

The copyright © of this thesis belongs to its rightful author and/or other copyright owner. Copies can be accessed and downloaded for non-commercial or learning purposes without any charge and permission. The thesis cannot be reproduced or quoted as a whole without the permission from its rightful owner. No alteration or changes in format is allowed without permission from its rightful owner.



**THE EFFECTS OF CONSUMER RACISM, ETHNIC-BASED CONSUMER  
ETHNOCENTRISM AND ETHNIC-BASED CONSUMER ANIMOSITY ON  
MALAYSIAN MALAYS' PRODUCT JUDGMENT AND WILLINGNESS  
TO BUY MALAYSIAN CHINESE PRODUCTS**



**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY  
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA  
OCTOBER 2016**

**THE EFFECTS OF CONSUMER RACISM, ETHNIC-BASED CONSUMER  
ETHNOCENTRISM AND ETHNIC-BASED CONSUMER ANIMOSITY ON  
MALAYSIAN MALAYS' PRODUCT JUDGMENT AND WILLINGNESS  
TO BUY MALAYSIAN CHINESE PRODUCTS**



**SAMSHUL AMRY BIN ABDUL LATIF (94676)**

**UUM**  
**Universiti Utara Malaysia**

**A Thesis submitted to the Ghazali Shafie Graduate School of Government in  
fulfillment of the requirement for Doctor of Philosophy  
Universiti Utara Malaysia**

## PERMISSION TO USE

In presenting this thesis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for PhD degree from Universiti Utara Malaysia, I agree that the University Library may make it freely available for inspection. I further agree that permission for copying of this thesis in any manner either in whole or in part, for scholarly purpose may be granted by my supervisor or in his/her absence, by the Dean, Ghazali Shafie Graduate School of Government, College of Law, Government and International Studies (COLGIS). It is understood that any copying or publication or use of this thesis or parts thereof for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission. It is also understood that due recognition shall be given to me and to Universiti Utara Malaysia for any scholarly use which may be made of any material from this thesis.

Request for permission to copy or to make use of material in this thesis in whole or in part, should be addressed to:



Dean (Ghazali Shafie Graduate School of Government)

UUM College of Law, Government and International Studies

Universiti Utara Malaysia

06010 UUM Sintok

Kedah Darul Aman

## ABSTRACT

This thesis investigated the effects of consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity of ethnic Malaysian Malay consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy Malaysian ethnic Chinese products. This thesis used a collection of familiar consumer products and brands to elicit generalized consumer response. Respondents were obtained through two approaches; social media platform and the traditional pencil-and-paper approach. The combined total usable respondents were 425. The hypothesized relationships between the constructs were analyzed through the partial least squares structural equation modeling approach (PLS-SEM). The results showed the constructs were distinct. There were three unsupported hypotheses with significant t-values, suggesting rather interesting findings. Consumer racism was found to have positive relationship on product judgment but not relationship with willingness to buy. The results also suggested that ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism have negative impact on product judgment and but have positive relationship with willingness to buy, while ethnic-based consumer animosity have positive relationship with willingness to buy only. Future studies can use specific brands or products or product categories associated with a particular ethnic group. This thesis utilized a modified consumer racism scale suited to the Malaysian marketplace as according to the country's historical aspects and operationalized both consumer ethnocentrism and animosity at subnational level or ethnic-based. The modified scale can be adjusted and be utilized in countries with similar historical background and/or multiethnic societies for future research.

**Keywords:** Consumer Racism, Consumer Ethnocentrism, Consumer Animosity, Consumer Behavior, Malaysia

## ABSTRAK

Tesis ini bertujuan untuk menyelidik kesan perkauman pengguna, etnosentrisme pengguna pada tahap etnik dan permusuhan pengguna pada tahap etnik bagi pengguna etnik Melayu Malaysia terhadap pertimbangan produk dan kesediaan untuk membeli produk etnik Cina Malaysia. Tesis ini menggunakan produk-produk biasa untuk mendapatkan maklum balas pengguna secara umum. Responden-responden diperolehi melalui dua pendekatan melalui; platform media sosial dan pendekatan yang lebih tradisional iaitu penggunaan pensil-dan-kertas. Jumlah responden adalah sebanyak 425 orang. Hubungan hipotesis antara konstruk dianalisis menggunakan pendekatan 'Partial-Least Squares – Structural Equation Modelling' (PLS-SEM). Keputusan yang diperolehi menunjukkan konstruk-konstruk adalah berbeza dan berasingan diantara satu sama lain. Terdapat tiga hipotesis yang ditolak tetapi mempunyai nilai 't-values' yang tinggi dimana ini menunjukkan satu penemuan yang menarik. Perkauman pengguna didapati mempunyai hubungan positif kepada pertimbangan produk tetapi tiada hubungan dengan kesediaan untuk membeli. Keputusan juga menunjukkan bahawa etnosentrisme pengguna pada tahap etnik memberi kesan negatif kepada pertimbangan produk dan pada masa yang sama mempunyai hubungan positif dengan kesediaan untuk membeli. Manakala permusuhan pengguna tahap etnik mempunyai hubungan positif dengan kesediaan untuk membeli sahaja. Kajian masa depan boleh menggunakan jenama atau produk tertentu. Selain itu, kategori produk yang berkaitan dengan kumpulan etnik tertentu juga boleh dikaji. Tesis ini menggunakan skala perkauman pengguna yang diubah suai untuk menyesuaikan dan mengambil kira aspek-aspek pasaran dan sejarah Malaysia. Selain itu, kedua-dua skala etnosentrisme pengguna dan permusuhan telah diubah suai untuk penyesuaian di peringkat etnik atau sub-nasional. Skala digunapakai boleh diubahsuai lagi untuk diaplikasikan di negara-negara yang mempunyai latar belakang sejarah yang sama dan / atau masyarakat yang berbilang kaum untuk kajian yang akan datang.

**Kata Kunci:** Perkauman Pengguna, Etnosentrisme Pengguna, Permusuhan Pengguna, Kelakuan Pengguna, Malaysia

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Alhamdulillah, Praise Allah SWT for granting me the mental and physical strengths to finally complete this thesis. The journey was not all rosy but it is worth every second.

I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my dearest parents, Dato' Haji Abdul Latif bin Haji Mohd Hassan and Datin Hajah Salmiah binti Shafie for the unconditional love and endless support. My deepest gratitude goes to my wife, Hajah Delarina Frimawati Haji Othman Andu for her patience, support, understanding and ultimately, sacrifice throughout this journey. Not forgetting my three wonderful children – Aziz, Afdhal and baby 'Pwincess' Amirah; that often reminded me about the importance of life-research work balance. I am indebted to all of your sacrifices.

To my very kind, patient and supportive supervisors, Associate Prof. Dr. Asmat Nizam Abdul Talib and Dr. Marlin Marissa Malek Abdul Malek, thank you for your guidance throughout this priceless research journey and learning experience. Sincere appreciation is also extended to all those who have assisted in every way and participated in the completion of this thesis including all of the staffs in GSGSG, Sultanah Bahiyah Library and last but not least RIMC and MyBrain15 – without the financial support, this life-changing endeavor would not have been possible. Not forgetting the members of Doctorate Support Group for sharing their experiences and extending help when needed. There are too many to state the names of dear families, friends, colleagues and acquaintances that who have helped in their own special way right from the beginning; I am very much grateful and obliged.

Sincerely, I thank you all from the bottom of my heart.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

PERMISSION TO USE .....	I
ABSTRACT .....	II
ABSTRAK .....	III
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT .....	IV
LIST OF TABLES .....	VIII
LIST OF FIGURES .....	X
LIST OF ABBREVIATION.....	XI
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 General Background .....	1
1.2 Racism, Ethnocentrism and Animosity in Malaysia.....	4
1.3 Problem Statement.....	7
1.4 Research Gaps .....	8
1.5 Research Questions.....	11
1.6 Research Objectives.....	11
1.7 Research Significance.....	12
1.8 Research Scope .....	14
1.9 Operational Definition .....	16
1.10 Outline of the Thesis Structure .....	18
<b>CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUND AND INTER-ETHNIC</b>	
<b>RELATIONSHIPS OF MALAYSIANS.....</b>	<b>20</b>
2.1 Malaysia and its Population.....	20
2.2 Malaysian Politics.....	22
2.3 Who are the Malays? .....	24
2.4 The Chinese in Southeast Asia .....	27
2.5 Significant Migration of the Chinese in Pre-Independent Malaya .....	30
2.6 Tension and Conflicts between Ethnic.....	35
2.7 Chapter Summary .....	38



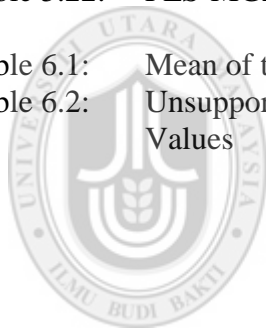
<b>CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW AND DEVELOPMENT</b>	
<b>OF HYPOTHESES .....</b>	<b>40</b>
3.1 Theoretical Perspectives .....	40
3.2 Ethnic Buying Behaviors .....	52
3.3 Consumer Racism .....	55
3.4 Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity .....	66
3.5 Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism .....	71
3.6 Product Judgment .....	76
3.7 Summary of the Construct Differentiation .....	82
3.8 Research Framework .....	84
3.9 Hypotheses Development .....	85
3.10 List of Hypotheses .....	87
3.11 Chapter Summary .....	89
<b>CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>90</b>
4.1 Research Design .....	90
4.2 Sources of Data.....	91
4.3 Sampling Design and Techniques .....	93
4.4 Instrumentation .....	95
4.5 Questionnaire Design.....	98
4.6 Respondents and Sampling Frame.....	101
4.7 Constructs and Measurement.....	105
4.8 The Modification of the Consumer Racism Scale .....	116
4.9 Survey Pretesting .....	121
4.10 Actual Survey Administration .....	125
4.11 Statistical Analyses: Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling .....	128
4.12 Data Characteristics .....	130
4.13 Sample Size .....	131
4.14 Model Characteristics .....	132
<b>CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH RESULTS AND FINDINGS .....</b>	<b>133</b>
5.1 Respondents' Demographic Profile .....	133
5.2 Measurement Validity .....	140

5.2.1	Reliability and Validity .....	141
5.2.2	Common Method Bias .....	143
5.3	Assessment of the Structural Model .....	146
5.3.1	Collinearity Assessment .....	146
5.3.2	Structural Model Path Coefficient .....	147
5.3.3	Coefficient of Determination ( $R^2$ ) .....	152
5.3.4	Effect Size ( $f^2$ ) .....	152
5.4	Heterogeneity Assessment .....	154
5.5	PLS-MGA for Rural Respondents .....	156
5.6	PLS-MGA for Urban Respondents .....	163
<b>CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSIONS .....</b>		<b>173</b>
6.1	General Discussion .....	173
6.2	Discussion Based on the Main Results .....	175
6.3	Discussion Based on Heterogeneity Results .....	179
6.4	In-Depth Discussion .....	184
6.5	Implications and Conclusion .....	188
6.5.1	Practical and Managerial Implications .....	190
6.5.2	Theoretical Implications .....	191
6.6	Research Limitations and Future Research Directions .....	193
6.7	Conclusion .....	197
References .....		198
Appendix .....		222

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1:	The Coalitions of Various Political Parties in Malaysia	23
Table 3.1:	Key Studies on Consumer Racism	65
Table 3.2:	Key Studies on Consumer Ethnocentrism, Consumer Animosity and Product Judgment as Antecedents to Willingness to Buy	79
Table 3.3:	Differential Effects of Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity and Consumer Racism	83
Table 4.1:	Population Distribution by Age Group and Ethnicity in Malaysia	101
Table 4.2:	Malay Population Distribution by Age Group	102
Table 4.3:	Population Distribution By States, Ethnic Groups and Urbanization in Malaysia	104
Table 4.4:	Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity Measurement Scale in Bahasa Malaysia and English	109
Table 4.5:	Items of Economic Animosity from Ouellet (2007)	110
Table 4.6:	Items of Consumer Animosity from Klein et al (1998)	110
Table 4.7:	Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism Measurement Scale in Bahasa Malaysia and English	111
Table 4.8:	Items of National and Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism Measurement Scale from Ouellet (2007)	112
Table 4.9:	Items of Consumer Ethnocentrism Measurement Scale from Shimp & Sharma (1987)	113
Table 4.10:	Adjusted Product Judgment Scale in Bahasa Malaysia and English	114
Table 4.11:	Items of Product Judgment from Klein et al. (1998) and Ettenson & Klein (2005)	114
Table 4.12:	Items of Product Judgment from Ouellet (2007)	115
Table 4.13:	Adjusted Willingness to Buy Measurement Scale in Bahasa Malaysia and English	116
Table 4.14:	Willingness to Buy Measurement Scale from Klein et al. (1998)	116
Table 4.15:	Consumer Racism Scale from Ouellet (2007)	117
Table 4.16:	Removed Items and the Justification	118
Table 4.17:	Modified and Adjusted Consumer Racism Items in Bahasa Malaysia and English	120
Table 4.18:	Pretesting Reliability Results	124
Table 5.1:	Usable Samples	134
Table 5.2:	Respondents' Demographic Profile	137
Table 5.3:	Product and/or Brand Recognition by Rural and Urban Crosstabulation	139

Table 5.4:	Product and/or Brand Consumption Rate by Rural and Urban Crosstabulation	140
Table 5.5:	Availability of Alternative Product and/or Brands by Rural and Urban Crosstabulation	140
Table 5.6:	Loadings Significance, Composite Reliability and AVE	142
Table 5.7:	Constructs Correlation Matrix	144
Table 5.8:	Cross Loadings of Indicators	144
Table 5.9:	Discriminant Analysis Results	146
Table 5.10:	Collinearity Assessment	147
Table 5.11:	Hypotheses Testing	149
Table 5.12:	Results Of $R^2$ and $Q^2$	152
Table 5.13:	Results on Effect Sizes $f^2$ and $q^2$	153
Table 5.14:	Loadings Significance, Composite Reliability and AVE (Rural)	156
Table 5.15:	Cross Loadings of Indicators (Rural)	157
Table 5.16:	Discriminant Analysis (Rural)	158
Table 5.17:	Hypotheses Testing for Rural Respondents	160
Table 5.18:	Loadings Significance, Composite Reliability and AVE (Urban)	163
Table 5.19:	Cross Loadings of Indicators (Urban)	164
Table 5.20:	Discriminant Analysis (Urban)	166
Table 5.21:	Hypotheses Testing for Urban Respondents	168
Table 5.22:	PLS-MGA Results	172
Table 6.1:	Mean of the Constructs	175
Table 6.2:	Unsupported Hypotheses with Substantial or Acceptable T-Values	176



**UUM**  
Universiti Utara Malaysia

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1:	Theory of Planned Behavior	43
Figure 3.2:	Tripartite Theory of Attitude	45
Figure 3.3:	The Multi-attribute Theory of Attitude	46
Figure 3.4:	Social Identity Theory	50
Figure 3.5:	Theoretical framework – eclectic theories of Planned Behavior, Tripartite Theory, Multi-attribute Theory of Attitude and Social Identity Theory	51
Figure 3.6:	Effects of consumer racism, ethnic-based ethnocentrism and ethnic-based animosity on Malays' product judgment and willingness to buy Chinese products	85
Figure 5.1:	Algorithm results (Main)	150
Figure 5.2:	Bootstrapping results (Main)	151
Figure 5.3:	Algorithm results (Rural)	161
Figure 5.4:	Bootstrapping results (Rural)	162
Figure 5.5:	Algorithm results (Urban)	169
Figure 5.6:	Bootstrapping results (Urban)	170
Figure 6.1:	Reconstructed framework based on significant and supported results	175
Figure 6.2:	Reconstructed framework based on unsupported hypotheses with significant t-values (Main)	178
Figure 6.3:	Reconstructed framework based on unsupported hypotheses with significant t-values (Urban)	180
Figure 6.4:	Reconstructed framework based on unsupported hypotheses with significant t-values (Rural)	182

## LIST OF ABBREVIATION

ASEAN	Association of South East Asian Nations
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BBCD	Boikot Barangan Cina DAP
BCE	Before the Common/Current Era
BN	Barisan Nasional
CA	Consumer Animosity
CBSEM	Covariance-based SEM
CET	Consumer Ethnocentrism
CETSCALE	Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale
COO	Country-Of-Origins
CR	Composite Reliability
CR	Consumer Racism
DAP	Democratic Action Party
MAGERAN	National Operations Council
MCA	Malaysian Chinese Association
MIC	Malaysian Indian Congress
NEP	New Economic Policy
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
PAS	Pan-Malaysian Islamic Party
PJ	Product Judgment
PKM	Communist Party of Malaya
PKR	People's Justice Party
PLS MGA	Partial Least Squares Multi Group
PLS SEM	Partial Least Squares – Structural Equation Modelling
PMR	Penilaian Menengah Rendah
PR	Pakatan Rakyat
UMNO	United Malays National Organisation
USA	United States of America
VBSEM	Variance-based SEM

VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
WPKL	Wilayah Persekutuan Kuala Lumpur
WTB	Willingness to Buy



## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

This chapter introduces the three concepts which are the focus of this thesis; consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity, and their importance in consumer behavior and international business generally. These concepts are then related to the problem statement, research justification and research significance. The potential impact of this study to both the academic and real world/market is discussed at the end of the chapter.

#### **1.1 General Background**

In this era of globalization, the vast technological improvements and advancement have benefited both the consumers and businesses alike (Brynjolfsson & Hitt, 2000; Lituchy & Rail, 2000; Maher, Clark, & Maher, 2010). For businesses, these improvements have led to the establishment of new markets, contributing to larger territories as well as providing better access to resources, which perhaps can be translated to better profits (Petersen, Welch, & Liesch, 2002; Sakarya, Eckman, & Hyllegard, 2007; Kim, Min, & Chaiky, 2015). However, crossing borders can also entail increase of competition among businesses. Hence, businesses not only need to sustain and defend themselves, but also to expand and grow their present territories and market shares (Sakarya et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2015). With the increase of new



entrants into the market, consumers are over-whelmed and spoilt with multitudes of choices (Ouellet, 2007; Carter & Maher, 2014), with conceivably of better quality and value (Supphellen & Rittenburg, 2001). Through globalization, consumers now have the choice of choosing varieties of products for their consumption coming from either foreign or domestic origins (Maher et al., 2010).

Further, consumers of different nationalities, regions, ethnicities and cultures among others, have different attitudes, motivations, perceptions, preferences and behaviors (Kacen & Lee, 2002; Essoo & Dibb, 2004; Ouellet, 2005; Essoussi & Merunka, 2007; Ouellet, 2007; Fernández-Ferrín & Bande-Vilela, 2013; Velioglu, Karsu, & Umut, 2013) which can influence their purchasing behaviors and decisions. Indeed, consumers around the world are well diversified and varied. With the extensive choices of products which are now made somewhat easily available to the general consumers, international marketers and businesses need to have the initiative to predict consumers' behavior. International marketers and businesses need to fully and deeply understand their target consumers, the markets' competition and even the political climate, in addition to all other potential factors which can affect consumers' decision to purchase. Given the considerable increasing competition in the market, offering products of better quality and/or value does not necessarily guarantee definite purchases from consumers (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998) given the external and internal influences mentioned above.

Traditionally, many studies relating to domestic-versus-foreign product purchases examined the effects of the products' country-of-origins (COO) on consumers' perceptions, judgments and behavior (Han & Terpstra, 1988; Stoltman, Lim, & Morgan, 1991; Ettenson, 1993; Johny, Ilkka, & Michael, 1994; Batra, Ramaswamy,

Alden, Steenkamp, & Ramachander, 2000). Recently, researches are commonly focused more on the COO's broader implications of which "two of these factors are consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity" (Fernández-Ferrín, Bande-Vilela, Klein, & Río-Araújo, 2015, p. 74). These two concepts are very important for marketers to understand consumers' way of thinking and decision-making when deciding on domestic as well as imported products purchases.

Looking from a macro international perspective, consumers' decision to purchase foreign products may be affected by their feelings of hostility and/or animosity towards a particular country due to reasons such as economic, political or war (Klein et al., 1998; Ang et al., 2004; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Leong et al., 2008; Brkic, Corbo, & Berberovic, 2011; Ahmed, Anang, Othman, & Sambasivan, 2013; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015;). Such feelings might end up in a rejection of foreign products (Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Smith & Li, 2010). While the purchases of foreign products are being shunned or avoided, local products are sought or offered as alternatives, if available.

Consequently, consumers are encouraged by ethnocentric and/or nationalistic movements to support home-grown businesses (Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, & Melewar, 2001; Shankarmahesh, 2006). The justifications made by these movements to support local home-grown businesses and reject foreign products include building up local businesses, providing jobs to the local populace and boosting the local economy (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Klein & Ettenson, 1999). Hence, international marketers need to take notice and be abreast of their potential markets for such phenomena can affect their business agenda directly or indirectly (Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015).

Consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity are similar concepts and are often confused as the outcome of the both phenomena would result to the rejection of imported products. However, these concepts are supported to be distinctly different (Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Ouellet, 2007; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015). Yet another similar concept is consumer racism, which is introduced and developed by Ouellet (2007) in attempt to bridge the gap between racism and consumer behavior., but unlike the two concepts, consumer racism is examined at subnational level with consumers' ethnicity as the object of research focus.

On the other hand, ironically, the definition and operationalization of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity have always focused “on countries as their object [of research focus], never the ethnicity” (Ouellet, 2007, p. 115).



## **1.2. Racism, Ethnocentrism and Animosity in Malaysia**

Generally, Malaysians rarely speak openly of racial matters and issues concerning themselves and others, as those subject areas are considered ‘sensitive’ and a social taboo. However, within the recent years, more and more issues concerning racism, ethnocentrism and animosity begin to emerge and being highlighted in the current local mass media in Malaysia (as examples: Yow, 2011; Boo & Izwan, 2013; Kamal, 2012; Boo, 2014; Kamarudin, 2014).

There are evidences to suggest the possible existence of racism, ethnocentrism and animosity between the Malays and the Chinese<sup>1</sup> according to two important survey

---

<sup>1</sup> From here onwards the term ‘Malay’ or ‘ethnic Malays’ refer to Malaysian ethnic Malays residing in Peninsular Malaysia. Also the term ‘Chinese’ or ‘ethnic Chinese’ refer to Malaysian ethnic Chinese residing in Peninsular Malaysia. Refer to Operational Definition in Section 1.9 below.

results (Merdeka Center for Opinion Research, 2006, 2011). Racial stereotypes against each other's ethnic groups are still prominent and well-entrenched so much so it could probably be accepted as a way of life; where Malays are often regarded as lazy, Chinese as greedy and Indians as distrustful (Alatas, 1977; Merdeka Center for Opinion Research, 2006, 2011, Wan Husin, 2011, 2012b).

The results from Merdeka Center for Opinion Research (2011) states that 33% of the respondents perceived ethnic groups in Malaysia are getting 'further apart' instead of 'getting closer'. Further, when compared to the earlier results from the 2006 survey, there is a drop of 28% in confidence of 'ethnic groups in Malaysia are getting closer'.

Merdeka Center for Opinion Research (2011) survey result indicates that 21% of the respondents believed that the current conditions (in 2011) of ethnic relations in Malaysia are in 'bad condition'. If the results are compared to the earlier survey based on year 2006, it demonstrated an increment of 10% of this "we-are-getting-apart" opinion. While most limitations are considered, both surveys can provide further indication on the possible existence of racism, ethnocentrism and animosity among Malaysians.

The results of Merdeka Center for Opinion Research (2011) states only 32% of the Malays trust the Chinese, while 34% of the Chinese trust Malays, which means only about one third of each group trust each other. Not surprisingly, 68% of the Malays agree to the "Chinese are greedy" negative stereotype, which is a direct indication of negative feelings or thoughts towards the Chinese.

Moving on further, there are also evidences to suggest that racism, ethnocentrism and animosity could possibly exist in consumers' consumption. For instance, there is a website by the name of 'Boikot Barangan Cina DAP' or BBCD<sup>2</sup> in short, which promotes the boycott of several Malaysian Chinese products including Massimo bread, Blue Anchor flour and Old Town White Coffee franchise restaurants; and encourages the purchase of Malay products and businesses (BBCDrasmi.blogspot.com, 2013; Izwan, 2015). The objectives of this boycott movement according to the website are; to educate and increase the realization of the Bumiputera<sup>3</sup> Malay Muslims on their economic influence and power; to offer alternative products made or produced by Bumiputera Malay Muslims for the Malay Muslim consumers; to end Chinese monopoly in business generally; and to expose Chinese businesses which uses Muslim Malay identities on their products and brands, among others (BBCD, 2013c). Undeniably, from the statements and contents of the website, there are mixture and overlapping elements of possibly consumer racism, ethnic-based ethnocentrism and ethnic-based animosity underlying the boycott movement.

Other than its tagline of 'Jihad ekonomi: Buy Malay first, Chinese Last', there are many other hints and bits of ethnocentrism, racism and animosity elements overlapping each other in the statements made in the website. In fact, the tagline echoes one of Shimp & Sharma (1987)'s consumer ethnocentrism item – 'American products first, last and foremost'. BBCD further explained that the purchasing power of the Malay Muslims have in their hands could enrich their fellow Malay

---

<sup>2</sup> which means 'Boycott products of Chinese DAP'. Refer to Boikot Barangan Cina DAP, <http://bbcdrasmi.blogspot.com>. BBCD also maintained a Facebook account under Boikot Barangan Cina DAP ORI which garnered about 58,000 'likes' as at 18 May 2015.

<sup>3</sup> In Malaysia, the term Bumiputera is widely used to describe a group which includes the ethnic Malays, indigenous peoples and natives of Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah and Sarawak.

Muslims easily by supporting their products and businesses, instead of supporting and buying from the ‘ungrateful Chinese’ (BBCD, 2013b). Plus, BBCD seemed not to be agreeable with the idea of using Malay Muslim image or identity as a brand-name to a product owned by an ethnic Chinese (BBCD, 2013a).

To support the statements above further, in his qualitative study on Malay consumption behavior in urban setting, Fischer (2008) interviewed a Malay respondent who expressed his preference for grocery shopping would be at stores owned by Malays. This respondent would shop only in non-Malay stores to purchase products that he could not buy from Malay stores.

### **1.3 Problem Statement**

Based on the survey results, scenarios and arguments presented in the previous segment, it could possibly be inferred that Malay consumers are increasingly unwilling to buy Chinese products, and are gradually switching their purchase preferences toward products and businesses from their own ethnic group – the Malays, whenever they have the opportunity to do so; and their product judgment and unwillingness to buy Chinese products could be inferred to be influenced possibly by consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity.

Other than the literatures and survey results previously stated in Section 1.2 above, there is a lack of supporting statistics available to directly or indirectly indicate the changing consumption behavior of the Malay consumers towards Chinese products. Hence, the above statement which states the changing Malay consumers’

preferences and purchasing behavior is primarily based on the principle of transfer of meaning (McCracken, 1989) which explained that “if one does not like a specific ethnic group, theory suggests that he/she should not like its products either” (Ouellet, 2005, p. 423).

This research attempts to investigate the level and effects of consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity on Malay consumers’ purchase behavior toward Chinese products. However, before attempting to investigate further, it is critical and very important to understand the history and background of the country’s ethnic make-up (Ouellet, 2007; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015) as well as the political scenario in Malaysia which are presented in the upcoming Chapter Two.

#### **1.4 Research Gaps**

Extensive studies on racism were contributed by scholars from various interrelated fields and disciplines including socio-psychology (Blanchard, Crandall, Brigham, & Vaughn, 1994), economic (Alexis, 1999), human resources (Knight, Hebl, Foster, & Mannix, 2003), law (Wriggins, 1983), sports (Warren & Tsousis, 1997), and public health (Harris et al., 2006) among many others. Although quite a number of researches relating racism to marketing and advertising (Wilkes & Valencia, 1989; Taylor & Lee, 1994; Bristor, Lee, & Hunt, 1995; Fam, Waller, & Erdogan, 2004) were previously done decades ago, the impact of racism on the study of consumer behavior were not focused then.

On the other hand, many studies on consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity relating to consumer behavior were done previously (Subhash; Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995; Josiassen, Assaf, & Karpen, 2011; Seidenfuss, Kathawala, & Dinnie, 2013), which covered extensive countries, including researches on the various antecedents and consequences (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015). These researches have also used different types of product categories and as well as services to learn which kind of products or services can be affected by consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity (Klein, 2002; Muhammad & Che Razak, 2004; Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007; Yeong, Mohamad, Ramayah, & Omar, 2007; Ahmed et al., 2013).

There were many studies which examined the combined effects of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity together within one model to see the influences and impact on consumers' purchase decision (Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Ahmed et al., 2013; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015 - among many others). However, to date, to the best knowledge of the author, there is yet a study which attempts to combine and examine the effects of all three constructs in one model.

Further, most consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity studies involved countries with multi-cultural or multi-ethnic background (Muhammad & Che Razak, 2004; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Ouellet, 2007; Yeong et al., 2007; Ahmed et al., 2013), yet the differing influence of ethnicity was rarely examined, thus it is most likely that the results can be skewed and biased, as each ethnic group may have its own distinct cultures, traditions, language and religion (Ali, 2008; Vida, Dmitrovic, Obadia, Dmitrovic, & Obadia, 2008; Ahmed et al., 2013) and this may influence the



patterns of racism, ethnocentrism, and/or animosity expressed, if any (Dmitrovic, Vida, & Reardon, 2009; Vida et al., 2008; Abdul-Talib & Abdul-Latif, 2012, 2015). Only a handful examined the ethnicity factor in their consumer ethnocentrism studies (Herche & Balasubramanian, 1994; Vida et al., 2008; Rose, Rose, & Shoham, 2009 - among others).

In similar vein, there is also lack of studies which focused on the countries in South East Asia, especially when most countries in this region are multi-ethnic and multi-cultural which most likely to have unreported incidences of racism, ethnocentrism and animosity between ethnic (or tribes) groups in each country.

These previous studies were not focused on how racism, ethnocentrism and animosity together could impact purchase behavior per se. Additionally there is yet a study which combined all three constructs with focus on South East Asian countries, given the fact the most countries within this region are multi-ethnic and multi-cultural. Further, the historical backgrounds of previous racism, ethnocentrism and animosity studies were different compared to the current attempt, hence the historical aspect behind the creation of a multi-ethnic country need to be carefully examined.

There are several factors in explaining the lack of research done in this area. It could be due to social desirability bias where it is quite difficult to obtain genuine response due to the sensitivity of the subject matter. Indeed, all three constructs are very difficult to measure (Saucier & Miller, 2003; Bahae & Pisani, 2009c) accurately, which could be related to the debatable methodological approach used in previous studies.

Despite the importance known and obvious harmful impacts of all three constructs on consumer behavior to certain extent, to date, researchers have yet to address all three constructs under one research model, especially from the perspective of the business environment and conditions of Malaysia. This study attempts to fill the research gaps as discussed above.

## **1.5 Research Questions**

In line with the study's background and problem statement discussed in the preceding sections, seven research questions are presented as below:

RQ<sub>1</sub>: What is the effect of consumer racism on Malay consumers' product judgment and consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products?

RQ<sub>2</sub>: What is the effect of ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism on Malay consumers' product judgment and consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products?

RQ<sub>3</sub>: What is the effect of ethnic-based consumer animosity on Malay consumers' product judgment and consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products

RQ<sub>4</sub>: What is the relationship between Malay consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy Chinese products?

## **1.6 Research Objectives**

Based on the problem statement presented above, the purpose of this study is to examine the effects of consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and

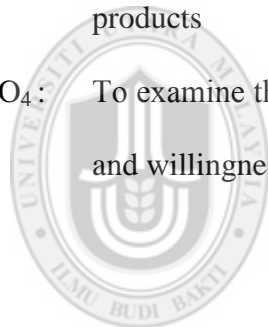
ethnic-based consumer animosity on the product judgment and willingness of the Malay consumers to purchase Chinese products. The research objectives are formulated as below:

RO<sub>1</sub>: To examine the effect of consumer racism on Malay consumers' product judgment and consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products

RO<sub>2</sub>: To examine the effect of ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism on Malay consumers' product judgment and consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products

RO<sub>3</sub>: To examine the effect of ethnic-based consumer animosity on Malay consumers' product judgment and consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products

RO<sub>4</sub>: To examine the relationship between Malay consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy Chinese products



UUM  
Universiti Utara Malaysia

### **1.7 Research Significance**

This research empirically tested a model incorporating consumer racism and two closely related but distinctive constructs (Ouellet, 2005, 2007) namely ethnic-based consumer animosity and ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism; in predicting and influencing ethnic Malay consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy Chinese products. The findings of this research can be academically and practically useful.

First, the findings of this research extended the generalizability and validity of consumer racism, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity. The findings

which were based on the modified construct measurements provided new insights to consumer racism, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity, especially when the examination of the constructs were done at a less frequently examined ethnic-based. By addressing these modified constructs in the multi-ethnic Malaysian context, the results provided new and interesting findings to the literatures of consumer behavior, international business as well as ethno-marketing. This study also responded to the call made for more studies to focus on other countries and emerging markets besides the USA (Leong et al., 2008)

Second, this research adopted, adapted and modified the consumer racism measurement scale established by Ouellet (2007) to fit its application into the Malaysian research context. Following this attempt, there are possibilities for researchers from other countries with identical markets (such as Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines, Burma and Vietnam) or similar historical background (countries which were previously colonized by foreign powers such as Singapore, Indonesia, Philippines, Burma, Vietnam, Nigeria) to modify the scale accordingly and suit to their country's research context.

Third, by understanding the effects of consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity, marketers can employ improved strategies for better consumer communication and advertising, product positioning, labeling, rebranding, among many others. Based on the results, companies can strategize accordingly to target a particular ethnic group or overcome negative consumer attitudes towards the companies, their brands or products to due consumers' perceived ethnic affiliation. Given that there is a steady increase (or growth) in business participation of all ethnic groups in Malaysia, perhaps the

findings can be beneficial and valuable to various stakeholders concerned including direct and indirect domestic and/or multinational companies as well as the consumers.

Fourth, in the spirit of national unity and in view of promoting the consumption of Malaysian products and brands to Malaysian consumers, the Government and policymakers can use the findings of this research as a basis to counter consumer racism, ethnic-based ethnocentrism or ethnic-based animosity among the ethnic groups in Malaysia. This can be done through various channels and methods deemed favorable, not limiting to public awareness, education, support and integration programs.

Finally, the research findings can also be applied across various other disciplines and areas of research interests. It can also be beneficial for future researches in the attempt to understand the root cause of consumer racism among different ethnic (consumer) groups towards achieving better inter-ethnic understanding for greater national unity.

## **1.8 Research Scope**

This study was restricted to examine the effects of consumer racism, ethnic-based ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity on the Malay consumers of Peninsular Malaysia aged 18 years and above. The effects were examined on the Malay consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy Chinese products.

This study did not include the Malays from Sabah and Sarawak as there are historical differences and political experiences between the Western and Eastern

Malaysians (Milne, 1965; Drabble, 2000; Lim, 2008) which may affect the modification of the scale measurements used to measure all the constructs used in this study.

There are also many differences between the Western and the Eastern Malaysians from the perspective of culture, ethnic identity and religion among many others (Kortteinen, 2008) as the ethnic groups in Borneo Island of Malaysia are more heterogeneous compared to the Peninsular. The Malays from Sabah and Sarawak behaves quite differently from their counterpart in the Peninsular (Kortteinen, 2008).

Other ethnic groups in Peninsular Malaysia which includes Chinese, Indians and other minority groups were not included as respondents since the study scope was limited to Malay consumers only. The inclusion of other ethnic groups and/or between East and West Malaysians can be opportunities for researchers to incorporate consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity in their future studies.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher had focused on several categories of products including homegrown fast-food restaurant chains, bread, snacks, flavored drinks, cooking oils, and flour, convenience stores and auto accessories stores. The rationale behind the selection of these products was based on market presence, product familiarity, product affordability, product availability and product accessibility especially to the Malay consumers (Li, Tsai, & Soruco, 2013; Abdul-Talib & Abdul-Latif, 2015).

The focus of this study is to elicit response from the respondents and establish whether consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based

consumer animosity can exist among ethnic Malay consumers generally, rather than focusing on which specific product categories (for example types of fast food) or specific service categories (for example restaurants) that could elicit above mentioned constructs.

Additionally, the scope of this study takes into account on ethnic Malays which generally lives in an environment where the non-Malays specifically the ethnic Chinese have better economic and business presence in the country (Alatas, 1977; Idris, 2008; Wan Husin, 2012b; Wan Husin & Tee, 2012).

### **1.9 Operational Definition**

The term ‘consumer racism’ used in this thesis were based on the definition as “the antipathy toward a given ethnic group’s products or services as a symbolic way of discriminating against that group [which] affects consumer behavior in the domestic marketplace” (Ouellet, 2007, p.115).

A closely related construct to consumer racism; consumer animosity is defined as “the remnants of antipathy related to previous or on-going military, political or economic conflicts” (Klein et al., 1998, p. 91), while consumer ethnocentrism can be defined as “the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 240). Both consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity concepts in this thesis was examined at a lower level (non-national level) and confined within the boundaries of a country instead of between countries. Previously, Ouellet (2007) included the term ‘ethnic-based’ in the forefront of the concepts. Following Ouellet (2007), the terms

used for the concepts are ‘ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism’ and ‘ethnic-based consumer animosity’ respectively.

Term ‘ethnic’ is defined as a “group consists of those who conceive of themselves as being alike by virtue of their common ancestry, real or fictitious and who are so regarded by others” and “united by emotional bond and concerned with the preservation of their type” (Shibutani & Kwan, 1965, p. 47).

The term ‘ethnic Chinese’ in this study referred to Malaysians of Chinese ethnicity residing in Peninsular Malaysia (or Semenanjung Malaysia). From here onwards, this group can be referred as the ‘Chinese’ or ‘ethnic Chinese’, interchangeably. The term of this study was limited to Peninsular Malaysia and did not include Malaysian ethnic Chinese residing or originating from East Malaysia. This term was not applicable to ethnic Chinese domiciled outside Malaysia or holds citizenship of other countries other than Malaysia.

Similarly, the term ‘ethnic Malay’ in this study referred to Malaysians of Malay ethnicity living in Peninsular Malaysia which comprised of many sub-Malay ethnic groups including Javanese, Northern Malays, Bugis, Minangkabau, Aceh and many others (Run, 2007). In this study, this group was referred as the ‘Malays’ or ‘ethnic Malays’ and these terms were used interchangeably.

In this study, the term “products owned by ethnic Chinese”, “Chinese products” or “products perceived to be owned by Chinese” referred to products as well as brands which are owned by Malaysians of ethnic Chinese either fully or partially but can be either majority or minority held by Malaysian Chinese individual or individuals, or



through their companies of which the shareholders are majority or otherwise co-owned by ethnic Chinese of Malaysian descent.

The term “product judgment” referred to the judgment of Malay consumers on Chinese products based on all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs they have about the products of a given ethnic group following along the lines of definition made by Nagashima (1970) and Martin & Eroglu (1993). In this study, the term ‘willingness to buy’ referred to the Malay consumers’ willingness to buy, to purchase, to acquire or to consume Chinese products following Klein et al., (1998) and Ouellet (2007), provided the conditions to perform such actions were fair.

#### **1.10 Outline of the Thesis Structure**

This study is organized into six chapters. Chapter One presents a combined overview of consumer racism, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity phenomena in the Malaysian market. This is then followed with the problem statement of the thesis, research gaps, research questions, research objectives and research scope. Then this is followed with the operational definition of the study. The rationale and significance of the study are provided at the end of the chapter.

Chapter Two provides the history and background of Malaysia, and the description of its population demographics. Then, the origins of Malaysia’s ethnic diversity from the early centuries and pre-independence Malaya period are reviewed. The chapter will then highlight on the conflicts occurrences between ethnic groups right after the Second World War and their implications to consumer racism, consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity. These occurrences provide the basis and

platform for subsequent conceptualization, arguments, rationale and justifications surrounding the constructs and subject matter.

Chapter Three examines available literatures surrounding the constructs of interest from various literature background include sociology, social psychology, behavioral studies, psychology and within many different areas of business scope including marketing, management and consumers. Based on the literatures reviewed, the research hypotheses and research model are proposed.

Chapter Four illustrates the research methodology used to examine the proposed quantitative research model. The description of the methods includes the justification of the research design, research instruments and measurements, the modification and adjustments of construct measurements. This is then followed with the description of the sampling methods and procedures.

Chapter Five presents the research results starting with the descriptive analysis by providing comprehensive demographics of the respondents. Then this is followed by the presentation of the structural equation modeling results using partial least squares approach. The measurement model is first tested and was found to be adequately accepted before moving on to the structural modeling portion.

Chapter Six draws the conclusion of the research and discusses the implications and managerial impacts of the research results to real business and consumer world. This is followed with a discussion on the theoretical impact of this research. Finally, the limitation of this research is provided with several future research recommendations offered.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **BACKGROUND AND INTER-ETHNIC RELATIONSHIPS OF MALAYSIANS**

This chapter starts with the current background of Malaysia and the most current available demographics of her population. This is then followed with the explanation of the roots of multi-ethnic society derived from historical trade and relationships during the age of the Malay Sultanates up until when the colonial powers entered into the picture and the effects it had on the local population. In the last part of this chapter, a number of known communal conflicts between the ethnics in Peninsular Malaysia are highlighted and discussed.

#### **2.1 Malaysia and its Population**

Malaysia is a multi-ethnic South East Asian country (Masron, Masami, & Ismail, 2013) with total population of 28.3 million, of which 26 million are citizens (Census, 2011). The ethnic composition is made up by 67.4% classified as generally as Bumiputera, 24.6% ethnic Chinese and 7.3% ethnic Indians. According to Baharuddin (2012), there are about 70 ethnic groups in Malaysia, but if the number of sub-ethnic groups, tribes, groups of languages and dialects were included the total number exceed 200 different groups. In the Peninsular, the Malays are the

predominant ethnic group constituting 63.1% of the population with Islam as the integral part of ethnic Malays' identity and often are regarded as synonymous (Alatas, 1977; Idris, 2008). Nonetheless, there are also very small percentages of non-Malays who are Muslims.

Although Islam is prominent in the Peninsular, other ethnic groups are free to practice any religions in harmony as provided by Article 3(1) of the Federal Constitution. The religion of the ethnic Malays is usually ascribed to Islam (Baharuddin, 2012) while ethnic Chinese are usually identified as Buddhist (83.5%) or Christians (11%), while ethnic Indians as Hindu (86%), Christians (6%) or Muslims (4%). Bahasa Malaysia and English are widely used and served as the common languages among the ethnic groups in Malaysia, which makes most Malaysians at least bilingual (Run & Fah, 2006) if not trilingual. Other languages (such as Mandarin and Tamil) and local dialects are also widely spoken and accepted in informal environment. Prior to Independence in 1957 and federation with Sabah and Sarawak in 1963, Peninsular Malaysia then is referred to as Persekutuan Tanah Melayu, the Malay States and/or Malaya.

As Malaysia is strategically located within the South East Asian region, it can be considered as one of the finest options for multinational firms to establish their hub or gateway into new untapped markets within this region. Malaysia is blessed with 6-hour radius access to potential 6 billion consumers including China, and the Middle East. Despite the 2012 global economic turmoil and uncertainty, Malaysia progressed well with GDP (4<sup>th</sup> quarter 2012) of RM 242,533 million, unemployment rate of 3.1%, and inflation rate of 1.3% (Bank Negara Malaysia, 2013)

In Malaysia, the ethnic Chinese is the largest participating community in business; covering from small and medium enterprises to large scale industries, compared to the Malays and other ethnic groups (Gomez, 2003; Run, 2007; Ali, 2008; Wan Husin, 2013). Generally, the ethnic Chinese are always regarded and stereotyped as a threat (by indigenous populations) to the economic development of the countries in which they are domiciled as they are perceived to have powerful economic influence extending throughout the Southeast Asia region (Suryanidata, 2007).

## **2.2 Malaysian Politics**

The current ruling government is made of a coalition of parties collectively known as Barisan Nasional (BN) or the National Front which has been in power at the federal level ever since the nation's independence in 1957 (Ali, 2008). The coalition is comprised of 13 various parties including United Malays National Organisation (UMNO), Malaysian Chinese Association (MCA), Malaysian Indian Congress (MIC), United Traditional Bumiputera Party (PBB), Sarawak United People's Party (SUPP) to name a few, which represent the interest of specific ethnic groups (Malays, Chinese, Indians), specific states (Sabah and Sarawak in East Malaysia) or various political understanding and ideology (conservatism, liberals, democratic, progressive) in Malaysia. See Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1

*The Coalitions of Various Political Parties in Malaysia*

<b>Barisan Nasional (BN)</b>	United Malays National Organisation (UMNO), Malaysian Chinese Association (MCA), Malaysian Indian Congress (MIC), United Traditional Bumiputera Party (PBB), Sarawak United People's Party (SUPP), Malaysian People's Movement Party (GERAKAN), Peoples Progressive Party (PPP), Liberal Democratic Party (LDP), United Sabah People's Party (PBRs), United Pasokmomogun Kadazandusun Murut Organisation (UPKO), United Sabah Party (PBS), Sarawak Progressive Democratic Party (SPDP), and Sarawak People's Party (PRS)
<b>Pakatan Rakyat (PR)</b>	People's Justice Party (PKR), Democratic Action Party (DAP), and Pan-Malaysian Islamic Party (PAS), Socialist Party Malaysia (PSM)

Source: Parlimen Malaysia – Political Parties

<http://www.parlimen.gov.my/pautan-laman.html?&uweb=p&view=71&lang=en>

UMNO, MCA and MIC are established in the Peninsular prior to the Independence in 31<sup>st</sup> August 1957 for safeguarding the interest of ethnic Malay, Chinese and Indians, respectively. With its current 3.5 million members<sup>4</sup>, UMNO is the largest political party in Malaysia and appeared to be fore fronting BN.

