ethics application. Full approval is not effective until all the conditions have been met. Data collection may not commence until full approval has been confirmed. If these conditions are not met within six months, your application may be closed and a new application will be required if you wish to continue with this research.

To enable us to provide you with efficient service, we ask that you use the application number and study title in all correspondence with us. If you have any enquiries about this application, or anything else, please do contact us at ethics@aut.ac.nz.

I look forward to hearing from you,

Yours sincerely



Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: sheilaliuycen@foxmail.com

Appendix Two- Pilot Study Online Survey

Pilot study



Project Title Consumer *ethnocentrism* and the effects of language choice in advertising (**pilot study**)

An Invitation Hello My name is Yicen Liu, a Master of Business (Marketing) student at Auckland University of Technology. My master's research focuses on a unique and interesting area consumer *ethnocentrism* and the effects of language choice in advertising. More specifically, the research investigates how the level of consumer *ethnocentrism* influences consumer attitudes towards advertised products and services when the language used in the advertisement changes. The findings will provide information to local companies when they create advertising strategies to approach both local New Zealand consumers and recent immigrants.

What is the purpose of this research? In view of above information, the purpose of this research is to test the moderating role of consumer *ethnocentrism* in the relationship between the language choices in advertisements and consumers' attitude towards advertised products and service.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research? You are a member of a CINT research panel. You were born in New Zealand and speak only one language fluently, English.

How do I agree to participate in this research? Your participation is entirely voluntary and will not advantage or disadvantage you by any means. You can consent to the research by completing the online survey, after carefully reading and understanding this information sheet.

What will happen in this research? You will complete an online questionnaire. The questionnaire will present 16 questions. You will provide a numerical rating for each question.

What are the discomforts and risks? There will be no discomforts or any risks to the participants. In

fact, a participant can also withdraw at any time should he/she wishes to do so.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated? N/A

What are the benefits? Your participation will provide you with some insight into your own consumer behaviour, as well as help the researcher complete a Master of Business qualification. Your participation will also help contribute to the existing online consumer behaviour body of knowledge.

What compensation is available for injury or negligence? N/A

How will my privacy be protected? No individual names or contact details will be recorded or reported. All this information will be analysed and reported at an aggregate level that does not identify the individual responses of participants.

What are the costs of participating in this research? About five minutes of participation will be required.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation? You have one week to consider this invitation.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research? You may email the researcher (Yicen Liu) for any feedback or a summary of the research findings. (Researcher's email: sheilaliuyicen@foxmail.com).

What do I do if I have concerns about this research? Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Ken Hyde, ken.hyde@aut.ac.nz, (09) 921 9999 ext 5605. Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTC, Kate O'Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz , 921 9999 ext 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research? Please keep this Information Sheet for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows: **Researcher Contact Details:** Yicen Liu, sheilaliuyicen@foxmail.com **Project Supervisor Contact Details:** Assoc.Prof. Ken Hyde, ken.hyde@aut.ac.nz, (09) 921 9999 ext 5605

Were you born in New Zealand?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Other than English, do you speak any other language fluently?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Imagine you were to purchase an Auckland house or apartment:

How important would this purchase be to you?

☐ Extremely important

☐ Very important

☐ Moderately important

☐ Neither important nor unimportant

☐ Somewhat unimportant

☐ Not at all important

☐ Of no importance

In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?

- ☐ Strongly agree
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Somewhat agree
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Somewhat disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Strongly disagree

Imagine you were to purchase a university course of education:

How important would this purchase be to you?

- ☐ Extremely important
- ☐ Very important
- ☐ Moderately important
- ☐ Neither important nor unimportant
- ☐ Somewhat unimportant
- ☐ Not at all important
- ☐ Of no importance

In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?

- ☐ Strongly agree
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Somewhat agree
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Somewhat disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Strongly disagree

Imagine you were to purchase a financial loan or mortgage:

How important would this purchase be to you?

- ☐ Extremely important
- ☐ Very important
- ☐ Moderately important
- ☐ Neither important nor unimportant
- ☐ Somewhat unimportant
- ☐ Not at all important
- ☐ Of no importance

In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?

- ☐ Strongly agree
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Somewhat agree
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Somewhat disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Strongly disagree

Imagine you were to apply for a job that you really want in New Zealand:

How important would getting a job be to you?

- ☐ Extremely important
- ☐ Very important
- ☐ Moderately important
- ☐ Neither important nor unimportant
- ☐ Somewhat unimportant
- ☐ Not at all important
- ☐ Of no importance

In your opinion, does a job represent a limited economic or natural resource?