Pakatan Rakyat (PR) or The People's Pact is an informal opposition coalition which comprised of four parties; People's Justice Party (PKR), Democratic Action Party (DAP), Pan-Malaysian Islamic Party (PAS) and Socialist Party Malaysia (PSM). All of the parties under PR are supposedly to be multi-ethnic and non-communal based. However, it is a fact that members of DAP is predominantly

<sup>4</sup> Refer to UMNO's website – <http://www.umno-online.my/>

ethnic Chinese, while PAS are mainly Malays (and Muslims). DAP has registered members of approximately 200,000<sup>5</sup>.

The rift between UMNO and DAP goes a long way decades ago, with each side never seemed to agree on many issues. From the perspective of DAP, UMNO is seen as corrupted hegemonic entity that “reap and steals the fruits of the country” for the benefits of the elite few, specifically “the UMNO cronies and warlords, resulting in a disparity of [the] haves and have-nots” (Ng, 2015). Lim Kit Siang, the leader of DAP said in an interview that “one of the reasons for people's rejection of the BN model is because it is basically an UMNO hegemony, where one party rules the roost and the others are just there for decorative purposes and to comply, with no voice of their own” (Ng, 2015).

On the other hand, UMNO perceived DAP to be racist, chauvinistic and anti-Malay (Anonymous, 2009; Kamal, 2012; Anonymous, 2014) mainly because of the latter’s interest in attaining power, wealth and concerned “only about the rights of the Chinese but not for other races” (Kamal, 2012). DAP is also often seen as a threat to the Malay rights and status as ‘bumiputera’ in Malaysia as the ‘rightful people of the land’. Also, there are allegations that DAP is also seeking to remove Islam and replace with Christianity as the official religion of the Federation (Kamal, 2011).

### **2.3 Who are the Malays?**

There are several writings which are heavily biased by colonial views and orientalist in nature (Said, 1979; Barnard, 2004) that claimed the Malays have no history (Ali,

---

<sup>5</sup> Refer to DAP’s website - <http://dapmalaysia.org>.

2008). These writings were mostly from ethnocentric or perhaps even racist colonial officers which usually view their 'colonized inhabitants' as inferiors (Alatas, 1977) and themselves as the most civilized and advanced people on this Earth from all aspects; be it from socially, culturally, economically or technologically, to justify their acts of colonization other nations (Alatas, 1977; Said, 1979). Some of these biased views were often used by some contemporary politicians for their political advantages and gains.

From many archeological findings and evidences found in caves and early settlements areas of different ages i.e. Mesolithic and Neolithic; the Malays have existed in the Peninsular for thousands of years (Ali, 2008). A theory that is well accepted to explain the origins of the Malays was that they migrated from Yunnan (southern region of present time China) in the first wave of migration about 5,000 to 3,000 years ago (Ali, 2008). This group is known as the Proto-Malays which spread into the Peninsula, Sumatra and further south into the Pacific-Melanesian Islands (Alatas, 1978; Rahim, 2004; Ali, 2008).

The second wave of migration which occurred about 3,000 to 1,500 years ago known as the Deutro-Malays from Indo-China. By this time of development, the Malays have had interaction with the Hindu Indians which came to trade in this region (Ali, 2008) leaving significant influence on the creative arts, government and social ritual as well as ceremonies (Ali, 2008).

The definition of the 'who' the actually Malays are differs depending on which context is discussed. The Malay as defined under the context of socio-cultural and history is different from the one described under the Constitution of Malaysia (Ali, 2008). From a historical and socio-cultural perspective, whenever the term Malay is



referred to, it usually represents the Malays of the Peninsular, but in fact the descendent of the Malays are widely spread across the South East Asia which including the Filipinos in the Philippines, and Indonesians in former Dutch colonies now known as Indonesia. This people in the Malay Archipelago belongs to the same stock known as the Malayo-Indonesians, but now subdivided into nation-states by colonial powers such as the British, Portuguese, Spaniards and the Americans (Ali, 2008).

Under the Constitution, it is stated that the Malays are those people “who profess the Muslim religion, habitually speak the Malay language, conform to Malay customs; and was born before the Merdeka Day [31 August 1957], in the Federation or Singapore or born of parents one of whom was born in the Federation or Singapore, or was on Merdeka Day domiciled in the Federation or Singapore; or is the use of such a person” [Article 160 of the Constitution cited from Ali (2008)].

But with the broad definition of the Malay under the Constitution, there are several issues that arises; since Islam and Malay is intertwined, in theory other ethnic individuals can become Malay simply by converting to Islam, marry a Malay partner, practice Malay customs and their way of life; and habitually speaks the Malay language (Ali, 2008). If so, these individuals can be granted with the Malay special privileges. Descendants of Arabs, Indians and Pakistani Muslims whom have assimilated into the Malay culture have been regarded as Malay (Ali, 2008; Wan Husin, 2012b). Another term often used along with the ‘Malays’ is ‘Bumiputera’ meaning the ‘son of the soil’ which generally describes the Peninsula Malay, Orang Asal (or Asli or natives) in the Peninsular and the indigenous ethnic groups of Sabah and Sarawak (Ali, 2008; Baharuddin, 2012).

If the definition of Constitutional Malay is taken without the historical definition, problems of identification can arise; for example if an ‘orang putih’ (white Caucasian) marries a Malay partner, converts to Islam and follow the customs including the Malay language, can the ‘orang putih’ be regarded as Malay? Or can a Malay person be regarded as Malay if he denounced Islam? Should he simply be identified as a Bumiputera? Similarly, can a Malay man who marries an ‘orang putih’, leads a westernized lifestyle and rarely speaks Malay language, be regarded as Malay? Can Javanese, Banjaris, Sundanese or Acehnese from the outlying Archipelago who speaks only in their own tongue and immigrate a few decades ago be regarded as Malay on the basis of historical and cultural similarities? All these cases although seemed rare, can happen.

These cases demonstrate that to understand who are the Malays, one must take both definition from the historical and constitutional perspectives and not as one or the other (Ali, 2008). This study defines Malay as a Malaysian person who voluntary identify himself/herself as a Malay individual through the provision from the historical aspect discussed above, while following all the conditions as according to the constitutional definition.

#### **2.4 The Chinese in Southeast Asia**

The Chinese had started exploring extensively beyond their borders thousands of years ago (Lee, 2014). Archeological evidence in form of ‘Oracle Bones’ were found in the tomb of King Wuding of the Shang Dynasty (prevailed in the 13<sup>th</sup> to

12<sup>th</sup> century BCE<sup>6</sup>) which were used for ‘medieval prediction’ for decision relating to military and hunting expeditions. The ‘Oracle Bones’ consisted of bones from various kind of animals originated from different part of the world including elephants from India, wolves from Northern Asia, bears from Russian/China borders, tapir and turtles shells from the Malay Peninsula (Lee, 2014); suggesting that the Chinese have relationships with many civilizations from different parts of the world including from the Malay Peninsula.

Generally, the migration of the Chinese into South East Asia can be categorized into three phases; before the 14<sup>th</sup> century; between 15<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> century; and after 18<sup>th</sup> century. These phases of migrations were motivated by three factors; political, economic and religion (Lee, 2014). In the first phase, between 8<sup>th</sup> century and 11<sup>th</sup> century, the Chinese did not have significant roles of trading within the South East Asia region which were dominated by Persians and Arab traders. During this phase, Persians and Arab traders directly made their journey to China to trade instead of utilizing centrally-located ports like Malacca. Most of the Chinese came to this region either to study Buddhism or as their stopover before proceeding to India (Lee, 2014).

In 1368, the Yuan Dynasty began to deteriorate and the Ming Dynasty emerged to replace. This marked the second phase of the migration when the ruling Chinese emperor of Ming Dynasty sent Admiral Cheng Ho on a trade voyage mission funded by the state to several destinations including the Malay Peninsula in 1402 (Lee, 2014). During this phase, there were several instances where the current ruling government reigned by the Ming Dynasty disallowed individual Chinese tradesmen

---

<sup>6</sup> BCE is an abbreviation for Before the Common/Current Era, an alternative for the usual BC Before Christ.

to trade because it was seen as a threat to the government as some tradesmen were sponsored by the previous Yuan Dynasty. However, after several decades of implementation, these state-funded voyages stopped due to its high costs and were replaced with again imperial tributary trade system<sup>7</sup> (Lee, 2014). Those tradesmen who refused to stop their trade, if caught by Chinese authorities, were prosecuted. As a result, many individual Chinese tradesmen decided to settle down in their trade areas such as the Malay Peninsula, Malacca, Vietnam, and Java among many others; or turned rogue as pirates (Lee, 2014). This too marked an era of early Chinese settlements in the Malay Peninsula and generally the South East Asian region.

By the 15<sup>th</sup> century, the Chinese traded with three main economic areas; the first area consisted of Siam, Champa, Patani and North Borneo; the second area included Malacca, Sumatera and Java; and the third area were the northern islands of Philippines (Lee, 2014). At the same period, the West started their conquest of Asia and this affected China's trade with several areas. Among other Western conquests in the region, the Portuguese conquered Malacca in 1511. As an entrepot, Malacca served the needs of various traders and travelers from the East and the West. Chinese, Indians, Arabs, and European traders among others gathered, converged and traded peacefully in Malacca under the rule of the Sultan between the 15<sup>th</sup> and early 16<sup>th</sup> century before the colonial conquest.

The domination of the Straits of Malacca had resulted to the overall domination of trade in this area. Although the Western powers began to exert presence and

---

<sup>7</sup> The Chinese Tributary trade system was a trade relationship established mainly with Southeast Asian civilizations to politically exude Chinese influence (or suzerainty) across the region, but over time the trade benefits surpassed political benefits. For those who wish to trade with China, they were required to send a 'tribute' to the Chinese imperial court and acknowledge their superiority (Lee, 2014; Tai & Soong, 2014).

conquered several areas in this region, the trade with China remained unaffected. By the 16<sup>th</sup> century, China had bigger export products to trade internationally. However, from here onwards, the perspective of once thought to be as ‘China-centric’ has now changed to ‘Western-centric’ as the Western powers began to expand their influences (Lee, 2014).

By 18<sup>th</sup> century, the Ming Dynasty began to dwindle and Ching Dynasty emerged to power to the imperial throne. During this phase, the remnants of Ming Dynasty ‘overseas’ supporters in South East Asia were hunted down and the region became their war theater. This also contributed to the emergence of ‘overseas’ Chinese settlements in this region (Lee, 2014).

## **2.5 Significant Migration of the Chinese in Pre-Independent Malaya**

Significant migrations of ethnic Chinese started between the end of 18th and early 19th century in the Malay Peninsula (Lee, 2014) originated from different parts of China but were mainly from the southern region such as Kwantung and Fukien (Thock, 2007). Ethnically, these immigrants were heterogeneous<sup>8</sup> and different as their ethnic groups were identified as Foo Chow, Hakka, Hainanese, Hokkien, Cantonese and among others (Ali, 2008; Thock, 2007; Lee, 2014). The migration of the Chinese were motivated by both pull and push factors, among others; due to over-population, natural disasters, exploitation by rent-seeking landlords, and poverty. Equally, pull factors also attracted Chinese immigrants to migrate. The mounting Western influence and the establishment of free ports in the South East

---

<sup>8</sup> Apparently, the Chinese presently in Malaysia are viewed as homogenous instead of heterogenous (Lee, 2014)

Asian region including Penang in 1786, Singapore in 1819 and other Malay states subsequently attracted many Chinese immigrants (Rofie, 2010; Lee, 2014).

Over time, more ethnic Chinese were brought in, as tin mines were beginning to be established by Malay chieftains in the West coast of the Peninsula, for example Lukut and Sungai Ujong (Rofie, 2010). In early stages of migration to the Peninsula, immigrants heavily relied on their relatives or village folks who had earlier established themselves overseas. As the pressure and demand to migrate increased, Chinese '*tekongs*'<sup>9</sup> provided the necessary financial borrowings but not without heavy repercussions to the well-beings of the immigrants and their families when reached their desired destination (Lee, 2014). The business of 'shipping-in' the Chinese immigrants were very lucrative business and as a result many Chinese immigrants at that time were also deceived, kidnapped and/or forced to the Peninsula, in order to fulfill the colonial's hunger in exploiting and raving the richness of the land (Thock, 2007).

As the tin industry progressed in the mid-19th century, European and Chinese merchants secured concessions to operate tin mines from local Malay chieftains; more Chinese laborers were sought for. The mass Chinese migrations were at its peak between the end of 19th and early 20th century in line with the boom of the world tin demand (Rofie, 2010; Baharuddin, 2012). Subsequently, some selected and industrious Chinese as well as Europeans got very much involved in the

---

<sup>9</sup> Tekongs provide financial borrowings and/or transport services to Chinese immigrants destined to South East Asia at no or minimal costs. The immigrants upon reaching their destination worked as coolies at designated estates or mines. In return, Tekongs were paid by the proprietors of the estates or mines for the full transportation costs of the immigrants. The immigrants were then bound with contracts by the estate or mine proprietors (Lee, 2014).

booming rubber industry as well as other economic activities (Mohd Noor, Abdul Aziz, & Iskandar Lee, 2006).

Similarly, the migrations of ethnic Indians into the Peninsula were driven by growth in the rubber industry. Most Indians were brought in by the British as laborers to meet the demands of rubber plantation, but they were also for other professions such as doctors, lawyers, teachers, clerks, technicians among others (Mohd Noor et al., 2006) due to their ability to communicate in English and loyalty to the British. Some Indians were also brought into the Peninsula to serve as soldiers and policemen (Mohd Noor et al., 2006; Ali, 2008).

Both ethnic groups were motivated to migrate from their homeland due to poverty (Baharuddin, 2012) and in search for betterment which led to the creation of plural society in the Peninsula. As defined by Furnivall (1965, cited from Mohd Noor et al., 2006) plural society refers to people living within an area, and able to practice their own cultures, religions, languages and customs. This was according to the plans and interests of the British colonialist, as with their long history and experience, the implementation of economic developmental policies based on the ethnic “divide and rule” approach was less problematic (Khoo, 2005). This was so that the interactions between ethnics were kept to the minimum level in the interest of the colonialist to curb possibly local threats or uprising (Ahmad, Ho, Gill, Talib, & Ku Ariffin, 2006; Ali, 2008).

The colonialist British promoted their propaganda by stating Malay folks as lazy, easy-going and have less commitment to work, in order to justify their decision to encourage labors and immigrants from China and India into the Peninsula in supporting their introduction of new economic and industrial developments and

activities (Alatas, 1977; Mohd Noor et al., 2006; Wan Husin, 2012b). Truthfully, there was no laziness in being farmers and fishermen whom usually toiled their lands from dawn to dusk.

By 1931, as a result from mass and uncontrolled phase by phase labor migration of other ethnics, the combined percentage of ethnic Chinese and Indians began to increase steadily, outnumbering the Malays (Ahmad et al., 2006). By 1947, the percentage of Malays, Chinese, Indians and others were 49.5%, 38.4%, 10.8% and 1.3%, respectively (Ahmad et al., 2006). Eventually, the Malays became the minority in the Peninsular and were not encouraged to participate in any economic activities other than as farmers, fishermen or engaged in other smallholding agriculture activities in the rural areas (Gomez, 2003; Ahmad et al., 2006; Rofie, 2010; Wan Husin, 2012b). This was according to how the British colonialists wanted, otherwise “who else would do it?” as they often think (Ali, 2008). One of many reasons for this included food stability and security whilst not having to rely on imports from neighboring countries such as Siam (Ali, 2008). Any attempts of the peasant Malays to venture into modern commercial sectors such as rubber planting, were faced with curbs and restrictions on land conditions by the colonials (Gomez, 2003).

Similarly, the same strategies were used in Rwanda and Burundi by the Germans and subsequently the Belgians, during the colonial era to divide the tribes and/or ethnics groups (Feagin & Feagin, 1996). Generally, it was common for European colonizers to use ethnic classification as a systematic method and justification to divide and subjugate the colonized (Feagin & Feagin, 1996; Wieviorka, 2010).



From a socio-demographic perspective, majority of the Malays were kept in rural areas and only have access to low income or low economic activities, while the Chinese, on the other hand were given preferences and located mostly within cities and towns where employments and various other opportunities and facilities were more prevalent (Mohd Noor et al., 2006; Wan Husin, 2012b). The Malays felt that the Chinese were successful due to their ability to exploit the resources available in order to reach their economic goals (Mohd Noor et al., 2006). Feelings of dissatisfaction begin to spark when the general rural Malays felt they were discriminated by the British and the Chinese on economic and education aspects (Wan Husin, 2012b).

During this period, the economic policies of the British can be considered to be advantageous to the ethnic Chinese. With the support of the British and their business network, the Chinese soon upgraded their business involvement from mining and general trading, to include plantation and agriculture (Wan Husin, 2012b). The total lands awarded to the Chinese by the British for plantation and agriculture, were from 102 acres in 1877, exponentially increased to 16,414 acres in 1888 (Jackson, 1968 cited from Wan Husin, 2012) which affected and shattered the agriculture-based economies of the Malays. By 1932, the Chinese owned from 977 to 348,000 acres (Lim, 1967 cited from Wan Husin, 2012) of land for rubber plantations. The Malays were then forced to settle for low-income activities such as land clearing and paddy planting (Ali, 2008; Wan Husin, 2012b).

In early 20<sup>th</sup> century, as the Chinese began to have greater economic dominance and increase in population; demands of equal rights and treatments were made to the British. But the British began to shift its preference towards the Malays when the

influences of Kuomintang and Communist or anti-imperialist sentiments began to seep in, as a result of Chinese Revolution in 1911. These sentiments were regarded as a threat to the British administration in Tanah Melayu. As the years passed, the Malays felt very much threatened by the Chinese economic dominance and demands plus the increasing presence of the British on Tanah Melayu. But the Malays never used any form of aggression, instead they voiced out their frustration through literatures and articles published in local newspapers and magazines (Ali, 2008).

Occasionally, there were certain naysayers asserting that the Malays were actually protected by the British colonialist, but in reality their position became more compromised “as their villages and, in fact, the whole country were mortgaged to the colonial power” (Ali, 2008, p. 17). It made the Malays feel very discontented and discriminated when in the rural areas, the Chinese *towkays*<sup>10</sup> and Indian *chettians*<sup>11</sup> were getting more and more affluent, while the middle or lower rung Malays in the urban areas saw the Chinese, Indians and even Arabs were very much in control of the economy (Ali, 2008).

## **2.6 Tension and Conflicts between Ethnic**

Right after the Japanese occupation ended in Tanah Melayu in 15 August 1945, there were 14 days gap before the British returned. During this period, the Malayan Peoples Anti-Japanese Army (MPAJA) declared to be in-power and began their hunt of those who had cooperated with the Japanese as these victims were regarded as ‘running dogs’ or traitors. These ‘traitors’ who were civil officers including teachers,

---

<sup>10</sup> Chinese shopkeepers and small traders in rural areas were often known as *towkay*

<sup>11</sup> Indian moneylenders were known as *chettiar*.

soldiers, police, district officers or even village headman (ketua kampung) were hunted down, tortured and only then executed mercilessly (Wan Husin, 2012b).

Although Chinese and Indian ‘traitors’ were not spared during the killing spree either, but when they reached and executed the Malay Banjaris in Batu Pahat (Vengadesan, 2008), this incited hatred and anger among the Malays towards the Chinese, generally and collectively (Wan Husin, 2012b). The sentiment of anti-Malays of MPAJA and other Chinese association at this time were at its peak. Although not all Chinese were agreeable of the MPAJA and its cohorts’ actions, during this period of time gave the overall Malays an illustration of how the Chinese could be if they were to be in power, and this frightened the Malays (Wan Husin, 2012b).

According to Abdullah (2005), Ali (2008), and Putra (2012), there were many other communal-based clashes occurred in various places such as in Batu Pahat (Johor, around 1945/1946), Batu Malim (Raub, Pahang in 1946), Batu Kikir (Negeri Sembilan in 1946), Penang Town (in 1958), Pulau Pangkor (Perak in 1959), Bukit Mertajam (Penang in 1967) and the most infamous; the ‘May 13, 1969’ incident<sup>12</sup>. According to Putra (2012), the provocation by certain political extremists and communists led to the incidence such as the ‘hartal incident<sup>13</sup>’ in Penang 1967; the hanging of 11 ethnic Chinese members of the Malayan Communist Party (PKM) in 1968<sup>14</sup>; ‘deceased hero’ march on 9 May 1969 and the opposition’s victory march

---

<sup>12</sup> Prior to 13<sup>th</sup> May, while Singapore was within Malaysia, there were two incidences of communal clashes in Singapore between the ethnic Malays and the Chinese on 21 July and 3 September 1964 with about 40 deaths (Baharuddin, 2012).

<sup>13</sup> Hartal is a term used in many South Asian languages for strike action

<sup>14</sup> On the same year, two ethnic Malays of the PKM were hanged in Perak

on 12 May 1969 both in Kuala Lumpur - were the precursors to the May 13 1969 bloody racial clash.

The May 13 1969 racial violence can be considered as the climax of inter-racial conflict between the Malays and the Chinese in the history of Malaysia, erupted as a result of racial and religious sentiments fanned by various political leaders during the General Election in 1969 (Putra, 2012). Although the communal violence was limited to Kuala Lumpur, there were also small sporadic violence spread into Penang, Perak and Melaka.

As a result of the violence, the Parliament was dissolved and a state of Emergency was declared (Majlis Gerakan Negara, 1969). The National Operations Council (or MAGERAN<sup>15</sup>) took charge of the country under Tun Abdul Razak Hussein, the then Deputy Prime Minister of Malaysia, sidelining the Tunku Abdul Rahman Putra<sup>16</sup> (Ali, 2008). It was believed that the real reason for the violence to spark was in fact, related to the poverties and economic exclusions of the Malays. Based on MAGERAN's report which stated "the Malays who already felt excluded in the country's economic life, now began to feel a threat to their place in the public service" (Majlis Gerakan Negara, 1969). While there were many other factors which could be the factors that led to the violence, it can be warranted that the core reason was the Malays were envious, jealous or unhappy of the economic prosperity enjoyed by the Indians and Chinese; while the Indians and Chinese were disappointed and displeased of the plans and policies which favored the Malays (Ali,

---

<sup>15</sup> MAGERAN is the acronym for Majlis Gerakan Negara

<sup>16</sup> Tunku Abdul Rahman Putra was a blue blood prince of Kedah with among many other leaders which sought for Independence and formation of Persekutuan Tanah Melayu from the British without bloodshed. He was the Chief Minister of the Federation/Prime Minister from 1955 until 1970 (Ali, 2008; Putra, 2012)

2008). Politically, some even pinpointed that the violence was because of power struggle within UMNO itself and was orchestrated by certain influential individuals within the party (Kua, 2011; Putra, 2012).

Only recently, there were also evidence of racial clashes between the Malays and the Indians. In 1998, the Kampong Rawa incident started when the Malay Muslims felt agitated due to a Hindu temple which rang its religious bell too loud that it interfered with the Muslims prayers (Baharuddin, 2012). About 2,000 people gathered and rioted against the Indian Hindus (Ahmad Sabri, 2011). Subsequently, the March 2001 Kampung Medan incident broke between the Malays and the Indians which started as a social misunderstanding involving a wedding and a funeral procession. The incident took three weeks to subside with dozens killed and injured from both sides (Ahmad Sabri, 2011). Perhaps the antecedents to the violence can be pointed towards urban poverty, marginalization and social neglect (Ahmad Sabri, 2011; Baharuddin, 2012) among many other contributing factors.

While there are many other possible factors which could contribute to inter-ethnic conflicts; nonetheless, the exploitation, reinforcement and further expansion and division of economic, social and political differences (Feagin & Feagin, 1996) between ethnic groups by former colonial masters, have created suitable platforms for the inter-ethnic conflicts to erupt.

## **2.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter provided the essential highlights of multi-ethnic Malaysia's roots, historical and socio-economic background, and how with all these information fit

together within the mold of the constructs in question. This chapter also highlighted the definition of ethnic Malays and the background of the Chinese before proceeding to the next chapter for further investigation.

This chapter demonstrated how the ethnic Malays together with a strong sense of resentment, developed ethnocentrism, animosity and racism towards '*pendatang asing*'<sup>17</sup> or the non-Malays specifically the ethnic Chinese (Ali, 2008).



---

<sup>17</sup> *Pendatang asing* is a Malay word for foreigner usually directed to non-Malays. This term may be offensive and derogatory as non-Malays are Malaysians, not foreigners.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES**

This chapter first discusses the theoretical framework used in this study to frame the phenomena, of which four theories are highlighted and related together. Then each of the concepts explaining the phenomena are discussed, shaped and linked together.

#### **3.1 Theoretical Perspectives**

Relational and eclectic approach is sounder in explaining and addressing socio-economic, education and socio-politics displacement of certain ethnic group in a complex social and multi-ethnic environment (Wilson, 1989; Di Stefano, 1991 both cited from Rahim, 2004). The use of a single grand theory to explain certain phenomena may be imprecise or incomplete as theorists have the tendencies to incorporate more new concepts into the theory's scope especially when it is unable to handle or explain certain complex phenomena effectively (Rahim, 2004). This is opposing to the eclectic approach whereby the use of several theories from different paradigm and disciplines may provide a better theoretical and explanatory framework (Rahim, 2004). This approach also allows specific strengths from each of these cross-disciplined theories be garnered together.

This thesis utilized four well-established and often used theories within the context of marketing, consumer behavior and social psychology. This eclectic theoretical framework includes; the theory of planned behavior, the tripartite theory of attitude, multi-attribute theory of attitude and social identity theory.

### **3.1.1 Theory of Planned Behavior**

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) is introduced by Ajzen (1991) which suggested that an intention is a precursor to behavior and is predicted by three other constructs specifically attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. This theory assumed that these components are predicted by beliefs and evaluation where behavioral beliefs predicts attitude toward the behavior, normative beliefs predicts subjective norms, and control beliefs predicts perceived behavioral control. Refer to Figure 3.1 below.

Hence, a person is more likely to perform a specific behavior based on two conditions. The conditions are; 1) if the person believes that his/her behavior can lead to the outcomes which he/she desires; 2) if the views and opinions of people whom he/she values and respect, believe in his/her capabilities; and that 3) he/she believes that the necessary resources and opportunities to perform the actions are available to him/her.

This theory addressed the shortcoming of the earlier Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975) particularly when examining behaviors which are not under their own will or otherwise known as volitional control. With the addition of the “perceived behavioral control” (PBC) construct, the theory of planned behavior



has shown improved predictive capabilities compared to its predecessor the theory of reasoned action (Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992).

Ajzen and Madden (1986) argued that perceived ease or difficulty in performing a particular behavior suggests beliefs of the existence of internal and external factors that could further or hinder performance of a behavior. On a similar vein, the theory of planned behavior refers to the degree of a person's expectation that they are capable in performing a particular behavior, has been found to contribute to the prediction of intention and behavior. It is immaterial that the resources or obstacle are internal or external to the person.

Consequently, to apply the theory of planned behavior under this research context, it can be stated that consumer purchasing behavior is determined by the consumer purchasing intention, of which is determined by attitudes (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975). It is noted that attitude to behavior is better compared to attitude towards product when predicting consumers' behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975). However, the opportunities and resources must be present to the person before purchase behavior can be implemented; as an example the accessibility of fresh produce or luxurious products. Otherwise, no matter favorable the intentions may be, the execution to purchase the products can be a problem.

The theory of planned behavior have been applied in numerous predictions of various behaviors (Ajzen, 1991) including many business related studies such as marketing, finance and administration. There were also previous studies on consumer ethnocentrism (Saffu, Walker, & Mazurek, 2010; Qing, Lobo, & Chongguang, 2012) and consumer animosity (Mostafa, 2010; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015) that used this theory as their underpinning theoretical base to explain their

results. Based on the justification above and following previous studies, it is believed that the theory of planned behavior is a suitable theory to partially explain Malay consumers' product judgment on Chinese products and their willingness to buy Chinese products. Figure 3.1 exhibits the theory in graphic:

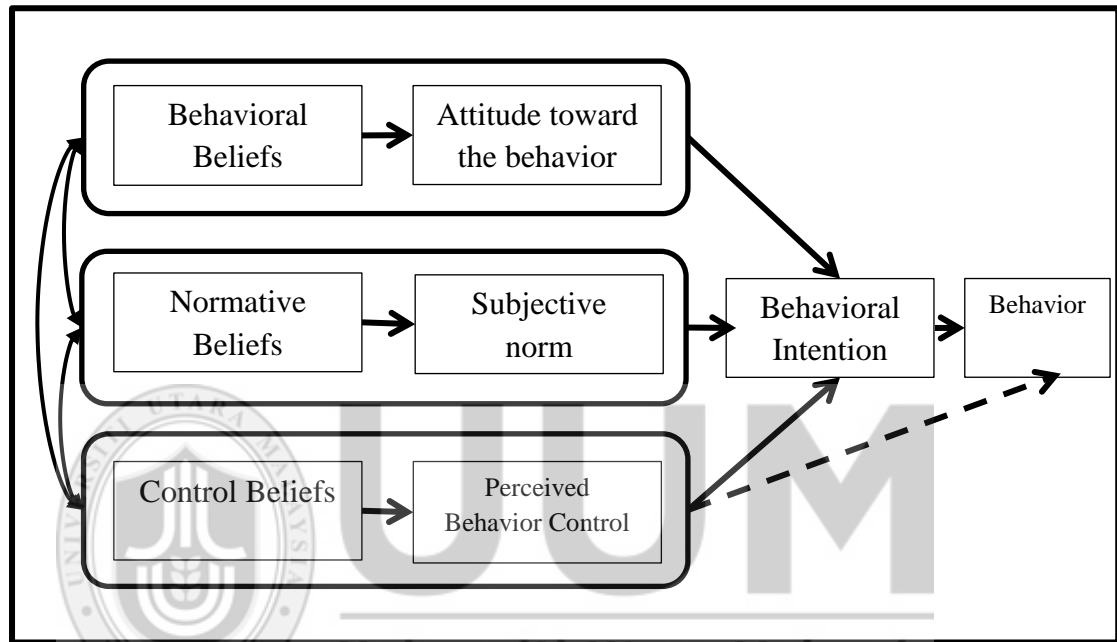


Figure 3.1: Theory of Planned Behavior

Source: Ajzen (1991)

### 3.1.1 Tripartite Theory of Attitude

The Tripartite Theory is also known as the traditional view in understanding the structure of attitude. Attitude is very useful for people as it serves as a shortcut, so that people do not have to think from 'scratch' when dealing with a particular object or situation; with motivation to increase positive experiences while minimizing negatives ones (Hogg & Vaughan, 2010). This frequently used theory consists of the cognitive (beliefs), affective (attitude) and conative (behavioral) components

(DeLamater & Myers, 2011). According to Hogg & Vaughan (2010), this theory can be traced back to Rosenberg & Hovland (1960) among others.

The cognitive component in attitude is the belief held by an individual towards a particular attitude object. It can also be understood as “a set of cognitions or knowledge structure associated” to the attitude object (DeLamater & Myers, 2011, p. 145). Following that, the affective (also known as the evaluative) component reflects the emotion associated with the attitude object. The emotion can have negative or positive direction, and contain the level of intensity. Applying into this thesis context, for example “I hate ethnic X very much” may suggest the extreme negative feeling with high intensity.

The final component; conative (which is also known as the behavioral or acting component) involves “a predisposition to respond or a behavioral tendency toward the object” (DeLamater & Myers, 2011, p. 145). “I like this product from ethnic X” may suggest that positive purchase intention or purchase behavior. People with certain kind of attitude are inclined to behave consistently and accordingly with that attitude.

As such, to sum up, attitude is a combination of thoughts and ideas, feelings, likes and dislikes and behavioral intentions (Hogg & Vaughan, 2010). Figure 3.2 depicts the theory graphically:

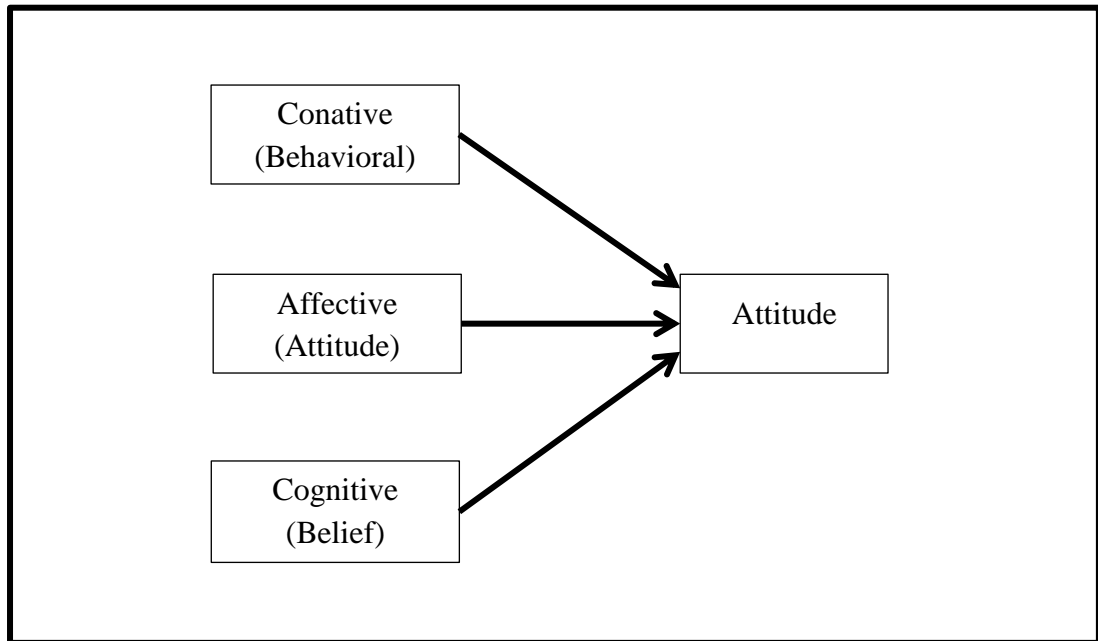
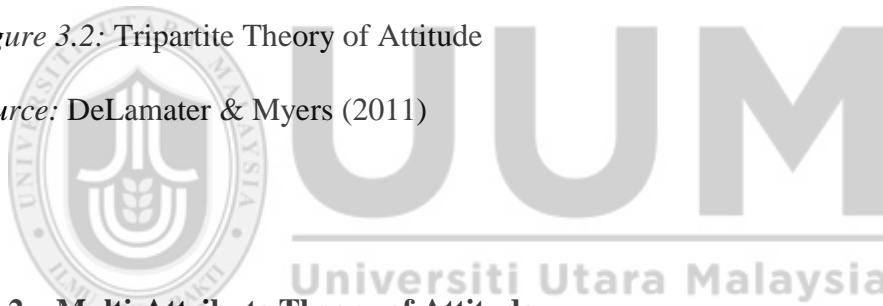


Figure 3.2: Tripartite Theory of Attitude

Source: DeLamater & Myers (2011)



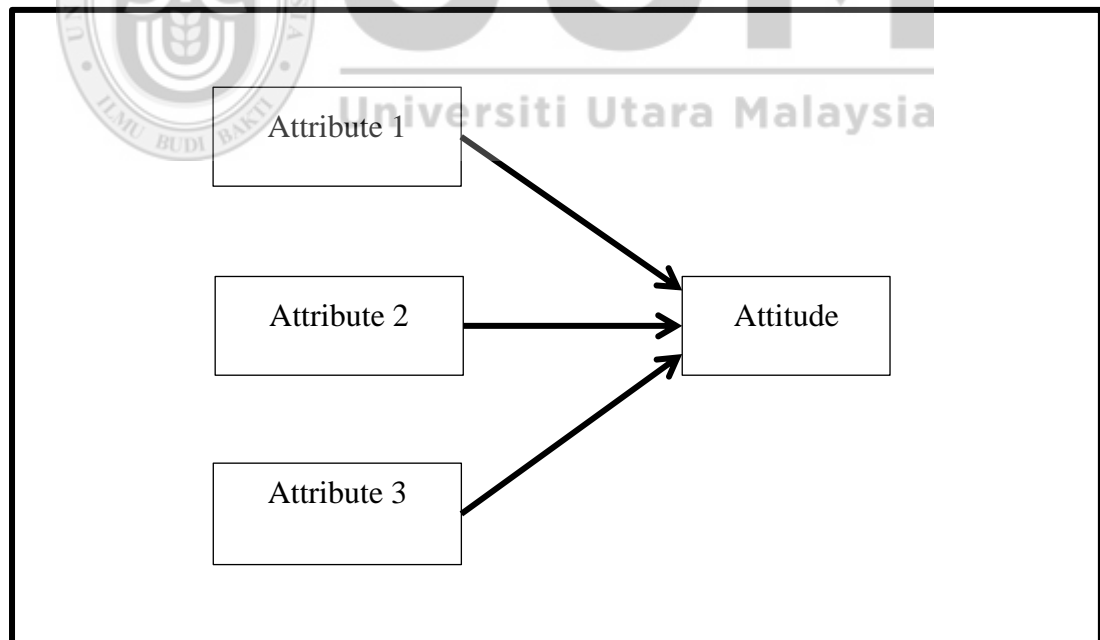
### 3.1.2 Multi-Attribute Theory of Attitude

Fishbein (1963) suggested that consumer's attitude towards an object is based on the sum (or integration) of several salient beliefs held towards multiple attributes of the object in question.

The three important elements in the basic theory are; attributes, beliefs and weights (Bettman, Capon, & Lutz, 1986). The sources where consumers obtained their information to build their beliefs can be through their own direct experience of consuming the product, conditioning, learning and modeling, indirect consumption or inferences (Bandura, 1973; Hogg & Vaughan, 2010; DeLamater & Myers, 2011).

However, the theory did not claim that consumers add up the products of belief strength and evaluation when forming attitudes toward objects, but rather attempted to predict the attitude created by the integration process procedure (Peter & Olson, 2009). In other words, it is a useful tool to use for understanding how attitude formed and predicting consumers' attitude.

Given the limited consumers' capacity in processing information, according to Ajzen & Fishbein (1975), the typical number of salient beliefs of an attitude object was not likely to exceed seven to nine. Hence when consumers evaluate low involvement products, their attitudes might be based on only a few beliefs. Whereas for high involvement products or brands, consumers might based their attitudes on several beliefs (Peter & Olson, 2009). Figure 3.3 below presents the Multi-attribute Theory of Attitude:



*Figure 3.3: Multi-attribute Theory of Attitude*

*Source: Peter & Olson (2009)*

### 3.1.3 Social Identity Theory

Social Identity Theory (SIT) which was developed by Tajfel & Turner (1979) suggested that people tend to categorize and identify themselves into various categories or groups at any one time, such as by age, gender, status, income and many more groups including racial and ethnicity (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), and as a group, these individuals differentiated themselves toward other groups at a given social context. Through their group association and interaction among other groups, individuals develop part of their identities (Hogg & Terry, 2000), and it is natural for individuals to strive for positive self-image and affiliation (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

While individuals may have multiple selves or social identities at any one time, these identities may also exist and applicable at different levels including personal, family and national level (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). In short, this theory can facilitate the understanding of how individuals add up on themselves and others in a social environment.

This theory is also a useful theory towards the understanding of intergroup differences, relations, and behavior through the cognitive, emotive and evaluative components (Tajfel, 1978; Bagozzi, Gurhan-Canli, & Priester, 2002). Based on this theory, there are three vital cognitive processes that needed to be satisfied in order to establish the in-group and the out-group categories; which are; social categorization, social identification and the social comparison processes (Bagozzi et al., 2002).

The social categorization process segments the social world into out-groups and in-groups (Hogg, 2001). Not only by creating social categories such as being

Malaysian, student, Chinese or Muslim can be useful in understanding the surrounding social environment, it can also be beneficial in understanding which and/or what appropriate behaviors needed to be applied in a particular situation; as according and following the norms underlined by the group(s). Followed by the identification process, the individual will then adopt and subscribe to the identity of the particular group that he/she chooses to belong to. The individual tends to observe the norms of the group and develop emotional significance towards the group of which will bind the individual's self-esteem to the group.

In the final process, as to maintain one's self-esteem, a comparison between his/her group to another group will be made usually in form of differing values and beliefs. This social comparison between the groups is a critical element so much so that it can facilitate towards the creation of positive in-group distinctiveness and can either enhance one's self-esteem positively or negatively; underpinned by basic human need for positive self-esteem (Turner, 1982). Even with small but yet distinct differences between the two groups, it may be enough to spur in-group favoritism and out-group derogation as biasness is "pervasive, implicit and easily triggered" (Korte, 2007, pg. 170). Similarly, sub-groups can emerge when there are differences within a group (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), however many of the core values and beliefs are common to all sub-groups within the larger group. Discrimination among members within a group can also occur (internal discrimination), where a 'black sheep' is considered as a higher threat to the group compared to the out-group (Turner et al., 1987; Korte, 2007).

Therefore, by treating the in-group members more favorably, the individual's social identity is enhanced. Another way to enhance their positive image of the in-group is

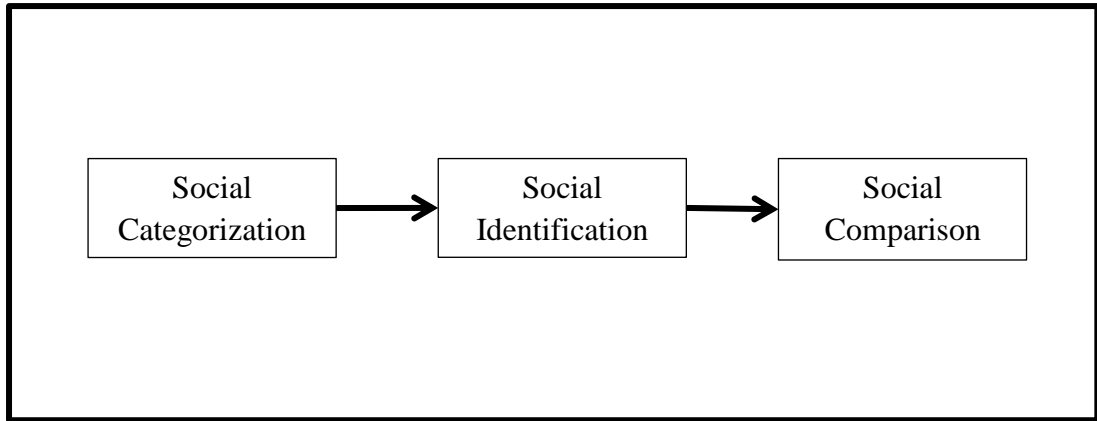
through the perception of the out-group as inferior (Levin & Sidanius, 1999). In other words, when applied to certain context, individuals may feel better about their own ethnic group while others are perceived as inferior which may lead to conflict, discrimination, stereotyping, prejudice, racism, and ethnocentrism (Tajfel, 1982; Turner et al., 1987; Korte, 2007).

Boundaries to enter a group may vary. Some groups may be readily accepting members from other groups, while others strongly oppose and restrict entry. Especially when there are differences involving power, in-group favoritism may lead to imbalanced distribution of both social and economic resources (Levin & Sidanius, 1999). The differences or struggle can also include competition for status, superiority and material advantage (Korte, 2007). Interestingly, the in-group favoritism can transpire even with or without “strong leadership or member interdependence, interaction and cohesion” (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, p. 24).

Thus, applying the SIT specifically into the context of this thesis, racist consumers denigrate and derogate products of non-group members. Ethnocentric consumers differentiate product perceived to be originated from foreign than local, while consumers with animosity towards a particular ethnic or country discriminate in their purchasing behavior.

Previous consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity studies that used this theory as their theoretical base include Huang, Phau, & Lin (2008); Shimp, Dunn, & Klein (2004); Huang Phau & Lin (2010); Fernández-Ferrín et al., (2015); Ferrín & Vilela (2015) to name a few. Figure 3.4 presents the Social Identity Theory:





*Figure 3.4: Social Identity Theory*

*Source:* McLeod, S. A. (2008). Social Identity Theory. Retrieved from [www.simplypsychology.org/social-identity-theory.html](http://www.simplypsychology.org/social-identity-theory.html)

#### **3.1.4 Integration and Synthesis of Theories**

The four theories presented earlier were synthesized in order to develop a model to address the research questions and objectives. Below in Figure 3.5 is the proposed eclectic theoretical framework consisting of four theories. Overall, the Social Identity Theory provides the larger framework to include all theories discussed i.e. the theory of planned behavior, the tripartite theory and the multi attribute theory.

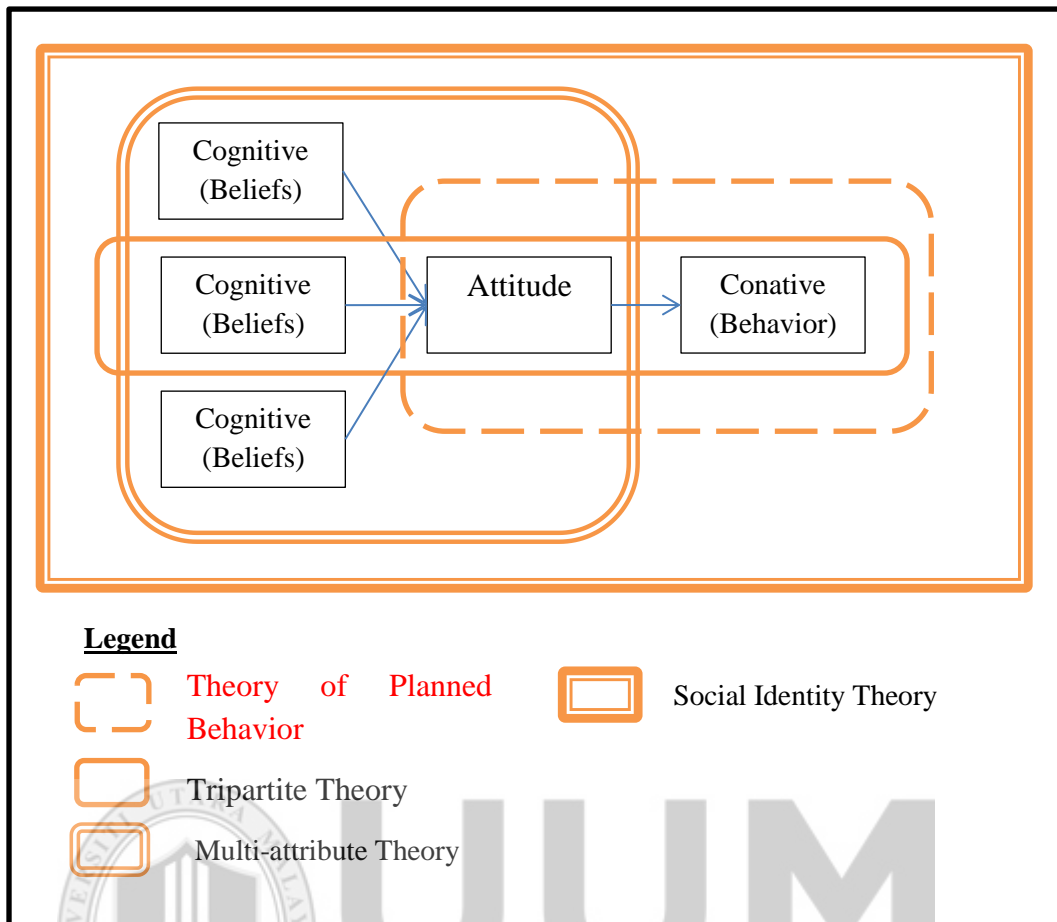


Figure 3.5: Theoretical framework - Eclectic theories of Planned Behavior, Tripartite Theory, Multi-Attribute of Attitude Theory and Social Identity Theory

References : Tajfel & Turner (1986), Peter & Olson (2009), Hogg & Vaughan (2010), DeLamater & Myers (2011).

## **3.2 Ethnic Buying Behaviors**

### **3.2.1 Ethnic Identity**

The meaning of ethnic in social science is a description of clans or groups with accepted own language, religion and culture which were used to differentiate itself against others (Jamal, 2003). It also implied dimensions such as values, morality and etiquette (Jamal, 2003). The identity of an ethnic group is collective among its members and this identity is either owned by the members or appropriated by others (Tajfel, 1982).

Ethnic identity is defined as “the shared identity of a group of people based on a common historical background, ancestry and knowledge of identifying symbolic elements such as nationality, religious affiliation and language” (Chattaraman & Lennon, 2008, p. 520). Many have argued that ethnic identity is a self-identification process where individuals define themselves and other individuals accordingly to respective groups using ethnic labels (Tajfel, 1978, 1982).

It can be stated that ethnic identity is the thoughts and feels of a person about himself against the backdrop of others in a social environment; formed by a complex formation of psychological process that includes perception, cognition, and affect and knowledge structures (Tajfel, 1982, Jamal, 2003). Ethnic identity does not limit to describe how a person feels about him/herself, but also expresses about their desire to belong to a social group (Jamal, 2003).

### 3.2.2 Inter-Ethnic Buying Behaviors

Stayman & Deshpande (1989) suggested that ethnicity is not just about an individual's identification with a particular ethnicity, but also equally important about how strongly the individual identified with his group in a particular situation. According Stayman & Deshpande (1989) this particular situation and how the individual perceived that situation; can have influence to his/her ethnic identity. They suggested that individuals living in multi-cultural or multi-ethnic countries were likely to have several other identities that can be different. In other words, individuals have multiple identities and are expected to behave differently in different situation and with different people (Aaker, 1999). These multiple identities can have effects on their overall purchasing behaviors. As noted by Donthu & Cherian (1994), some American Hispanics behaved according to the mainstream population except when they were in Hispanic restaurants with friends and family, or celebrating Hispanic cultural festivals.

Velioglu et al., (2013) in their qualitative exploratory study found several factors affecting ethnic consumers from a multi-ethnic city in Duzce City, Turkey. With 11 different ethnic groups as their sample, they sought to investigate 1) the purchasing behaviors of consumers with different ethnic identities, 2) the factors that affected the purchasing behaviors at the level of ethnic identities, 3) the products which reflected the ethnic identities of the consumers, and 4) the behavior of ethnic groups through the consumption of other ethnic groups' cultural products.

Their findings suggested that different ethnic consumers have different consumption behaviors based on their own justification shaped by their ethnic background and experience echoing the findings of Herche & Balasubramanian (1994). The multi-

ethnic consumers' justification to purchase (or not) the products included 'ethnic preferences', taste, economic and status.

Conversely, there were possibilities of other factors influencing their purchase decisions. Consider this one respondent's decision to reject purchase of a clothing product and food of other ethnic group, "I do not like the products of different ethnic groups. The thing what we call as the product is naturally a subject of liking. We do not like the meals cooked by Manavs or Kurds. Clothing, appearance and being elegant are very important for us. Nationalistic Circassian people never buy a product of another culture". This statement had elements of ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and perhaps, ethnic-based consumer animosity and consumer racism.

Further elements of ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based animosity were found in subsequent interviews. As examples, consider these three statements from various ethnic individuals. 1) ethnic Albanian Turk - "I buy from my own ethnicity. The small grocers in the past were Albanian. If they have been present also now, I would prefer an Albanian", 2) ethnic Cremean Turk - "I prefer to buy from a Cremean Turk among two identical products for both paying a visit and for affecting a trade"; and 3) ethnic Bosnian Turk - "I do not consider the price, in case the quality is equal and I buy from a Bosnian. I buy from my own ethnicity, since we suffered a lot. I put myself in lieu of him" from an ethnic Bosnian Turk.

Within the purchasing behavior framework, another interesting finding of Velioglu et al., (2013) was that despite the possible consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based animosity as well as the different ethnic identities the respondents held; these Duzcean consumers identified themselves with an upper identity as the people of Duzce, rather than their ethnic identities. This supports

earlier statements that individuals can have multiple identities (Deshpande, Hoyer, & Donthu, 1986; Donthu & Cherian, 1994) and for this situation, the identities were of different level. However, the purchasing behaviors were varied according to factors such as ethnic product specialties and religious community. To note - within the same framework, the findings also indicated that religion was accepted as an extension of an ethnic group.

### **3.3 Consumer Racism**

#### **3.3.1 Definition of Racism**

Previous studies on racism were more focused on the attitude and reactions; including different types of racism (McConahay & Hough, 1976; McConahay, 1986; Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000); bi-colored i.e. Whites and Blacks (Saucier & Miller, 2003), immigrants (Akrami, Ekehammar, & Araya, 2000; Mak & Nesdale, 2001) and many more.

Fundamentally, for racism phenomenon to manifest, ethnic minority group(s) is essentially required to be in existence alongside with the ethnic majority, and cannot or would not assimilate (Ouellet, 2005). The definition of racism which is often found in psychology literature is defined as, “an ideology of racial domination or exploitation that incorporates beliefs in a particular race’s cultural and/or inherent biological inferiority, and uses such beliefs to justify and prescribe inferior or unequal treatment for that group (Wilson, 1973, in Ouellet, 2007, p. 114).

In this definition, Wilson highlighted the importance of the belief held by a racist person against the target to be biologically and culturally inferior, thus the target deserved to be treated unfair and unequal manner. Perhaps the roots of these beliefs could be traced or linked to Darwin's Origin of Species (1859) and The Descent of Man (1871), where he proposed to the extent of extermination of the races he "scientifically" defined as inferior, which included the Negro and Australian peoples. Subsequent parts below discuss the types of 'new' racism which includes subtle racism, modern day racism and aversive racism.

### **3.3.2 Subtle Racism**

Decades ago, racism was expressed blatantly and openly when discriminating individuals or groups. However, this does not suggest that traditional (or blatant) racism do not exist anymore entirely, as there are evidences indicating and suggesting that traditional racism still do exist (Yoo, Steger, & Lee, 2010). Now, racism has evolved from traditional racism to somewhat more subtle. Previous studies have identified that traditional racism which were based on racial hatred have relatively diminished, but now emerged in a new form of symbolic (subtle) ways (McConahay & Hough, 1976; Pettigrew & Meertens, 1995; Nesdale, Rooney, & Smith, 1997; Sommers & Norton, 2006).

Subtle racism can be seen as differentialist approach (Taguieff, 1990, 2001 cited from Garner, 2010) as it considered the target group or out-group as fundamentally different, which infer that "he/she have no place in society, that he/she is a danger, an invader, who should be kept at some distance, expelled or possibly destroyed"

(Wieviorka, 2010, p.352). This is in contrast to the traditional and inegalitarian approach, where the target group is considered as inferior but still has its place in the society, albeit at the lowest level and/or exposed to exploitation (Wieviorka, 2010). From the perspective of social science, racism, hatred and acts of aggression towards the out-group can be explained and perhaps be justified by the concept of 'kin altruism' where one's love for his/her own people or group are too overwhelming (Garner, 2010). This perhaps is very much close to the concept of ethnocentrism.

Symbolic racism is explained by "the expression in terms of abstract ideological symbols and symbolic behaviors of the feeling that blacks are violating cherished values and making illegitimate demands for changes in the racial status quo" (McConahay & Hough, 1976, pg.38). This definition of symbolic racism however, was based on the events in 1970s America, which could explain the limitation on its application to just the "Blacks" and not the Hispanics or Asians.

### **3.3.3 Modern Day Racism**

Present-day researchers agreed and concurred that the biological differences in traditional racism were no longer appropriate and accurate. Rather, the "modern-day racism" is based on the differences between the cultures of the ethnic groups including their customs, languages and lifestyles (Taguieff, 1988 cited from. Ouellet, 2007); shifting the trend from the old skin-colored-based racism to culture and ethnic-belonging-based racism (Gilroy, 1991, cited from Ouellet, 2007). Nevertheless, no matter how subtle or symbolic is the core racism elements in modern racism, the essence of traditional racism is still in existence or even



practiced, only to be camouflaged under the guise of symbolic behaviors and of abstract ideological symbols. A person can even be considered as a racist when denying that societal discrimination exists (Hill & Paphitis, 2011).

### **3.3.4 Aversive Racism**

Aversive racism (Gaertner & Dovidio, 1986; Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000) on the other hand is different from modern racism. Aversive racism is a form of contemporary prejudice and bias which are typically expressed subtly by good, well-intentioned, liberal and educated individuals. These egalitarian individuals tend to be unaware that they are harboring subtle racism. Often, this could also be used as an excuse to harbor racism by perhaps ignorant individuals. At the same time, this could also be very difficult to detect when expressed in ambiguous situation since the 'unacceptable behavior' could be justified by based on non-racial motivations (Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000).

Previous researches also have captured evidences of intra-personal and/or intra-group racism, which means a member of an ethnic group would express acts of racism and discriminate other member(s) within the same ethnic group (Clark, 2004; Paradies & Cunningham, 2009; Saucier, Hockett, Zanotti, & Heffel, 2010). In the USA, studies have found that African Americans with darker skin tones were restricted entry to certain universities, sororities, churches, business and social organizations by their fellow African Americans (Okazawa-Rey, Robinson, & Ward, 1986, cited from Clark, 2004; Neal & Wilson, 1989; Hall, 1992). Lighter skinned African Americans on the other hand, received more favorable positive traits such as

“being less criminal, more intelligent, less poor, less aggressive, and wealthier, [...] less lazy, more motivated, less poor, more self-assured and less unattractive” (Clark, 2004, p. 504).

### **3.3.5 Key Studies on Consumer Racism**

The act of product consumption can be considered as an extension of the self and symbolic, which allows racist consumers to express the feeling of antipathy, hatred and racism concealed within themselves towards a particular ethnic group (Hill & Paphitis, 2011). These negative feelings could evidently transpose to the target ethnic's products or services (Ouellet, 2005, 2007; Hill & Paphitis, 2011). While it is quite difficult for consumers to identify brands to the correct country of origin (Samiee, Shimp, & Sharma, 2005; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008), it could also be difficult for consumers to guess the ethnicity of company owners owning the brands, products or services (Ouellet, 2005).

However, simple cues from the products such as business address and brand names could also be used as clues for the consumers to associate the products and services with specific origins (Leclerc, Schmitt, & Dube, 1994; Ouellet, 2005, 2007; Velioglu et al., 2013). As pointed out by Velioglu et al. (2013), certain ethnicities can be associated with certain kinds of businesses as these businesses may have been passed on through families for generations.

Hence in tangent with the racism literature discussed, consumers can be racists by simply degrading or downgrading their product judgment and evaluation of products

or services offered by any other ethnic groups (and even their own), and justifying their decision not to purchase based on racial antipathy, aversion and/or hatred.

Addressing the obvious research gaps, (Ouellet, 2005, 2007) conceptualized consumer racism in attempt to bridge the gap between racism and consumer behavior. Consumer racism was defined by Ouellet (2007) as “the antipathy toward a given ethnic group’s products or services as a symbolic way of discriminating against that group [which] affects consumer behavior in the domestic marketplace” (p.115). Despite being such a controversial topic, consumer racism is evident and ‘thriving’ in the marketplace (Ouellet, 2005, 2007; Hill & Paphitis, 2011).

Most importantly, previous consumer racism researches which were done in multi-ethnic and multi-cultural settings namely in USA, France, Canada (Ouellet, 2005, 2007) and Australia (Hill & Paphitis, 2011), found significant evidences of negative effects on consumers’ attitude (Ouellet, 2005). These effects influence consumers’ willingness to purchase domestic products perceived to be made/offered by specific ethnic minority group (Ouellet, 2007). Moreover, as a result of consumer racism, the performances of businesses owned by minorities were also affected (Ouellet, 2007).

Ouellet (2005) emphasized that it was important to study the effects of consumer racism on ethnic consumer behavior as well as the relevancy of performing cross-cultural studies within countries as opposed to between countries. In this article, he explained on the differences between consumer animosity, consumer ethnocentrism and his concept of consumer racism.

His first attempt on consumer racism study was conducted in Montreal in Quebec Province, Canada with focus on English Canadian and French Canadian as the

targets. Other ethnic minorities such as Arabs, Spanish and Chinese were also included for comparison and validation purposes. Depending on how the English and French Canadians viewed themselves and each other; either by adopting the province- or nation-point-of-view, both members of the groups perceived themselves as the ethnic majority. This is because in Quebec, there were more Canadians of French descents while, the English Canadian were the majority in Canada.

For this study, Ouellet adapted the Racial Argument Scale (Saucier & Miller, 2003) to measure racism, four types of product and services categories (auto service shop, florist, convenience store and landscaping services) depicting ethnic identities, and a global product attitude measurement. He approached his respondent through mall and street intercept procedures and used self-administered computer-based questionnaire. The questionnaire was originally developed in English but translated to French using a translate/back-translate procedure.

Using correlation analysis, he found that there were inverse relationships “between racism scores with attitudes towards products originating from the ethnicity that is the object of racism” (Ouellet, 2005, p. 425). Another interesting finding was that despite the English and the French were ‘white’ people, racism between them still occurred – suggesting modern racism (McConahay, 1983). These findings provided valuable information to progress further on consumer racism research.

Perhaps the limitation on the usage of the racism scale (Racial Argument Scale) in a consumer research setting led to the development of the Consumer Racism Scale by Ouellet in his subsequent consumer racism article. Ouellet’s subsequent study

(2007) on consumer racism can be considered as the cornerstone article on consumer racism. This study provided empirical evidence that consumer racism have negative effects on ethnic majority consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy products of dominant ethnic minorities.

In his subsequent research, Ouellet (2007) tested the existence of consumer racism in three different countries; the USA, France and Canada. For this research he sought to 1) statistically differentiate the consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and the proposed consumer racism constructs; 2) investigate the effects of consumer racism on consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy; and 3) investigate the effects of consumer racism on ethnic minority owned businesses and brands.

The first step taken to generate a pool of possible items for the measurement scale, he sourced the items from relevant literatures as well as previous interviews with "people believed to have above-average racist sentiments" (Ouellet, 2007, p. 119). He then proceeded to reduce the pooled items and followed with further analysis to confirm the remaining items. In the process of developing the measurement scale, he succeeded in statistically differentiating the said three closely related constructs.

Using mall and street intercept survey procedures in Boston, Montreal and Grenoble; Ouellet required his respondents to respond to the evaluation of (mocked) ethnic products, the consumer racism scale and followed with a simplified animosity and ethnocentrism scales. Ouellet took only specific dimensions of the ethnocentrism and animosity i.e. national and ethnic ethnocentrism; ethnic economic animosity. This is then followed by demographics details.

There were differences in results according to countries. Ethnic ethnocentrism was a significant covariate in product judgment for the USA sample with significant interaction effects with product ethnicity of origin. Economic animosity was marginal but significantly interacted with ethnicity of origin in both Canadian and French samples. Consumer racism was found to be significantly influencing product judgment and willingness to buy products from dominant ethnic minorities in all three countries. There were no significant relationships between consumer racism and socio-demographic factors.

The final study in Boston involved local businesses owned by ethnic Latinos as the targets and ethnic white English speaking majority as the respondents. Using similar procedures, the respondents were required to complete the consumer racism, ethnic ethnocentrism and economic animosity scales. Since the companies used as targets were service-based, Ouellet introduced two moderators; level of interaction and importance of outcome. The company performances were measured through a four-item question on overall business performance, profit, sales, and market share. The findings of the study suggested that there were the negative effects of consumer racism on company performance and the moderating effects of level of interaction and importance of outcome. In other words, the effects of consumer racism were higher when there were 1) interactions with the 'ethnic' companies and 2) that the outcomes expected from the consumers were important.

To date, there is only one (partially) replication study of Ouellet (2007). Hill & Paphitis (2011) studied the mainstream white Australian consumers targeting against Chinese Australians using similar methods and approaches as Ouellet (2007). With adapted and adopted scale measurements and mediators from Ouellet (2007), Hill &

Paphitis (2011) found that consumer racism have negative effects on consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy, but there were no interaction effects of importance of outcome. Table 3.1 summarized the key studies concerning consumer racism used for this study.



Table 3.1

*Key Studies on Consumer Racism*

Authors	Country	Constructs	Methods	Analysis Methods	Findings
Ouellet (2005)	Canada	CR (RAS) Global Product Attitude	Computer assisted self-admin Survey	Correlation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Racism correlated with targeted ethnic products</li> <li>• Racism weakly related to several other non-targeted ethnic products</li> </ul>
Ouellet (2007)	France, USA and Canada	CR, Ethnic ethnocentrism, National ethnocentrism Economic Animosity, PJ, WTB  Moderator: IoO, LOI, PEI	Computer assisted self-admin Survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Scale Dev – EFA, CFA</li> <li>• ANCOVA</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Developed CR Scale was reliable and valid</li> <li>• Economic Animosity interacted significantly with Canadian and (marginally) France samples</li> <li>• Ethnic Ethnocentrism – PJ significant in USA</li> <li>• National ethnocentrism not significant</li> <li>• CR significant effect PJ and WTB in all countries</li> <li>• CR no effects PJ and WTB relating to second ethnic group</li> <li>• CR effected business performance</li> <li>• Companies with higher level of LOI and IoO suffered larger CR</li> <li>• CR – PEI - No interaction effect</li> </ul>
Hill & Paphitis (2011)	Australia	CR, PJ, WTB Mediator : IoO	Quasi Experimental Survey	Linear Regression	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CR – PJ was significant</li> <li>• CR – WTB was significant but weak</li> <li>• PJ – WTB - significant</li> <li>• IoO – no mediation effect on WTB</li> </ul>

*Note:* RAS – Racial Argument Scale, CR – Consumer Racism, PJ – Product Judgment, WTB – Willingness to Buy, LOI – Level of Interaction, IoO = Importance of Outcome, PEI – Product Ethnic Image



### **3.4 Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity**

#### **3.4.1 Definition of Consumer Animosity**

Consumer animosity was introduced by Klein et al., (1998) which demonstrated that consumer consumptions can be affected by animosity held by consumers of a country towards another particular country. Consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism are both distinct constructs with each having unique antecedents and consequences, but both involved the consumers' purchasing choice of domestic versus foreign products (Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015; Lee & Mazodier, 2015).

Consumer animosity is defined as “the remnants of antipathy related to previous or on-going military, political or economic conflicts” (Klein et al., 1998, p. 91) or events, which happen when countries converged and interact with each other. Though globalization has many economic and social benefits (Lee & Mazodier, 2015) but the interactions between countries also creates tension, provocation, hostility, anger, displeasure and enmity (Shimp et al., 2004) among citizens or consumers which may transpire unintentionally (Abd-Razak & Abdul-Talib, 2012). The consumers' hatred or anger directed to a specific country is usually a response to the egregious, adverse or unpleasant actions of the particular country's government, organizations, citizens and/or individuals perceived to be associated with (Maher et al., 2010). This explained why consumers may reject foreign products from a particular country, but were willing to purchase foreign products from other countries (Klein, 2002).

### 3.4.2 Characteristics of Consumer Animosity

Consumer animosity is not limited to geographical boundaries and context such as states, regions or communities. As Shimp et al., (2004) termed “regional animosity” referring to animosity at regional level (e.g. US’ North and South, Germany’s West and East), while Ouellet (2007) confirmed that animosity may also exist between communities or within the borders of a country.

Termed as ‘domestic animosity’, Hinck (2005) found that East Germans harbor domestic animosity (which was based on economic animosity of Klein et al. 1998) toward products of West Germans. It was interesting to note that the level of animosity measured were “stronger than the effect of animosity in previous cross-national studies by Klein et al. (1998) and Witkowski (2000)” (Hinck, 2005, p. 97). In his research, Hinck (2005) also pointed out that consumer animosity constructs not only useful in explaining international phenomena but also domestic situations. These domestic situation can happen within any nations including “Spain (where many Basques are quite critical towards the rest of the country), or in Great Britain (where the English, Scots, and Welsh may very possibly feel some domestic animosity beyond football rivalry)” (Hinck, 2005, p. 98).

On a similar vein, Rose, Rose, & Shoham (2009) found that two different ethnic subcultures (Arabs and Jews) of Israel have different levels of animosity (as well as ethnocentrism) which affected their willingness to buy products from the UK and Italy.

Consumer animosity may take more than a few years to subside (Klein et al., 1998). The animosity level of the Chinese towards the Japanese hardly subsided even after

more than 60 years of the actual aggression in Nanjing (Klein et al, 1998). Likewise, Dutch consumers harbor animosity toward the Germans due to economic hardship and historical atrocities inflicted during wartime which resulted to the less likely to purchase products from Germany (Nijssen & Douglas, 2004). On the other hand, Ettenson & Klein (2005) investigated the reactions of Australian consumers in relations to the French nuclear testing in the Pacific and found the level of animosity decreased after one year of the occurrence. Perhaps old ‘painful’ experiences may subside over time or being replaced by new catastrophic events, if not through admiration (Maher et al., 2010).

Admiration is a positive emotion that can displace feelings of animosity of which managers can assess and capitalize on when entering a country to market their products (Maher et al., 2010). This suggests that over time the feelings of animosity can be reduced because of the effect of admiration. As an example though Americans may have feelings of animosity towards Japan because of the Second World War (WWII) and Pearl Harbor attack in 1941 or due to the perceived economic unfairness (Klein, 2002), their animosity can be more or less be ‘neutralized’ by acknowledgement of the Japanese expertise, proficiency and competence in certain technology (car-making of Toyota and Honda, electronics and electrical of Sony, among others); which leads to admiration (Maher et al., 2010). However, as pointed out by Maher et al. (2010) that consumer animosity may reemerge after being ‘neutralized’, as the neutralizing effect might only be short term, and certain elicitation could trigger old animosity. As an example, Chinese consumers became very angry and took offence of the advertisement which showed a Toyota vehicle towing a Chinese military truck (Li & Shoostari, 2006). Although

the intention was to show the strength of the Toyota vehicle but it accidentally elicited old war animosity between these nations.

According to Jung et al., (2002) and Ang et al., (2004), there are two types of animosity which can either be stable or situational. The former is generally negative emotion passed down from a generation to another spurred from previous historical experience, which makes it more deeply-embedded, and perhaps will be even difficult to be neutralized. While the latter is a negative sentiment linked to specific circumstances, making it less permanent and only occasional (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007).

Animosity can be between developed countries – or between underdeveloped and developed country. From a bi-national context, the former include studies made between US and France (Amine, 2008), US and Japanese (Klein, 2002), US and South Korea (Maher et al., 2010) Germany and Netherland (Nijssen & Douglas, 2004), Australia and France (Ettenson & Klein, 2005), while the latter and culturally-different include US and China (Witkowski, 2000), Iran and US (Bahae & Pisani, 2009a) among many others.

There is supporting evidence that consumers when switching for alternative brands/products, tend to choose something closer or culturally similar (Watson & Wright, 2000) to themselves. Likewise, anger can also be generalized based on similar approach. As an example, Hong, Hu, Prieger, & Zhu (2010) found that during the Beijing 2008 Olympics, the anger of Chinese consumers spilled-over to other Western automobile brands, not just brands from France. As a result, these consumers sought for other Asian-origin brands. Or can be seen as spill-over

damage to other countries holding with similar traits to the target country (Hong et al., 2010).

However, regardless of the animosity intensity, consumers may still have good if not high regards of the products from the targeted country, but not necessarily or enough to be able to influence their product purchase (Klein et al., 1998). To support, several studies have found that consumer animosity is independent of product judgment (Klein et al., 1998; Hong & Kang, 2006) with dimensions or causes identified as war, economic, political, religious and personal (Klein, 2002; Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). Contrary to that finding, Mostafa (2010) found that consumer animosity of Egyptian consumer affected their judgment of Israel's product.

Considering from the ethnic-based perspective, perhaps consumers with high animosity level tend to reflect or reveal their anger over a specific incident or event (Hill & Paphitis, 2011) on other ethnics through their buying behavior, thus showing their disapproval of certain actions done by the said ethnic as earlier perceived to be egregious. These consumers tend to avoid buying products they perceived to be offered or made by the said other ethnic ( Ouellet, 2007; Hill & Paphitis, 2011). The avoidance to buy could also be influenced by moral and ethical beliefs of the consumer in deciding what is considered to be good or bad behavior (Hill & Paphitis, 2011).

### **3.5 Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism**

#### **3.5.1 Definition of Consumer Ethnocentrism**

The general concept of ethnocentrism was introduced by Sumner (1906 cited from Shimp & Sharma, 1987) which explained the habitual inclination of people “to view their own group as the center of the universe while interpreting others from their perspective” (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280). Ethnocentric persons tend to reject culturally-different, but accept those who are culturally-alike (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). As explained by Poon, Evangelista, & Albaum (2010), consumer ethnocentrism is “consumer tendencies to distinguish between products of the in-group (home country) and out-groups (foreign countries) and to avoid buying foreign products due to nationalistic reasons” (pg. 35). Applying this concept into the economic context has resulted to the conception of consumer ethnocentrism, which became one of the most important areas of research in consumer behavior (Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015).

#### **3.5.2 Characteristics of Consumer Ethnocentrism**

Consumer ethnocentrism describes consumers’ tendencies and beliefs of morality and appropriateness when making foreign-made product purchases (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Klein et al., 1998; Ang et al., 2004; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015). In other words, ethnocentric consumers have higher tendencies to refrain purchases of imported products while implying benefits in purchasing domestic products, even though the domestic products may be inferior, or otherwise tend to overestimate the overall quality of domestic products and underestimate foreign products (Shimp &

Sharma, 1987; Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, 1995; Muhammad & Che Razak, 2004; Watson & Wright, 2000; Hamin & Elliott, 2006).

These consumers believe that by preferring to purchase domestic products, they were being patriotic, nationalistic and above all, morally right (Klein et al., 1998). Ethnocentric consumers believe that by purchasing imported products, they might cause harm to the domestic economy which may cause job-loss or unemployment among their fellow countrymen (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Klein & Ettenson, 1999). Ethnocentric consumers also feel that it is not patriotic and nationalistic to economically support foreign countries through foreign product purchases, as the national interest and economic well-being were being threatened by imports, thus, justifying that domestic producers deserves their 'help' through purchases (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Further, this demonstrates that consumers' preference to choose 'home' over foreign products implies the 'in-group and out-group' formation or 'us versus them' (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Klein, 2002) even at the ethnic or sub-national level (Ouellet, 2007).

Looking from geographical perspectives, consumer ethnocentrism can be operationalized from different levels; national ethnocentrism, regional ethnocentrism (Siemieniako et al., 2011; Fernández-Ferrín & Bande-Vilela, 2013; Ferrín & Vilela, 2015), domestic or within-country ethnocentrism (Ouellet, 2007), with the occurrences more prominent in developed countries rather than under-developed or developing countries. (Yagci, 2001; Wang & Chen, 2004). This may indicate that consumers of developed countries may regard products from developing countries as inferior compared to the domestic ones, and vice versa (Balabanis et al., 2001).

On a similar vein, Ferrín & Vilela (2015) found that consumers who identified themselves to a certain locality or province can be ethnocentric and prefer certain products that carried the regional flavor. Looking from a subnational or within the boundaries of a country, this could also be further extended that certain ethnics tend to be more ethnocentric compared to their fellow citizens and may view that products offered by certain ethnic groups within a country as sub-standard.

To measure consumer ethnocentrism, CETSCALE was developed (Shimp & Sharma, 1987) based on the US market; but over decades, the scale was proven to be applicable in various different types of countries including countries classified as underdeveloped, transitional, non-western, multitudes of different categories of products and so forth.

There are several factors which are quite similar yet distinctively different from consumer ethnocentrism; namely consumer animosity and country of origin (COO). While all three constructs observe consumers' purchase decision, consumer animosity can be described as how consumers perceived and behave toward a specific product based on country-specific judgment, and explaining why consumers who usually buy foreign products, but avoid certain country or countries on reason of animosity. Additionally, COO describes the information cues that consumers rely on, or process when considering foreign product purchase. On the other hand, consumer ethnocentrism is regarded as the 'generalized attitude' of consumers toward preferring domestic products or in other words – the avoidance tendencies in overall foreign product purchase.

According to the findings of previous studies, consumer ethnocentrism can be negatively related to both foreign product quality and willingness to buy foreign



products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Klein et al., 1998; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Klein, Ettenson, & Krishnan, 2006). Despite contrasting results over how ethnocentric consumers may behave in their consumption, however, there are evidence supporting that some ethnocentric consumers do not denigrate, yet prefer and even purchase foreign products over domestic products, but depending on product categories and level of involvement (Sharma et al., 1995; Klein et al., 2006; Muhammad & Che Razak, 2004).

Further, Stoltman, Lim, & Morgan (1991) demonstrated that consumer ethnocentrism may be to a certain extent was uncertain, yet dynamic and situational, which meant ethnocentric consumers can sometimes be marginally ethnocentric (Luque-Martinez, Ibanez-Zapata, & Barrio-Garcia, 2000; Chrysochoidis, Krystallis, & Perreas, 2007; Teo, Mohamad, & Ramayah, 2011) and do not necessarily reject foreign products. Teo et al. (2011) found that there were two dimensions within consumer ethnocentrism which were either soft or hard ethnocentrism.

Additionally, previous studies have found that there were consumers especially from transitional or developing countries who tend to rate foreign products rather positively (Ettenson, 1993; Bahaee & Pisani, 2009b, 2009c), and CETSCALE can be applied to these countries (Klein et al., 2006) to gauge the level of ethnocentrism among consumers. Interestingly, consumer ethnocentrism also be found in countries where majority of the consumers prefer foreign products (Watson & Wright, 2000; Balabanis et al., 2001). As examples, Muhammad & Che Razak (2004) found that multi-ethnic Malaysian consumers prefer foreign products specifically personal computers and cars. Similarly Yeong, Mohamad, Ramayah, & Omar (2007) reported

that Malaysians were generally ethnocentric but prefer foreign products (in particular, Japanese-made motorcycle as opposed to the local made motorcycle).

One particular previous study examined the effect of ethnic affiliation on ethnocentrism in multi-ethnic Bosnia Herzegovina (Vida et al., 2008). From a transitional economy's perspective, it was found that ethnic affiliation has positive relationship with consumer ethnocentrism and domestic product purchase.



### 3.6 Product Judgment

The formation of items in product judgment can be traced of its roots to country image from the literatures of Country-of-Origins (COO). Country image can be conceptualized at both the country (macro) level and the product (micro) level (Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey, 2007). Martin & Eroglu (1993, p. 193) defined macro country image as “the total of all descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs one has about a particular country”, and proposed that there were three underlying dimensions which were economics, political and technological. While, on the other hand, Nagashima (1970, p. 68) defined as “the total of beliefs one has about the products of a given country”, conceptualizing country image at a smaller scope; which was the product level.

Two approaches can be used to measure product judgments, of which the ‘general’ approach (Schooler, 1965), or the product categories specific approach (Han & Terpstra, 1988) – which measured specifically for television and cars product categories.

Han (1989) stated whenever consumers were unfamiliar with a product; the image of the country associated with product may be served as a halo, which consumers will infer to the product attributes. From their inferential beliefs, consumers’ attitude towards a brand may be negatively related. In contrast, when a consumer becomes increasingly familiar with a country’s product, the image of the country may be used to summarize the consumer’s belief about the product attributes, directly affecting brand attitudes.

However, the question of getting the right country to be associated with a product could rather be a difficult task and a problem to certain consumers (Samiee et al., 2005; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008), even for well-known brands. Magnusson, Westjohn, & Zdravkovic (2011) found that regardless of whether the country associated with brands by consumers were accurate, perceived brand origin will strongly affects brand attitude. This could be a potential problem, as consumers may be misinformed or unfamiliar with a product, its product category and/or origin, can make inaccurate country association.

In the study of Ettenson & Klein (2005) at the height of French nuclear testing in the South Pacific by the French in 1996, even locally-owned Australian businesses which were perceived by consumers to be French-related were boycotted, regardless of whether the relationship was direct, indirect or even non-existence. Consistent with previous studies (Smith & Cooper-Martin, 1997; Dawar & Pillutla, 2000; Klein, Smith, & John, 2004), the perception of image can be negatively affected by egregious acts. Concurrently, negative image can be extended to the products or services by consumers. It was also expected that when consumers participate in a boycott towards a particular brand or firm, there will have direct negative impact to the brand itself without even considering any sort of egregious acts committed by the firm (Klein et al., 2004).

As highlighted in previous subsection, most Asian countries are largely collective societies including Malaysia and tend to behave as according to their norms and values of their societies, of which may influence consumption related behaviors (Al-Hyari, Alnsour, Al-Weshah, & Haffar, 2012) including on how a product is perceived to be.

Similarly, as discussed, product quality can be negatively related to consumers' perception of a particular country (Klein et al., 1998) or in this case a particular ethnic. Likewise having bad feelings about a product does not always necessarily mean that the product will be boycotted and vice versa. As noted in Bahae & Pisani (2009c), despite shaky or perhaps even hostile relationship between US and Iran, there were plenty of US-made products available in the retail markets which the consumers there were happily buying.

Table 3.2 summarized the key studies used for this thesis that incorporate consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity, product judgment and willingness to buy.



Table 3.2

*Key Studies on Consumer Ethnocentrism (CET), Consumer Animosity (CA) and Product Judgment (PJ) as Antecedents to Willingness to Buy (WTB)*

	Authors	Country	Constructs	Methods	Analysis Methods	Findings
1998	Klein et al. (1998)	China Target: Japan Japan's durable goods: fridges, TV, radio, camera, VCR	CA, CET, PJ, WTB	Random sample survey	Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CET negative predictor to PJ and WTB</li> <li>• CA predictor to WTB but not PJ</li> <li>• CA's dimension = War and Economic</li> </ul>
2000	Watson & Wright (2000)	New Zealand Target: USA, Italy, Germany, Singapore Fridge, Television and Camera	CET, product perception, WTB	Mail survey	ANOVA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ethnocentric consumers prefer products from countries with similar cultures when domestic alternatives are and are not available.</li> <li>• The degree of ethnocentrism influenced preferences</li> </ul>
2002	Klein (2002)	USA Target: Japan, South Korea	CET, CA, PJ, WTB	Database, mail survey	SEM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Americans preferred USA over Japan products, but preferred Japan over South Korea.</li> <li>• CET only significant when the choice of product is based on domestic vs foreign goods</li> <li>• CA only significant when the choice of product is based on foreign vs foreign goods – hostile vs non-hostile</li> <li>• CA not related to PJ</li> </ul>
2004	Nijssen & Douglas (2004)	Netherlands Target: German Products –TV and Cars	Economic animosity, War animosity, CET, product evaluation (PE), Reluctance	Random street-intercept	SEM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• War animosity related to RTB and CET, but not for TV</li> <li>• Economic animosity related to CET but not RTB</li> <li>• PE negatively related to RTB</li> <li>• CET positively related to RTB</li> <li>• CET positively related to PE (unexpected direction)</li> </ul>

			to buy (RTB) foreign pdt			
2005	Hinck (2005)	East vs West Germany Target: West Germany	Domestic animosity (economic-based), CET, PJ, WTB	Mall- intercept self admin survey	Principal component analysis and regression analysis.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CET - no effect on WTB</li> <li>• Domestic animosity and PJ effect WTB significantly</li> <li>• Geographical proximity influences on WTB</li> <li>• CET not significant to WTB</li> <li>•</li> </ul>
2005	Ettenson & Klein (2005)	Australia Target: France	CET, CA, PJ, WTB	Drop- off/pick up technique, self admin questionnaire	SEM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Study 1 – CET negatively predicted PJ not WTB, CA negatively predicted WTB not PJ</li> <li>• Study 2 – CET negatively predicted PJ and WTB, CA negatively predicted PJ and WTB</li> </ul>
2006	Klein et al. (2006)	China and Russia Targets:US, Korea, Hungary, Japan	CET (10 vs 6 items)	Mall- intercept self admin survey	SEM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No difference between CET 10 and CET 6</li> <li>• Application of CETSCALE in transitional economies</li> </ul>
2009	Ishii (2009)	China Target: Japan & US Products	CA,CET, PJ, WTB Patriotism, internationalism, exclusionism, socio-demographic	Mall- intercept survey	SEM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Results on Japan &amp; US products very similar only degree differed</li> <li>• CA predictor to CET, PJ and WTB</li> <li>• CET predictor to PJ and WTB but not US's PJ</li> </ul>
2009	Rose et al. (2009)	Israel (Arabs and Jews) Targets: UK and Italy	CET, CA, PJ, (Unwilling) WTB	Stratified sampling , Mall intercept survey	SEM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CET – affected Arabs' PJ and WTB Italian &amp; British</li> <li>• CA – affected Arabs' PJ &amp; WTB British. No effect on PJ Italian &amp; relative effect on WTB Italian</li> <li>• CET - affected Jews' WTB Italian &amp; British</li> <li>• CA – affected Jews' WTB British &amp; Italian. No effects on PJ British &amp; Italian</li> </ul>
2009	Bahaee & Pisani (2009a)	Iran Target: USA	CA, Socio- demographic, Intention to buy Moderators: product	Convenience sampling, questionnaire survey	ANOVA Regression analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inverse relationship between CA and intention to buy</li> <li>• No interaction or moderating effects found</li> </ul>

			importance and necessity			
2010	Mostafa (2010)	Egypt Target: Israel	CET, CA, PJ, WTB	Mall intercept survey	SEM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CET affected PJ and WTB</li> <li>• CA affected PJ and WTB</li> </ul>
2010	Maher et al, (2010)	USA Targets: Japan, South Korea	CET, CA, PJ, Admiration, Internationalism, product preference	Internet-based, online questionnaire	SEM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CET negatively related to PJ and product preference. Preferring products from target country if low CET</li> <li>• CET predicted Admiration. Admiration predicted preference. Internationalism predicted admiration</li> <li>• CA was not significant</li> </ul>
2015	Fernández-Ferrín et al., (2015)	Yugoslav Targets: USA	CET, (new) CA, Patriotism, ownership, national economy situation, PJ, WTB	Interviewee's home Survey	SEM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CET negatively predicted PJ and WTB</li> <li>• CA predicted WTB</li> </ul>
	Ethnocentrism only					
2004	Wang & Chen (2004)	China Target: Domestic Products	CET, Conspicuous Consumption (CC), PJ, WTB Domestic	Stratified sampling, questionnaire	hierarchical moderated regression	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CET and WTB domestic was moderated by PJ</li> <li>• CET and WTB domestic was moderated by CC</li> </ul>
2015	Ferrín & Vilela (2015)	Spain (Galicia) Target: non-Galician regional ethnocentrism Products: Potatoes, Beef, Wine, Milk, Clothes	Financial situation, cultural openness, regional identity, regional ethnocentrism, rejection of non-regional products	Simple random sampling, Computer-assisted telephone interviewing survey.	ANOVA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Higher tendency to avoid non-regional products</li> <li>• Higher sense of guilt when purchase products from outside the region</li> <li>• Higher tendency to pay premium for products from the region.</li> </ul>



### **3.7 Summary of the Construct Differentiation**

In summary, the direction of ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism is ‘expressed’ from a particular ethnic group toward products offered from its own ethnic group. Based on previous studies, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism was found to have negative influence on product judgment of products other than from its own ethnic group; while having positive product judgment on products from its own ethnic group.

On the other hand, the direction of ethnic-based consumer animosity is from a particular ethnic group toward products from another specific ethnic group which could be based on general animosity, war, economic, ideological or political conflicts. Ethnic-based consumer animosity is usually directed from ethnic minority towards the majority, which can be consistent over a period of time. The effect of this type of animosity is known to have negative effect on consumers’ willingness to buy but no known effect on product judgment.

On the other hand, consumer racism is expressed from ethnic majority group towards the products of minority groups. Unlike ethnic-based consumer animosity, consumer racism can expressed toward products of several minority groups. Previous studies found that there were negative effects of consumer racism towards consumers’ product judgment and willingness to buy.