- ☐ Strongly agree
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Somewhat agree
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Somewhat disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Strongly disagree

Imagine you were to purchase a greeting card for a loved one:

How important would this purchase be to you?

- ☐ Extremely important
- ☐ Very important
- ☐ Moderately important
- ☐ Neither important nor unimportant
- ☐ Somewhat unimportant
- ☐ Not at all important
- ☐ Of no importance

In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?

- ☐ Strongly agree
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Somewhat agree
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Somewhat disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Strongly disagree

Imagine you were to purchase a large screen TV:

How important would this purchase be to you?

- ☐ Extremely important
- ☐ Very important
- ☐ Moderately important
- ☐ Neither important nor unimportant
- ☐ Somewhat unimportant
- ☐ Not at all important
- ☐ Of no importance

In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?

- ☐ Strongly agree
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Somewhat agree
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Somewhat disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Strongly disagree

Imagine you were to purchase a new laptop computer:

How important would this purchase be to you?

- ☐ Extremely important
- ☐ Very important
- ☐ Moderately important
- ☐ Neither important nor unimportant
- ☐ Somewhat unimportant
- ☐ Not at all important
- ☐ Of no importance

In your opinion, does this involve the purchase of a limited economic or natural resource?

- ☐ Strongly agree
- ☐ Agree
- ☐ Somewhat agree
- ☐ Neither agree nor disagree
- ☐ Somewhat disagree
- ☐ Disagree
- ☐ Strongly disagree

Appendix Three-Ethics Approval Letter for Main study

AUTEC Secretariat

Auckland University of Technology
D-88, WU406 Level 4 WU Building City Campus
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

The logo for Auckland University of Technology (AUT) is displayed in white, bold, sans-serif capital letters on a black rectangular background.

29 March 2018

Ken Hyde
Faculty of Business Economics and Law

Dear Ken

Ethics Application: 18/125 **Consumer ethnocentrism and the effects of language choice in advertising**

I wish to advise you that a subcommittee of the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) has **approved** your ethics application.

This approval is for three years, expiring 29 March 2021.

Non-Standard Conditions of Approval

1. Removal of the reference to withdrawing from the research as this will not be possible for an anonymous survey in the participant information sheet
2. Inclusion of advice in the information sheet that participants do not need to answer a question if they do not wish to

Non-standard conditions must be completed before commencing your study. Non-standard conditions do not need to be submitted to or reviewed by AUTEC before commencing your study.

Standard Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report is due annually on the anniversary of the approval date, using form EA2, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>.
2. A final report is due at the expiration of the approval period, or, upon completion of project, using form EA3, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by AUTEC prior to being implemented. Amendments can be requested using the EA2 form: <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>.
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events must be reported to AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.

Please quote the application number and title on all future correspondence related to this project.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval for access for your research from another institution or organisation then you are responsible for obtaining it. You are reminded that it is your responsibility to ensure that the spelling and grammar of documents being provided to participants or external organisations is of a high standard.

For any enquiries please contact ethics@aut.ac.nz

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'K O'Connor', written in a cursive style.

Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: sheilaliuyicen@foxmail.com

Appendix Four-Main Study Online Survey

Main study



Introduction & Instructions

An Invitation

Hello, my name is Yicen Liu, a Master of Business (Marketing) student at Auckland University of Technology. My master's research focuses on consumer reactions to advertising. The findings will provide information to local New Zealand companies when they create advertising strategies to approach both local New Zealand consumers and recent immigrants.

Please complete all question items in the following questionnaire. The questionnaire will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

What is the purpose of this research?

The purpose of this research is to test various advertising formats, and consumers' attitude towards advertised products and the advertisement itself.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You are a member of a CINT research panel. You were born in New Zealand and speak only one language fluently, English.

How do I agree to participate in this research?

Your participation is entirely voluntary and will not advantage or disadvantage you by any means. You can consent to the research by completing the online survey, after carefully reading and understanding this information sheet.

Confidentiality and Anonymity

All information you provide will be strictly anonymous. Your responses will be presented only in aggregate and no individual results will be highlighted. Results will not be released to any third-party. The demographic information that I ask you to provide, at the end of the questionnaire, will be used for comparative purposes only. If at any time you wish to withdraw from the survey you will not be disadvantaged in any way.

Consent

Your consent to participate in this research will be indicated by commencing the following, electronic questionnaire.

What will happen in this research?

You will complete an online questionnaire. The questionnaire will present 44 questions. You will provide a numerical rating for each question. You need not answer all questions.