In essence, the differences in direction and effects of ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism, ethnic-based consumer animosity and consumer racism are as presented in Table 3.3:

Table 3.3

*Differential Effects of Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity and Consumer Racism*

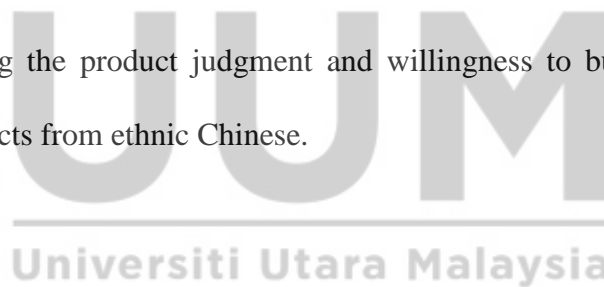
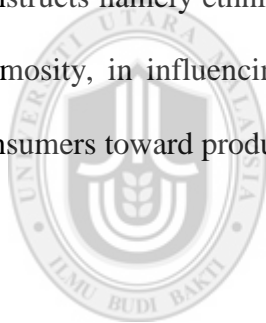
Constructs	Direction	Effects
<b>1. Ethnic-based Consumer Ethnocentrism</b>	From a particular ethnic group toward itself. As examples, the Malays are favorable towards Malay products, while Chinese are favorable towards Chinese products.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increased judgment about products from own group and decreased judgment about products from all other groups</li> <li>• Increased willingness to buy products from own group and decreased willingness to buy from all other groups (Shimp and Sharma, 1987)</li> </ul>
<b>2. Ethnic-based Consumer Animosity</b>	Ethnic group specific (usually from the ethnic minority toward the ethnic majority). As example, the Chinese are favorable towards all products from other ethnic groups, except from the Malays.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decreased willingness to buy products from the majority ethnic group</li> <li>• No effect on product judgments (Klein et al, 1998)</li> </ul>
<b>3. Consumer Racism</b>	Ethnic group specific (from the ethnic majority toward the dominant ethnic minority). As example, the Malays are not favorable towards Chinese products based on racial antipathy.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decreased judgment about products from the dominant ethnic group</li> <li>• Decreased willingness to buy products from the dominant ethnic group</li> </ul>

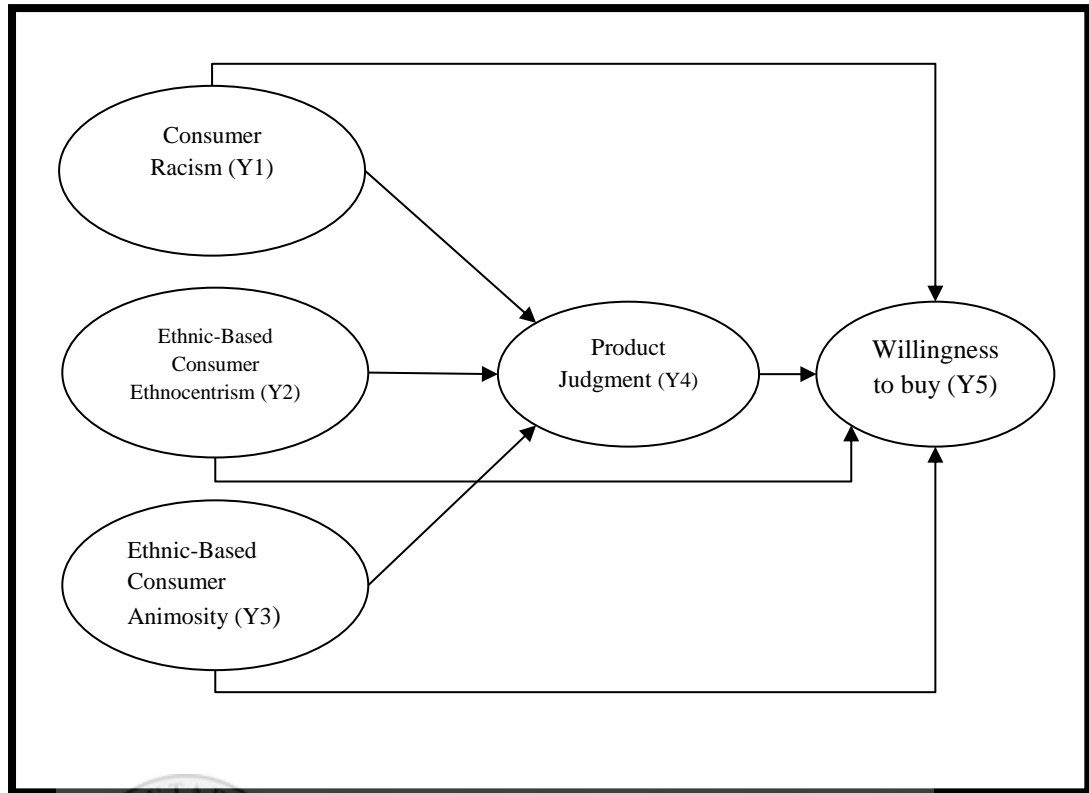
Source: Ouellet (2007)

### **3.8 Research Framework**

Based on the literature review covering and explaining the concepts of consumer racism, consumer animosity, and consumer ethnocentrism including the historical background of the thesis' context; the modified consumer racism scale is expected to be distinctively apart from ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity.

The conceptual model as depicted in Figure 3.6 allowed the researcher to examine the effect of the modified racism scale operating together with other closely related constructs namely ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity, in influencing the product judgment and willingness to buy of Malay consumers toward products from ethnic Chinese.





*Figure 3.6: Effects of consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity on Malays' product judgment and willingness to buy Chinese products.*

*Reference: Klein & Ettenson (1999), Ettenson & Klein (2005) and Ouellet (2007)*

Universiti Utara Malaysia

### **3.9 Hypotheses Development**

Consumer racism may have similar aversive effects of consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism on purchasing related decision. By applying the transfer of meaning principles (McCracken, 1989; Ouellet, 2005), the feelings of displeasure (or hatred) of an ethnic group towards another particular ethnic group, can be extended to materials associated with the targeted group, of which in this context are consumer products. In other words, the negative feelings of displeasure of the Malays towards the Chinese may be extended to the products perceived to be from

the Chinese in form of negative product judgment and their unwillingness to buy.

Thus it is hypothesized that:

**H<sub>2a</sub> (Y<sub>14</sub>):** Consumer racism negatively predicts Malay consumers' product judgment of Chinese products; and

**H<sub>2b</sub> (Y<sub>15</sub>):** Consumer racism negatively predicts Malay consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products;

From previous researches, consumer ethnocentrism has demonstrated its importance in influencing consumers' judgment of products and their willingness to buy foreign products. Ethnocentric consumers tend to prefer domestic goods and products as a means to protect their domestic economy, and tend to discriminate and downgrade the quality of the targeted product (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Subhash; Sharma & Shimp, 1995; Hamin & Elliott, 2006). However, in some countries where domestic productions are limited, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism may be reduced or has no effect at all (Maher & Mady, 2010). Similarly from the level of ethnicity, ethnocentric consumers may have low product judgment on products and goods perceived to be from other than their own ethnic group, and may prefer to buy goods and products from their own ethnic group. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

**H<sub>3a</sub> (Y<sub>24</sub>):** Ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts Malay consumers' product judgment of Chinese products; and

**H<sub>3b</sub> (Y<sub>25</sub>):** Ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts Malay consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products.

Similar to consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity can influence consumers' attitudes towards foreign products, but instead of blanketing to all foreign products;

it is centered on a specific country based conflict spurred by economic, military and/or political events. Hence, examining the construct at ethnic-based within this thesis' context; consumer animosity of the Malays can exist towards the Chinese based on several dark historical events as explained in Chapter Two. It is hypothesized that:

**H<sub>4a</sub> (Y<sub>34</sub>):** Ethnic-based consumer animosity negatively predicts Malay consumers' product judgment of Chinese products; and

**H<sub>4b</sub> (Y<sub>35</sub>):** Ethnic-based consumer animosity negatively predicts Malay consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products.

Generally consumers that evaluate products favorably tend to have higher willingness to purchase (Hamin & Elliot, 2006), while products with lesser favorable consumer evaluation have lesser chance of being purchased. Hence it is postulated that:

**H<sub>5</sub> (Y<sub>45</sub>):** Malay consumers' product judgment positively predicts Malay consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products.

### **3.10 List of Hypotheses**

The following is the list of the research hypotheses categorized accordingly based on previous arguments:

### **Consumer Racism**

**H<sub>1a</sub> (Y<sub>14</sub>):** Consumer racism negatively predicts Malay consumers' product judgment of Chinese products; and

**H<sub>1b</sub> (Y<sub>15</sub>):** Consumer racism negatively predicts Malay consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products;

### **Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism**

**H<sub>2a</sub> (Y<sub>24</sub>):** Ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts Malay consumers' product judgment of Chinese products; and

**H<sub>2b</sub> (Y<sub>25</sub>):** Ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts Malay consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products.

### **Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity**

**H<sub>3a</sub> (Y<sub>34</sub>):** Ethnic-based consumer animosity negatively predicts Malay product judgment of Chinese products; and

**H<sub>3b</sub> (Y<sub>35</sub>):** Ethnic-based consumer animosity negatively predicts Malay consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products.

### **Product Judgment**

**H<sub>4</sub> (Y<sub>45</sub>):** Malay consumers' product judgment positively predicts Malay consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products.

### 3.11 Chapter Summary

The earlier part of this chapter discussed the background and relevancy of the eclectic theories used in this study, namely the theory of planned behavior, tripartite theory of attitude, multi-attribute theory of attitude and social identity theory to support the research model proposed.

Based on the discussion surrounding the constructs of interest namely consumer racism, ethnic-based ethnocentrism, ethnic-based animosity, consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy; seven research hypotheses were proposed.

The research methodology used to examine the hypotheses is presented in the following chapter.





## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This chapter first discusses the general research methodology which includes research design, data sources, sampling design, sampling technique and research instrumentation. Next, this chapter discusses the questionnaires designs, respondents and sampling frame. Following that is the discussion of the constructs' measurements used in this research which involves their adoption, adaption and necessary modification. Subsequently, the chapter presents the results of the pre-testing undertaken and the administration of the actual survey. Lastly, the chapter discusses the background of the statistical analyses used including its requirements, benefits and limitations.

#### **4.1 Research Design**

This study addressed a controversial and sensitive yet crucial issue in a multi-ethnic and multi-cultural society (Masron et al., 2013) such as Malaysia. The focus of this study was on the ethnic majority of Malaysia; the ethnic Malays, living in an environment where the non-Malays specifically the ethnic Chinese have better economic and business presence in the country (Alatas, 1977; Idris, 2008; Wan Husin, 2012b; Wan Husin & Tee, 2012). Due to its nature, the methodological

approaches used were appropriately considered, planned, structured and implemented.

The design of this research was cross-sectional and quantitative as this research investigated the phenomena outlined in previous chapters taken as a single snapshot at specific point of time (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010) and “determine the quantity or extent of [the] phenomena in the form of numbers” (Zikmund, Ward, Lowe, Winzar, & Babin, 2011, p. 68). Quantitative approach essentially provides a course of action precisely needed, whereas qualitative approach is more suitable for researchers to understand or construct a concept, or even develop a problem (Zikmund et al., 2011). On the other hand, longitudinal study requires data collection over several periods of time and respondents to be questioned at multiple points, which clearly does not fit the research objectives.

Although longitudinal approach is often associated with behavioral examination and changes; through skilled questioning and planning, cross sectional approach could also attain the benefits of longitudinal approach, such as provoking past history, attitudes and predicting future expectation (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

## **4.2 Sources of Data**

This study used primary data. Primary data is preferred as the primary source of data for this study because of the consistencies it provide between the data collected, research questions and research objectives (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). Through this method, data and information representing the phenomena discussed can be obtained directly from the source, as opposed to obtaining from secondary data

sources such as census, survey and reports (Hair, Wolfinbarger, Ortinau, & Bush, 2010).

There were several disadvantages in adopting this method. Data gathering were very time consuming, laborious and costly, compared to using readily available data from surveys, reports, census etc. Further, the success of this method depended highly on respondents' cooperation and the ability of the researcher to convince potential respondents. There were many factors which the researcher overcame or encountered when soliciting for respondents such as lack of incentives, time factor, reluctance, shame, humiliation and embarrassment (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010). All these consequences were very pertinent especially when dealing with such sensitive and delicate issue, while expecting honest responses. Additionally, the researcher had to be sure that the correct methods and tools were used to address the research questions and objectives. The validity and reliability study may be jeopardized due to improper prior planning and research justification (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2010).

There are three approaches in collecting primary data for marketing related studies; survey, observation and experiment, with surveys as the most common method used (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006). Further, "survey research methods are a mainstay of quantitative marketing research and are most often associated with descriptive and causal research designs" (Hair et al., 2010, p. 105). Typically, market surveys can either be, or in combinations of personal survey, intercept survey, telephone survey, postal survey or online survey (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006; Tourangeau & Yan, 2007). Moreover, "there is no 'best' contact method [as] it all depends on the [research] situation. Sometimes it may be appropriate to combine the [necessary] methods" (Zikmund & Babin, 2010).

### 4.3 Sampling Design and Techniques

Probability sampling requires all elements to have equal chance to be selected as samples and this may be quite difficult to implement and may not be practical in many circumstances (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006). Due to its stringent requirements, performing probability sampling may be too expensive and time consuming to implement (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006). The use of probability sampling could also lead to over or underrepresentation of certain groups, or even missing the whole criteria of the target population (Hair et al., 2010).

On the other hand, non-probability sampling involves the respondents to be selected in a 'purposeful way', so to fit specific criteria or desired cross section of the population (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006) such as within a certain age category or ethnic group.

According to Schmidt & Hollensen (2006), there are four sampling techniques under non-probability sampling approach; convenience sampling, judgment sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling. As the term 'convenience' might suggest; samples of convenience sampling are drawn at the convenience of the researcher which might imply that the selection of the location and probable respondents are subjective rather than objective (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006). At the same time, certain groups of samples are automatically eliminated from the process. As such, the results from this approach might be questionable and lack generalizability (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006). Further, the representativeness of the samples cannot be measured because the sampling errors cannot be calculated (Hair et al., 2010).

Judgment sampling or also known as ‘purposive sampling’; is quite similar to convenience sampling (Hair et al., 2010). The difference between judgment and convenience sampling is that judgment sampling requires an ‘educated guess’ or simply the judgment of the researcher on who or which groups represent the target population in question (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006; Darrat, 2011). This means that the selection of samples rely very much on the ability of the researcher and his knowledge about the population and/or potential samples as well as the surrounding environment. However, the main disadvantage of this sampling technique is that it is prone to misjudgments and mistakes which therefore can lead to potential error (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006). Hence, the results must be interpreted cautiously.

As the name imply, the samples of the snowball sampling technique will grow bigger from the time it first started, as how a snowball would when going downhill (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006). This technique starts with a basic or small sample, and requires participating respondents to suggest their contacts so that the researcher can approach these suggested contacts as potential respondents (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006); or simply to pass on the questionnaires to their contacts. The logic behind this approach is that people with similar interests or characteristics tend to ‘flock’ together, or in other words ‘people with similar characteristics tend to be in a social circle’ (Hair et al., 2010). This technique is very suitable when the target population is limited and hard-to-reach. This technique is also very cost-effective as researchers can identify and obtain potential respondents in lesser time span (Hair et al., 2010), plus this technique can be used in ‘hostile’ or ‘unfavorable’ research environment (Bahae & Pisani, 2009b). This technique however, is also prone to respondent biasness if not properly considered and administered (Hair et al., 2010).

Based on the advantages and disadvantages discussed above, this research adopted a combination of non-probability judgment and snowballing sampling approach in obtaining research samples that is representative of the target population; the Malay consumers.

#### **4.4 Instrumentation**

There are several advantages in adopting survey method. According to Schmidt & Hollensen (2006), these five (5) advantages includes (but not limited); standardization of the questions where all respondents are asked the same questions and response options; ease of administration compared to focus groups or personal interviews; ability to ‘tap unseen’ and ‘unobservable’ factors through direct questions; suitability for data tabulation and statistical analysis; and, sensitivity to subgroup differences whereby the data can be ‘sliced up’ according to demographics or other segments. Further, according to Hair et al., (2010), there are another two benefits of using survey method of which; concepts and relationships that are not directly measurable can be measured through measurement scales; and have the ability to accommodate large samples of which the results could be generalized to the population.

There are several disadvantages in using survey method among others; which is to obtain in-depth data from respondents can be quite a challenge for researchers. This challenge relates to the difficulties in constructing or selecting the appropriate and/or accurate measurement scale to measure the concepts or constructs in question (Hair et al., 2010).

Based on the selected research design, two approaches for data collection were used in this research; the traditional self-administered paper and pencil questionnaire approach and a self-administered online web-based questionnaire approach. Several studies encouraged multiple usage of data collection methods especially when dealing with sensitive questions (Sheehan, 2001; Tourangeau & Yan, 2007). Additionally, the encouragement to adopt multiple methods for data collection are partly due to the usage decline (as well as decline in responses) of certain surveying and data collection methods; such as the traditional mail survey, telephone and email surveys; and the rise and wide availability of the World Wide Web (Dillman, 2005; Harzing, Reiche, & Pudelko, 2013).

The online approach can be very suitable as research instrument especially when dealing with sensitive subjects. Researchers often opt for online questionnaire for several reasons including cost and time saving, faster response turnaround and information processing, availability of enhanced visual elements, and respondents' convenience (Subhash; Sharma et al., 1995; Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Dillman, 2005; Hamin & Elliott, 2006; Newell, Logan, Guo, Marks, & Shepperd, 2015). This method also tends to have lower missing data especially on sensitive questions (McDonald & Adam, 2003; Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006; Tourangeau & Yan, 2007). In terms of data entry, this method offers lesser risk of data entry errors as the results are automatically formatted and ready for analysis (Harzing et al., 2013). Most importantly, the advantage of offering a non-face-to-face interaction and anonymity to the respondents, which is very critical in conducting sensitive studies (McDonald & Adam, 2003; Zikmund & Babin, 2010; Hollensen, 2011) as this would also

reduce measurement bias and social desirability biasness<sup>18</sup>. Additionally, offering anonymity to respondents may be a methodological remedy to reduce common method bias (Rahim, 2004; Tourangeau & Yan, 2007).

It is expected that the respondents of this type of method will take the responsibility to read and answer the questions (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) rather than just rushing through an interview which could contribute to procedural bias<sup>19</sup> and distortion of data.

Previous studies suggested that online questionnaires can be quite challenging in obtaining respondents as it tends to produce low response rate (Anderson & Gansneder, 1995; Truell, Bartlett, & Alexander, 2002) plus there would be some limitation on knowing exactly who responded the web-based questionnaire (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). On contrary, there are several studies which suggest otherwise (Deutskens, de Ruyter, & Wetzels, 2006) and suggested possible strategies to researchers in order to minimize such disadvantages (Abernethy et al., 2008; Wilcox, Gallagher, Boden-Albala, & Bakken, 2012; Newell et al., 2015).

Previous studies also argued that online questionnaire limits the sample coverage to certain demographics (Zikmund & Babin, 2010) or available to those with internet access. This is indeed true to certain extent, but with the current wide and affordable broadband and internet availability nationwide plus other advancement in mobile

---

<sup>18</sup> Social desirability bias is defined as the “bias in responses caused by respondents’ desire, either conscious or unconscious, to gain prestige” (Hair et al., 2014) or to create a favorable reply and/or impression to the researcher. Responses may be inflated, deflated, adjusted or overstated as perhaps to gain prestige from the researcher or in avoiding embarrassment (Saucier & Miller, 2003; Ouellet, 2007; Hill & Paphitis, 2011)

<sup>19</sup> Procedural bias occurs when researchers place direct or indirect unfair pressure to respondents to complete their questionnaires as quickly as possible. It also often exists when surveys are administered under adverse conditions which could distort the validity and reliability of the collected data (Shuttleworth, 2009).



technology, perhaps the sample coverage can be much better now compared to many years ago. These technological advancements also include software development of which could have many positive impacts in terms of how surveys are conducted (Newell et al., 2015). Development and advancements of technological hardware such as thumb-drives, smart-phones, mini-laptops and hand-held computer tablets offer better alternatives to researchers in terms of the handling, safety and security, as well as the transportation issues concerning the movement of the physical data (Galliher et al., 2008; Newell et al., 2015). With such advantages these technological advancements can offer, researchers have wider and bigger scope for their researches as to include previously underrepresented samples in ‘hard-to-reach’ rural areas (Galliher et al., 2008; Newell et al., 2015). Rural folks sometimes are intellectually underestimated since they are perceived not to be able to grasp new technologies, but often with adequate instructions rural folks can successfully use new technology in relation to data collection (Newell et al., 2015). This also addresses the question of data integrity of samples from rural areas.

#### **4.5 Questionnaire Design**

To suit the targeted ethnic Malays, this study used the official language of Malaysia; Bahasa Malaysia in the questionnaire, as well as in English. The term ‘Bahasa Malaysia’ is often used interchangeably with the term ‘Bahasa Melayu’ which is the native-tongue of the Malays. This was because based on the three pretest studies (using the earlier ‘unpolished’ versions of the measurement constructs) done, it was found that many Malay respondents had difficulties in understanding the questionnaire presented in English. This resulted to poor response rate and response

bias (Oppermann, 1995; Shuttleworth, 2009). Some potential respondents even rejected answering the questionnaire after being told that the questions are in English. Hence it was imperative that the usage of dual-language questionnaire be implemented. The use of dual lingual questionnaire is quite common and acceptable especially when dealing with cultures and international researches (Hilton, 1992). The issues concerning minimizing biasness and results of the pretesting are discussed and presented at the end of this chapter.

To preserve the consistencies and original substances of the constructs, the translation/back translation procedure (Dmitrovic et al., 2009; Cumberland, Solgaard, & Nikodemska-Wolowik, 2010; Klein et al., 2006; Wu, 2011) was performed from English to Bahasa Malaysia, and back again from Bahasa Malaysia to English by two bilingual speakers of the languages (Klein et al., 2006). The first translation from English to Bahasa Malaysia was done by the author, being a bilingualist, and was familiar with the constructs based on his previous related researches. The second translation from Bahasa Malaysia to English was done by a trilingualist who is an external translator certified by Malaysian Institute of Translation and Books<sup>20</sup>. The results of both translations were then compared for any discrepancies in translation. Based on these differences, several corrections were made and adjusted.

The online questionnaire was created using online survey forms provided by Google Documents (<https://docs.google.com/>), while ensuring to maintain all possible similarities with its paper version to reduce or minimize irregularities and biasness (Dillman, 2005). The questionnaires were structured into four sections; comprising a

---

<sup>20</sup> Otherwise known as Institut Terjemahan dan Buku Malaysia in Bahasa Malaysia or ITBM.

short covering letter, a diagram depicting 30 brands and products of Chinese controlled and/or owned, the constructs' measurement scales, and the demographic details of the respondents. The demographic details which the respondents were required to provide include their gender, age group, employment type, income group, religion and education level.

The products/brands used in this study were quite common to the general consumers and can be consumed on daily basis which included several categories from the food and beverages industry (homegrown fast-food restaurant chains, bread, snacks, flavored drinks, cooking oils, and flour), convenience stores and auto accessories stores. The selection of these products/brands was based on market presence, brand familiarity, product affordability and accessibility to most Malay consumers (Abdul-Latif & Abdul-Talib, 2015; Abdul-Talib & Abdul-Latif, 2015).

Although some respondents may not be familiar with a product but it was common for consumers to have generalized impressions toward products irrespective of whether or not they have direct consuming experience (Watson & Wright, 2000). Previous studies (Laroche, Papadopoulos, Heslop, & Mourali, 2005; Carter & Maher, 2014) suggested that it was common in COO and country image studies that respondents were asked to evaluate products not based on brands but “rather on the overall perception of the product from the country in question” (Watson & Wright, 2000, p. 1155). This study adopted this approach while switching the country level of the two constructs; consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity to a sub-national level; that is the ethnic level.

## 4.6 Respondents and Sampling Frame

The Census (2011) report revealed that the total number of Malaysia's population was 28.3 million. From the total population, 26 million were the citizens of Malaysia; while 2.3 million were non-citizens which comprised of foreign workers, expatriates, asylum seekers and others. Based on Table 4.1, approximately 50% from the total Malaysian population were Malays and 22.5% were Chinese. Indian and others ethnic minority groups (such as Sikh and Peranakan among others) were 6.7% and 0.6%, respectively. While the Bumiputera of Sabah and Sarawak including the Orang Asal/Asli of Peninsular Malaysia was approximately 12% of the total population of Malaysia.

Table 4.1

*Population Distribution by Age Group and Ethnicity in Malaysia*

Age Group	Population	Malaysians	Malays	Bumi	Chinese	Indians	Others
0-4	2,426,957	2,290,776	1,365,755	358,696	406,171	137,669	22,485
5-9	2,667,523	2,521,999	1,475,598	374,929	485,291	164,123	21,458
10-14	2,733,427	2,603,088	1,509,009	372,124	522,818	177,153	21,984
15-19	2,835,694	2,640,744	1,512,297	374,851	549,895	180,980	22,721
20-24	2,853,980	2,474,304	1,405,146	329,495	535,785	184,801	19,077
25-29	2,711,020	2,285,654	1,262,290	296,079	531,873	178,109	17,903
30-34	2,124,881	1,842,843	975,195	222,853	488,557	149,444	11,794
35-39	1,917,465	1,703,065	882,341	207,765	468,359	134,438	10,463
40-44	1,772,628	1,623,421	829,368	191,993	462,960	129,731	9,369
45-49	1,606,971	1,510,289	766,024	169,004	440,191	126,767	8,303
50-54	1,367,631	1,305,699	656,876	134,620	396,424	110,741	7,038
55-59	1,064,742	1,208,969	514,438	93,897	331,690	83,532	5,412
60-64	823,876	799,439	385,546	69,278	278,558	52,077	3,980
65-69	538,201	523,152	243,933	53,336	189,920	33,106	2,857
70-74	408,677	399,499	189,072	35,673	147,413	25,210	2,131
75+	479,462	460,714	218,832	47,195	161,731	29,946	3,010
<b>Total</b>	<b>28,334,135</b>	<b>26,013,356</b>	<b>14,191,720</b>	<b>331,788</b>	<b>6,392,636</b>	<b>1,907,827</b>	<b>189,385</b>

Source: Census (2011), Department of Statistics Malaysia.

According to the Census (2011) report, the proportion of the working age population in Malaysia increased to 67.3% from 62.8% from the last census in 2000. Generally in Malaysia, the average working age starts at 24; however there were also those who decided to join the workforce right after completing their secondary education normally at the age of 17. Although not so obvious these days, there were also secondary school drop-outs after completion of their PMR (Penilaian Menengah Rendah or lower secondary qualification) in Form Three or at 15 years old (Patel, 2014). Most people in the workforce would retire between the ages of 55 to 65 depending on their agreed employment scheme and sector. Hence, the Census (2011) report defined the working age as those who aged between 15 to 64 years. Just to note, it is also not uncommon that a person can work up to the age of above 65 years.

In Table 4.2, the percentage summation of age group 15-19 up to 60-64 of the Malay working age population is approximately 93% of the total Malay population, representing a large key consumer market.

Table 4.2

*Malay Population Distribution by Age Group*

<b>Age Group</b>	<b>Malays</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>15-19</b>	1,512,297	15.37
<b>20-24</b>	1,405,146	14.28
<b>25-29</b>	1,262,290	12.83
<b>30-34</b>	975,195	9.91
<b>35-39</b>	882,341	8.97
<b>40-44</b>	829,368	8.43
<b>45-49</b>	766,024	7.78
<b>50-54</b>	656,876	6.67
<b>55-59</b>	514,438	5.23
<b>60-64</b>	385,546	3.92
<b>65-69</b>	243,933	2.48
<b>70-74</b>	189,072	1.92
<b>75+</b>	218,832	2.22
<b>Total</b>	<b>9,841,358</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Based on Census (2011) report and Table 4.3, all states in Malaysia except Penang and Wilayah Persekutuan Kuala Lumpur (WPKL) have ethnic Malays as the majority population. The states in the northern part of Malaysia; particularly Perlis and Kedah have 77.9%, and 88.4% ethnic Malays, respectively. The Malays in Penang on the other hand is only 43.6%, slightly lesser than the Chinese population of 45.6%, and the overall non-Malays categories combined.

In Table 4.3, it is shown that all of the states in Malaysia have urbanization levels of at least 50%, excluding Kelantan (42.4%). Conversely, Perlis (51.4%) and Pahang (50.5%) can also be considered as states with lower urbanization levels. WPKL and WP Putrajaya are 100% urbanized. In terms of population density, WPKL has the highest rate, followed by Penang and WP Putrajaya.



Table 4.3

*Population Distribution by States, Ethnic Groups and Urbanization in Malaysia*

State	Population	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Pop. Density	Urban <sup>21</sup> pop.(%)	Bumiputra <sup>22</sup> (%)	Chinese (%)	Indian (%)
<b>Johor</b>	3,348,283	19,210	174	71.9	58.9	33.6	7.1
<b>Kedah</b>	1,890,098	9,500	199	64.6	77.9	13.6	7.3
<b>Kelantan</b>	1,459,994	15,099	97	42.4	95.7	3.4	0.3
<b>Malacca</b>	788,706	1,664	470	86.5	66.9	26.4	6.2
<b>N.Sembilan</b>	997,071	6,686	150	66.5	61.3	23.2	15.2
<b>Pahang</b>	1,443,365	36,137	40	50.5	79.0	16.2	4.4
<b>Penang</b>	1,520,143	1,048	1,500	90.8	43.6	45.6	10.4
<b>Perak</b>	2,258,428	21,035	110	69.7	57.0	30.4	12.2
<b>Perlis</b>	227,025	821	280	51.4	88.4	8.0	1.2
<b>Sabah</b>	3,117,405	73,631	42	54.0	84.8	12.8	0.3
<b>Sarawak</b>	2,420,009	124,450	19	53.8	74.8	24.5	0.3
<b>Selangor</b>	5,411,324	8,104	670	91.4	57.1	28.6	13.5
<b>Terengganu</b>	1,015,776	13,035	69	59.1	97.0	2.6	0.2
<b>WP KL</b>	1,627,172	243	6,891	100.0	45.9	43.2	10.3
<b>WP Labuan</b>	86,908	91	950	82.3	83.7	13.4	0.9
<b>WP Putrajaya</b>	67,964	49	1,400	100.0	98.0	0.7	0.1

Source: Census (2011), Department of Statistics Malaysia. This table is retrieved from [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Demographics\\_of\\_Malaysia#Population\\_distribution\\_by\\_states\\_and\\_territories](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Demographics_of_Malaysia#Population_distribution_by_states_and_territories).

Although the Malays were still socio-economically lagging behind compared to the Chinese (Idris, 2008; Minai, Ibrahim, & Kheng, 2012), but the Malays have generally increased their overall household income and purchasing power (Kamaruddin, Mokhlis, & Othman, 2002). Based on this fact, it can be implied that most Malay consumers have reasonable capacity to purchase some of the brands depicted in the questionnaire.

<sup>21</sup> The Department of Statistics Malaysia defined urban as "Gazetted areas with their adjoining built-up areas, which had a combined population of 10,000 or more at the time of the Census 2010 or the special development area that can be identified, which at least had a population of 10,000 with at least 60 % of population (aged 15 years and above) were involved in non-agricultural activities." Referenced from: Department of Statistics Malaysia [http://www.statistics.gov.my/index.php?r=column/cone&menu\\_id=bDA2VkxRSU40STcxdkZ4OGJ0c1ZVdz09](http://www.statistics.gov.my/index.php?r=column/cone&menu_id=bDA2VkxRSU40STcxdkZ4OGJ0c1ZVdz09)

<sup>22</sup> The figures depicted here include the Orang Asli/Asal in Peninsular Malaysia and the indigenous people in Sabah and Sarawak. The Orang Asli only makes up about 0.4% of the total population in the Peninsular Malaysia (Masron et al., 2013).

To suit the objectives of this thesis, several conditions need to be observed and satisfied. The two conditions for the selection of potential respondents were that they belong to the ethnic Malay group and aged above 18 years.

#### **4.7 Constructs and Measurement**

The constructs used in this research namely; consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer animosity, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism, product judgment and willingness to buy, are based on previous empirical studies. In order to suit and “determine whether the constructs accurately reflect domestic realities, as opposed to international realities” (Ouellet, 2007, p. 126), the items of the constructs were modified accordingly. Adjustments and modification are needed in order to fit the measurement scales into the correct research context (Finn & Kayande, 2004) or “situation-specific” (Lindquist, Vida, Plank, & Fairhurst, 2001). Modifications may include removal, adjustment, alteration and/or introduction of items (Klein et al., 2006; Vitell & Muncy, 2005) contemporary to the research context. Without doing such modifications, the content(s) of the items might be out of context and may be deemed meaningless. However, any modification must be made cautiously and “substantively meaningful” (Klein et al., 2006). Introduction of “situation-specific items [into the measurement scale] could be influenced by such things as the impact of a nation’s history including any cultural animosity toward potential trading partners, language, economic state, market system, governmental approach, cultural mosaic and the sampled group” (Lindquist et al., 2001, p. 515). Several previous studies on consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity were adjusted (although minor) to suit the research context (Lindquist et al., 2001; Klein et al., 2006; Huang



et al., 2010; Fernández-Ferrín & Bande-Vilela, 2013; Zolfagharian, Saldivar, & Sun, 2014).

The items introduced and/or modified into the constructs were based on literatures on inter-ethnic and socio-political relationships between ethnic groups, and including history (Tan, 2002; Stewart, 2004; Abdullah, 2005; Thock, 2007; Ali, 2008; Idris, 2008; Kua, 2011; Baharuddin, 2012; Putra, 2012; Wan Husin, 2012b).

All scales were measured on a standardized 5-point Likert-type scale; where 1 indicates “Sangat tidak setuju” (Strongly disagree), 3 as “Neutral” and 5 as “Sangat setuju” (Strongly agree). Point 2 and 4 were labeled as “Tidak setuju” (Disagree) and “Setuju” (Agree), respectively<sup>23</sup>.

There are many scholarly debates over the use 5-point and 7-point (or even 11-point) measurement scale. The use of 7-point measurement, while depending on how refined are the respondents’ mental representation and understanding of the constructs, might offer more variance to the results or in other words; a fine grained distinction (Krosnick & Presser, 2010). While a 7-point measurement may have the potential to provide more information, it may also create ‘rooms’ for noise and error.

The rationale behind standardizing all of the measurement scale type and score to a 5-point Likert type scale was because the researcher intended to reduce respondents’ confusion (due to fatigue or stress) (Hair et al., 2010) when attempting to answer the questionnaire and facilitate respondents in answering the questionnaire. It was also for standardization purposes and in avoidance of inattentive surveying responding

---

<sup>23</sup> At the early stage of development of the consumer racism scale, Ouellet (2007), used a 5-point Likert type scale. Subsequently, he used a 7-point scale for scale testing. Klein et al., (1998) and Klein & Ettenson (2005) used 7-point measurements in their studies for consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity.

(Meade & Craig, 2012) given that the number of items to be answered were quite extensive and the respondents were most likely to be 'busy or in a hurry'. This strategy of using a 5-point measurement also reduced the possibilities of error and biasness (Meade, Watson, & Kroustalis, 2007; Hair et al., 2010). 5-point measurement scale offered practicality to respondents, and respondents were "likely to answer all of the questions if their choices were more limited" (Hinck, 2005, p. 94). Further, according to Revilla, Saris, & Krosnick (2013), the differences of reliability between the results obtained from a 5-point and a 7-point measurement scale were miniscule.

All respondents were required to respond to the adapted and modified scales of product judgment (Klien et al., 1998; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Klein et al., 2006; Bahae & Pisani, 2009b), willingness to buy (Klein et al., 1998; Ouellet, 2007), ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism (Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Ouellet, 2007), ethnic-based consumer animosity (Klien et al., 1998; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Klein et al., 2006; Bahae & Pisani, 2009b), and consumer racism (Hill & Paphitis, 2011; Ouellet, 2007). The scales were presented in dual-language; both Bahasa Malaysia and English as shown in an example below:

- Produk orang Cina Malaysia diperbuat dengan teliti serta mempunyai kemahiran kerja yang halus.

*(Malaysian Chinese products are carefully produced and have fine workmanship)*

#### 4.7.1 Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity

As previously discussed in Chapter Three, the concept of consumer animosity was developed and introduced by Klein et al. (1998), of which four dimensions were identified. The dimensions identified are general animosity, war animosity, economic animosity, diplomatic/political animosity (Klein et al., 1998; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015). To examine the effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy products offered by minority ethnic group within the boundary of a country, Ouellet, (2007) simplified and focused particularly on the economic dimension of animosity using only three items.

To fit appropriately the measurement scale into this specific Malaysian research context, several items of the measurement scale were combined and modified as accordance to the literature review previously presented. National-level and country-based elements are removed from the scale and replaced with ethnic-based elements to form ethnic-based consumer animosity.

Previous studies performed modification of scales to fit within a certain context (for example consumer animosity in Ettenson & Klein, (2005) captured consumer animosity based on foreign political decision which affected national interest; Klein et al., (1998) captured consumer animosity based on crimes committed during military occupation; and Klein & Ettenson (1999) captured consumer animosity based on foreign country having too much economic power and started to ‘bully’ other countries when trading).

Based on the arguments presented in the literature review, a new label to describe the dimension previously known as war animosity (Ang et al., 2004; Leong et al.,

2008; Bahae & Pisani, 2009a) is introduced. The researcher proposed to appropriately label the modified dimension as ‘ethnic conflict’ rather than ‘war’ (almost similar to political and diplomatic animosity as discussed by Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007, but in this case it is intra-country rather than inter-countries), in accordance to the literature review previously presented. Two items (item 3 and 4 in Table 3.2 below) are adjusted and added into the measurement scale to capture the ethnic-based consumer animosity between the ethnics Malays and Chinese based on the perceived marginalization and discrimination.

The ethnic-based consumer animosity measurement scale utilized a 1 to 5 scoring where the score of 1 indicated ‘strongly disagree’ while the score of 5 indicated ‘strongly agree’. The higher the score indicated higher ethnic-based consumer animosity.

Among many other previous studies, Ettenson & Klein (2005) found this scale to be reliable with reliability estimates of 0.82. Table 4.4 below presents the items of the ethnic-based consumer animosity construct for this study, while Table 4.5 and Table 4.6 provide the scales used by Ouellet (2007) and Klein et al. (1998) respectively, for comparison purposes.

Table 4.4

*Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity Measurement Scale in Bahasa Malaysia and English*

No	Items
1.	Saya tidak suka orang Cina Malaysia <i>I dislike the Malaysian Chinese (General)</i>
2.	Saya berasa marah terhadap orang Cina Malaysia <i>I feel angry toward the Malaysian Chinese (Conflict)</i>
3.	Saya tidak akan maafkan orang Cina Malaysia kerana meminggirkan dan mendiskriminasi kebanyakan orang Melayu <i>I will never forgive the Malaysian Chinese for marginalizing and</i>

	<i>discriminating the poor Malays (Conflict)</i>
4.	Orang Cina Malaysia patut dihukum kerana meminggirkan dan mendiskriminasi kebanyakan orang Melayu <i>Malaysian Chinese should pay for marginalizing and discriminating the Malay majority (Conflict)</i>
5.	Orang Cina Malaysia sukar dipercayai sebagai rakan perniagaan <i>Malaysian Chinese are not reliable trading partners (Economic)</i>
6.	Orang Cina Malaysia mahu kekuasaan ekonomi <i>Malaysian Chinese wants to gain economic power (Economic)</i>
7.	Orang Cina Malaysia mengambil kesempatan atas orang Melayu <i>Malaysian Chinese are taking advantage of the Malay majority (Economic)</i>
8.	Orang Cina Malaysia mempunyai pengaruh ekonomi yang melampau <i>Malaysian Chinese has too much economic influence in Malaysia (Economic)</i>
9.	Orang Cina Malaysia tidak adil dalam urusan perniagaan mereka dengan majoriti orang Melayu <i>Malaysian Chinese are doing business unfairly with the Malay majority (Economic)</i>

Table 4.5

*Items of Economic Animosity from Ouellet (2007)*

No	Items
1.	(Ethnicity 1) are doing business unfairly with (ethnicity 2) in (country)
2.	(Ethnicity 1) are keeping (ethnicity 2) out of good jobs on purpose in this country
3.	(Ethnicity) are unfair with us businesswise

Table 4.6:

*Items of Consumer Animosity from Klein et al. (1998)*

No	Items
1.	I dislike the Japanese (General)
2.	I feel angry toward Japanese (War)
3.	I will never forgive the Japan for the Nanjing Massacre (War)
4.	Japan should pay for what it did to Nanjing during the occupation (War)
5.	Japan is not a reliable trading partners (Economic)
6.	Japan wants to gain economic power over China (Economic)
7.	Japan is taking advantage of China (Economic)
8.	Japan has too much economic influence in China (Economic)
9.	The Japanese are doing business unfairly with the China (Economic)

#### 4.7.2 Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism

Similar to the consumer animosity measurement scale above; the consumer ethnocentrism measurement scale had to undergo necessary adjustment and modification to fit the scale into the desired research context too. In developing the ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism measurement scale as presented in Table 4.7 below, the researcher combined and modified items from Ouellet (2007) and Shimp & Sharma (1987) which are deemed suitable to the research context and questions in accordance to the literature. Similar to the ethnic-based consumer animosity measurement scale, the national-level and inter-country elements are replaced with inter-ethnic-based elements.

This measurement scale is measured with a Likert-type scale utilizing a 1 to 5 scoring where the score of 1 indicated ‘strongly disagree’, while the score of 5 indicated ‘strongly agree’. The higher the score indicated higher level of ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism. Among many other previous studies, Ettenson & Klein (2005) found this scale to be reliable with reliability estimates of 0.85. For the purpose of reference, Table 4.8 presented below is the scale used by Ouellet (2007), while the original scale by Shimp & Sharma (1987) is shown in Table 4.9 below:

Table 4.7

*Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism Measurement Scale in Bahasa Malaysia and English*

No.	Items
1.	Orang Melayu sepatutnya membeli produk buatan orang Melayu <i>Malays should always buy Malay-made products</i>
2.	Orang Melayu yang sejati tidak akan membeli produk buatan orang lain, selain daripada orang Melayu <i>A good Malay does not buy local / domestic products made by any other ethnic except for Malay</i>
3.	Adalah tidak betul untuk membeli produk buatan bukan orang Melayu kerana

- 
- ia menyebabkan pekerja Melayu kehilangan pekerjaan mereka  
*It is not right to purchase domestic / local products made by non- Malay because it puts Malay out of job*
4. Kita sepatutnya membeli produk buatan orang Melayu, kerana kaum lain menjadi kaya atas pembelian kita  
*We should purchase domestic/local products manufactured by Malay instead of letting other ethnics in this country get rich off us*
  5. Kita akan beli produk daripada kaum lain, hanya apabila kita tidak dapat membeli daripada kaum kita sendiri  
*We should only buy local/domestic products from other ethnics, if we cannot obtain the products from our own people*
  6. Beli produk orang Melayu. Agar orang Melayu terus bekerja, terus berniaga dan kaya  
*Buy Malay made products. Keep Malays working, in business and rich*
  7. Produk orang Melayu pilihan pertama, terakhir dan terutama  
*Malay products, first, last and foremost*
  8. Orang Melayu yang sejati selalu membeli produk buatan orang Melayu  
*A real Malay should always buy Malay made products*
  9. Membeli produk orang Melayu adalah langkah terbaik  
*It is always best to purchase Malay products*
  10. Saya memilih untuk menyokong produk orang Melayu walaupun ia mungkin lebih mahal  
*It may cost me more but I prefer to support Malay products*
- 

Table 4.8

*Items of National and Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism Measurement Scale from Ouellet (2007)*

No.	Items
1.	A good (nationality) does not buy foreign products
2.	It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts (nationality) out of jobs
3.	We should purchase products manufactured in (nation) instead of letting other countries get rich off us
4.	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country
5.	A good (ethnicity) does not buy domestic products made by other people than (ethnicity)
6.	It is not right to purchase products made in (nation) by other people than (ethnicity) because it puts (ethnicity) out of jobs
7.	We should purchase (national)-made products manufactured by (ethnicity) instead of letting other people in this country get rich off us
8.	We should buy from people other than (ethnic) only those domestic products that we cannot obtain from our own people

---

Table 4.9

*Items of Consumer Ethnocentrism Measurement Scale from Shimp & Sharma (1987)*

No.	Items
1.	American people should always buy American-made products instead of imports.
2.	Only those products that are unavailable in the U.S. should be imported.
3.	Buy American-made products. Keep America working.
4.	American products, first, last, and foremost.
5.	Purchasing foreign-made products is un-American.
6.	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Americans out of jobs.
7.	A real American should always buy American-made products.
8.	We should purchase products manufactured in America instead of letting other countries get rich off us.
9.	It is always best to purchase American products.
10.	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity.
11.	Americans should not buy foreign products, because this hurts American business and causes unemployment.
12.	Curbs should be put on all imports.
13.	It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support American products.
14.	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.
15.	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into the U.S.
16.	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.
17.	American consumers who purchase products

#### 4.7.3 Product Judgment

The researcher utilized measurement scale for product judgment from Klein et al. (1998) and Ettenson & Klein (2005) but not from Ouellet (2007) as shown in Table 4.10 below. Ouellet (2007) used a three-item and seven point semantic scale (bad/good, unfavorable/favorable, unsatisfactory and satisfactory) as shown in Table 4.12 to measure direct attitude. While the measurement scales from Klein et al. (1998) and Ettenson & Klein (2005) utilized a 1 to 5 scoring, where the score of 1 indicates 'strongly disagree' and 5 indicates 'strongly agree'. This measurement measured the indirect attitude which is based on behavioral beliefs and outcome



evaluations. The high score indicated higher level and more favorable product judgment. Among many other previous studies, Ettenson & Klein (2005) found this scale as depicted in Table 4.11 to be reliable with reliability estimates of 0.84. The researcher did not omit out any items for this measurement scale.

Table 4.10

*Adjusted Product Judgment Scale in Bahasa Malaysia and English*

No.	Items
1.	Produk orang Cina Malaysia diperbuat dengan teliti serta mempunyai kemahiran kerja yang halus <i>Malaysian Chinese products are carefully produced and have fine workmanship.</i>
2.	Produk orang Cina Malaysia mempamerkan kemajuan teknologi yang tinggi <i>Malaysian Chinese products show a very high degree of technological advancement.</i>
3.	Produk orang Cina Malaysia mempamerkan penggunaan warna dan disain/rekabentuk yang baik <i>Malaysian Chinese products usually show a very clever use of color and design.</i>
4.	Produk orang Cina Malaysia selalunya tahan dan boleh dipercayai <i>Malaysian Chinese products usually are quite reliable and seem to last the desired length of time.</i>
5.	Produk Cina Malaysia mempunyai nilai yang baik bagi wang anda <i>Malaysian Chinese products are usually a good value for the money</i>

Table 4.11

*Items of Product Judgment from Klein et al. (1998) and Ettenson & Klein (2005)*

No.	Items
1.	[Country] products are carefully produced and have fine workmanship.
2.	[Country] products show a very high degree of technological advancement.
3.	[Country] products usually show a very clever use of color and design.
4.	[Country] products usually are quite reliable and seem to last the desired length of time
5.	[Country] products are usually a good value for the money

Table 4.12

*Items of Product Judgment from Ouellet (2007)*

No.	Items
1.	This product seems ..... [Good or bad] .
2.	I am .....[unfavorable or favorable] to this product.
3.	This product seems .....[unsatisfactory or satisfactory]

#### 4.7.4 Willingness to Buy

For the willingness to buy measurement in this study, the researcher adopted and modified the willingness to buy scale from Klein et al. (1998) and Ouellet (2007) which was originally based the researches of Darling & Arnold (1988) and Darling & Wood (1990). As mentioned in literature review chapter, this measurement scale is frequently used to measure willingness to buy (Klein et al., 1998; Ettenson & Klein, 2005) as seen in Table 4.14. While Ouellet (2007) measured this scale using seven-point semantic differential scale, the researcher however, followed Smith & Li, (2010) which used a five-point Likert type scale, where higher ratings indicate higher level of willingness to buy Malay products and avoidance of Chinese products. The score of 1 indicates ‘strongly disagree’, while the score of 5 indicates ‘strongly agree’. All of the items in this scale are reverse-coded (items with (R)) except for item five. Among many other previous studies, Klein et al. (1998) and Ouellet (2007) found this scale to be reliable with Cronbach scores of .82 and .72, respectively. Table 4.13 presented is the scale used to measure willingness to buy construct :

Table 4.13

*Adjusted Willingness to Buy Measurement Scale in Bahasa Malaysia and English*

No.	Items
1.	Saya rasa bersalah sekiranya membeli produk orang Cina Malaysia <i>I would feel guilty if I bought Malaysian Chinese products (R)</i>
2.	Saya tidak akan membeli produk orang Cina Malaysia <i>I would never buy Malaysian Chinese products (R)</i>
3.	Apabila mungkin, saya elak membeli produk orang Cina Malaysia <i>Whenever possible, I avoid Malaysian Chinese products (R)</i>
4.	Saya tidak suka memiliki produk orang Cina Malaysia <i>I do not like the idea of owning Malaysian Chinese products (R)</i>
5.	Sekiranya terdapat dua produk yang sama, dan salah satu nya adalah produk Melayu, saya sanggup membayar 10% ekstra untuk produk Melayu <i>If two products were equal in quality, but one was from a Malay, I would pay 10% more for the Malay product</i>

Table 4.14

*Willingness to Buy Measurement Scale from Klein et al. (1998)*

No.	Items
1.	I would feel guilty if I bought Japanese products
2.	I would never buy a Japanese car
3.	Whenever possible, I avoid Japanese products
4.	I do not like the idea of owning Japanese products
5.	If two products were equal in quality, but one was from a Japan and one was from China, I would pay 10% more for the product from China

#### 4.8 The Modification of the Consumer Racism Scale

As previously mentioned, it is necessary for the researcher to modify and adjust the scale for consumer racism and there are several reasons supporting this. First, the widely used and contemporary racism scales such as Modern Racism Scale (McConahay, Hardee, & Batts, 1981) and Racial Argument Scale (Saucier & Miller, 2003) does not fit into the context of consumer behavior. These scales have little to

do or none at all with commerce or business. For example, below are some of the items from Modern Racism Scale:

- The streets are not safe these days without a policeman around. (agree)
- Blacks are getting too demanding in their push for equal rights.
- Over the past few years blacks have gotten more economically than they deserve. (agree)
- Over the past few years the government and news media have shown more respect to blacks than they deserve. (agree)

It is also worth to note that both of these scales are only applicable to American white-blacks racial context. Even if these items were to be modified to suit Malaysian context, it still would not address the current research objectives and questions. Further, according to a number of studies (Fazio, Jackson, Dunton, & Williams, 1995; Dunton & Fazio, 1997; Ouellet, 2005, 2007), the Modern Racism Scale is found to be correlated with social desirability, which may lead to questionable results.

Ouellet's (2007) consumer racism scale offers better measurement items. Although some of the items were out of context or irrelevant, it seemed acceptable as it examined racism from a business framework.

Referring to Table 4.15 below, five items in Ouellet's consumer racism scale were removed as these items are unsuitable to be applied in this study's context.

Table 4.15

*Consumer Racism Scale from Ouellet (2007)*

No.	Items
1.	We should support [Dominant Minority Group] in their struggle to build their own successful businesses in this country by consuming their goods and services
*2.	It is easy to understand the frustration of [Dominant Minority Group]

- 
- business owners in this country, who see us patronizing other stores instead of theirs
- \*3. [Dominant Minority Group] entrepreneurs in this country have it better than they ever had it before from consumers
  - 4. [Recent arrivals in this country]/[Generations of economic domination and discrimination] have created conditions that make it difficult for [Dominant Minority Group] to create businesses and get us to purchase their products
  - \*5. It's really a matter of some people not trying hard enough; if [Dominant Minority Group] would only try harder, their products and services could be just as good as ours, and I would then patronize their businesses as much as I patronize ours
  - \*6. Italian, Jews and many other minorities overcame prejudice and established profitable businesses in this country. [Dominant Minority Group] should do the same
  - \*7. How much discrimination against [Dominant Minority Group]-owned businesses by consumers do you feel there is in this country, limiting their chances to grow and succeed?
  - 8. Over the past few years, [Dominant Minority Group]-owned shops and companies have gotten less business than they deserve from customers
  - 9. Over the past few years, [Dominant Minority Group]-owned businesses have been patronized more than they deserve by consumers
- 

\* marked items were removed

Incorporating facts from the literature review and as well as the historical and the inter-ethnic issues and discussions as presented in previous chapters of this study, the Table 4.16 below presents the brief justification and argument for the removal of the selected items from Ouellet's consumer racism scale.

Table 4.16

*Removed Items and the Justification*

No.	Items	Justification
1.	It is easy to understand the frustration of [Dominant Minority Group] business owners in this country, who see us patronizing other stores instead of theirs	The item is not relevant as in most cities and even sub-urban areas, majority of businesses are owned by the Chinese. There is very limited number of Malay-owned stores with exception to Malay majority areas like some parts of Kedah, Terengganu and/or Kelantan.
2.	[Dominant Minority Group] entrepreneurs in this country have it better than they ever had it before from consumers	This item is not relevant. The item refers to businesses established within a short period of time in a country and under the context of 'recent' immigrants. As

---

<p>3. It's really a matter of some people not trying hard enough; if [Dominant Minority Group] would only try harder, their products and services could be just as good as ours, and I would then patronize their businesses as much as I patronize ours</p>	<p>opposed to our context – the Chinese have been in Tanah Melayu since early 19th century. This item implies that the current businesses were moved from, for example Hong Kong to Kuala Lumpur. This item also implies that over time, the Malays have increased their support to ethnic Chinese' businesses.</p>
<p>4. Italian, Jews and many other minorities overcame prejudice and established profitable businesses in this country. [Dominant Minority Group] should do the same</p>	<p>There are not many 'varieties' of immigrants in Malaysia. The Chinese have been long established themselves business-wise many generations ago.</p>
<p>5. How much discrimination against [Dominant Minority Group]-owned businesses by consumers do you feel there is in this country, limiting their chances to grow and succeed?</p>	<p>The context of this item refers to 'recent immigrants' trying to succeed in business in their 'new home'. The Chinese have been in Tanah Melayu and established themselves many generations ago.</p>

---

As accordance to Ouellet's recommendation that "the constructs [need to] accurately reflect domestic realities, as opposed to international realities" (2007, p. 126), as well as the inclusion of situation-specific, country-specific and/or sample-population-specific new items (Lindquist et al., 2001), investigations and reviews on history, socio-political conditions and inter-ethnic relationship between the ethnic groups in Malaysia needed to be extensively researched (Ouellet, 2007). As such, six new items are introduced into the measurement scale for consumer racism while

the remaining items are adjusted accordingly to fit the study's context, as in Table 4.17:

Table 4.17

*Modified and Adjusted Consumer Racism Items in Bahasa Malaysia and English*

No.	Items
1.	<p>Kita patut sokong usaha orang Cina Malaysia dalam membina kejayaan perniagaan mereka dengan membeli barangan dan perkhidmatan mereka  <i>We should support the Malaysian Chinese in their struggle to build their own successful businesses in Malaysia by consuming their goods and services</i></p>
*2.	<p>Peniaga Cina Malaysia sentiasa memberi diskaun yang banyak kepada pelanggan Cina mereka, tetapi kepada pelanggan Melayu hanya sedikit diskaun sahaja diberi.  <i>Malaysian Chinese business owners tend to give hefty discounts to their Chinese customers; while their Malay customers only get small discounts</i></p>
*3.	<p>“Orang Cina Malaysia tak suka orang Melayu. Kalau boleh, mereka tak akan beli produk/servis orang Melayu. Kenapa kita nak sokong produk mereka?”  <i>“Malaysian Chinese do not like Malays. If possible, they would not buy Malay products/services. Why should we buy and support their products?”</i></p>
4.	<p>Akibat penguasaan ekonomik dan diskriminasi, ia membentuk keadaan yang mudah untuk orang Cina Malaysia memulakan perniagaan, mendapat sokongan dan pembelian produk daripada pelanggan  <i>Generations of economic domination and discrimination have created conditions that make it easy for the Chinese Malaysians to create businesses and get the consumers to purchase their products</i></p>
*5.	<p>“Orang Cina Malaysia memang suka menipu. Kenapa kita nak beli barangan dan sokong perniagaan mereka?”  <i>“Malaysian Chinese are cheaters and liars. Why should we buy and support their businesses?”</i></p>
*6.	<p>Kebanyakan peniaga Cina tidak hormat dan tidak hargai pelanggan Melayu. Mereka hanya mahukan wang kita.  <i>Generally, Malaysian Chinese business owners do not value and respect their Malay customers. They are only interested in our money</i></p>
*7.	<p>Setelah menguasai ekonomi dan dunia perniagaan di Malaysia, orang Cina Malaysia memandang hina kepada orang Melayu  <i>After dominating the economy and business world in Malaysia, Malaysian Chinese tend to look down on the Malays</i></p>
*8.	<p>Saya berasa peniaga Cina Malaysia kebanyakannya pengotor dan tidak bersih  <i>I feel that most Malaysian Chinese business owners are dirty and unhygienic</i></p>
9.	<p>Sejak kebelakangan ini, kedai dan syarikat milik orang Cina Malaysia kurang mendapat sambutan daripada apa yang sepatutnya  <i>Over the past few years, Malaysian Chinese-owned shops and companies</i></p>



- 
- have gotten less business than they deserve from customers*
- 10.** Sejak kebelakangan ini, syarikat milik orang Cina Malaysia mendapat sambutan melebihi daripada apa yang sepatutnya  
*Over the past few years, Malaysian Chinese-owned businesses have been shopped at more than they deserve by consumers*
- \*11.** Peniaga/Usahawan Cina Malaysia beri gaji dan komisen kepada pekerja Melayu lebih rendah berbanding dengan pekerja Cina  
*Malaysian Chinese business owners tend to give lower pay and commissions to Malays workers compared to their Malaysian Chinese workers*
- 

\* New items introduced

It is anticipated that this modified consumer racism scale could be offered as a new alternative to the present available measurement scales from Ouellet (2007) or others to be applied on settings and context with similarity to the current study.

#### **4.9 Survey Pretesting**

Prior to the actual survey, it is essential for the developed survey questionnaire to be pretested for accuracy, reliability and validity. The objective of a pretesting is to identify possible problems or issues pertaining to the questionnaire such as respondents' comprehension, understanding, questionnaire instructions, layout, design and readability among others. "The goal of the testing is to check that the questionnaire will capture the information sought by the researcher (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006, p. 156). It is also an important step to initially evaluate the reliability and validity of the constructs in question (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006).

The pre-test or pilot testing involves an actual trial run of the questionnaire on a small sample representative of the target population, which the number of samples maybe between five to ten (Schmidt & Hollensen, 2006) or generally about 50 respondents (Hair, Sarstedt, Pieper, & Ringle, 2012).



For this questionnaire pretesting purpose, snowballing methods are employed targeting ethnic Malays of Peninsular Malaysia aged above 18 years old. Using an online format of the questionnaire, the researcher approached several of his personal acquaintances through social media platform i.e. Facebook (Lewis, Kaufman, Gonzalez, Wimmer, & Christakis, 2008; Baltar & Brunet, 2012; Ramo & Prochaska, 2012) and requested for their participation in a survey. Once these respondents completed their questionnaire, the researcher further requested that the questionnaire be forwarded to their acquaintances. In total, 50 responses were obtained, which satisfy the minimum number of observations needed for a pilot/pretesting study (Hair, Sarstedt, Pieper, et al., 2012). Following and as suggested by Schmidt & Hollensen (2006), these participating respondents are then debriefed; where the researcher informed the respondents that the survey was a test and asked to share their thoughts, ideas, comments or any shortcomings of the survey. These short interviews are done through online via Facebook chat.

Based on these short interviews, the questionnaire is further improved in terms of layout, continuity and several minor improvements on wordings used. Among the comments and suggestions made by the respondents of the first pilot testing were; the translation of the questionnaire to Bahasa Malaysia, the clarification of certain terms (as example, the term ‘animosity’ – 3 respondents asked about the this term but eventually they were able to gauge the meaning from the items) and clarification on unfamiliar products and/or brand names.

With the improved version of the questionnaire, the researcher proceeded with another pilot testing using judgment/purposive sampling method. This time, the researcher approached potential respondents in-person and asked for their

willingness to participate in a study in public areas such as university, supermarkets and offices. The respondents were employed/working persons as well as students of tertiary education institutes. This pretest process was administered through hard-copy questionnaires.

The questionnaire used in the second pilot testing contained all items for constructs willingness to buy, product judgment, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism, ethnic-based consumer animosity and consumer racism, presented in sequence as per previous studies (Klein et al., 1998; Wang & Chen, 2004). In the final part, the respondents were required to provide their demographic details including, age, education level, and gender. Lastly, a column was provided in the questionnaire to encourage constructive comments or suggestions from the respondents. However, among the comments received from the respondents were not at all constructive but rather ‘outbursts’ or personal opinions.

Although proper research etiquette was closely observed, there were many outright rejections by potential respondents. Among the common reasons given are; “not interested”, “the questions seemed too sensitive”, “no time” or “too busy”.

Based on the feedbacks and responses from the pretests, there were 27 suggestions which suggested the inclusion of a translated version of the questionnaire in Bahasa Malaysia as these respondents find it difficult to understand the questions presented in English. As a result, the questionnaire was revised to include both Bahasa Malaysia and English.

It is also important to include the original English text to reduce the risk of misunderstanding. This is also to assist the respondents’ understanding and

comprehension of the questionnaire. With the usage of dual language the scope for respondents will also be enlarged as some (mostly urban) Malays prefer to communicate in English or even combination of both Malay and English as their medium of communication (Gaudart, 1999). Small modifications and additions to the questionnaire were made as per suggestions. Appendix I is the final result and used as the questionnaire for the main study.

Table 4.18 below suggests that the constructs have acceptable levels of reliability and validity based on the second pilot testing.

Table 4.18

*Pretesting Reliability Results*

<b>Constructs</b>	<b>AVE</b>	<b>Composite Reliability</b>
a) EB Consumer Animosity	0.791	0.971
b) EB Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.722	0.963
c) Consumer Racism	0.751	0.955
d) Product Judgment	0.604	0.881
e) Willingness to buy	0.758	0.939

Note: EB = Ethnic-Based

Based on the data collected, a preliminary PLS SEM analysis was performed to stipulate or gauge whether further assessment can be done. Using SmartPLS version 2.0 (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005), the results of the measurement model appeared to be acceptable and reliable.

The relationships between constructs are then assessed and examined. However, both measurement and structural models produced initial findings which were slightly dissimilar with previous studies at this point, but this does not entirely suggest that further examination should not proceed. Looking at the preliminary

results rather positively gives an indication that the survey instrument is sufficiently acceptable for use in the main study.

#### **4.10 Actual Survey Administration**

As recommended by Hollensen (2011), a researcher can utilize mixed approaches in his study to harness the available advantages associated to the approaches. Due to the sensitivity and explicit nature of this study, the researcher first employed a partially interactive survey approach (similarly used in studies such as Hill & Paphitis, 2011; Ouellet, 2007) to sought for potential respondents from social media platforms via acquaintances (Lewis et al., 2008; Baltar & Brunet, 2012; Ramo & Prochaska, 2012).

Through private messaging, the researcher interacted with the potential respondents in real-time. While bearing in mind the effect of procedural bias (Shuttleworth, 2009), the interactions between the potential respondents and researcher were done almost casually with little or no pressure at all. Once the potential candidate understood and was willing to participate, the researcher sent a short note to the respondent stating briefly the detailed purpose of the survey including the internet address (or the link) directing to the online survey webpage (provided free-of-charge by Google Docs). Using such interface and viral/snowballing approach is not uncommon in today's research practice including in consumer behavior-related studies (Lewis et al., 2008; Baltar & Brunet, 2012; Ramo & Prochaska, 2012).

Following the format of the pilot test, the order and flow of the questions is pre-determined and fixed by the researcher. The respondents are made unable to pass-

over to another set of questions without answering all of the questions in the current webpage (Hair et al., 2010). This is so that the possibility of the respondents to deviate is minimized.

If the researcher did not receive any positive affirmation that the survey questionnaire is completed by a respondent, the researcher would kindly prompt and remind the respondent. Subsequently, most potential respondents then indicate their willingness or unwillingness to proceed with the survey. Those who refused to proceed are thanked by the researcher for their initial interest. Likewise to all respondents, the researcher personally thanked them for their participation in the survey and valuable feedback. Although monetary rewards or tokens may encourage survey participation (Ouellet, 2007; Hill & Paphitis, 2011), the researcher decided not to provide these incentives as it might lead to procedural biasness (Shuttleworth, 2009).

To reach out to potential respondents located at regions other than the northern region of Peninsular Malaysia; the researcher appointed five (5) research assistants. These research assistants are to cover the central region (Selangor and WPKL), southern region (Johor, Negeri Sembilan, Melaka) and the west coast (Terengganu, Kelantan, Pahang) of Peninsular Malaysia. These research assistants are given personalized accounts to the online survey website in order for the researcher to supervise their progress and movements. As agreed, these assistants are reasonably remunerated and compensated for each respondent they obtained as displayed and counted in their individual accounts. During the data collection process, the assistants utilized their own electronic gadgets i.e. I-pads, smartphones and/or tablets (Dillman, 2005; Newell et al., 2015) and public internet connections (if

available). This collection method has been widely used in health/medical related researches or clinical trials (McMorris et al., 2009; Wilcox et al., 2012; Newell et al., 2015).

While other states are covered by research assistants, the researcher concentrated his data collection effort in the northern region. As the target respondents are specified as being ethnic Malays, the researcher followed two approaches in obtaining the samples. First, the researcher approached several private, state and federal government offices and obtained necessary permission to distribute the printed questionnaire to their officers and staffs. Based on the judgment of the researcher, the office selection is based on his tacit knowledge that there is no or very few Non-Malay working in the selected offices<sup>24</sup>. The questionnaires are then given to the human resource department representatives to be distributed accordingly. Given a certain grace period, the representative called the researcher to pick up the completed questionnaires.

Second, the researcher intercepted potential respondents at public areas such as hospitals, university, mosques and bus stations. After explaining briefly the intention of the research, several potential respondents declined to participate directly but expressed interest when offered the internet link to the online questionnaire. Certain public places such as the mall and supermarkets seemed to be ineffective in securing respondents, as most respondents are in hurry to do their shopping. Aside from that all of the management of the supermarkets/mall disallowed the researcher to intercept any of their customers.

---

<sup>24</sup> Ethnic Malays dominate the employment in the civil/public sector and there are only a small number of non-Malays or specifically ethnic Chinese working within this sector (Khoo, 2005).

#### **4.11 Statistical Analyses: Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling**

Several researchers (Hulland, 1999; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012) have suggested that Structural Equation Modeling (or SEM) has become the standard technique for researchers as it permit testing of theories and concepts at observational and theoretical level. However, Partial Least Squares (or PLS in short) which is introduced by Wold (1974) then known as NIPALS, and Lohmöller (1989) have only recently become increasingly popular as a significant multivariate method for various disciplines.

PLS-SEM approach has gained momentum and attention among researchers in various area of business related research including consumer behavior, marketing, international business (Henseler et al., 2009) and strategic management studies (Hulland, 1999; Lee, Yang, & Graham, 2006), compared to covariance-based SEM (CBSEM) especially when dealing with causal-predictive analysis.

Unlike CBSEM which impose very stringent conditions, variance-based SEM (or VBSEM) on the other hand uses rather ‘soft approach’ (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, et al., 2012). Nevertheless, adopting soft approaches does not necessary mean that the results are less favorable or robust. Lohmöller (1989) stated that the ‘softness’ only applies to the distributional assumptions, not the concepts, models and estimation techniques. Perhaps due to this short-sightedness and lack of confidence, some researchers and scholars have negative perceptions, and viewed it to be less rigorous, therefore perceived PLS SEM to be less suitable for research.

PLS SEM is different from their covariance counterpart since PLS SEM approach is focused on maximizing the explained variance of the dependent latent constructs by estimating partial model relationships using the sequence of ordinary least squares or OLS (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, et al., 2012). On the other hand CBSEM estimates parameters so that the differences between the estimated and the sample covariance matrices are minimized (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, et al., 2012).

PLS SEM has its benefits and advantages. PLS SEM can handle both reflective and formative measures (Chin, 1998) and very complex models (Chin & Newsted, 1999; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). Whereas the usage of CBSEM could be limited when there are restrictions (i.e. too small or too big) on the sample sizes and observations, PLS SEM has minimum demands as it is based on a series of OLS regressions and yet achieves high level of statistical power (Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009). Under this circumstance, researchers and scholars who demands CBSEM usage might face with biased test statistics, irrelevant or unacceptable solutions as well as identification problems (Hu & Bentler, 1995; Chin & Newsted, 1999; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, et al., 2012).

While both techniques have their weaknesses and strengths, it is best to view both techniques as complementary and understand that neither technique is superior to each other (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). Instead, to determine which technique to apply, researchers need to understand their objectives, data characteristics as well as the research model (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, et al., 2012).

This approach is also very useful not only for exploratory purposes but also is able to accommodate confirmatory theory testing and theory building with high statistical



power compared to its ‘cousin’ – the co-variance based approach (Zikmund & Babin, 2010).

Due to the nature of the research as discussed in previous sub-chapters 4.9 and 4.10, it is expected that the survey might yield non-normal distributed data. With non-normal data, certain prior conditions under CBSEM approach cannot be satisfied, thus any results produced can be inaccurate or contradictory (Reinartz et al., 2009). The decision to use PLS SEM approach is not seen as the choice of ‘last resort’ but rather the better choice through benefits gained as stated in previous paragraphs above. Further, within PLS, Multiple Group Analysis (PLS-MGA) can also be used to analyze the differences between groups which can be based on gender, social class, income group, education and so on (Hair et al., 2014).

#### **4.12 Data Characteristics**

PLS SEM can work with nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio scaled variables, of which include categorical and dichotomous data (Reinartz et al., 2009). This can be a problem as PLS SEM uses OLS regression which requires the endogenous variables to be continuous not dichotomous or categorical (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, et al., 2012). Though the use of dichotomous or categorical to certain extent can be acceptable as exogenous, but the interpretation should be very cautious. However, according to Jakobowicz & Derquenne (2007) categorical or dichotomous variables can be used but with a modified PLS algorithm, of which the current PLS software (SmartPLS 2.0) does not include and are beyond the capabilities of non-statisticians. Adding further, there are studies (Mintu-Wimsatt & Graham, 2004; Lee, Yang, &

Graham, 2006) which incorporated categorical or dichotomous variables in their models.

#### **4.13 Sample Size**

There are several approaches in determining the number of samples required. As a rough estimate and rule of thumb for strong PLS estimation, it is recommended that the sample size is at least ten (10) times the maximum number of paths of any construct in the outer and inner model (Barclay, Higgins, & Thompson, 1995; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2014). Given that the highest number of paths toward an endogenous variable in a structural model is four (4), then the least number of samples required is 40. Another approach in estimating non-normal distributed data, the sample size required is through observing the 15:1 observations to variable ratio (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006) hence at least 75 samples is required.

Finally, the most suitable or appropriate number of sample size is determined by the desired significance level and established power which is estimated together with the number of independent variables and expected size of the coefficient of determination (Hair et al., 2014). This robust approach in determining the number of samples, is made through the table of 'Sample size recommendation' with a statistical power of 80% (Cohen, 1988; Hair et al., 2014). Based on this table, with a maximum number of paths toward a construct of four (4), one would need 65 observations to achieve a statistical power of 80% to detect  $R^2$  value of at least 0.25, with a 5% probability of error.

#### **4.14 Model Characteristics**

Research models can be classified as focused, unfocused or balanced (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2014). In order to be categorized as a predictive research and to meet PLS SEM's prediction goal; a research model should be modeled as focused, where the number of exogenous latent variables are at least double the number of endogenous variables (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2014).

PLS SEM can handle both reflective and formative measures, but both have different 'rules of thumb' for model evaluation, of which are highlighted in Chapter Five. This research employed reflective indicators approach.

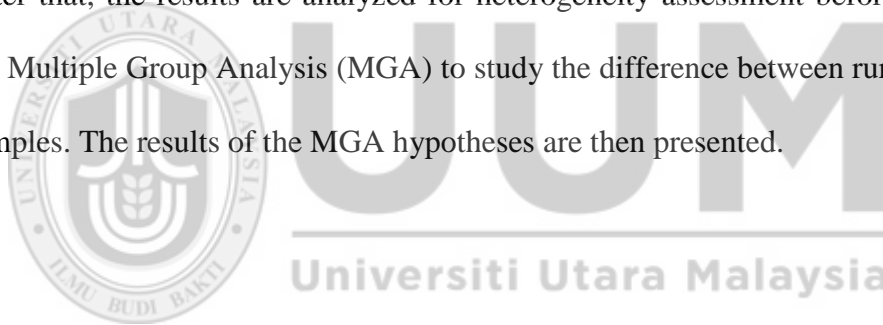
Under certain conditions, single item measurements can be used in PLS SEM, perhaps to indicate a choice situation. Although there are several studies which adopted this approach, for this particular study, the researchers decided to remodel the earlier version of the proposed model to forgo the single item measurement. This is because the use of single item measurement is contrary to PLS SEM's concept of consistency (Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, et al., 2012) and should only be considered with extreme caution.

For this study, IBM SPSS Statistics version 19.0 (SPSS, 2010) is used to provide descriptive analysis results and to run the PLS-SEM procedure and analyze the results, SmartPLS version 2.0 (Ouellet, Beaunoyer, & Lacroix, 2009; Cianfrone, Zhang, & Ko, 2011; Chen et al., 2014) is utilized.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### RESEARCH RESULTS AND FINDINGS

This chapter reports the results of the analysis done on the data collected. First, it focused on the background and demographic profiles of the respondents. This is then followed with assessment of the measurement and structural models of the main overall sample data, with the hypotheses presented at the end of the section. After that, the results are analyzed for heterogeneity assessment before starting on the Multiple Group Analysis (MGA) to study the difference between rural and urban samples. The results of the MGA hypotheses are then presented.



#### 5.1 Respondents' Demographic Profile

After 45 days of data collection, the total number of respondents obtained through both online questionnaire and the conventional pencil and paper questionnaire approach was 450. A total of 129 respondents were obtained through online questionnaire. Of that, three (3) were non-Malay respondents and were removed, giving a usable amount of 126. Whereas, a total of 400 questionnaires were printed and distributed to potential respondents with only 318 returned (79.5% response rate). The total amount of respondents from both sources was 444 available for the next process of data entry.

During the data entry process, 11 samples were rejected because of straight-lining responses (Hair et al., 2014) where respondents answered monotonously (for example, all questions were given ‘neutral’ as their answers). Additionally, another 11 samples were rejected due to incompleteness. This gives the usable number of samples of 425. Refer to the Table 5.1 below.

With a total of 425 samples, this satisfied the minimum number of observation to achieve statistical power of 80% for detecting  $R^2$  value of 0.25 with a 5% probability of error (Cohen, 1992a, 1992b; Hair et al., 2014), where at minimum only 65 observations were needed.

Table 5.1

*Usable Samples*

No	Details	Quantity	Percentage (%)
1.	No. of Questionnaires Distributed	400	
2.	No. of Questionnaires Returned	318	79.5%
3.	No. of Online Respondents	132	
	<b>Sub-total</b>	<b>450</b>	
4.	<i>Non-Malays online samples removed</i>	3	
5.	<i>Straight-Line answers removed</i>	11	
6.	<i>Incomplete questionnaires removed</i>	11	
	<b>Total usable samples</b>	<b>425</b>	

Based on the results depicted in Table 5.2, 67% of the respondents were females, while 33% were males. The results showed that only 6% of the respondents were retirees, 16% of the respondents were at executive level while 7% were at management level. 9% were categorized as entrepreneurs while 5% were unemployed. The largest within the employment category was ‘Others’ with 23%. This category qualifies for the non-executive and non-managerial types of employment which may include employments such as assistants, clerical and other

general staffs. It is indicated that 33% of the respondents were students, while the majority of 62% were either employed or self-employed.

Based on Table 5.2 below, 1.4% of the respondents were PhD holders. The largest group within the education category was the Certificate/Diploma holders at 30%, followed with the second largest group which was the Degree holders at also approximately 30%. 28% of the respondents only had secondary education (SPM or its equivalent), while less than 1% of the respondents had only basic primary education.

The largest group in terms of age was the 26 to 35 year old group (30%), followed by the 20 to 25 year old group (20%) and the 36 to 45 year old group (19%). The 56 to 65, and 66 and above groups were the smallest (each 2% respectively). About 98% of the total samples were in the working age of 18 to 65, approximating the Malay population.

While all precautions were taken to ensure to obtain the best results, some states in the Peninsular was not represented thoroughly or equally in this study. The highest number respondents obtained were from the Kedah state with 47% of the total respondents, and this is followed with the second highest respondents obtained from the state of Selangor at 23%. Other states in the Peninsular were marginally represented, with at most, having less than 5% of the total respondents for each state.

Based on the respondents' postcode, their place of residence can be gauged using the list of Postal Codes provided by Pos Malaysia. Based on this list, respondents' place of residence can be categorized as rural or urban. 41% of the respondents were

categorized as rural dwellers, while 59% were located within the cities or urban areas.

In summary, the respondents were generally employed (67%) and tertiary educated (65%). The respondents were mainly from urban areas (59%) and mostly were females (67%). Table 5.2 summarizes the demographic profile of the respondents.



Table 5.2

*Respondents' Demographic Profile*

	Age Group (years)							Total
	18-21	22-25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	66 & above	
<b>1) Gender</b>								
a) Male	16 (4%)	20 (5%)	39 (9%)	33 (8%)	26 (6%)	4 (1%)	3 (1%)	141 (33%)
b) Female	58 (14%)	66 (16%)	89 (21%)	48 (11%)	15 (4%)	4 (1%)	4 (1%)	284 (67%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>74 (17%)</b>	<b>86 (20%)</b>	<b>128 (30%)</b>	<b>81 (19%)</b>	<b>41 (10%)</b>	<b>8 (2%)</b>	<b>7 (2%)</b>	<b>425 (100%)</b>
<b>2) Employment</b>								
a) Student	65 (15%)	43 (10%)	25 (6%)	8 (2%)	0	0	0	141 (33%)
b) Executive	1 (0.2%)	7 (1.6%)	33 (8%)	19 (5%)	5 (1%)	2 (0.5%)	0	67 (16%)
c) Manager	0	3 (0.7%)	11 (3%)	14 (3%)	2 (0.5%)	1 (0.2%)	0	31 (7%)
d) Entrepreneur	1 (0.2%)	3 (0.7%)	18 (4%)	11 (3%)	6 (1%)	0	0	39 (9%)
e) Retiree	1 (0.2%)	2 (0.5%)	7 (2%)	4 (1%)	4 (1%)	3 (0.7%)	6 (1%)	27 (6%)
f) Unemployed	0	4 (1%)	5 (1%)	4 (1%)	6 (1%)	1 (0.2%)	1 (0.2%)	21 (5%)
g) Others	6 (1%)	24 (6%)	29 (7%)	21 (5%)	18 (4%)	1 (0.2%)	0	99 (23%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>74 (17%)</b>	<b>86 (20%)</b>	<b>128 (30%)</b>	<b>81 (19%)</b>	<b>41 (10%)</b>	<b>8 (2%)</b>	<b>7 (2%)</b>	<b>425 (100%)</b>
<b>3) Education</b>								
a) Primary	0	0	0	1 (0.2%)	1 (0.2%)	0	1 (0.2%)	3 (0.7%)
b) Secondary	6 (1%)	20 (5%)	28 (7%)	28 (7%)	29 (7%)	5 (1%)	4 (1%)	120 (28%)
c) Cert./Diploma	55 (13%)	29 (7%)	26 (6%)	12 (3%)	3 (1%)	2 (0.5%)	2 (0.5%)	129 (30%)
d) Degree	13 (3%)	35 (8%)	50 (12%)	20 (5%)	7 (2%)	1 (0.2%)	0	126 (30%)
e) Masters	0	2 (0.5%)	21 (5%)	18 (4%)	0	0	0	41 (10%)
f) PhD	0	0	3 (1%)	2 (0.5%)	1 (0.2%)	0	0	6 (1.4%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>74 (17%)</b>	<b>86 (20%)</b>	<b>128 (30%)</b>	<b>81 (19%)</b>	<b>41 (10%)</b>	<b>8 (2%)</b>	<b>7 (2%)</b>	<b>425 (100%)</b>



Table 5.2 (Cont.)

	Age Group (years)							Total
	18-21	22-25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	66 & above	
<b>4) State</b>								
a) Johor	1 (0.2%)	3 (0.7%)	11 (3%)	4 (1%)	0	0	0	19 (5%)
b) Kedah	24 (6%)	44 (10%)	54 (13%)	38 (9%)	29 (7%)	6 (1%)	6 (1%)	201 (47%)
c) Kelantan	0	4 (1%)	2 (0.5%)	0	0	0	0	6 (1%)
d) Melaka	0	4 (1%)	6 (1%)	0	1 (0.2%)	0	0	11 (3%)
e) Negeri Sembilan	4 (1%)	6 (1%)	16 (4%)	2 (0.5%)	2 (0.5%)	0	0	30 (7%)
f) Pahang	0	1 (0.2%)	4 (1%)	1 (0.2%)	0	0	0	6 (1%)
g) Penang	2 (0.5%)	2 (0.5%)	1 (0.2%)	1 (0.2%)	0	0	1 (0.2%)	7 (2%)
h) Perak	9 (2%)	6 (1%)	5 (1%)	0	1 (0.2%)	0	0	21 (5%)
i) Perlis	1 (0.2%)	0	1 (0.2%)	3 (1%)	0	0	0	5 (1%)
j) Selangor	28 (7%)	16 (4%)	23 (5%)	26 (6%)	4 (1%)	2 (0.5%)	0	99 (23%)
k) Terengganu	1 (0.2%)	0	1 (0.2%)	1 (0.2%)	1 (0.2%)	0	0	4 (1%)
l) WPKL	4 (1%)	0	4 (1%)	5 (1%)	3 (1%)	0	0	16 (4%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>74 (17%)</b>	<b>86 (20%)</b>	<b>128 (30%)</b>	<b>81 (19%)</b>	<b>41 (10%)</b>	<b>8 (2%)</b>	<b>7 (2%)</b>	<b>425 (100%)</b>
<b>5) Residential Area</b>								
a) Rural	31 (7%)	36 (8%)	52 (12%)	36 (8%)	15 (4%)	3 (1%)	0	173 (41%)
b) Urban	43 (10%)	50 (12%)	76 (18%)	45 (11%)	26 (6%)	5 (1%)	7 (2%)	252 (59%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>74 (17%)</b>	<b>86 (20%)</b>	<b>128 (30%)</b>	<b>81 (19%)</b>	<b>41 (10%)</b>	<b>8 (2%)</b>	<b>7 (2%)</b>	<b>425 (100%)</b>

Based on the results in Table 5.3, large percentage (51%) of the respondents from rural area category recognized all of the products and/or brands shown to them. On the other hand, the percentage of recognizing all of the products and/or brands in the urban area category was slightly lower (40%). Respondents in the urban area category have higher percentage (19%) of not recognizing more than 3 products and/or brands compared to their counterparts in the rural category (12%). Collectively, 45% of the total respondents recognized the all of the products and/or brands.

Table 5.3

*Product and/or Brand Recognition by Rural and Urban Crosstabulation*

<b>Recognition Statements</b>	<b>Rural</b>	<b>Urban</b>	<b>Total</b>
1. <b>Yes, I recognize all of them</b>	88 (51%)	101 (40%)	189 (45%)
2. <b>Yes, but unsure about 2-3 brands</b>	64 (37%)	102 (40%)	166 (39%)
3. <b>Yes, but unsure about more than 3 brands</b>	21 (12%)	49 (19%)	70 (17%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>173 (100%)</b>	<b>252 (100%)</b>	<b>425 (100%)</b>

Based on Table 5.4, the total respondents on 'very frequent' consumption rate category was low (9%). Subsequent categories of 'Frequent' and 'More or less Frequent' collectively summed to 56% which was quite substantial. About one third of the respondents did not consume the products and/brands frequently (35%). Similarly both in urban and rural areas, the 'not frequent' category represent about one third of the responses (30% and 39% respectively). Based on the patterns depicted in Table 5.4, the percentages of both rural and urban consumption rates were quite similar.

Table 5.4

*Product and/or Brand Consumption Rate by Rural and Urban Crosstabulation*

<b>Consumption Rate Statements</b>	<b>Rural</b>	<b>Urban</b>	<b>Total</b>
1. <b>Very Frequent</b>	19 (11%)	20 (8%)	39 (9%)
2. <b>Frequent</b>	36 (21%)	61 (24%)	97 (23%)
3. <b>More or Less Frequent</b>	66 (38%)	74 (30%)	140 (33%)
4. <b>Not Frequent</b>	52 (30%)	97 (39%)	149 (35%)
<b>Total</b>	173 (100%)	252 (100%)	425 (100%)

Based on Table 5.5 below, there were higher percentage of respondents (88%) agreed that there were alternative products available to them, whereas only a small percentage disagreed (12%). The percentage of respondents who disagreed that there were product alternatives seemed a bit larger in the rural areas (16%) compared to the urban areas (9%). Based on Table 5.5 below, the patterns depicted between rural and urban areas were almost similar.

Table 5.5

*Availability of Alternative Product and/or Brands by Rural and Urban Crosstabulation*

<b>Availability of Alternatives</b>	<b>Rural</b>	<b>Urban</b>	<b>Total</b>
a) <b>Yes</b>	146 (85%)	229 (91%)	375 (88%)
b) <b>No</b>	27 (16%)	23 (9%)	50 (12%)
<b>Total</b>	173 (100%)	252 (100%)	425 (100%)

## 5.2 Measurement Validity

To assess a reflective measurement model, there are four types of reliability and validity analyses that need to be examined. According to Hair et al. (2014), the first criterion is to examine the internal consistency reliability through composite reliability analysis. This is then followed with the assessment of convergent validity

by considering the outer loadings of the indicators and the average variance extracted (AVE). The final assessment is the discriminant validity which can be examined using two different methods. The liberal method involves the examination of the indicators' cross-loadings, while the conservative method is known as the Fornell-Larcker criterion.

### **5.2.1 Reliability and Validity**

Referring to Table 5.6, all of the constructs' score on composite reliability were above the recommended value of 0.700 (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The results showed that the all of the constructs' indicator loadings ranged from 0.709 to 0.921 thus satisfying the requirements of which the loadings should be at least 0.700 (Hulland, 1999). Values which were between 0.400 and 0.700 can be accepted on certain cases but should be considered for removal when deleting this particular item led to an increase of the composite reliability value. These items can also be retained as it may affect the content's validity. However, values below 0.400 should be removed from the scale entirely (Hair et al., 2014).

To examine convergent validity at construct level, the common measure used is the average variance extracted (AVE), of which the minimum value must be at least 0.500. In Table 5.6 it is shown that all of the constructs scored above 0.500 for AVE as recommended by Bagozzi & Yi (1988).

Table 5.6

*Loadings Significance, Composite Reliability and AVE*

Constructs	Items	Loadings	Std Error	T-Values	P-Values	AVE	CR
<b>EB Consumer Animosity</b>	CA1	0.794	0.022	36.980	0.000	0.644	0.927
	CA2	0.827	0.017	49.936	0.000		
	CA3	0.792	0.023	34.964	0.000		
	CA4	0.802	0.021	38.086	0.000		
	CA5	0.828	0.018	46.394	0.000		
	CA6	0.784	0.020	38.867	0.000		
	CA8	0.791	0.024	32.568	0.000		
	<b>EB Consumer Ethnocentrism</b>	CET1	0.803	0.022	36.407		
CET10		0.766	0.026	29.226	0.000		
CET2		0.775	0.023	34.101	0.000		
CET4		0.844	0.018	46.554	0.000		
CET5		0.736	0.034	21.371	0.000		
CET6		0.842	0.018	48.059	0.000		
CET7		0.844	0.016	53.388	0.000		
CET8		0.843	0.017	50.841	0.000		
CET9		0.811	0.024	34.586	0.000		
<b>Consumer Racism</b>		CR11	0.714	0.032	22.678	0.000	0.597
	CR2	0.690	0.040	17.102	0.000		
	CR3	0.819	0.019	43.344	0.000		
	CR4	0.699	0.037	18.678	0.000		
	CR5	0.829	0.018	47.356	0.000		
	CR6	0.812	0.020	39.772	0.000		
	CR7	0.831	0.017	50.314	0.000		
	<b>Product Judgment</b>	PJ1	0.863	0.106	8.183	0.000	
PJ2		0.830	0.095	8.732	0.000		
PJ3		0.765	0.091	8.442	0.000		
PJ4		0.765	0.096	7.975	0.000		
<b>Willingness to Buy</b>	WTB1	0.842	0.018	47.740	0.000	0.734	0.917
	WTB2	0.858	0.016	54.153	0.000		
	WTB3	0.837	0.017	50.340	0.000		
	WTB4	0.890	0.011	80.906	0.000		

Note : CA = Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity, CET = Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, PJ = Product Judgment, WTB = Willingness to Buy, EB = Ethnic-Based

### 5.2.2 Common Method Bias

The data was investigated for potential occurrence of common method bias (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). The common method bias phenomenon usually occurred when the same instruments were used to collect data concurrently on both endogenous and exogenous variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The main reason of performing the common method bias test was to ensure that minimal systematic bias influenced the collected data (Hulland, 1999).

Indeed there are on-going debates on the usage of techniques best to employ in detecting common method bias (Zikmund & Babin, 2010). Podsakoff et al. (2003) offered some very helpful explanation on both the advantages and disadvantages of the techniques mentioned. To examine the probable existence of common method bias in the data collected, Harman's single-factor test was used (Ringle et al., 2005) after establishing and verifying the constructs validity. This test examined the unrotated factor solution so that the total factors accounting for the variance in the variable can be specified. Common method bias exists when one single factor emerges explaining the majority or 50% of the variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The test was done using IBM SPSS Statistics version 19 (SPSS, 2010) by taking similar steps of exploratory factor analysis. All indicators were selected and forced into a single factor with no rotation method selected. The results showed that the single factor explained 45% of the variance. This may be considered high or almost borderline but the result did not reach the rejection point of 50% (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014).

While taking the debates on the effectiveness of the Harman's technique into consideration, Lowry & Gaskin (2014) recommended that another complementary

technique to detect common method bias. The bias can also be detected through Pearson's correlation matrix by examining for any correlation values between the constructs above 0.90 (Podsakoff et al., 2003; MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). Should there be any such high values of above 0.90, there is strong evidence that common method bias exist. Examining Table 5.7 below, showed there were no values exceeding 0.90, thus the existence of common method bias was perhaps low and minimal.