What are the discomforts and risks?

There will be no discomforts or any risks to the participants.

What are the benefits?

Your participation will provide you with some insight into your own consumer behaviour, as well as help the researcher complete a Master of Business qualification. Your participation will also help contribute to the existing online consumer behaviour body of knowledge.

How will my privacy be protected?

No individual names or contact details will be recorded or reported. All this information will be analysed and reported at an aggregate level that does not identify the individual responses of participants.

What are the costs of participating in this research?

About fifteen minutes of participation will be required.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

You have one week to consider this invitation.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

You may email the researcher (Yicen Liu) for any feedback or a summary of the research findings. (Researcher's email: sheila.liu@aut.ac.nz)

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Ken Hyde, ken.hyde@aut.ac.nz, (09) 921 9999 ext 5605.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTECH, Kate O'Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz , 921 9999 ext 6038.

Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this Information Sheet for future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

Researcher Contact Details: Yicen Liu. sheila.liu@aut.ac.nz

Project Supervisor Contact Details: Assoc.Prof. Ken Hyde, ken.hyde@aut.ac.nz, (09) 921 9999 ext 5605

Were you born in New Zealand?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Which languages do you speak **fluently** (click all that apply)?

☐ English

☐ Māori

☐ Other

Today, more and more immigrants leave their home countries and choose to come to find jobs, set up businesses and study in New Zealand. While they live in New Zealand, they make purchases such as houses, cars, and luxuries. According to Statistics NZ, other than the official NZ languages of English, Māori, and sign language, Hindi, Samoan, and Chinese are the other three most common languages. New Zealanders are surrounded by different languages every day - advertisements in other languages, store signs in other languages, and people on the street talking in other languages...

Imagine you are looking to buy a laptop. Please look at the advertisement below provided by **New Zealand Electronics** (a New Zealand owned and operated company):



How favourable do you feel about this **advertisement**?

- ☐ not at all favourable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely favourable 7

How likable is this **advertisement**?

- ☐ not at all likable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely likable 7

How positive is this **advertisement**?

- ☐ not at all positive 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely positive 7

How favourable do you feel about the advertised **product or service**?

- ☐ not at all favourable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely favourable 7

How likable is the **product or service** in this advertisement?

- ☐ not at all likable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely likable 7

How positive is the **product or service** in this advertisement?

- ☐ not at all positive 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely positive 7

Imagine you are looking to buy a house or an apartment. Please look at the advertisement below provided by **New Zealand Real-Estate** (a New Zealand owned and operated company):



How favourable do you feel about this **advertisement**?

- ☐ not at all favourable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely favourable 7

How likable is this **advertisement**?

- ☐ not at all likable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely likable 7

How positive is this **advertisement**?

- ☐ not at all positive 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely positive 7

How favourable do you feel about the advertised **product or service**?

- ☐ not at all favourable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely favourable 7

How likable is the **product or service** in this advertisement?

- ☐ not at all likable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely likable 7

How positive is the **product or service** in this advertisement?

- ☐ not at all positive 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely positive 7

Imagine you are looking for a job. Please look at the advertisement below provided by **New Zealand Recruitment Agency** (a New Zealand owned and operated company):



How favourable do you feel about this **advertisement**?

- ☐ not at all favourable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely favourable 7

How likable is this **advertisement**?

- ☐ not at all likable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely likable 7

How positive is this **advertisement**?

- ☐ not at all positive 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely positive 7

How favourable do you feel about the advertised **product or service**?

- ☐ not at all favourable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely favourable 7

How likable is the **product or service** in this advertisement?

- ☐ not at all likable 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely likable 7

How positive is the **product or service** in this advertisement?

- ☐ not at all positive 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ extremely positive 7

For the following four questions, please select the answer that best describes you. There are no right or wrong answers.

To what extent do you see yourself as a typical **New Zealander**?

- ☐ not at all 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ very much 7

How well does the term **New Zealander** describe you?

- ☐ not at all well 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ very well 7

When talking about **New Zealanders**, how often do you say "we" instead of "they"?

- ☐ never 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ always 7

How important is being a **New Zealander** to you?

- ☐ not at all important 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ very important 7

To what extent do you agree or disagree with these statements. There are no right or wrong answers.

New Zealanders should not buy foreign products, because this hurts New Zealand business and causes unemployment.

☐ strongly disagree 1

☐ 2

☐ 3

☐ 4

☐ 5

☐ 6

☐ strongly agree 7

A real **New Zealander** should always buy New Zealand-made products.