Table 5.7

*Constructs Correlation Matrix*

Constructs	Mean	CA	CET	CR	PJ	WTB
1) EB Consumer Animosity	3.081	<b>1.000</b>				
2) EB Consumer Ethnocentrism	3.534	0.659	<b>1.000</b>			
3) Consumer Racism	3.464	0.784	0.719	<b>1.000</b>		
4) Product Judgment	2.945	0.037	-0.024	0.061	<b>1.000</b>	
5) Willingness to Buy	3.053	0.644	0.734	0.628	0.103	<b>1.000</b>

Note: The mean is based on a 5 point Likert scale. CA = Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity, CET = Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, PJ = Product Judgment, WTB = Willingness to Buy, EB = Ethnic-Based

Table 5.8 below demonstrates the cross loadings of the constructs. All of the indicators associated with or intending to measure a particular construct appear to have greater values than all of the indicators on other constructs; thus exhibiting no discriminant validity problem (Chin, 1998; Grégoire & Fisher, 2006).

Table 5.8

*Cross Loadings of Indicators*

Constructs	CA	CET	CR	PJ	WTB
CA1	<b>0.794</b>	0.451	0.543	0.053	0.516
CA2	<b>0.827</b>	0.477	0.566	0.002	0.525
CA3	<b>0.792</b>	0.514	0.581	-0.033	0.501
CA4	<b>0.802</b>	0.483	0.546	0.008	0.472

CA5	<b>0.828</b>	0.579	0.699	0.025	0.535
CA6	<b>0.784</b>	0.603	0.722	0.086	0.531
CA8	<b>0.791</b>	0.585	0.731	0.058	0.531
CET1	0.499	<b>0.803</b>	0.565	-0.046	0.622
CET10	0.515	<b>0.766</b>	0.538	-0.014	0.532
CET2	0.569	<b>0.775</b>	0.565	-0.025	0.603
CET4	0.629	<b>0.844</b>	0.673	0.038	0.653
CET5	0.444	<b>0.736</b>	0.522	-0.096	0.530
CET6	0.540	<b>0.842</b>	0.592	-0.035	0.595
CET7	0.541	<b>0.844</b>	0.589	-0.016	0.614
CET8	0.549	<b>0.843</b>	0.611	-0.033	0.618
CET9	0.489	<b>0.811</b>	0.560	0.045	0.549
CR11	0.522	0.517	<b>0.714</b>	0.036	0.404
CR2	0.477	0.485	<b>0.690</b>	-0.027	0.410
CR3	0.616	0.615	<b>0.819</b>	0.059	0.522
CR4	0.460	0.489	<b>0.699</b>	0.006	0.418
CR5	0.745	0.629	<b>0.829</b>	0.042	0.589
CR6	0.692	0.542	<b>0.812</b>	0.107	0.484
CR7	0.668	0.591	<b>0.831</b>	0.085	0.531
PJ1	0.074	0.045	0.114	<b>0.863</b>	0.133
PJ2	0.043	-0.070	0.018	<b>0.830</b>	0.047
PJ3	0.001	-0.060	-0.006	<b>0.765</b>	0.051
PJ4	-0.033	-0.035	0.027	<b>0.765</b>	0.072
WTB1	0.522	0.589	0.523	0.066	<b>0.842</b>
WTB2	0.561	0.604	0.509	0.118	<b>0.858</b>
WTB3	0.526	0.629	0.554	0.093	<b>0.837</b>
WTB4	0.594	0.686	0.565	0.075	<b>0.890</b>

Note : CA = Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity, CET = Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, PJ = Product Judgment, WTB = Willingness to Buy

In Table 5.9 below, is another conservative approach in assessing discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014) where the square root of the AVE score of each latent constructs must be higher than the construct's highest squared correlation with any other latent constructs. Looking at the results in Table 5.9, this satisfied the Fornell & Larcker (1981) criterion in assessing discriminant validity.



Table 5.9

*Discriminant Analysis Results*

Constructs	CA	CET	CR	PJ	WTB
1) EB Consumer Animosity	<b>0.803</b>				
2) EB Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.659	<b>0.808</b>			
3) Consumer Racism	0.784	0.719	<b>0.773</b>		
4) Product Judgment	0.037	-0.024	0.061	<b>0.807</b>	
5) Willingness to Buy	0.644	0.734	0.628	0.103	<b>0.857</b>

Note : CA = Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity, CET = Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, PJ = Product Judgment, WTB = Willingness to Buy, EB = Ethnic-Based

Based on the analyses above; it is shown that the constructs were distinctively different from each other. After all of the requirements of measurement model were satisfied; only then the structural model can be evaluated and assessed.

### 5.3 Assessment of the Structural Model

#### 5.3.1 Collinearity Assessment

Following similar step of formative measurement models, it is recommended that the reflective measurement model needs to be assessed for collinearity issues (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). To assess collinearity, the tolerance level needs to be computed. Tolerance level explains the “the amount of variance of one formative [or in this case a reflective] indicator not explained by the other indicators” (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). The indication of collinearity presence is when the tolerance level is below 0.20.

Another way of measuring collinearity is through the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). VIF is the reciprocal of the tolerance value, where the square root of the VIF represents the degree of the standard error increased due to the presence of

collinearity (Hair et al., 2014). VIF value of 5 or above indicates possible collinearity issue (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). Should this occur, it is advised to have one of the indicator(s) removed while sufficiently retaining other indicators of the construct to maintain theoretical relevance.

The calculation to detect potential collinearity is not provided in the Smart-PLS software but instead it can be calculated using SPSS. Referring to Table 5.10 below, all of the items of each constructs scored outside the indicated ranges which implied there was no collinearity issue.

Table 5.10

*Collinearity Assessment*

Constructs	First Set		Second Set	
	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
1) EB Consumer Animosity	.366	2.730	.366	2.730
2) EB Consumer Ethnocentrism	.460	2.176	.455	2.197
3) Consumer Racism	.313	3.199	.310	3.225
4) Product Judgment			.987	1.013

Note : CA = Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity, CET = Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, PJ = Product Judgment, WTB = Willingness to Buy, EB = Ethnic-Based

### 5.3.2 Structural Model Path Coefficient

The path coefficient represents the hypothesized relationships among the constructs of which when the values are closer to zero signify weaker relationships. To determine whether the coefficients are significant or otherwise depends on the standard error obtainable through the bootstrapping procedure. The computing of standard error leads to the empirical t-values, of which will be used for comparison to the critical value. This will determine the significance of the coefficient. Path coefficients that are found to be insignificant, or given results that are conflicting or

contrary to the hypotheses' initial direction, will result to the rejection of the hypotheses made (Hair et al., 2014, 2011). The results of the hypotheses testing are as follows:

- H<sub>1a</sub> predicted that consumer racism negatively predicts consumers' product judgment. Based on the results, consumer racism have positive relationship with product judgment (path = 0.158,  $t = 1.699$ ) instead of the hypothesized negative relationship. Thus H<sub>1a</sub> was not supported and had to be rejected.
- H<sub>1b</sub> postulated that consumer racism negatively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. The results showed that there was no relationship between the two constructs (path = 0.024,  $t = 0.589$ ). H<sub>1b</sub> was not supported and had to be rejected.
- H<sub>2a</sub> predicted that consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts consumers' product judgment. The result indicated that there was a negative relationship between the constructs as hypothesized (path = - 0.142,  $t = 1.675$ ,  $p > 0.10$ ). H<sub>2a</sub> was supported.
- H<sub>2b</sub> hypothesized that consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. However, the result indicated that the relationship between the constructs was positive and was not as predicted (path = 0.547,  $t = 11.830$ ,  $p < 0.000$ ). H<sub>2b</sub> was not supported and had to be rejected.
- H<sub>3a</sub> predicted that consumer animosity negatively predicts consumers' product judgment. The result indicated that there was no relationship between the two constructs (path = 0.006,  $t = 0.085$ ). H<sub>3a</sub> was not supported and had to be rejected.

- H<sub>3b</sub> predicted that consumer animosity negatively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. The result indicated that there was positive relationship between the constructs (path = 0.261,  $t = 4.312$ ) instead of the negative relationship as predicted. H<sub>3b</sub> was not supported and had to be rejected.
- Finally, H<sub>4</sub> predicted that consumers' product judgment positively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. Based on the results, the direction as depicted in the path coefficient score correspond as predicted in the hypothesis (path = 0.105,  $t = 2.972$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). H<sub>4</sub> was supported and accepted.

The result of the hypotheses testing is summarized in Table 5.11 below, while Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2 are the Algorithm results and Bootstrapping results, respectively:

Table 5.11  
*Hypotheses Testing*

No	Hypotheses	Path Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Values	P-Values	Decisions
<b>H1a</b>	Consumer racism negatively predicts product judgment.	0.158	0.093	1.699	0.045	Not supported
<b>H1b</b>	Consumer racism negatively predicts willingness to buy	0.024	0.040	0.589	0.278	Not supported
<b>H2a</b>	EB Consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts product judgment	-0.142*	0.085	1.675	0.047	Supported
<b>H2b</b>	EB Consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts willingness to buy	0.547	0.046	11.830	0.000	Not supported
<b>H3a</b>	EB Consumer animosity negatively predicts product judgment	0.006	0.069	0.085	0.466	Not supported
<b>H3b</b>	EB Consumer animosity negatively predicts willingness to buy	0.261	0.061	4.312	0.000	Not supported
<b>H4</b>	Product judgment positively predicts willingness to buy.	0.105***	0.035	2.972	0.002	Supported

\*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$  Note: EB = Ethnic-Based

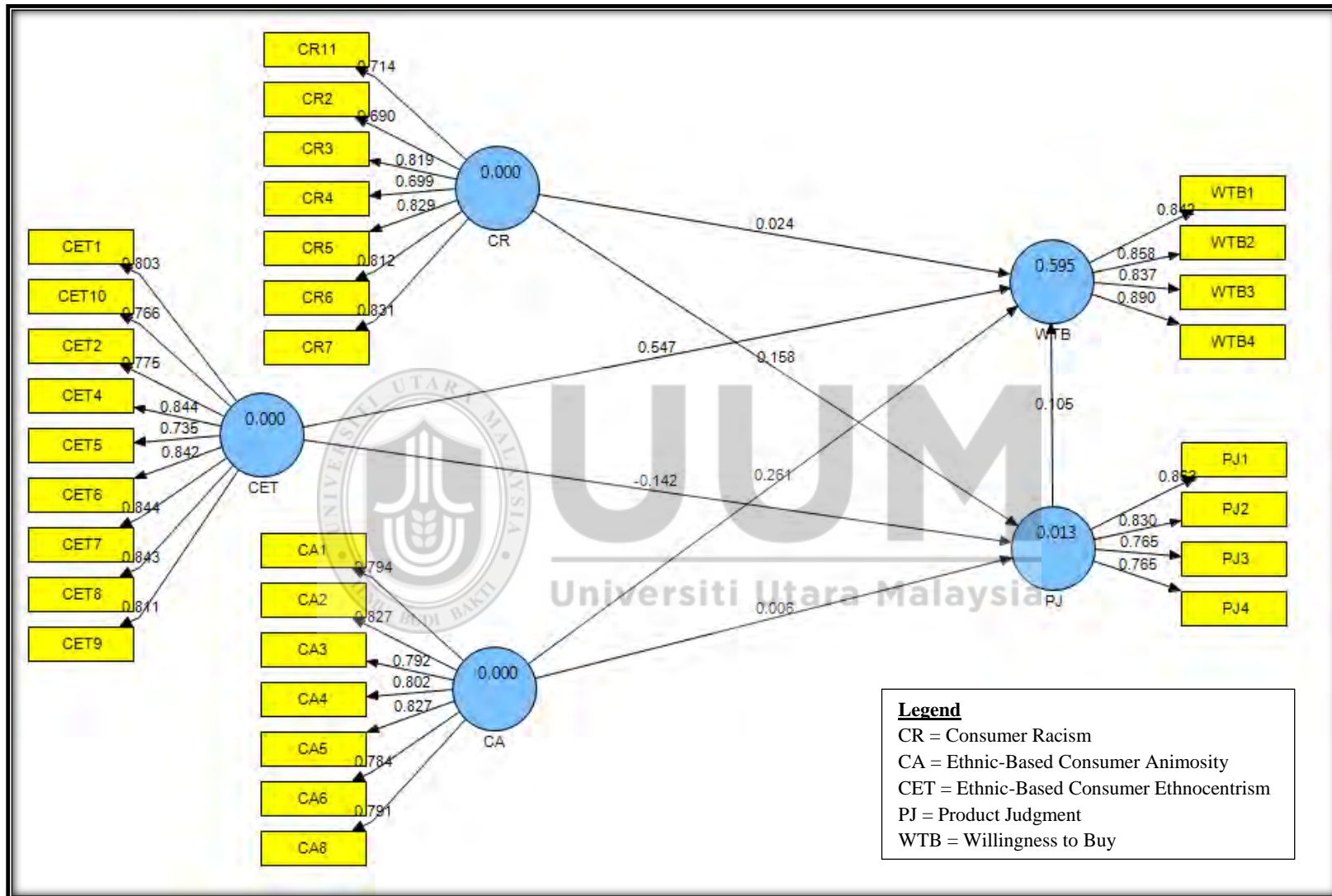


Figure 5.1: Algorithm results (Main)

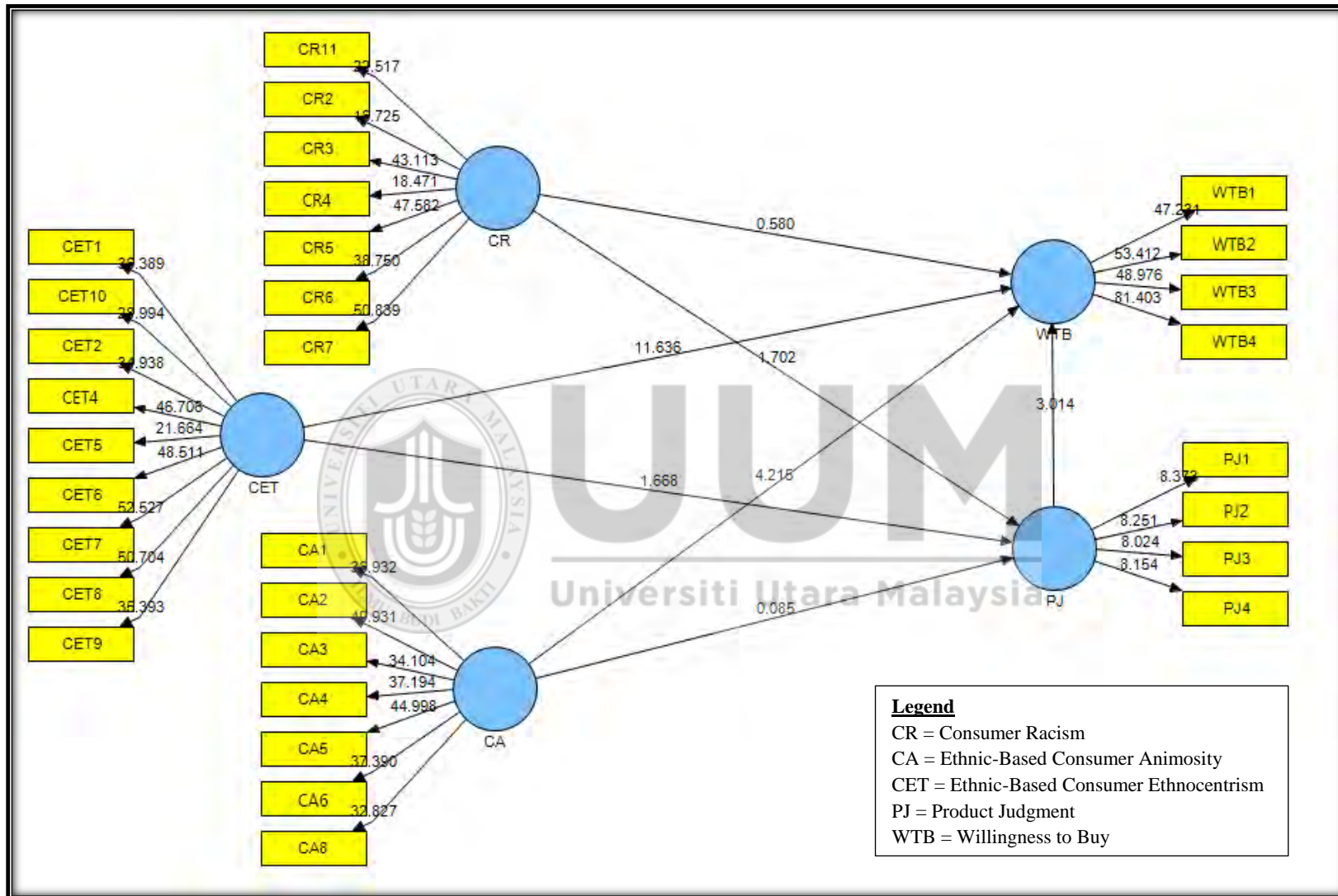


Figure 5.2 : Bootstrapping results (Main)

### 5.3.3 Coefficient of Determination ( $R^2$ )

The most common method used to measure the structural model's predictive accuracy is the coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ), which “represents the amount of explained variance of the endogenous constructs in the structural model” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 198). Following the rule of thumb (Bagozzi et al., 1991), the endogenous latent variables can be categorized as substantial, moderate and weak with  $R^2$  values of 0.75, 0.50 and 0.25, respectively. Based on Table 5.12 below, the product judgment (0.013) construct can be considered as weak. The  $R^2$  for willingness to buy (0.595) construct falls between moderate and substantial. Although the scores for both constructs may seem small, but for certain research area such as consumer behavior,  $R^2$  score of 0.20 can be considered as high (Hair et al., 2014). With an  $R^2$  of 0.595, all of the constructs explained 59.5% of ethnic Malay consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products. On the other hand, with  $R^2$  of 0.013, the measures only explained 1.3% of ethnic Malay consumers' judgment of Chinese products.

Table 5.12

*Results of  $R^2$  and  $Q^2$*

Constructs	$R^2$ Value	$Q^2$ Value
a) Product Judgment	0.013	0.009
b) Willingness to Buy	0.595	0.434

### 5.3.4 Effect Size ( $f^2$ )

To analyze the impact of a particular construct have towards a selected endogenous construct, the  $f^2$  effect size analysis can be used (Cohen, 1988). This analysis analyzes the level of contribution of a particular exogenous construct on the  $R^2$  value of the selected endogenous construct (Hair et al., 2014). The interpretation of

$f^2$  effect on the  $R^2$  can be interpreted as small, medium or large effect sizes, with values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35, respectively. Based on Table 5.13 below, all of the constructs have small  $f^2$  effect sizes (i.e. all values are below 0.15) on both endogenous constructs except for consumer ethnocentrism to willingness to buy with  $f^2$  value of 0.335. This indicates that the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on willingness to buy is almost large.

Table 5.13

*Results on Effect Sizes  $f^2$  and  $q^2$*

Constructs	Product Judgment			Willingness to Buy		
	Path Coefficient	$f^2$ Effect Size	$q^2$ Effect Size	Path Coefficient	$f^2$ Effect Size	$q^2$ Effect Size
1) EB Consumer Animosity	0.006	0.000	0.001	0.261	0.061	0.032
2) Consumer Racism	0.158	0.005	0.005	0.024	0.002	0.001
3) EB Consumer Ethnocentrism	-0.142	0.005	0.011	0.547	0.335	0.176
4) Product Judgment				0.105	0.027	0.014

Note: EB = Ethnic-Based

Further, the model's predictive relevance can be examined through Stone-Geisser's  $Q^2$  values (Stone, 1974; Geisser, 1974; Chin, 1998; Jorg Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2014). To obtain the  $Q^2$  values, the blindfolding procedure can be utilized to obtain cross-validated redundancy measures for each endogenous construct.  $Q^2$  values that are bigger than 0 indicates that the particular exogenous construct have predictive relevance on the endogenous construct in question (Hair et al., 2014). Based on the Table 5.13 above, all of the exogenous constructs have predictive relevance on the endogenous constructs in question.

In Table 5.13 above, it is shown that the exogenous constructs do have predictive relevance on both endogenous constructs. To examine the predictive relevance effect size ( $q^2$ ), values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 indicates small, medium or large



predictive relevance, respectively. In Table 5.13, it is shown that consumer ethnocentrism have medium predictive relevance on willingness to buy ( $q^2 = 0.176$ ), while consumer animosity have small predictive relevance on willingness to buy ( $q^2 = 0.032$ ). All other remaining  $q^2$  values were below the score of 0.

#### **5.4 Heterogeneity Assessment**

According to Hair et al., (2014), the validity of PLS-SEM results can be distorted, if the heterogeneity of the observations was not evaluated. Heterogeneity explains the existence of two (or more) subpopulations within a sample which may affect the relationships between the constructs. Since heterogeneity is “often present in empirical researches, researchers should always consider potential sources of heterogeneity” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 184). In anticipating parameter differences between gender, the type of heterogeneity that needs to be investigated is known as observed heterogeneity “because the researcher has information that suggests possible differences in the known subgroups that need to be tested” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 184). As recommended by Hair et al. (2014), to address observed heterogeneity, researchers can perform PLS Multigroup Analysis (PLS MGA).

PLS MGA is a relatively new research area which can be used to find out whether there are significant differences between the parameters of the groups. Usually the parameters used for comparison is the path coefficient in the structural model but indicators’ loadings can also be used (Hair et al., 2014).

As there are many on-going researches on PLS MGA, several approaches are developed (Hair et al., 2014); the parametric and non-parametric approaches

(Henseler, 2012). The parametric approach assumes the normal distribution of the samples which in fact is inconsistent with the distribution-free character of PLS SEM (Hair et al., 2014). However, this study applied the widely used and recommended (Hair et al., 2014) approach; the parametric approach, mainly because there was yet a statistical software which can perform non-parametric calculations (Hair et al., 2014).

There were three conditions which needed to be specified (Hair et al., 2014; Keil et al., 2000) ;

- a) The number of observations in the examined groups must be known;
- b) The path coefficients of the examined groups must be known and separately estimated between the groups; and
- c) The standard errors of the estimated parameters of the examined groups must be determined and separately estimated between the groups.

As there was a maximum number of three arrows directed at the endogenous variable, according to the 10 times rule the minimum sample required is 30 ( $10 \times 3 = 30$ ) for each group. A more rigorous requirement (Cohen, 1992b; Hair et al., 2014) requires 59 observations per group to detect  $R^2$  value of 0.25 with significance level and power level of 5% and 80%, respectively. As there were 141 observations for Group 1 (males) and 284 observations for Group 2 (females), the samples were quite sufficient for heterogeneity analysis focusing on gender differences can be performed. Further, it was also sufficient to examine the rural/urban differences as there were 252 observations representing urban dwellers and 174 observations for rural folks.

Before performing the PLS-MGA assessment, researchers needed to ensure that all prior statistical requirements, reliability and validity were met with the same exact steps undertaken analogous to previous PLS SEM assessment.

## 5.5 PLS-MGA for Rural Respondents

### 5.5.1 Measurement Validity for Rural Respondents

Table 5.14 below exhibits all of the constructs' score on composite reliability for rural respondents were above the recommended value of 0.700 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) and ranged between 0.889 and 0.951.

All of the constructs' indicators ranged from 0.714 to 0.883. This fulfilled the minimum requirements of which the loadings should be at least valued at 0.700 (Hulland, 1999). For convergent validity, all of the constructs scored above the AVE minimum value of 0.500 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), which ranged from 0.658 and 0.726.

Table 5.14 :

*Loadings Significance, Composite Reliability and AVE (Rural)*

Constructs	Items	Loadings	Std Error	T-Values	P-Values	AVE	CR
<b>EB Consumer Animosity</b>	CA1	0.810	0.038	21.301	0.000	0.660	0.906
	CA2	0.866	0.024	36.204	0.000		
	CA4	0.800	0.033	24.214	0.000		
	CA5	0.798	0.034	23.733	0.000		
	CA8	0.785	0.035	22.332	0.000		
<b>EB Consumer Ethnocentrism</b>	CET1	0.839	0.028	29.733	0.000	0.681	0.951
	CET10	0.795	0.035	22.899	0.000		
	CET2	0.805	0.028	28.875	0.000		
	CET4	0.844	0.025	33.498	0.000		
	CET5	0.777	0.042	18.719	0.000		
	CET6	0.845	0.027	31.757	0.000		
	CET7	0.848	0.023	37.338	0.000		
	CET8	0.874	0.019	45.968	0.000		

	CET9	0.798	0.042	19.222	0.000		
<b>Consumer Racism</b>	CR11	0.718	0.050	14.458	0.000	0.658	0.906
	CR3	0.830	0.030	27.754	0.000		
	CR5	0.853	0.024	34.890	0.000		
	CR6	0.791	0.035	22.770	0.000		
<b>Product Judgment</b>	CR7	0.857	0.023	37.277	0.000		
	PJ1	0.873	0.129	6.757	0.000	0.667	0.889
	PJ2	0.855	0.112	7.671	0.000		
	PJ3	0.817	0.110	7.446	0.000		
<b>Willingness to Buy</b>	PJ4	0.714	0.121	5.908	0.000		
	WTB1	0.835	0.029	28.428	0.000	0.726	0.914
	WTB2	0.869	0.024	36.607	0.000		
	WTB3	0.819	0.028	29.000	0.000		
	WTB4	0.883	0.018	48.852	0.000		

Note: EB = Ethnic-Based

Table 5.15 below exhibits the cross loadings between the constructs. Based on the results, discriminant validity was not an issue as the all of the indicators intending to measure a specific construct indicated to have larger value than all of the indicators on other constructs (Chin, 1998; Grégoire & Fisher, 2006).

Table 5.15

*Cross Loadings of Indicators (Rural)*

Constructs	CA	CET	CR	PJ	WTB
CA1	<b>0.810</b>	0.415	0.516	-0.168	0.534
CA2	<b>0.866</b>	0.437	0.609	-0.071	0.535
CA4	<b>0.800</b>	0.425	0.559	-0.038	0.496
CA5	<b>0.798</b>	0.522	0.658	-0.046	0.540
CA8	<b>0.785</b>	0.590	0.731	0.004	0.587
CET1	0.552	<b>0.839</b>	0.628	-0.004	0.675
CET10	0.434	<b>0.795</b>	0.560	-0.018	0.620
CET2	0.559	<b>0.805</b>	0.641	-0.051	0.627
CET4	0.554	<b>0.844</b>	0.679	-0.092	0.680
CET5	0.424	<b>0.777</b>	0.579	0.079	0.577
CET6	0.496	<b>0.845</b>	0.600	0.007	0.631
CET7	0.536	<b>0.848</b>	0.626	0.012	0.635
CET8	0.461	<b>0.874</b>	0.604	-0.024	0.684
CET9	0.366	<b>0.798</b>	0.494	-0.074	0.594
CR11	0.534	0.508	<b>0.718</b>	-0.018	0.475
CR3	0.566	0.652	<b>0.830</b>	-0.035	0.610

<b>CR5</b>	0.716	0.624	<b>0.853</b>	0.036	0.637
<b>CR6</b>	0.645	0.526	<b>0.791</b>	-0.066	0.506
<b>CR7</b>	0.619	0.634	<b>0.857</b>	-0.053	0.601
<b>PJ1</b>	-0.070	-0.093	-0.080	<b>0.873</b>	-0.222
<b>PJ2</b>	-0.071	0.023	0.021	<b>0.855</b>	-0.123
<b>PJ3</b>	-0.086	0.013	-0.019	<b>0.817</b>	-0.111
<b>PJ4</b>	0.011	0.041	0.017	<b>0.714</b>	-0.073
<b>WTB1</b>	0.601	0.621	0.589	-0.106	<b>0.835</b>
<b>WTB2</b>	0.591	0.657	0.569	-0.150	<b>0.869</b>
<b>WTB3</b>	0.474	0.622	0.591	-0.159	<b>0.819</b>
<b>WTB4</b>	0.596	0.724	0.643	-0.194	<b>0.883</b>

Note : CA = Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity, CET = Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, PJ = Product Judgment, WTB = Willingness to Buy

The Table 5.16 below displays the more conservative approach compared to cross loading assessment above, in assessing discriminant validity by examining the square root of the AVE score of each latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014). These values in bold were found to be higher than the construct's highest squared correlation with any other latent constructs. This satisfied the Fornell & Larcker (1981) criterion in assessing discriminant validity.

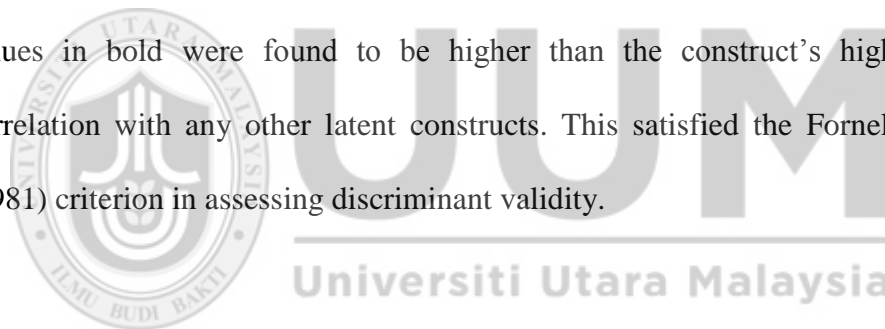


Table 5.16

*Discriminant Analysis (Rural)*

Constructs	CA	CET	CR	PJ	WTB
<b>1) EB Consumer Animosity</b>	<b>0.812</b>				
<b>2) EB Consumer Ethnocentrism</b>	0.592	<b>0.825</b>			
<b>3) Consumer Racism</b>	0.760	0.730	<b>0.811</b>		
<b>4) Product Judgment</b>	-0.078	-0.024	-0.031	<b>0.817</b>	
<b>5) Willingness to Buy</b>	0.665	0.772	0.703	-0.180	<b>0.852</b>

Note : CA = Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity, CET = Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, PJ = Product Judgment, WTB = Willingness to Buy, EB = Ethnic-Based

All validity and reliability requirements were fulfilled for the rural respondents group. Based on all of the above encouraging results on the measurement model, further assessment on the structural model can now be performed.

### 5.5.2 Assessment of the Structural Model for Rural Respondents

Based on the results in Table 5.17, all of the hypotheses were rejected due to insufficient evidence and/or directional inaccuracy as below:

- $H_{1a}$  (Ru) predicted that consumer racism negatively predicts consumers' product judgment. The results showed insufficient evidence to support the hypothesis of the negative relationship between consumer racism and product judgment (path = 0.061,  $t = 0.590$ ).  $H_{1a}$  (Ru) was not supported and had to be rejected.
- $H_{1b}$  (Ru) postulated that consumer racism negatively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. The results showed no relationship between consumer racism and willingness to buy (path = 0.122,  $t = 1.569$ ).  $H_{1b}$  (Ru) was not supported and had to be rejected.
- $H_{2a}$  (Ru) predicted that consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts consumers' product judgment. The result indicated that there was insufficient evidence to support the hypothesis between the constructs (path = 0.008,  $t = 0.087$ ).  $H_{2a}$  (Ru) was not supported and had to be rejected.
- $H_{2b}$  (Ru) predicted that consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. Although the t-values showed that the relationship is quite substantial (path = 0.535,  $t = 7.198$ ) however the relationship between the constructs was not as hypothesized.  $H_{2b}$  (Ru) was not supported and had to be rejected.
- $H_{3a}$  (Ru) posited that consumer animosity negatively predicts consumers' product judgment. The result showed that the relationship lacked evidence to

support (path = -0.129,  $t = 1.153$ ). H<sub>3a</sub> (Ru) was not supported and had to be rejected.

- H<sub>3b</sub> (Ru) predicted that consumer animosity negatively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. The result indicated that there was positive relationship between the constructs (path = 0.245,  $t = 3.031$ ). Although the t-values was substantial but the relationship was not as hypothesized, thus H<sub>3b</sub> (Ru) had to be rejected.
- Finally, H<sub>4</sub> (Ru) predicted that consumers' product judgment positively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. Based on the results, the direction as depicted in the path coefficient score did not correspond as predicted in the hypothesis (path = -0.144,  $t = 3.056$ ). H<sub>4</sub> (Ru) was not supported and had to be rejected.

Table 5.17

*Hypotheses Testing for Rural Respondents*

No	Hypotheses	Path Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Values	P-Values	Decisions
<b>H1a (Ru)</b>	Consumer racism negatively predicts product judgment.	0.061	0.103	0.590	0.278	Not supported
<b>H1b (Ru)</b>	Consumer racism negatively predicts willingness to buy	0.122	0.078	1.569	0.059	Not supported
<b>H2a (Ru)</b>	EB Consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts product judgment	0.008	0.097	0.087	0.465	Not supported
<b>H2b (Ru)</b>	EB Consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts willingness to buy	0.535	0.074	7.198	0.000	Not supported
<b>H3a (Ru)</b>	EB Consumer animosity negatively predicts product judgment	-0.129	0.112	1.153	0.125	Not supported
<b>H3b (Ru)</b>	EB Consumer animosity negatively predicts willingness to buy	0.245	0.081	3.031	0.001	Not supported
<b>H4 (Ru)</b>	Product judgment positively predict willingness to buy.	-0.144	0.047	3.056	0.001	Not supported

\*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$  Note: EB = Ethnic-Based

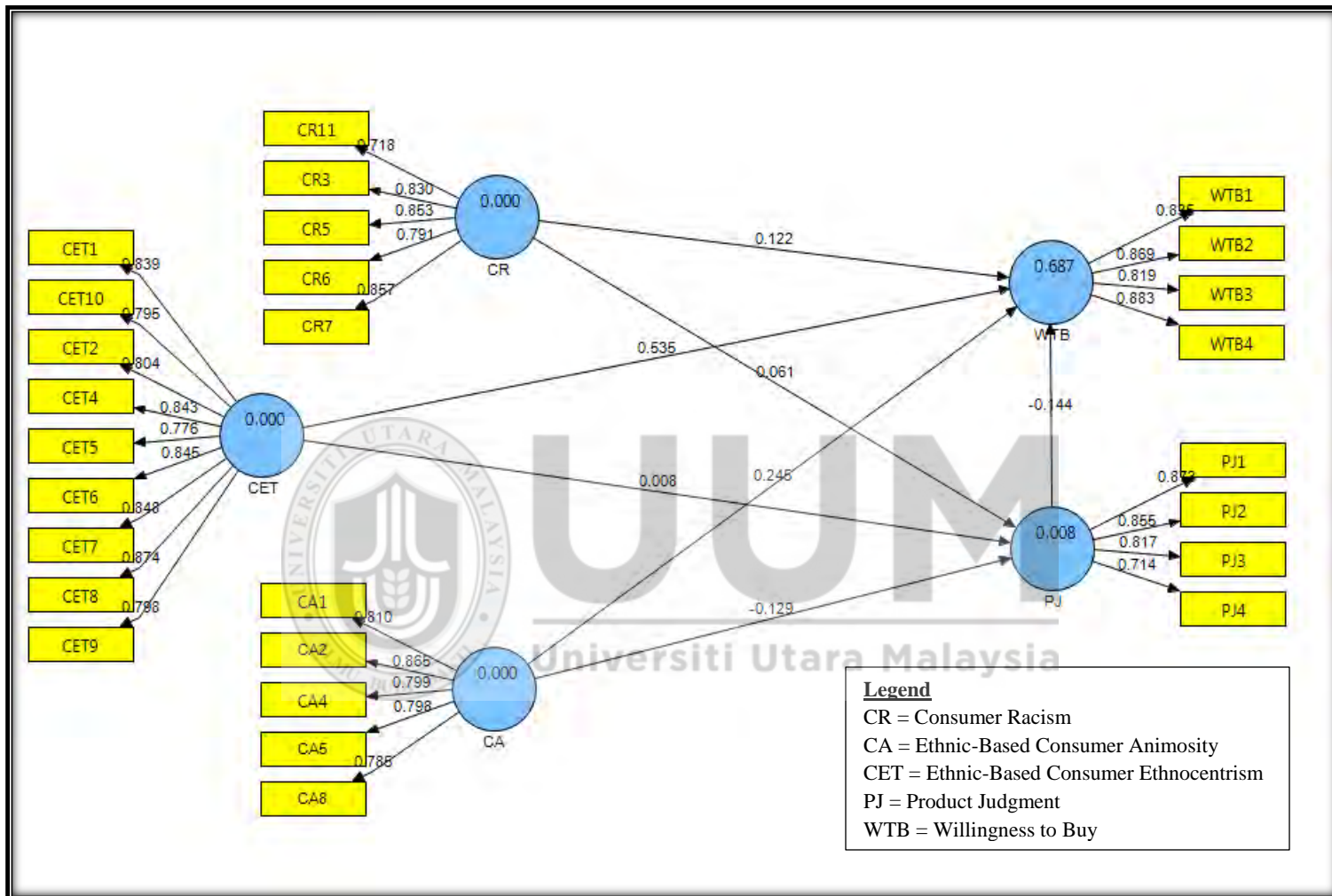


Figure 5.3: Algorithm results (Rural)



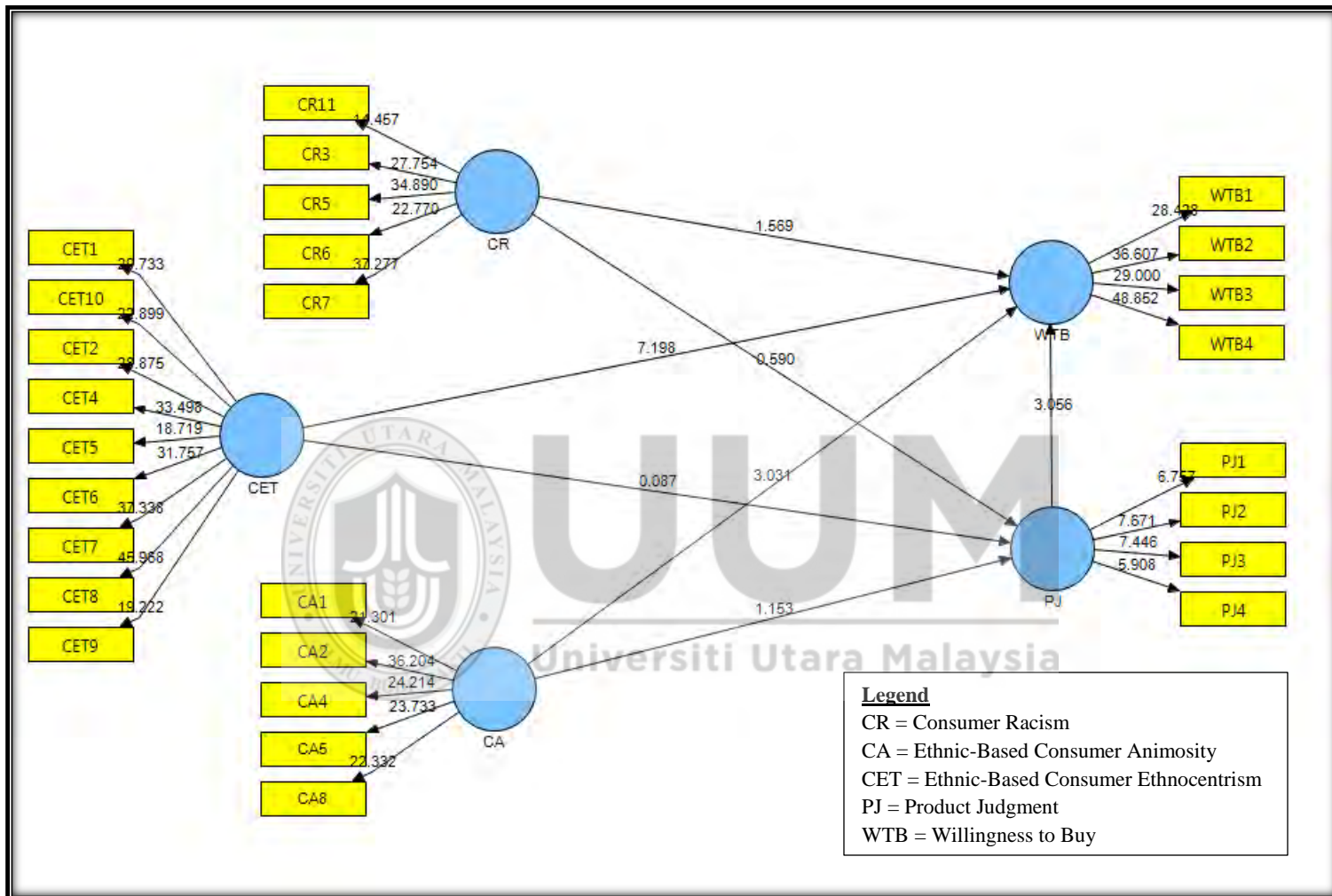


Figure 5.4: Bootstrapping results (Rural)

## 5.6 PLS-MGA for Urban Respondents

### 5.6.1 Measurement Validity for Urban Respondents

Table 5.18 below shows all of the constructs' score on composite reliability for urban respondents. All of the constructs produced scores for composite reliability above the recommended value of 0.700 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). All of the constructs' values for composite reliability ranged between 0.876 and 0.939.

In Table 5.18, the constructs' indicators ranged from 0.704 to 0.892, achieving the least requirements of which the loadings should be at least valued at 0.700 (Hulland, 1999). For convergent validity, all of the constructs scored above the AVE minimum value of 0.500 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), which ranged from 0.607 and 0.737.

Table 5.18  
*Loadings Significance, Composite Reliability and AVE (Urban)*

Constructs	Items	Loadings	Std Error	T-Values	P-Values	AVE	CR
<b>EB Consumer Animosity</b>	CA1	0.795	0.025	32.501	0.000	0.664	0.932
	CA2	0.827	0.020	40.677	0.000		
	CA3	0.801	0.027	30.110	0.000		
	CA4	0.815	0.026	31.925	0.000		
	CA5	0.846	0.021	40.545	0.000		
	CA6	0.815	0.025	32.410	0.000		
	CA8	0.801	0.033	24.110	0.000		
	<b>EB Consumer Ethnocentrism</b>	CET1	0.777	0.033	23.836		
CET10		0.746	0.038	19.826	0.000		
CET2		0.750	0.034	21.889	0.000		
CET4		0.845	0.025	33.778	0.000		
CET5		0.707	0.051	13.765	0.000		
CET6		0.843	0.023	37.074	0.000		
CET7		0.837	0.023	36.827	0.000		
CET8		0.817	0.026	31.333	0.000		
CET9		0.824	0.027	30.749	0.000		

<b>Consumer Racism</b>	CR11	0.729	0.039	18.660	0.000	0.607	0.915
	CR2	0.704	0.054	13.166	0.000		
	CR3	0.802	0.028	28.748	0.000		
	CR4	0.721	0.052	13.823	0.000		
	CR5	0.823	0.023	35.890	0.000		
	CR6	0.830	0.025	33.178	0.000		
	CR7	0.832	0.022	37.361	0.000		
<b>Product Judgment</b>	PJ1	0.825	0.077	10.767	0.000	0.639	0.876
	PJ2	0.827	0.075	10.987	0.000		
	PJ3	0.761	0.080	9.569	0.000		
	PJ4	0.781	0.092	8.452	0.000		
<b>Willingness to Buy</b>	WTB1	0.846	0.022	38.420	0.000	0.737	0.918
	WTB2	0.844	0.022	37.742	0.000		
	WTB3	0.851	0.021	39.850	0.000		
	WTB4	0.892	0.014	62.703	0.000		

Note: EB = Ethnic-Based

Table 5.19 below is the constructs' indicators cross loading for urban respondents. Examining the results, discriminant validity was not an issue as all of the indicators intending to measure a specific construct have larger value than all of the values measuring other constructs (Chin, 1998; Grégoire & Fisher, 2006).

Table 5.19

*Cross Loadings of Indicators (Urban)*

<b>Constructs</b>	<b>CA</b>	<b>CET</b>	<b>CR</b>	<b>PJ</b>	<b>WTB</b>
<b>CA1</b>	<b>0.795</b>	0.459	0.562	0.010	0.482
<b>CA2</b>	<b>0.827</b>	0.493	0.549	0.032	0.497
<b>CA3</b>	<b>0.801</b>	0.499	0.554	0.051	0.467
<b>CA4</b>	<b>0.815</b>	0.511	0.551	0.004	0.447
<b>CA5</b>	<b>0.846</b>	0.606	0.727	-0.023	0.519
<b>CA6</b>	<b>0.815</b>	0.594	0.760	-0.069	0.490
<b>CA8</b>	<b>0.801</b>	0.579	0.733	-0.103	0.493
<b>CET1</b>	0.432	<b>0.777</b>	0.507	0.073	0.582
<b>CET10</b>	0.520	<b>0.746</b>	0.511	0.034	0.471
<b>CET2</b>	0.542	<b>0.750</b>	0.517	0.069	0.569

<b>CET4</b>	0.649	<b>0.845</b>	0.659	-0.004	0.633
<b>CET5</b>	0.415	<b>0.707</b>	0.469	0.100	0.496
<b>CET6</b>	0.532	<b>0.843</b>	0.576	0.050	0.572
<b>CET7</b>	0.502	<b>0.837</b>	0.553	0.008	0.591
<b>CET8</b>	0.561	<b>0.817</b>	0.601	0.067	0.560
<b>CET9</b>	0.540	<b>0.824</b>	0.585	-0.017	0.524
<b>CR11</b>	0.519	0.524	<b>0.729</b>	-0.045	0.357
<b>CR2</b>	0.478	0.484	<b>0.704</b>	0.032	0.385
<b>CR3</b>	0.607	0.584	<b>0.802</b>	-0.075	0.453
<b>CR4</b>	0.506	0.484	<b>0.721</b>	0.010	0.398
<b>CR5</b>	0.735	0.623	<b>0.823</b>	-0.122	0.542
<b>CR6</b>	0.687	0.539	<b>0.830</b>	-0.163	0.448
<b>CR7</b>	0.666	0.552	<b>0.832</b>	-0.115	0.470
<b>PJ1</b>	-0.075	-0.010	-0.143	<b>0.825</b>	-0.067
<b>PJ2</b>	-0.038	0.093	-0.058	<b>0.827</b>	-0.007
<b>PJ3</b>	0.042	0.086	-0.003	<b>0.761</b>	-0.018
<b>PJ4</b>	0.037	0.020	-0.074	<b>0.781</b>	-0.086
<b>WTB1</b>	0.451	0.559	0.474	-0.052	<b>0.846</b>
<b>WTB2</b>	0.510	0.561	0.449	-0.112	<b>0.844</b>
<b>WTB3</b>	0.526	0.632	0.518	-0.047	<b>0.851</b>
<b>WTB4</b>	0.554	0.651	0.503	0.001	<b>0.892</b>

Note : CA = Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity, CET = Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, PJ = Product Judgment, WTB = Willingness to Buy

The Table 5.20 below presents the second approach to assess discriminant validity. The examination of the square root of the AVE score of each latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014) in the table appeared to be higher than the construct's highest squared correlation with any other latent constructs as according to the criterion by Fornell & Larcker (1981).

Table 5.20

*Discriminant Analysis (Urban)*

Constructs	CA	CET	CR	PJ	WTB
1) EB Consumer Animosity	<b>0.815</b>				
2) EB Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.658	<b>0.795</b>			
3) Consumer Racism	0.781	0.698	<b>0.779</b>		
4) Product Judgment	-0.018	0.052	-0.097	<b>0.799</b>	
5) Willingness to Buy	0.596	0.702	0.567	-0.059	<b>0.858</b>

Note : CA = Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity, CET = Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, PJ = Product Judgment, WTB = Willingness to Buy, EB = Ethnic-Based

All validity and reliability requirements were fulfilled for both groups. Based on all of the above encouraging results on the measurement model, further assessment on the structural model can be performed.

### 5.6.2 Assessment of the Structural Model for Urban Respondents

Based on the results in Table 5.21, there was only one accepted hypothesis while others have insufficient evidence.

- $H_{1a(u)}$  predicted that consumer racism negatively predicts consumers' product judgment. The results showed that there was sufficient evidence to support that the relationship between consumer racism and product judgment (path = -0.313,  $t = 2.438$ ).  $H_{1a(u)}$  was supported.
- $H_{1b(u)}$  postulated that consumer racism negatively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. The results showed that there was no relationship between

consumer racism and willingness to buy (path = 0.025,  $t = 0.454$ ), thus  $H_{1b(u)}$  was not supported.

- $H_{2a(u)}$  predicted that consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts consumers' product judgment. The result indicated that there was positive relationship between the constructs (path = 0.215,  $t = 2.158$ ). This hypothesis had to be rejected since the direction was not as hypothesized.  $H_{2a(u)}$  was not supported.
- $H_{2b(u)}$  predicted that consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. The result indicated that there was a positive relationship between the constructs (path = 0.563,  $t = 9.635$ ). This hypothesis had to be rejected as the direction was not as hypothesized.  $H_{2b(u)}$  was not supported.
- $H_{3a(u)}$  posited that consumer animosity negatively predicts consumers' product judgment. The result showed that there was no relationship between the constructs (path = 0.085,  $t = 0.904$ ), hence  $H_{3a(u)}$  was not supported.
- $H_{3b(u)}$  predicted that consumer animosity negatively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. The result showed that there was a positive relationship between the constructs and not as predicted (path = 0.243,  $t = 2.828$ ).  $H_{3b(u)}$  was not supported.
- Finally,  $H_{4(u)}$  predicted that consumers' product judgment positively predicts consumers' willingness to buy. The result indicated that there was a negative relationship between the constructs and not as predicted (path = -0.087,  $t = 1.815$ ).  $H_{4(u)}$  was not supported.

Table 5.21

*Hypotheses Testing for Urban Respondents*

No	Hypotheses	Path Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Values	P-Values	Decisions
<b>H1a(u)</b>	Consumer racism negatively predicts product judgment.	-0.313***	0.128	2.438	0.008	Supported
<b>H1b(u)</b>	Consumer racism negatively predicts willingness to buy	-0.025	0.055	0.454	0.325	Not supported
<b>H2a(u)</b>	EB Consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts product judgment	0.215	0.100	2.158	0.016	Not supported
<b>H2b(u)</b>	EB Consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts willingness to buy	0.564	0.059	9.635	0.000	Not supported
<b>H3a(u)</b>	EB Consumer animosity negatively predicts product judgment	0.085	0.094	0.904	0.183	Not supported
<b>H3b(u)</b>	EB Consumer animosity negatively predicts willingness to buy	0.243	0.086	2.828	0.002	Not supported
<b>H4(u)</b>	Product judgment will positively predict willingness to buy.	-0.087	0.048	1.815	0.035	Not supported

\*\*\* p<0.01, \*\*p<0.05, \*p<0.1

Note: EB = Ethnic-Based

Universiti Utara Malaysia

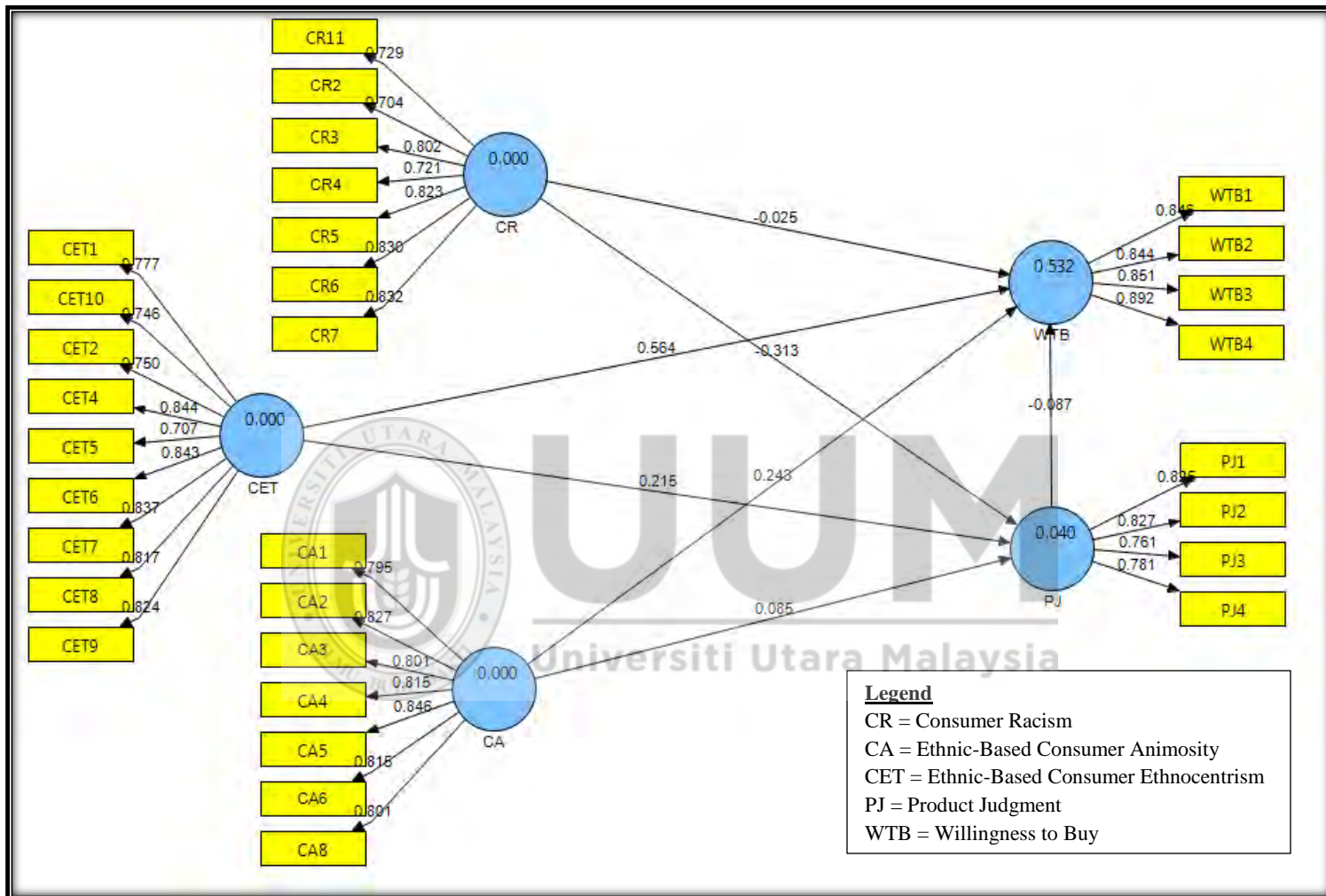


Figure 5.5: Algorithm results (Urban)



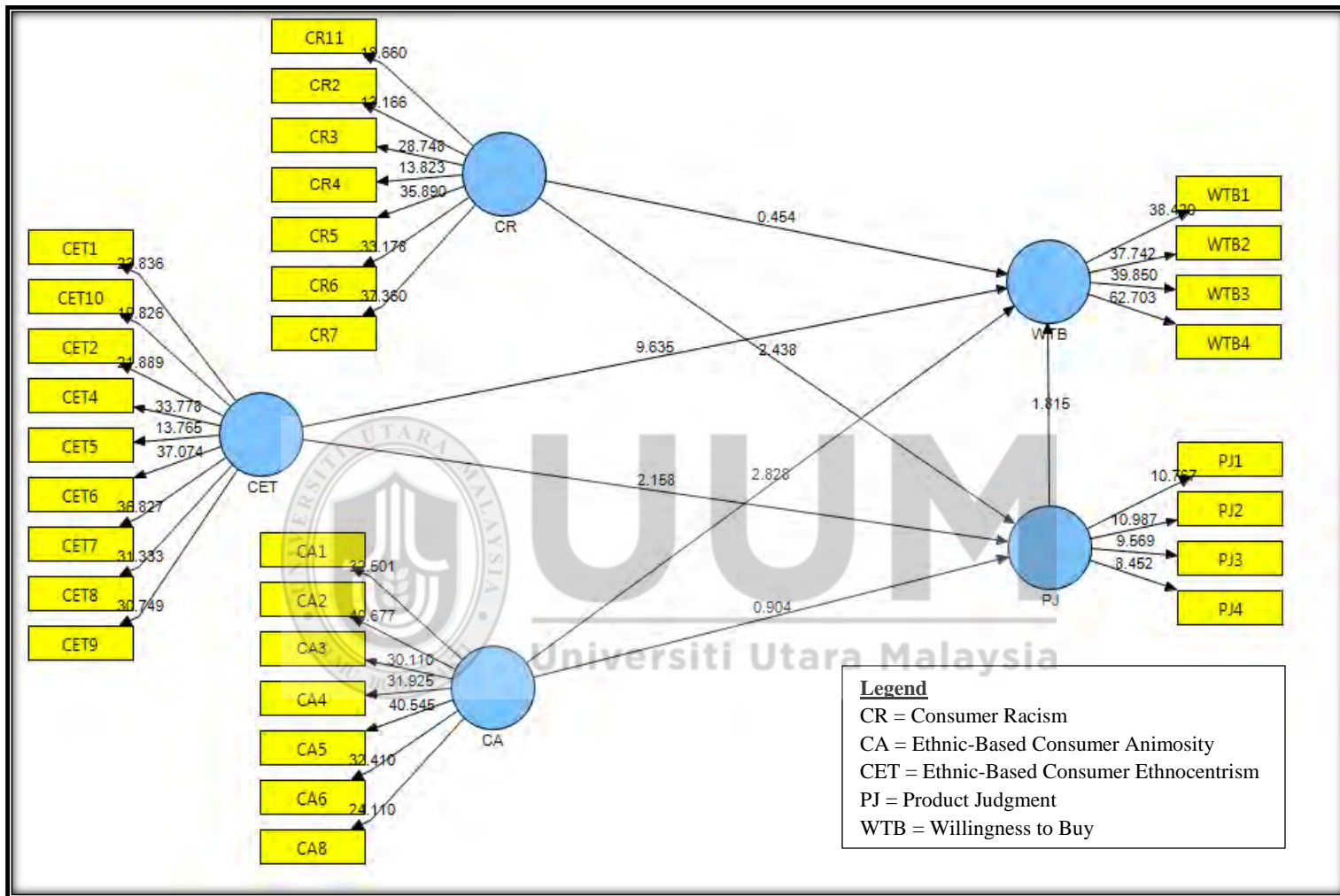


Figure 5.6: Bootstrapping results (Urban)

Based on Table 5.22, there were five relationships that differed significantly across the two groups. Both relationships of consumer animosity towards product judgment and willingness to buy differed among the two groups. The effect of consumer animosity on product judgment for urban respondents appeared to be positive while on the other hand, the effect was reversed for rural respondents. Urban respondents appeared to have higher effect of consumer animosity on their willingness to buy compared to rural respondents.

The impact of consumer racism on product judgment and willingness to buy also differed among the two groups. The impact of consumer racism appeared to be negatively related to product judgment for urban respondents, but for rural respondents the impact was reversed. The effect of consumer racism on willingness to buy appeared to be higher for the urban respondents compared to the rural respondents.

Lastly, the impact of product judgment on willingness to buy also differed among these two groups; where the urban respondents have positive impact of product judgment on willingness to buy whereas the rural respondents have negative impact of product judgment on willingness to buy.

For both groups, there were no significant differences on two relationships; consumer ethnocentrism towards product judgment, and consumer ethnocentrism towards willingness to buy.

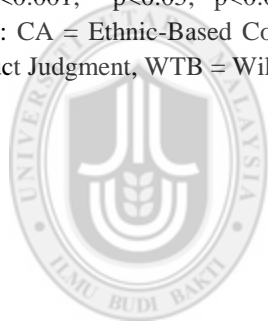
Table 5.22

*PLS-MGA Results*

Constructs Relationship	Group 1 : Urban		Group 2 : Rural		Group 1 vs. Group 2		Sig. Level	p- values
	p <sup>(1)</sup>	se (p <sup>(1)</sup> )	p <sup>(2)</sup>	se (p <sup>(2)</sup> )	p <sup>(1)</sup> - p <sup>(2)</sup>	T- Values		
<b>CA → PJ</b>	0.543	0.092	-0.156	0.102	0.699	5.028	***	0.000
<b>CA → WTB</b>	0.487	0.084	0.269	0.072	0.218	1.990	**	0.047
<b>CET → PJ</b>	0.215	0.101	0.021	0.080	0.194	1.505		0.133
<b>CET → WTB</b>	0.564	0.059	0.508	0.065	0.056	0.631		0.528
<b>CR → PJ</b>	-0.792	0.130	0.080	0.094	-0.872	5.447	***	0.000
<b>CR → WTB</b>	0.308	0.053	0.116	0.067	0.192	2.271	**	0.024
<b>PJ → WTB</b>	0.042	0.048	-0.142	0.038	0.184	2.992	**	0.003
<b>n</b>	252		174					

\*\*\* p<0.001, \*\*p<0.05, \*p<0.01

Note : CA = Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity, CET = Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism, PJ = Product Judgment, WTB = Willingness to Buy, EB = Ethnic-Based



**UUM**  
Universiti Utara Malaysia

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **DISCUSSIONS**

The purpose of this research is to examine the effects of three exogenous constructs; consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity towards Malay consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy Chinese products. First, this chapter discusses the results from the main samples and analyzes the relationship results between each exogenous and endogenous constructs. This is then followed with further discussion based on the heterogeneity characteristic of the samples particularly the rural versus urban factor. After that, the implications towards real-world application are considered. Finally the conclusion of this study is presented.

#### **6.1 General Discussion**

Based on the analysis results, the constructs were distinctive and conceptually different. The confirmation of constructs distinction is a vital process as a prerequisite before moving forward with the structural analysis. This 'distinctiveness' is similar to the results of previous researches (Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Ouellet, 2007; Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015) in attempt to conceptually differentiate between the constructs.

This study particularly demonstrated that consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity can be applied and used at ethnic (or subnational) level of analysis. This finding supports the usage of ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity by Ouellet (2007).

This study extended the ethnic-based consumer animosity by including previously excluded animosity dimensions in Ouellet (2007), which were war/conflict and general animosity dimensions. This study also demonstrated that all three constructs can be operationalized consecutively and simultaneously. This may suggest that a person can be racist, ethnocentric and have animosity all at the same time.

Based on Table 6.1, all of the constructs' mean were slightly above their mid-point value of 3.0 except for product judgment. This indicated that the degree of consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer animosity and ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism were relatively moderate.

On the other hand, the mean for product judgment of Malay consumers toward Chinese products were just slightly below the mid-point value of 3.0. This suggested that the overall Malay consumers' judgment of Chinese products was just at acceptable level, with slightly on the negative side. The willingness of the Malay consumers to purchase Chinese products was above the mid-point value of 3.0. With a mean value of 3.053, this suggested that the Malays were slightly willing to purchase Chinese products.

Table 6.1

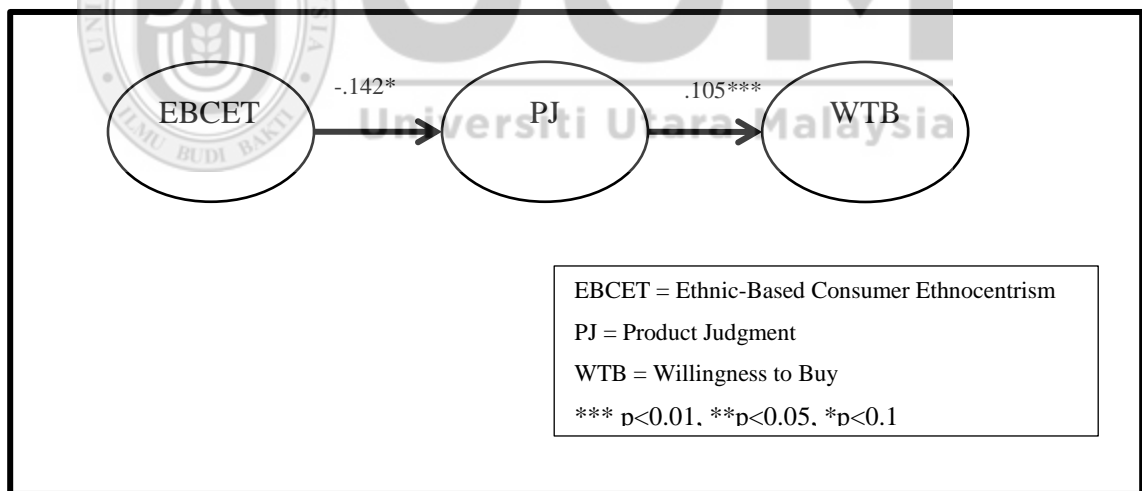
*Mean of the Constructs*

Constructs	Mean
1) EB Consumer Animosity	3.081
2) EB Consumer Ethnocentrism	3.534
3) Consumer Racism	3.464
4) Product Judgment	2.945
5) Willingness to Buy	3.053

*Note:* EB = Ethnic-Based

**6.2 Discussion Based on the Main Results**

In the main study, there were two of seven hypotheses supported. Based on the significant findings of the main study, the framework is reconstructed in Figure 6.1:



*Figure 6.1:* Reconstructed framework based on significant and supported results

Figure 6.1 indicates that ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism has negative effects on product judgment, and product judgment has positive effects on willingness to buy. This means that Malay consumers generally are ethnocentric, and because of this, their evaluation and judgment of Chinese products are negative. When Malay consumers' judgments of the products are negative, their willingness to buy Chinese products are negatively affected and hence decreased. These findings partially addressed RQ<sub>2</sub> and RQ<sub>4</sub>.

There were also three interesting findings from the results. Referring to Table 6.2 below, three of the unsupported hypotheses (H<sub>1a</sub>, H<sub>2b</sub>, and H<sub>3b</sub>) had acceptable or substantial t-values and significant p-values. Although these results had to be rejected, it is worth discussing their potential significance and relevance in attempt to address RQ<sub>1</sub> and RQ<sub>3</sub>.

Table 6.2

*Unsupported Main Hypotheses with Substantial or Acceptable T-values*

No	Hypotheses	Path Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Values	P-Values	Decisions
H <sub>1a</sub>	Consumer racism negatively predicts product judgment.	0.158	0.093	1.699	0.045	Not supported
H <sub>2b</sub>	EB Consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts willingness to buy	0.547	0.046	11.830	0.000	Not supported
H <sub>3b</sub>	EB Consumer animosity negatively predicts willingness to buy	0.261	0.061	4.312	0.000	Not supported

*Note:* EB = Ethnic-based

In attempt to partially address RQ<sub>1</sub>; Hypothesis H<sub>1a</sub> postulated that the relationship between consumer racism and product judgment were negatively related had to be rejected because the direction between the constructs obtained in the result were not as

predicted. Should this hypothesis be accepted based simply on the significant t-values, this might suggest that consumer racism had positive effect on product judgment, although at a very minimal level. This could mean that despite being racist, Malay consumers still have positive product judgment on Chinese products. In other words, although a racist person has a certain degree of racism, this does not mean s/he will denigrate products from targeted ethnic group. This result is similar to several consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity studies, where certain consumers despite being ethnocentric and/or have animosity; did not denigrate foreign products (Klein et al., 1998; Muhammad & Che Razak, 2004; Klein et al., 2006). However, the results can be affected by product categories, condition of the country, availability of alternative products and many other factors (Watson & Wright, 2000; Wang & Chen, 2004; Hamin & Elliott, 2006).

Hypothesis H<sub>2b</sub> hypothesized that ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism negatively predicts willingness to buy. Instead, the results suggested that ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy has positive relationship. Should this result be accepted based on its strong and significant t-values, this could suggest that ethnocentric Malay consumers have the willingness to buy Chinese products. This further elaborates RQ<sub>2</sub>.

Similarly, Hypothesis H<sub>3b</sub> postulated that ethnic-based consumer animosity negatively predicts willingness to buy, but the results suggest the relationship between the constructs were the opposite. If this hypothesis was to be accepted based only on its significant t-values, it could be suggested that the animosity of Malay consumers towards Chinese generally are not enough to make Malay consumers reject the purchase



of Chinese products. Figure 6.2 depicts the alternative framework based on the acceptance of all significant t-values results. Note that the ‘dashed lines’ in the Figure 6.2 depicts unsupported hypotheses, but with significant t-values.

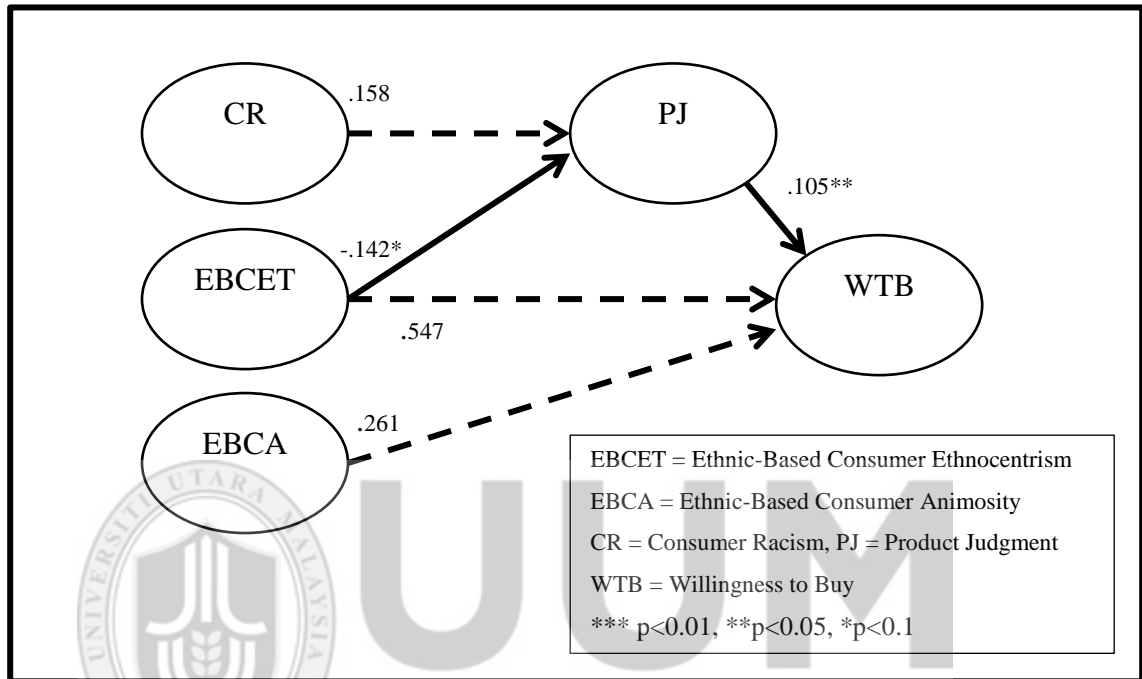


Figure 6.2: Reconstructed framework based on unsupported hypotheses with significant t-values (Main)

These current results have similarities to previous studies on international consumer ethnocentrism and animosity involving limited domestic product choices and alternatives for domestic consumers (Watson & Wright, 2000; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004).

### **6.3 Discussion Based on Heterogeneity Results**

The discussion on this section focuses on the heterogeneity results and it is discussed according to urban and rural consumers.

#### **6.3.1 Urban Malay Consumers**

According to the results in the previous chapter, there is only one hypothesis supported for heterogeneity assessment results of the urban consumers; which was the negative relationship between consumer racism and product judgment. This suggests that consumer racism can negatively influence urban Malay consumers' product judgment of Chinese products; further addressing RQ<sub>1</sub>.

Nevertheless, there are four other relationships that could be assessed based on the unsupported hypotheses with significant t-values as depicted in a reconstructed alternative framework for urban consumers in Figure 6.3.

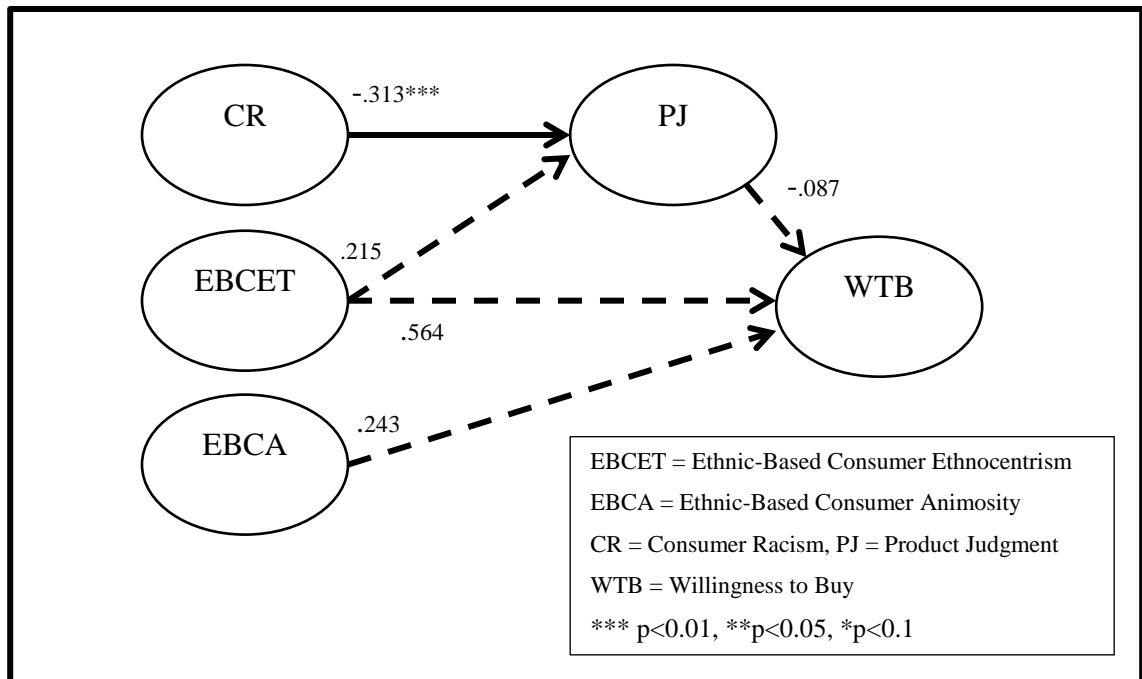


Figure 6.3: Reconstructed framework based on unsupported hypotheses with significant t-values (Urban)

The Figure 6.3 above reveals four different paths that could predict urban Malay consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products. Note that the 'dashed lines' in the Figure 6.3 depicts unsupported hypotheses, but with significant t-values. In order to have a clearer picture of the reconstructed framework above, all paths were examined individually. The paths and its explanation are as follows:

a) Path 1 - Consumer racism – Product Judgment – Willingness to Buy

In Path 1, consumer racism was a significant factor in influencing urban Malay consumers' product judgment negatively. Although the judgment on Chinese products may be negative, urban Malay consumers are still likely to buy Chinese products.

b) Path 2 - Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism – Product Judgment – Willingness to Buy

In Path 2, urban Malay consumers are ethnic ethnocentric, but when evaluating Chinese products, they tend to evaluate the products positively rather than negatively. Although by having positive evaluation of the products, this cannot guarantee their purchases of Chinese products.

c) Path 3 - Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism – Willingness to Buy

In Path 3, urban Malay consumers are ethnic ethnocentric. But instead of refusing Chinese products and preferring for Malay products, they are likely to buy Chinese products.

d) Path 4 - Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity – Willingness to Buy

In Path 4, urban Malay consumers have animosity towards the Chinese, but this was not enough to stop the urban Malays from buying Chinese products.

Among the constructs, ethnic-based ethnocentrism was the strongest predictor for willingness to buy, followed by ethnic-based consumer animosity and product judgment. Although all constructs can exist together, but the most dominant construct will be the one most likely to influence the consumers' actual purchase behavior. With these individual path analyses, the urban Malay consumer purchase behavior of Chinese product can be explained; providing answers to all of the RQs.

### 6.3.2 Rural Malay Consumers

According to the results in the previous chapter, there is no hypothesis supported for heterogeneity assessment results of the rural consumers. However, there are three relationships that could be assessed based on the unsupported hypotheses with significant t-values as depicted in a reconstructed alternative framework for rural consumers in Figure 6.4. Note that the 'dashed lines' in the Figure 6.4 depicts unsupported hypotheses with significant t-values.

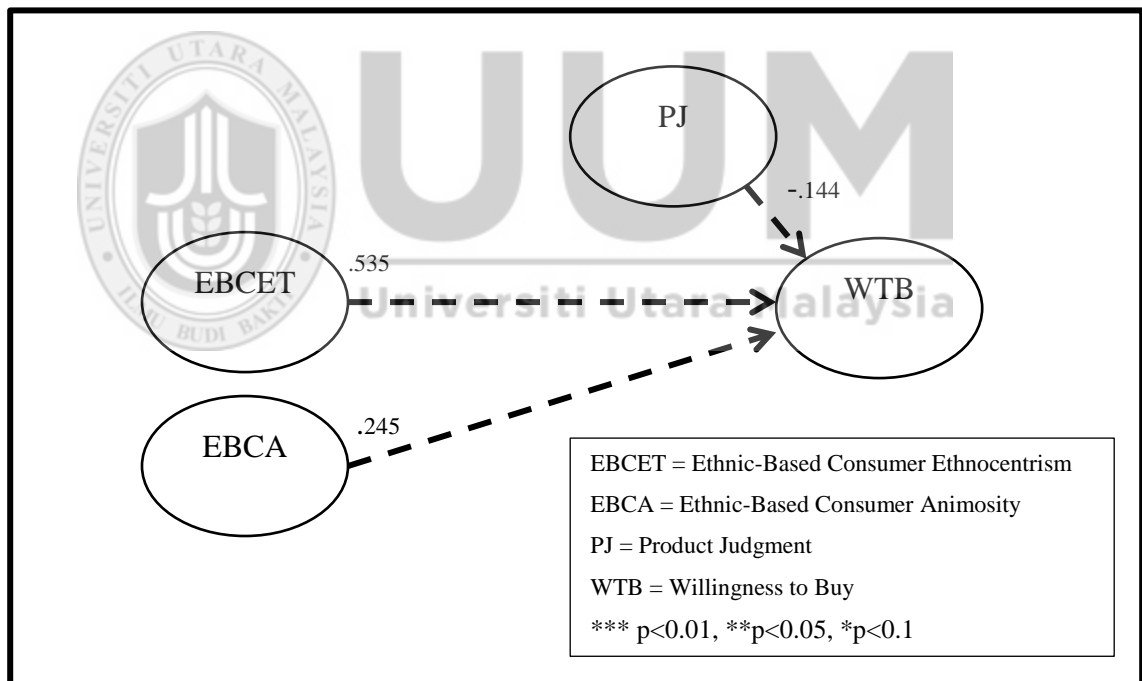


Figure 6.4: Reconstructed framework based on unsupported hypotheses with significant t-values (Rural)

In order to have a better picture of the reconstructed framework for the Malay rural consumers, all paths were examined individually. The paths and its analyses are as follows:

a) Path 1 - Ethnic-Based Consumer Ethnocentrism – Willingness to Buy

In Path 1, rural Malay consumers are also ethnic ethnocentric like their counterpart in urban areas. Likewise, despite their preference for products from their own ethnic group, rural Malay consumers are still likely to buy Chinese products.

b) Path 2 - Ethnic-Based Consumer Animosity – Willingness to Buy

In Path 2, rural Malay consumers also have a certain degree of animosity towards the Chinese like urban Malay consumers, but despite this, rural Malay consumers are still likely to buy Chinese products.

c) Path 3 – Product Judgment – Willingness to Buy

In Path 3, the product judgment of rural Malay consumers on Chinese products can be negative but they are still willing to buy Chinese products.

Similar to the urban results, ethnic-based ethnocentrism was also the strongest predictor for rural Malay consumers' willingness to buy, followed by ethnic-based consumer animosity and product judgment. With these individual path analyses, the rural Malay consumer purchase behavior of Chinese product can be explained; providing answers to all of the RQs.

#### **6.4 In-Depth Discussion**

The samples representing the urban group were mainly from Selangor (99), Negeri Sembilan (30), Perak (21), Johor (19) and WPKL (16). In these states, the urban areas had high percentage of non-Malays, specifically ethnic Chinese which ranged from 23.2% to 43.2% of the population in each state (refer to Table 4.3: Population Distribution by States, Ethnic Group and Urbanization in Malaysia). The rate of urbanized area of the said states ranged from 66.5% to 100%.

Although there were high percentage of both Malays and Chinese living in urban areas, the results implied that perhaps the Malays in this areas may have selective and limited interaction with other ethnic groups except for out of necessity and certain circumstances like work, shopping, or seeking service related matters (Run, 2007). Since they lacked interactions with each other, the majority group may see and treat the minority group as an out-group as the Chinese appeared to be different from the Malays culturally (perhaps economically and physiologically as well) (Wan Husin, 2012a, 2012b). Equally, the Chinese may also see the Malays from the same perspective. Drawing from the theory of social identity as the basis; racism can emerge from these circumstances when there are differences in 'culture, blood and non-belonging' (Garner, 2010).

Based on retained items of the consumer racism construct, the Malays felt that the Chinese were in so much control and dominates the nation's economy (Run, 2007), and because of that the Malays feel that they were looked down upon (Ali, 2008). The Malays believed that the Chinese has been in control of the economy for many

generations (Suryanidata, 2007) and because of this they have the upper hand in businesses and tend to discriminate budding Malays entrepreneurs and their businesses (Ali, 2008; Minai et al., 2012; Wan Husin & Ong, 2012). Perhaps because of these too the Malays felt that they were generally discriminated even for employment (Lee & Khalid, 2012)

The Malay respondents also felt that Chinese businesses tend to cheat them and offer fewer discounts compared to their own ethnic group when purchases were made. This act of discrimination led the respondents to perceive that they were victims of racism. Perhaps this is also related to the Malays' perception that the Chinese business owners did not value and respect their Malay customers, as generally the Malays are poor people or not well to do (Ali, 2008). This could also suggest expressions of self-pity and/or lack of confidence.

Further, the non-Malays especially the Chinese were typically seen as belonging to the higher income group or perceived to earn higher income than the average Malays (Ali, 2008; Wan Husin, 2013), which may be the underlying cause leading to racism. Hence whatever is related to the Chinese was seen as negative and/or bad. But this did not suggest that they outwardly reject buying Chinese products entirely, because the relationship between consumer racism and willingness to buy was unsupported. Instead the results indicated that whether or not an urban Malay consumer is racist; it did not influence his buying behavior of Chinese products. This could be due to the fact that the Malays did not have many product choices or alternatives from their own ethnic group. This finding was contrary to the principle suggested by McCracken (1989).



When assessing the heterogeneity of the samples, it appeared that ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism of both rural and urban respondents were positively related with willingness to buy (t-values = 7.198, 9.635, respectively). Further, only urban respondents had positive relationship between ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and product judgment (t-values = 2.158).

This may suggest that both urban and rural Malay respondents were indeed ethnocentric, but somehow this did not affect their decision to disregard Chinese products. While generally these respondents agreed that it was best to choose Malay products over products from other ethnic groups to support Malay businesses even if it may cost slightly more; but what happens when there are only limited number of products (or services) available to the Malays from the Malays? How could the Malay consumers choose Malay products first, last and foremost; when there are very limited choices available to them, especially when Malay entrepreneurs are generally small players with limited coverage (Asri & Ghani, 2012)? Assuming that there were product alternatives offered by Malay businesses or entrepreneurs, the limitation in this case can be in form of lack of market coverage where only certain states or areas were covered by the businesses. This is especially the case when a budding business with limited capital, exposure and experience tries to expand their business markets.

Without a doubt the ethnocentric level of the Malay respondents were quite high ( $M = 3.534$ ), perhaps this was related to the 'Ketuanan Melayu' or 'Malay supremacy' ideology? But what use or good is the ideology when in reality; the general Malays have many limitations being as opportune consumers as well as thriving entrepreneurs?

In the heterogeneity assessment, both rural and urban samples yielded the same results suggesting that ethnic-based consumer animosity positively affect willingness to buy. This may suggest that the ethnic Malay consumers may hold ‘grudges’ and have animosity (Mean = 3.081) against the Chinese in general but cannot translate that feelings into their purchasing behavior. It seemed that even though the Malays did not like the Chinese in general; this did not stop the Malays from purchasing Chinese products.

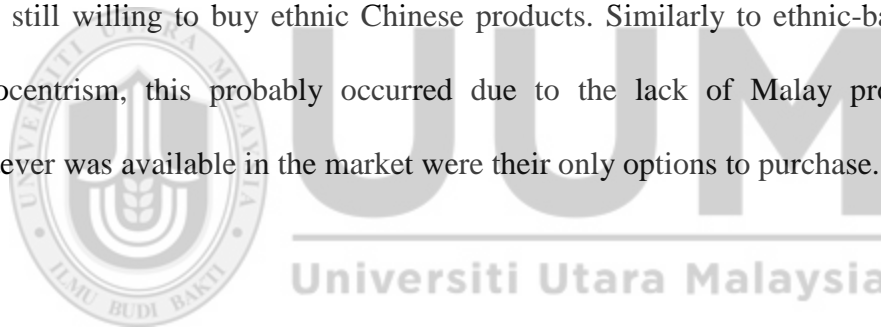
According to the retained items in the measurement construct, the Malay consumers felt that they were economically marginalized and discriminated by the Chinese and that the Chinese should ‘pay’ for their actions. The Malay consumers also felt that the Chinese tends to take advantages of the Malays, were unfair in business and unreliable as business partners especially when dealing with the Malays. These feelings and perception can be associated with the fact that the current participation of the Malays in businesses and economic activities are very much lesser compared to the Chinese (Ali, 2008; Idris, 2008; Asri & Ghani, 2012; Wan Husin, 2013)

Finally, Hypothesis H<sub>4</sub> postulated that the relationship between product judgment and willingness to buy was positive. This relationship was accepted and supported which suggested that the chances of purchasing or willingness to buy were higher whenever the judgment of a product was positive. Alternatively this also suggested that the willingness to buy was lesser whenever the product judgment was low.

Overall, based on all of the hypotheses results, it can be summarized that ethnic Malay consumers were ethnocentric, and because of that they did not judge Chinese products

to be as good as it should be. But this did not stop them from purchasing Chinese products either. Perhaps due to limitations and lack of products being offered by ethnic Malay businesses or entrepreneurs, ethnic Malay consumers were just willing to buy Chinese products to satisfy their consumption needs. Although at a different level of analysis, this was somewhat similar to the situation described by Watson & Wright (2000) and Nijssen & Douglas (2004) where foreign alternative products were sought for when domestic products were not available for consumers' consumption.

Comparably, ethnic Malay consumers can have animosity towards the ethnic Chinese businesses but instead of disregarding their products aside, ethnic Malays consumers were still willing to buy ethnic Chinese products. Similarly to ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism, this probably occurred due to the lack of Malay products and so whatever was available in the market were their only options to purchase.



## **6.5 Implications and Conclusion**

This study examined the effects of consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity of Malay consumers in influencing the product judgment and willingness to buy Chinese products. In relation to the research questions, the following findings revealed that:

- Malay consumers were moderate and did not have high levels of racism, ethnocentrism and animosity towards Chinese products.

- The strongest construct in predicting Malay consumers' willingness to buy was ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism instead of consumer racism and ethnic-based consumer animosity.
- Malay consumers have animosity towards the Chinese and were moderately ethnocentric; however this did not stop them from expressing their willingness to buy Chinese products.
- The results from all three studies (the main and the two sub-studies involving rural and urban consumers) indicated consistent results whereby ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity have positive relationships with willingness to buy.
- There are differences between rural and urban Malay consumers in terms of influencing factors on consumers' willingness to buy. Consumer racism did not affect rural Malay consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy Chinese products.

In general, although both consumer racism and ethnic-based consumer animosity were not strong predictors in the purchasing behavior of the Malay consumers, nevertheless all of the constructs can still be threats to the local economy in their own ways (depending how it is being interpreted politically) and to the interethnic relations within the nation. Hence there are several implications to policy makers and practitioners. While it is difficult for policymakers to heal racism and animosity (or even ethnocentrism) instantaneously, perhaps nation-wide 'unity in diversity' and 'inclusion' campaigns can be useful.

### **6.5.1 Practical and Managerial Implications**

As for marketers and practitioners in general, the results may suggest that there is a need to examine and investigate the existence and levels of consumer racism and/or both ethnic-based consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism within their territories of operations and markets, at both internationally or domestically. Minority-owned companies can re-evaluate their marketing communications strategies, and reposition or rebrand themselves to be more appealing to the ethnic majority as the results on product judgment suggests. However, this must be done thoroughly as there are ‘displeased voices’ expressing against the use of certain images or brands in an attempt to appear more appealing to a certain ethnic group or religious group (BBCD, 2013a). Additionally, proper considerations and investigation on the potential gain/loss need to be done thoroughly, as there are risks of losing current customers and support from their own ethnic groups. This scenario is also applicable to companies owned or controlled by majority ethnic group seeking to target other minority groups. Perhaps ‘multi-local’ or even ethno-marketing (Pires & Stanton, 2000) strategies might be useful approach when entering a multi-ethnic market, as not to lose current customers while gaining on new ones (Vida et al., 2008). Although there are probably similar markets and consumers behaving unconventionally like the results of this study, marketers must still be attentive to the results of the periodical racism, ethnocentrism and animosity consumer surveys and apply the results on their strategies cautiously.

Another consideration which marketers can study is that once the degree of racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity is known, marketers can opt for joint ventures with powerful and influential companies perceived to be the representation of a particular ethnic group (Gomez, 2003) just like BERNAS Berhad is being associated with ethnic Malay Tan Sri Mokhtar Al-Bukhari, while Maxis Berhad is associated with ethnic Indian Tan Sri Ananda Krishnan. This approach can be part of the businesses' international strategies in entering new markets known to have racism, ethnocentrism and animosity (Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015).

As ethnic-based consumer animosity have positive effects on willingness to buy, perhaps companies owned by ethnic minorities should adjust the general marketing and communication strategies used accordingly, to overcome negative product image or brands associated with ethnic image.



### **6.5.2 Theoretical Implications**

This study has several theoretical implications. First, as there is yet a study to examine the effects of consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based animosity in one model, the results of this study has provided an important foundation to build on for future studies focusing on ethnic consumers' preferences and avoidance of ethnic products and/or services. This study has provided a model which can be applied in other countries which shares similarities with Malaysia.

Second, all three constructs; consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity were organized into a causal framework in

predicting consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy. To certain extent consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity have been assessed extensively previously; but these previous studies did not consider consumer racism into the frameworks to be tested simultaneously with consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity. In contrast, this study tested the effects and examined the relationships of these three constructs simultaneously in a model. Testing this model on the majority ethnic group in Malaysia provided important insights on their product judgment and willingness to buy a minority group's products and services.