☐ strongly disagree 1

☐ 2

☐ 3

☐ 4

☐ 5

☐ 6

☐ strongly agree 7

It is not right to purchase foreign products, because this puts **New Zealanders** out of jobs.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ strongly agree 7

We should purchase products manufactured in **New Zealand** instead of letting other countries get rich off us.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ 5
- ☐ 6
- ☐ strongly agree 7

To what extent do you agree or disagree with these statements. There are no right or wrong answers.

Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

My culture should be the role model for other cultures.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

People from other cultures act strange when they come into my culture.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

I respect the values and customs of other cultures.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

I have many friends from different cultures.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

I apply my values when judging people who are different.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

I do not cooperate with people who are different.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

I do not trust people who are different.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.

- ☐ strongly disagree 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ strongly agree 5

I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.

☐ strongly disagree 1

☐ 2

☐ 3

☐ 4

☐ strongly agree 5

About you

What is your gender?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

What is your age group?

- ☐ Under 18
- ☐ 18 - 24
- ☐ 25 - 34
- ☐ 35 - 44
- ☐ 45 - 54
- ☐ 55 - 64
- ☐ 65 - 74
- ☐ 75 - 84
- ☐ 85 or older

What is the income level of your household?

- ☐ Less than \$10,000
- ☐ \$10,000 - \$19,999
- ☐ \$20,000 - \$29,999
- ☐ \$30,000 - \$39,999
- ☐ \$40,000 - \$49,999
- ☐ \$50,000 - \$59,999
- ☐ \$60,000 - \$69,999
- ☐ \$70,000 - \$79,999
- ☐ \$80,000 - \$89,999
- ☐ \$90,000 - \$99,999
- ☐ \$100,000 - \$149,999
- ☐ More than \$150,000

What is your education level?

- ☐ Less than level 1 NCEA
- ☐ Level 1, 2, 3 NCEA
- ☐ Level 4, 5, 6 diploma
- ☐ Bachelor's degree
- ☐ Postgraduate, Honours, Master's
- ☐ Doctorate

What is your ethnicity?

- ☐ European New Zealander
- ☐ Māori
- ☐ Pacific Island
- ☐ Asian (e.g., Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Indian)
- ☐ Other

Which region of New Zealand do you live?

- ☐ Northland
- ☐ Auckland
- ☐ Waikato
- ☐ Bay of Plenty
- ☐ Gisborne
- ☐ Hawke's Bay
- ☐ Taranaki
- ☐ Manawatu-Wanganui
- ☐ Wellington
- ☐ Tasman
- ☐ Nelson
- ☐ Marlborough
- ☐ West Coast
- ☐ Canterbury
- ☐ Otago
- ☐ Southland

Appendix Five – Advertisements Used in the Main Study Online Survey

Condition one (English)



**NEW ZEALAND
REAL-ESTATE**

**YOUR DREAM
CAN
COME TRUE**



**NEW ZEALAND
RECRUITMENT AGENCY**

**WE ARE LOOKING FOR
SALES SUPERHEROES WHO
CAN SELL LITERALLY
EVERYTHING.
IF YOU ARE THE ONE,
PLEASE LET US KNOW!**



Condition Two (English + Chinese)

**NEW ZEALAND
ELECTRONICS**

**MID YEAR
SALE!
BIG SALE!
年中大酬宾!
大甩卖!**

ENJOY
**YOUR
DISCOUNT**



The advertisement features a vibrant background with geometric shapes in blue, pink, and yellow. A laptop is the central focus, with its screen showing a yellow circle containing the text 'ENJOY YOUR DISCOUNT'. To the right of the laptop is a small, colorful CD or DVD. The overall design is modern and eye-catching.

**NEW ZEALAND
REAL-ESTATE**

**YOUR DREAM
CAN
COME TRUE**
你的梦想即将实现!
**最好的地段!
最好的价格!**

BEST LOCATION

BEST PRICE



The advertisement has a light blue background with a pink triangle on the left. It features a 3D rendering of a modern house with a gabled roof and large windows, set on a blueprint. Dashed lines and stars connect the text 'BEST LOCATION' and 'BEST PRICE' to the house. The overall design is clean and professional.

NEW ZEALAND
RECRUITMENT AGENCY

WE ARE LOOKING FOR
SALES SUPERHEROES WHO
CAN SELL LITERALLY
EVERYTHING.

IF YOU ARE THE ONE,
PLEASE LET US KNOW!

诚邀销售精英加盟。
有兴趣请联系我们!



Condition Three (Chinese)