Third, apart from introducing a modified version of the consumer racism measurement scale, this study validates the consumer racism construct in the Malaysian context; taking a step forward in improving a scale fit to measure marketing related racism as highlighted by Ouellet (2007), which hoped for a racism scale similar to CETSCALE measuring ethnocentrism. On a similar vein, this study validated the application of ethnic-based constructs of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity, and that these two constructs are very important constructs in predicting ethnic majority consumers' product judgment and willingness to buy products and services from a minority ethnic group.

Finally, the results of this study may suggest that consumer racism, ethnic-based ethnocentrism and ethnic-based animosity can influence the consumers' judgment and willingness to buy products and services, but given a certain context, the results of the relationships can be atypical. In particular, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity were found to have reversed relationships with willingness to buy. Further, consumer racism was found to have a positive relationship

with product judgment. Perhaps, among many other factors, this is probably due to the fact that the majority ethnic group did not have many product choices or alternatives offered from their own ethnic group. These findings were contrary to the “us versus them” Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and the transfer of meaning principle suggested by McCracken (1989) which stated “if one does not like a specific ethnic group, [...] he/she should not like its products either” (Ouellet, 2005, p. 423).

## **6.6 Research Limitations and Future Research Directions**

This research has several limitations. First, when engaging in a controversial or sensitive research area (Tourangeau & Yan, 2007), results were often exposed to respondents’ social desirability bias as highlighted in previous studies (Hair et al., 2014). In this research while assuring of anonymity and non-judgmental, it is unfair to claim that the survey results were free from social desirability and common method biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003) as even under this circumstance, respondents may not report the truth about their feelings and thoughts with regards to racism, ethnocentrism and/or animosity.

Second, it is important to note that respondents obtained were not entirely reflective of the Malay population in Malaysia. This was due to the imbalance of the respondents’ gender ratio and the lack of representativeness from other states in Malaysia besides Kedah and Selangor. This limitation could have been overcome if not for the author’s financial limitation and time constraint.



Future research could consider other methods including the Item Count Technique, List Experiments and others (Imai, 2011; Blair & Imai, 2012; Hair et al., 2014; Lax, Phillips, & Stollwerk, 2014) when dealing with sensitive research areas. Researchers also could improve the methodological part by including balanced post hoc and ex ante procedural and systematic approaches in controlling common method bias (Sarstedt, Schwaiger, & Ringle, 2009; Ringle, Sarstedt, & Mooi, 2010; Rigdon, Ringle, Sarstedt, & Gudergan, 2011).

Secondly, rather than using specific products categories such as automobiles or electronic items, our selections were assorted from different industries and product categories, but all selections were owned by specific ethnic group – the ethnic Chinese. The results may be biased due to consumers' preference and familiarity, where despite the ethnicity associated with the products or product categories, consumers were almost definite in their minds to purchase (or not to purchase) (Ouellet, 2007). Future research could employ different approach to overcome this shortcoming by, among other approaches, considering certain brands or product categories specific to certain consumer demographic.

Third, since the ethnic Malays in Malaysia are almost entirely Muslims, future researchers could consider constructs such as religiosity and/or religious affiliation together with consumer racism and ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism or ethnic-based animosity into their research models. From here researchers could identify which is the active influence on Malay consumers' purchase decision on products offered by non-Malays, either from being ethnic Malay (the Malayness) or from being Muslim or both. The model used in this study can also be extended to Chinese of China (with

necessary modification on the construct used) from the perspective of ethnic Malays given there are increasing Malaysia-China trade over the decades (Gaulier, Lemoine, & Deniz, 2007).

Fourth, on a similar thought, future researches should examine how accurate and based on what attributes can ethnic Malays (or any other ethnic group for this matter) perceived products to be owned by certain ethnic groups, and whether the perceptions made are accurately or otherwise. This is in response to the article on BBCD's website (BBCD, 2013a) which expressed that non-Muslims or non-Malays should refrain from using brands which may suggest Malay and/or Muslim product/business ownership. It can be very interesting to examine how offensive Malays and/or Muslims find this kind of business strategies used by non-Muslims/non-Malays businesses as these consumers may perceived this approach as an attempt to cheat and deceive them (almost similar to studies by Run & Fah (2006), Run (2007) and Butt & Run (2010)) .

Fifth, although the effect of being residents in either rural or urban areas was examined for heterogeneity analysis, there could be many other underlying sub-groups such as gender, age, political affiliation, religion, social class as well as economic class (Roslan, 2001; Ali, 2008) which are equally important to understand. Also, it is also interesting to examine the general Malays' perception on bourgeois capitalist class Malays (Gomez, 2003; Ali, 2008) which emerged out from the NEP and whether intra-racism based on class exist (Garner, 2010) between different classes of consumers. Additionally, this study did not examine for possible unobserved heterogeneity, of which future research could investigate and incorporating factors perhaps from other

discipline. As noted by Hair et al. (2014), parameter differences related to unobserved heterogeneity may prevent a model from being estimated accurately.

Sixth, the items within the modified consumer racism measurement scale has historical and economic influences relevant to Malaysians, possibly future researchers can identify or incorporate other various influences, dimensions or even deeper analysis within the histories of Malaysia. Or as similar to Maher et al., (2010), perhaps there could be other more impactful incidence(s) that transpired since the May 13<sup>th</sup> bloody tragedy that can have bigger effects on inter-ethnic relations, and possibly can be reflected in the inter-ethnic purchase behavior. Political factor can be quite relevant in Malaysia since most political parties are communal-based, in addition to the ethnic-based economic policies of Malaysia (Roslan, 2001), future research should examine whether this could affect or be an underlying antecedent to the modified consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity constructs.

Finally, researchers could examine how other ethnic minority groups in Malaysia react towards products offered by ethnic majority Malays using similar research model. Another interesting area for future researcher is to investigate using similar research model on how East Malaysians would react towards West Malaysians or vice versa. This research has limited control for common method bias, which focused more on ex-ante approach. This study did not examine the in-depth relationships between consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer animosity and ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism other than the distinctiveness between them as a requirement in the SEM analysis. This may be worthwhile for future research to scrutinize or their possible function as

moderators or mediators in similar research models. This study focused on behavioral intentions or willingness; therefore it does not necessarily represent actual behavior.

## **6.7 Conclusion**

This study has shown that consumer racism to a certain extent may affect ethnic Malay consumers' product judgment (results from the main study and urban consumers sub-study) but not willingness to buy Chinese products and services. On the other hand, the effects of ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based animosity on Malay consumers' willingness to buy have been consistent in all three studies (the main and the two sub-studies involving urban and rural consumers), albeit the reversed relationship between the constructs. The effects of product judgment on Malay consumers' willingness to buy differ among the main and the two sub-studies.

In conclusion, as some of the results of this study were not in line with the expectations based on the literature, further studies on consumer racism, ethnic-based consumer ethnocentrism and ethnic-based consumer animosity should be performed perhaps with better methodologies before being able to confidently conclude these effects have in consumer behavior.

## References

- Aaker, J. L. (1999). The malleable self: The role of self-expression in persuasion. *Available at SSRN 945453*. JOUR.
- Abd-Razak, I.-S., & Abdul-Talib, A.-N. (2012). Globality and intentionality attribution of animosity: An insight into the consumer boycotts in the Muslim dominant markets. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 3(1), 72–80. <http://doi.org/10.1108/17590831211206608>
- Abdullah, C. D. (2005). *Memoir Abdullah CD: Zaman Pergerakan Sehingga 1948*. GEN, Selangor: Strategic Information Research Development Centre.
- Abdul-Latif, S.-A., & Abdul-Talib, A.-N. (2015). An examination of the effects of consumer racism and consumer ethnocentrism on willingness to buy products associated with ethnic Chinese. In *Australia New Zealand International Business Academy Conference* (pp. 1–42). Melbourne: ANZIBA.
- Abdul-Talib, A.-N., & Abdul-Latif, S.-A. (2012). Will you boycott?: A study of Malaysian Non-Muslims' Willingness to Boycott. In M. A. M. Sani, M. M. M. A. Malek, & A. E. Hara (Eds.), *The Proceedings of 4th International Conference on International Studies ICIS 2012* (pp. 115–127). UUM Press.
- Abdul-Talib, A.-N., & Abdul-Latif, S.-A. (2015). Antecedents to Willingness to Boycott among Malaysian Muslims. In H. El-Gohary & R. Eid (Eds.), *Emerging Research on Islamic Marketing and Tourism in the Global Economy* (pp. 70–106). Hershey PA: IGI Global. <http://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-4666-6272-8>
- Abernethy, A. P., Herndon, J. E., Wheeler, J. L., Patwardhan, M., Shaw, H., Lysterly, H. K., & Weinfurt, K. (2008). Improving health care efficiency and quality using tablet personal computers to collect research-quality, patient-reported data. *Health Services Research*, 43(6), 1975–1991. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6773.2008.00887.x>
- Ahmad, Z., Ho, H. L., Gill, S. S., Talib, A. T., & Ku Ariffin, K. H. (2006). *Hubungan Etnik di Malaysia*. (O. Fajar, Ed.). JOUR, Shah Alam.
- Ahmad Sabri, A. Z. S. (2011). *3 Ethnicities under one roof*. JOUR, Berlin: LAP LAMBERT Academic Publishing.
- Ahmed, Z., Anang, R., Othman, N., & Sambasivan, M. (2013). To purchase or not to purchase US products: role of religiosity, animosity, and ethnocentrism among Malaysian consumers. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 27(7), 551–563. <http://doi.org/10.1108/JSM-01-2012-0023>
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(2), 179–211. JOUR.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1975). Beliefs, attitude, intention and behavior: An

introduction to theory and measurement. GEN, Addison-Wesley, Reading.

- Akrami, N., Ekehammar, B., & Araya, T. (2000). Classical and modern racial prejudice: A study of attitudes toward immigrants in Sweden. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 30(4), 521–532. JOUR. Retrieved from [http://www.psyk.uu.se/digitalAssets/20/20164\\_Akrami-Ekehammar-Araya-2000-EJSP.pdf](http://www.psyk.uu.se/digitalAssets/20/20164_Akrami-Ekehammar-Araya-2000-EJSP.pdf)
- Alatas, S. H. (1977). *The Myth of the Lazy Native*. Oregon: Frank Cass and Company Ltd. <http://doi.org/10.2307/1866085>
- Alexis, M. (1999). The economics of racism. *The Review of Black Political Economy*, 26(3), 51–75. JOUR.
- Al-Hyari, K., Alnsour, M., Al-Weshah, G., & Haffar, M. (2012). Religious beliefs and consumer behaviour: from loyalty to boycotts. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 3(2), 155–174. <http://doi.org/10.1108/17590831211232564>
- Ali, S. H. (2008). *The Malays, their problems and future*. Kuala Lumpur: The Other Press.
- Amine, L. S. (2008). Country-of-origin, animosity and consumer response: Marketing implications of anti-Americanism and Francophobia. *International Business Review*, 17(4), 402–422. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2008.02.013>
- Anderson, S. E., & Gansneder, B. M. (1995). Using electronic mail surveys and computer-monitored data for studying computer-mediated communication systems. *Social Science Computer Review*, 13(1), 33–46. JOUR.
- Ang, S. H., Jung, K., Kau, A. K., Leong, S. M., Pornpitakpan, C., & Tan, S. J. (2004). Animosity towards economic giants: what the little guys think. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 21(3), 190–207. <http://doi.org/10.1108/07363760410534740>
- Anonymous. (2009). Disagreement on Chin Peng 's apology. Retrieved February 24, 2015, from <http://www.thestar.com.my/story/?file=/2009/11/23/nation/5163656>
- Anonymous. (2014). MPs argue on who's moderate. Retrieved February 24, 2015, from <http://www.therakyatpost.com/news/2014/11/10/mps-argue-whos-moderate/>
- Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(1), 20–39. JOUR.
- Asri, M., & Ghani, A. (2012). Transformasi dan Prestasi Perniagaan Usahawan Melayu Perusahaan Kecil dan Sederhana ( PKS ) di Johor Bahru Transformation and Business Performance of Malay Entrepreneurs in Small and Medium Enterprises in Johor. In *Prosiding PERKEM VII: Transformasi Ekonomi dan Sosial ke arah Negara Maju* (Vol. 1, pp. 696–708).
- Bagozzi, R. P. (1975). Marketing as exchange. *The Journal of Marketing*, 18, 382–388. <http://doi.org/10.2307/3150980>

- Bagozzi, R. P., Gurhan-Canli, Z., & Priester, J. (2002). *The social psychology of consumer behaviour*. BOOK, McGraw-Hill International.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 16, 74–94. <http://doi.org/10.1007/BF02723327>
- Bagozzi, R. P., Yi, Y., & Phillips, L. W. (1991). Assessing construct validity in organizational research. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 421–458. JOUR.
- Bahae, M., & Pisani, M. (2009a). Iranian consumer animosity and US products: a witch's brew or elixir? *International Business Review*, 18, 199–210. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2009.02.002>
- Bahae, M., & Pisani, M. (2009b). The use of the consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity scales in Iran: A research note. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 51(2), 143–151. <http://doi.org/10.1002/tie>
- Bahae, M., & Pisani, M. J. (2009c). Are Iranian consumers poised to “buy American” in a hostile bilateral environment? *Business Horizons*, 52(3), 223–232. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2008.11.004>
- Baharuddin, S. A. (2012). *Modul hubungan etnik*. Institut Kajian Etnik, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.
- Balabanis, G., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2008). Brand Origin Identification by Consumers: A Classification Perspective. *Journal of International Marketing*. <http://doi.org/10.1509/jimk.16.1.39>
- Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., Mueller, R. D., & Melewar, T. C. (2001). The Impact of Nationalism, Patriotism and Internationalism on Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies. *Journal of International Business Studies*. <http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490943>
- Baltar, F., & Brunet, I. (2012). Social research 2.0: virtual snowball sampling method using Facebook. *Internet Research*, 22(1), 57–74. <http://doi.org/10.1108/10662241211199960>
- Bandura, A. (1973). *Aggression: A social learning analysis*. BOOK, Prentice-Hall.
- Bank\_Negara\_Malaysia. (2013). *Economic and Financial Developments in the fourth quarter 2013*. Kuala Lumpur. Retrieved from [http://www.bnm.gov.my/files/publication/qb/2013/Q4/4Q2013\\_fullbook\\_en.pdf](http://www.bnm.gov.my/files/publication/qb/2013/Q4/4Q2013_fullbook_en.pdf)
- Barclay, D., Higgins, C., & Thompson, R. (1995). The partial least squares (PLS) approach to causal modeling: Personal computer adoption and use as an illustration. *Technology Studies*, 2(2), 285–309. JOUR.
- Barnard, T. P. (2004). *Contesting Malayness: Malay identity across boundaries*. BOOK, Singapore University Press, National University of Singapore.

- Batra, R., Ramaswamy, V., Alden, D., Steenkamp, J., & Ramachander, S. (2000). Effects of Brand Local and Nonlocal Origin on Consumer Attitudes in Developing Countries. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*. [http://doi.org/10.1207/S15327663JCP0902\\_3](http://doi.org/10.1207/S15327663JCP0902_3)
- BBCD. (2013a). Cina DAP bangga guna nama AHMAD untuk produk Pau. Retrieved May 15, 2015, from <http://bbcdrasmi.blogspot.com/2013/08/cina-dap-bangga-guna-nama-ahmad-untuk.html>
- BBCD. (2013b). Jihad Kita! ... Tak Mau Sudah. Retrieved May 14, 2015, from <http://bbcdrasmi.blogspot.com/2013/06/jihad-kitatak-mau-sudah.html#sthash.0AXrvwAw.dpbs>
- BBCD. (2013c). Siapa BBCD? Siapa Kami? Retrieved May 14, 2015, from <http://bbcdrasmi.blogspot.com/p/siapa-bbcd.html#sthash.v7SCFnOk.dpbs>
- BBCDrasmi.blogspot.com. (2013). *BBCD Kit Boikot Barangan Cina DAP vol.3*.
- Bettman, J. R., Capon, N., & Lutz, R. J. (1986). Multiattribute Measurement Models and Multiattribute Attitude Theory : A Test ...
- Blair, G., & Imai, K. (2012). Statistical Analysis of List Experiments. *Political Analysis*, 20(1), 47–77. <http://doi.org/10.1093/pan/mpr048>
- Blanchard, F. A., Crandall, C. S., Brigham, J. C., & Vaughn, L. A. (1994). Condemning and condoning racism: A social context approach to interracial settings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(6), 993. JOUR.
- Boo, S.-L. (2014). “Are Malaysians racist?” video proves Sedition Act unnecessary, Saifuddin says.
- Boo, S.-L., & Izwan, M. (2013). “Racial” boycott will spook investors, stall economic reforms, warn business experts. Retrieved from <http://www.themalaysianinsider.com/malaysia/article/racial-boycott-will-spook-investors-stall-economic-reforms-warn-business-experts#sthash.gwOQelS0.dpuf>
- Bristor, J. M., Lee, R. G., & Hunt, M. R. (1995). Race and ideology: African-American images in television advertising. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 48–59. JOUR.
- Brkic, N., Corbo, M., & Berberovic, D. (2011). Ethnocentrism and Animosity in Consumer Behavior in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Implications for Companies. *Journal of Economics and Business*, 9(1), 45–61.
- Brynjolfsson, E., & Hitt, L. M. (2000). Beyond computation: Information technology, organizational transformation and business performance. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 23–48. JOUR.
- Butt, M. M., & Run, E. C. De. (2010). Ethnic advertising: adolescents’ attitudes towards target and non-target advertisements. *Young Consumers: Insight and Ideas for*



- Carter, L. L., & Maher, A. a. (2014). Assessing Consumers' Willingness to Buy Foreign Goods: An Integrative Modeling Approach. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 6(3), 23–34. <http://doi.org/10.5539/ijms.v6n3p23>
- Census. (2011). Population distribution and basic demographic characteristics 2010, Dept of Statistics, Malaysia. *Dept of Statistics, Malaysia*, 1–133.
- Chattaraman, V., & Lennon, S. J. (2008). Ethnic identity , consumption of cultural apparel , and self-perceptions of ethnic consumers. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, 12(4), 518–531. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13612020810906164>
- Chen, Y.-P., Shaffer, M., Westman, M., Chen, S., Lazarova, M., & Reiche, S. (2014). Family Role Performance: Scale Development and Validation. *Applied Psychology*, 63(1), 190–218. <http://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12005>
- Chin, W. W. (1998). The partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling. In *Modern Methods for Business Research* (Vol. 295, pp. 295–336). <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2008.12.010>
- Chin, W. W., & Newsted, P. R. (1999). Structural Equation Modeling Analysis with Small Samples Using Partial Least Squares. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Statistical Strategies for Small Sample Research* (pp. 307–341). JOUR, Duke University, USA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Chryssochoidis, G., Krystallis, A., & Perreas, P. (2007). Ethnocentric beliefs and country-of-origin (COO) effect: Impact of country, product and product attributes on Greek consumers' evaluation of food products. *European Journal of Marketing*, 41(11/12), 1518–1544. <http://doi.org/10.1108/03090560710821288>
- Cianfrone, B. a., Zhang, J. J., & Ko, Y. J. (2011). Dimensions of motivation associated with playing sport video games: Modification and extension of the Sport Video Game Motivation Scale. *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal*, 1(2), 172–189. <http://doi.org/10.1108/20426781111146763>
- Clark, R. (2004). Interethnic Group and Intraethnic Group Racism: Perceptions and Coping in Black University Students. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 30(4), 506–526. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0095798404268286>
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences* (Vol. 2nd). <http://doi.org/10.1234/12345678>
- Cohen, J. (1992a). Quantitative Methods in Psychology. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(1), 155–159.
- Cohen, J. (1992b). Statistical Power Analysis. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 1(3), 98–101.

- Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. S. (2008). *Business Research Method* (10th ed.). BOOK, New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Cumberland, F., Solgaard, H. S., & Nikodemska-Wolowik, A. M. (2010). The Effects of Consumer Ethnocentrism and Country of Origin on Polish Consumers' Evaluation of Foreign Manufactured Products. *Journal of East-West Business*, 16(3), 231–252. <http://doi.org/10.1080/10669868.2010.523374>
- Darling, J. R., & Arnold, D. R. (1988). Foreign consumers' perspective of the products and marketing practices of the United States versus selected European countries. *Journal of Business Research*, 17(3), 237–248. JOUR.
- Darling, J. R., & Wood, V. R. (1990). A longitudinal study comparing perceptions of US and Japanese consumer products in a third/neutral country: Finland 1975 to 1985. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 427–450. JOUR.
- Darrat, M. (2011). A conceptual investigation into the effects of cultural animosity on Middle Eastern consumers' purchase intentions. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 2(1), 5–13. <http://doi.org/10.1108/17590831111115204>
- Dawar, N., & Pillutla, M. M. (2000). Impact of product-harm crises on brand equity: The moderating role of consumer expectations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 37(2), 215–226. JOUR.
- DeLamater, J. D., & Myers, D. J. (2011). *Social Psychology*. JOUR, Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Carnegie Learning.
- Deshpande, R., Hoyer, W. D., & Donthu, N. (1986). The Intensity of Ethnic Affiliation: A Study of the Sociology of Hispanic Consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13(2), 214–220. <http://doi.org/10.1086/209061>
- Deutskens, E., de Ruyter, K., & Wetzels, M. (2006). An assessment of equivalence between online and mail surveys in service research. *Journal of Service Research*, 8(4), 346–355. JOUR.
- Dillman, D. a. (2005). Survey Mode as a Source of Instability in Responses across Surveys. *Field Methods*, 17(1), 30–52. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1525822X04269550>
- Dmitrovic, T., Vida, I., & Reardon, J. (2009). Purchase behavior in favor of domestic products in the West Balkans. *International Business Review*, 18(5), 523–535. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2009.05.003>
- Donthu, N., & Cherian, J. (1994). Impact of strength of ethnic identification on Hispanic shopping behavior. *Journal of Retailing*, 70(4), 383–393. [http://doi.org/10.1016/0022-4359\(94\)90006-X](http://doi.org/10.1016/0022-4359(94)90006-X)
- Dovidio, J. F. J. J. F., & Gaertner, S. L. S. (2000). Aversive racism and selection decisions: 1989 and 1999. *Psychological Science*, 11(4), 315–319. JOUR. Retrieved from <http://pss.sagepub.com/content/11/4/315.short>

- Drabble, J. H. (2000). *An economic history of Malaysia, c. 1800-1990: The transition to modern economic growth*. BOOK, Macmillan Basingstoke.
- Dunton, B. C., & Fazio, R. H. (1997). An individual difference measure of motivation to control prejudiced reactions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 23, 316–326. JOUR.
- Essoo, N., & Dibb, S. (2004). Religious influences on shopping behaviour: an exploratory study. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 20(7–8), 683–712. JOUR.
- Essoussi, L. H., & Merunka, D. (2007). Consumers' product evaluations in emerging markets: Does country of design, country of manufacture, or brand image matter? *International Marketing Review*, 24(4), 409–426. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02651330710760991>
- Ettenson, R. (1993). Brand name and country of origin effects in the emerging market economies of Russia, Poland and Hungary. *International Marketing Review*, 10(5).
- Ettenson, R., & Klein, J. G. (2005). The fallout from French nuclear testing in the South Pacific: A longitudinal study of consumer boycotts. *International Marketing Review*, 22(2), 199–224. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02651330510593278>
- Fam, K. S., Waller, D. S., & Erdogan, B. Z. (2004). The influence of religion on attitudes towards the advertising of controversial products. *European Journal of Marketing*, 38(5/6), 537–555. <http://doi.org/10.1108/03090560410529204>
- Fazio, R. H., Jackson, J. R., Dunton, B. C., & Williams, C. J. (1995). Variability in automatic activation as an unobtrusive measure of racial attitudes: a bona fide pipeline? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 69(6), 1013. JOUR.
- Feagin, J. R., & Feagin, C. B. (1996). *Racial and Ethnic Relations* (5th ed.). GEN, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Fernández-Ferrín, P., & Bande-Vilela, B. (2013). Regional ethnocentrism: Antecedents, consequences, and moderating effects. *Food Quality and Preference*, 30(2), 299–308. JOUR.
- Fernández-Ferrín, P., Bande-Vilela, B., Klein, J. G., & Río-Araújo, M. L. . (2015). Consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity: Antecedents and consequences. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 10(1), 73–88. <http://doi.org/10.1108/IJOEM-08-2012-00102>
- Ferrín, P. F., & Vilela, B. B. (2015). Attitudes and reactions of Galician (Spanish) consumers towards the purchase of products from other regions. *Global Business and Economics Review*, 17(2), 131. <http://doi.org/10.1504/GBER.2015.068563>
- Finn, A., & Kayande, U. (2004). Scale modification: alternative approaches and their consequences. *Journal of Retailing*, 80(1), 37–52. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretai.2004.01.003>

- Fischer, J. (2008). *Proper Islamic consumption: Shopping among the Malays in modern Malaysia*. Copenhagen, Denmark: NIAS press.
- Fishbein, M. (1963). An investigation of the relationship between beliefs about an object and the attitude toward that object. *Human Relations*. JOUR.
- Gaertner, S. L., & Dovidio, J. F. (1986). *The aversive form of racism*. BOOK, Academic Press.
- Galliher, J. M., Stewart, T. V., Pathak, P. K., Werner, J. J., Dickinson, L. M., & Hickner, J. M. (2008). Data collection outcomes comparing paper forms with PDA forms in an office-based patient survey. *Annals of Family Medicine*, 6(2), 154–160. <http://doi.org/10.1370/afm.762>
- Garner, S. (2010). *Racisms: an introduction*. BOOK, Sage.
- Gaudart, H. (1999). Games as teaching tools for teaching English to speakers of other languages. *Simulation & Gaming*, 30(3), 283–291. JOUR.
- Gaulier, G., Lemoine, F., & Deniz, Ü.-K. (2007). China's emergence and the reorganisation of trade flows in Asia. *China Economic Review*, 18(3), 209–243. JOUR.
- Geisser, S. (1974). A predictive approach to the random effect model. *Biometrika*, 61, 101–107. <http://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/61.1.101>
- Ghuri, P., & Gronhaug, K. (2010). *Research Methods in Business Studies*. JOUR, Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Gomez, E. T. (2003). Affirmative action and enterprise development in Malaysia: the new economic policy, business partnerships and inter-ethnic relations. *Kajian Malaysia*, XXI(1 & 2), 59–104.
- Grégoire, Y., & Fisher, R. J. (2006). The effects of relationship quality on customer retaliation. *Marketing Letters*, 17(1), 31–46. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s11002-006-3796-4>
- Hair, J., Black, B., Babin, B., Anderson, R., & Tatham, R. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed., Vol. 6). New Jersey: Pearson Educational, Inc.
- Hair, J., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)*. BOOK, SAGE Publications, Incorporated.
- Hair, J., Ringle, C. M. C., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). PLS-SEM: Indeed a Silver Bullet. *The Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 19(2), 139–152. <http://doi.org/10.2753/MTP1069-6679190202>
- Hair, J., Sarstedt, M., Pieper, T. M., & Ringle, C. M. (2012). The Use of Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling in Strategic Management Research: A

- Review of Past Practices and Recommendations for Future Applications. *Long Range Planning*, 45(5–6), 320–340. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2012.09.008>
- Hair, J., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M. C., & Mena, J. A. J. (2012). An assessment of the use of partial least squares structural equation modeling in marketing research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 40(3), 414–433. JOUR. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-011-0261-6>
- Hair, J., Wolfinbarger, M. F., Ortinau, D. J., & Bush, R. P. (2010). *Essentials of Marketing Research* (Second Edi). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Hamin, & Elliott, G. (2006). A less-developed country perspective of consumer ethnocentrism and “country of origin” effects: Indonesian evidence. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 18(2), 79–92. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13555850610658246>
- Han, C. M. (1989). Country image: halo or summary construct? *Journal of Marketing Research*, 26(2), 222–229. JOUR.
- Han, C. M., & Terpstra, V. (1988). Country-of-origin effects for uni-national and bi-national products. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 235–255. JOUR.
- Harris, R., Tobias, M., Jeffreys, M., Waldegrave, K., Karlsen, S., & Nazroo, J. (2006). Racism and health: The relationship between experience of racial discrimination and health in New Zealand. *Social Science and Medicine*, 63, 1428–1441. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2006.04.009>
- Harzing, A., Reiche, S., & Pudelko, M. (2013). Challenges in International Survey Research: A review with illustrations and suggested solutions for best practice. *European Journal of International Management*, 7(1), 112–134.
- Henseler, J. (2012). PLS-MGA: A Non-Parametric Approach to Partial Least Squares-based Multi-Group Analysis. In W. A. Gaul, A. Geyer-Schulz, L. Schmidt-Thieme, & J. Kunze (Eds.), *Challenges at the Interface of Data Analysis, Computer Science, and Optimization* (pp. 495–501). Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg. <http://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-24466-7>
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sinkovics, R. R. (2009). The use of Partial Least Squares Path Modeling in international Marketing. *Advances in International Marketing*, 20(2009), 277–319. [http://doi.org/10.1108/S1474-7979\(2009\)0000020014](http://doi.org/10.1108/S1474-7979(2009)0000020014)
- Herche, J., & Balasubramanian, S. (1994). Ethnicity and Shopping Behaviour. *Journal of Shopping Center Research*.
- Hill, S. R., & Paphitis, K. (2011). Can consumers be racist?: An investigation of the effect of consumer racism on product purchase. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 23(1), 57–71. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13555851111099998>
- Hilton, C. B. (1992). Japanese international business communication: The place of English. *Journal of Business Communication*, 29(3), 253–265. JOUR.

- Hinck, W. (2005). The Role of Domestic Animosity in Consumer Choice: Empirical Evidence from Germany. *Journal of Euromarketing*, 14(1/2), 87–104. [http://doi.org/10.1300/J037v14n01\\_05](http://doi.org/10.1300/J037v14n01_05)
- Hogg, (2001). A Social Identity Theory of Leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 5(3), 184–200. [http://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0503\\_1](http://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0503_1)
- Hogg, M., & Terry, D. I. (2000). Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 121–140. JOUR.
- Hogg, M., & Vaughan, G. (2010). *Essentials of social psychology*. BOOK, Pearson Education.
- Hollensen, S. (2011). *Global marketing: A decision-oriented approach* (5th ed.). BOOK, Essex England: Pearson education limited.
- Hong, C., Hu, W., Prieger, J., & Zhu, D. (2010). French Automobiles and the Chinese Boycotts of 2008: Politics Really Does Affect Commerce. *The BE Journal of Economic* .... Retrieved from <http://www.degruyter.com/view/j/bejeap.2011.11.issue-1/bejeap.2011.11.1.2681/bejeap.2011.11.1.2681.xml>
- Hong, S.-T., & Kang, D. K. (2006). Country-of-origin influences on product evaluations: The impact of animosity and perceptions of industriousness brutality on judgments of typical and atypical products. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 16(3), 232–239.
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1995). Evaluating model fit. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications* (pp. 76–99). JOUR, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Huang, Y., Phau, I., & Lin, C. (2008). Consumer animosity , economic hardship , and normative influence How do they affect consumers ' purchase, 44(7), 909–937. <http://doi.org/10.1108/03090561011047463>
- Huang, Y., Phau, I., & Lin, C. (2010). Effects of Animosity and Allocentrism on Consumer Ethnocentrism : Social Identity on Consumer Willingness to Purchase. *Asia Pacific Management Review*, 15(3), 359–376.
- Hulland, J. (1999). Use of partial least squares (PLS) in strategic management research: A review of four recent. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20, 195. [http://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1097-0266\(199902\)20:2<195::AID-SMJ13>3.3.CO;2-Z](http://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1097-0266(199902)20:2<195::AID-SMJ13>3.3.CO;2-Z)
- Idris, A. (2008). An Analysis of Malay-Sino Relations in Malaysia. *Asian Social Science*, 4(2), 3–12.
- Imai, K. (2011). Multivariate Regression Analysis for the Item Count Technique. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 106(494), 407–416. <http://doi.org/10.1198/jasa.2011.ap10415>

- Izwan, M. (2015). Minister calls for Malay boycott of Chinese businesses to lower prices. Retrieved May 15, 2015, from <http://www.themalaysianinsider.com/malaysia/article/minister-calls-for-malay-boycott-of-chinese-businesses-to-lower-prices#sthash.RYkhIO0c.dpuf>
- Jakobowicz, E., & Derquenne, C. (2007). A modified PLS path modeling algorithm handling reflective categorical variables and a new model building strategy. *Computational Statistics & Data Analysis*, 51(8), 3666–3678. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.csda.2006.12.004>
- Jamal, A. (2003). Marketing in a multicultural world The interplay of marketing , ethnicity and consumption minority consumers; and. *European Journal of Marketing*, 37(11), 1599–1620. <http://doi.org/10.1108/03090560310495375>
- Johny, K., Ilkka, A., & Michael, R. (1994). Negative country-of-origin effects : The case of the new Russia.
- Josiassen, A., Assaf, a. G., & Karpen, I. O. (2011). Consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy: Analyzing the role of three demographic consumer characteristics. *International Marketing Review*, 28(6), 627–646. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02651331111181448>
- Jung, K., Ang, S. H., Leong, S. M., Tan, S. J., Pornpitakpan, C., & Kau, a. K. (2002). A Typology of Animosity and its Cross-National Validation. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 33(6), 525–539. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0022022102238267>
- Kacen, J. J., & Lee, J. A. (2002). The Influence of Culture on Consumer Impulsive Buying Behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 12(2), 163–176. [http://doi.org/10.1207/S15327663JCP1202\\_08](http://doi.org/10.1207/S15327663JCP1202_08)
- Kamal, S. M. (2011). DAP calls Utusan’s Christian Malaysia report a “dangerous lie” - See more at: Retrieved May 18, 2015, from <http://www.themalaysianinsider.com/malaysia/article/dap-calls-utusan-christian-malaysia-report-a-dangerous-lie#sthash.uDOle7Oi.dpuf>
- Kamal, S. M. (2012). DAP world ’ s most racist party , says Utusan. Retrieved February 25, 2015, from <http://www.themalaysianinsider.com/malaysia/article/dap-worlds-most-racist-party-says-utusan>
- Kamaruddin, A. R., Mokhlis, S., & Othman, N. (2002). Ethnocentrism Orientation and Choice Decisions of Malaysian Consumers : The Effects of Socio- Cultural and Demographic Factors. *Asia Pacific Management Review*, 7(4), 555–574.
- Kamarudin, R. P. (2014). Only malays are racists.
- Keil, M., Tan, B. C. Y., Wei, K.-K., Saarinen, T., Tuunainen, V., & Wassenaar, A. (2000). A cross-cultural study on escalation of commitment behavior in software projects. *Mis Quarterly*, 299–325. JOUR.
- Khoo, B. T. (2005). *Ethnic Structure , Inequality and Governance in the Public Sector :*

*Malaysian Experiences*. Geneva: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development. Retrieved from <http://www.unrisd.org/80256B3C005BCCF9/search/19309421DF6D65D3C12570FA00392E12?OpenDocument>

- Kim, N., Min, S., & Chaik, S. (2015). Why Do Firms Enter a New Product Market? A Two-Dimensional Framework for Market Entry Motivation and Behavior. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 32(2), 263–278. JOUR.
- Klein, J. G. (2002). Us Versus Them, or Us Versus Everyone? Delineating Consumer Aversion to Foreign Goods. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 33(2), 345–363.
- Klein, J. G., & Ettenson, R. (1999). Consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism: an analysis of unique antecedents. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 11(4), 5–24. JOUR.
- Klein, J. G., Ettenson, R., & Krishnan, B. C. (2006). Extending the construct of consumer ethnocentrism: when foreign products are preferred. *International Marketing Review*, 23(3), 304–321. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02651330610670460>
- Klein, J. G., Ettenson, R., & Morris, M. D. (1998). The Animosity Model of Foreign Product Purchase: An Empirical Test in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Marketing*, 62(1), 89. <http://doi.org/10.2307/1251805>
- Klein, J. G., Smith, N. C., & John, A. (2004). Why We Boycott : Consumer Motivations for Boycott Participation. *Journal of Marketing*, 68(July), 92–109. JOUR.
- Knight, J. L., Hebl, M. R., Foster, J. B., & Mannix, L. M. (2003). Out of role? Out of luck: The influence of race and leadership status on performance appraisals. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 9(3), 85–93. JOUR.
- Korte, R. F. (2007). A review of social identity theory with implications for training and development. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 31(3), 166–180. <http://doi.org/10.1108/03090590710739250>
- Kortteinen, T. (2008). Negotiating Ethnic Identities: Alcohol as a Social Marker in East and West Malaysia. *Akademika*, 72 (Januar, 25–44. Retrieved from <http://pkukmweb.ukm.my/~penerbit/akademika/jademik.html>
- Krosnick, J. a., & Presser, S. (2010). *Question and Questionnaire Design*. *Handbook of Survey Research*. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1432-1033.1976.tb10115.x>
- Kua, K. S. (2011). *May 13: Declassified documents on the Malaysian riots of 1969*. Suaram.
- Laroche, M., Papadopoulos, N., Heslop, L. A., & Mourali, M. (2005). The influence of country image structure on consumer evaluations of foreign products. *International Marketing Review*, 22(1), 96–115. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02651330510581190>



- Lax, J. R., Phillips, J. H., & Stollwerk, A. F. (2014). Are Survey Respondents Lying About their Support for Same-Sex Marriage? Lessons from A Recent List Experiment.
- Leclerc, F., Schmitt, B. H., & Dube, L. (1994). Foreign Branding and Its Effects on Product Perceptions and Attitudes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31, 263. <http://doi.org/10.2307/3152198>
- Lee, H. ., & Khalid, M. A. (2012). Degrees of discrimination in malaysia. *Vasa*, 1–38. Retrieved from <http://medcontent.metapress.com/index/A65RM03P4874243N.pdf>
- Lee, K., Yang, G., & Graham, J. L. (2006). Tension and trust in international business negotiations: American executives negotiating with Chinese executives. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 623–641. <http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400215>
- Lee, R., & Mazodier, M. (2015). The roles of consumer ethnocentrism, animosity, and cosmopolitanism in sponsorship effects. *European Journal of Marketing*, 49(5/6). <http://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000001104>
- Lee, Y. F. (2014). *Identiti Cina Malaysia*. Kuala Lumpur: Penerbit Universiti Malaya.
- Leong, S. M., Cote, J. a, Ang, S. H., Tan, S. J., Jung, K., Kau, A. K., & Pornpitakpan, C. (2008). Understanding consumer animosity in an international crisis: nature, antecedents, and consequences. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39(6), 996–1009. <http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400392>
- Levin, S., & Sidanius, J. (1999). Social dominance and social identity in the United States and Israel: Ingroup favoritism or outgroup derogation? *Political Psychology*, 20(1), 99–126. JOUR.
- Lewis, K., Kaufman, J., Gonzalez, M., Wimmer, A., & Christakis, N. (2008). Tastes, ties, and time: A new social network dataset using Facebook.com. *Social Networks*, 30(4), 330–342. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.socnet.2008.07.002>
- Li, C., Tsai, S., & Soruco, G. (2013). Perceived “Hispanicness” versus “Americanness”: A study of brand ethnicity with Hispanic consumers. *International Journal of Advertising*, 32(3), 443. <http://doi.org/10.2501/IJA-32-3-443-465>
- Li, F., & Shooshtari, N. H. (2006). On Toyota’s misstep in advertising its Land Cruiser SUV in Beijing: A distortion of consumers’ sociolinguistic system. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 18(4), 61–78. JOUR.
- Lim, R. (2008). *Federal-state Relations in Sabah, Malaysia: The Berjaya Administration, 1976-85*. BOOK, Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- Lindquist, J. D., Vida, I., Plank, R. E., & Fairhurst, A. (2001). The modified CETSCALE: validity tests in the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland. *International Business Review*, 10(5), 505–516. JOUR.

- Lituchy, T. R., & Rail, A. (2000). Bed and breakfasts, small inns, and the Internet: The impact of technology on the globalization of small businesses. *Journal of International Marketing*, 8(2), 86–97. JOUR.
- Lohmöller, J.-B. (1989). *Latent variable path modeling with partial least squares*. BOOK, Physica-Verlag Heidelberg.
- Lowry, P. B., & Gaskin, J. (2014). Partial Least Squares (PLS) Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) for Building and Testing Behavioral Causal Theory: When to Choose It and How to Use It. *Professional Communication, IEEE Transactions on*, 57(2), 123–146. JOUR.
- Luque-Martinez, T., Ibanez-Zapata, J., & Barrio-Garcia, S. del. (2000). An assessment of the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE in Spain Consumer ethnocentrism measurement, 34(11), 1353–1373.
- MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2012). Common Method Bias in Marketing: Causes, Mechanisms, and Procedural Remedies. *Journal of Retailing*, 88(4), 542–555. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretai.2012.08.001>
- Madden, T. J., Ellen, P. S., & Ajzen, I. (1992). A Comparison of the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Theory of Reasoned Action. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 18(1), 3–9. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0146167292181001>
- Magnusson, P., Westjohn, S. A., & Zdravkovic, S. (2011). “What? I thought Samsung was Japanese”: accurate or not, perceived country of origin matters. *International Marketing Review*, 28(5), 454–472. JOUR.
- Maher, A. a., Clark, P., & Maher, A. (2010). International consumer admiration and the persistence of animosity. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 27(5), 414–424. <http://doi.org/10.1108/07363761011063312>
- Maher, A. a., & Mady, S. (2010). Animosity, subjective norms, and anticipated emotions during an international crisis. *International Marketing Review*, 27(6), 630–651. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02651331011088263>
- Majlis-Gerakan-Negara. (1969). *Tragedi 13 Mei: Laporan oleh Majlis Gerakan Negara*. (A. R. Hussein, Ed.). Kuala Lumpur: Majlis Gerakan Negara.
- Mak, A. S., & Nesdale, D. (2001). Migrant Distress: The Role of Perceived Racial Discrimination and Coping Resources<sup>1</sup>. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 31(12), 2632–2647. JOUR.
- Martin, I. M., & Eroglu, S. (1993). Measuring a multi-dimensional construct: country image. *Journal of Business Research*, 28(3), 191–210. JOUR.
- Mason, T., Masami, F., & Ismail, N. (2013). Orang Asli in Peninsular Malaysia : Population , Spatial Distribution and Socio-Economic Condition. *Ritsumeikan Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 6, 75–115. Retrieved from [http://www.ritsumeikai.ac.jp/acd/re/k-rsc/hss/book/pdf/vol06\\_07.pdf](http://www.ritsumeikai.ac.jp/acd/re/k-rsc/hss/book/pdf/vol06_07.pdf)

- McConahay, J. B. (1983). Modern Racism and Modern Discrimination The Effects of Race, Racial Attitudes, and Context on Simulated Hiring Decisions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 9(4), 551–558. JOUR.
- McConahay, J. B. (1986). Modern racism, ambivalence, and the modern racism scale. JOUR.
- McConahay, J. B., Hardee, B. B., & Batts, V. (1981). Has Racism Declined in America? It depends on who is asking and what is asked. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 25(4), 563–579.
- McConahay, J. B., & Hough, J. C. (1976). Symbolic racism. *Journal of Social Issues*, 32(2), 23–45. JOUR.
- McCracken, G. (1989). Who is the celebrity endorser? Cultural foundations of the endorsement process. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 310–321. JOUR.
- McDonald, H., & Adam, S. (2003). A comparison of online and postal data collection methods in marketing research. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 21(2), 85–95. JOUR.
- McMorris, B. J., Petrie, R. S., Catalano, R. F., Fleming, C. B., Haggerty, K. P., & Abbott, R. D. (2009). Use of web and in-person survey modes to gather data from young adults on sex and drug use: an evaluation of cost, time, and survey error based on a randomized mixed-mode design. *Evaluation Review*, 33(2), 138–158. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0193841X08326463>
- Meade, A. W., & Craig, S. B. (2012). Identifying careless responses in survey data. *Psychological Methods*, 17(3), 437–455. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0028085>
- Meade, A. W., Watson, A. M., & Kroustalis, C. M. (2007). Assessing Common Methods Bias in Organizational Research, (1994).
- Merdeka Center for Opinion Research. (2006). *Introduction Survey Objectives Methodology Main Findings Perception and Expectation on Ethnic Relation Understanding and Trust Personal Experience and Social Interaction Perception on Citizenship , Equality and Solidarity Conclusions*. Kuala Lumpur. Retrieved from <http://www.merdeka.org>
- Merdeka Center for Opinion Research. (2011). *Survey on Ethnic Relations 2011 Peninsular Malaysia Perception towards Ethnic Relations : Sentiment , interaction & public policies*. Kuala Lumpur. Retrieved from <http://www.merdeka.org>
- Milne, R. S. (1965). Political parties in Sarawak and Sabah. *Journal of Southeast Asian History*, 6(2), 104–117. JOUR.
- Minai, M. S., Ibrahim, Y., & Kheng, L. K. (2012). Entrepreneurial Network in Malaysia : Are There Any Differences Across Ethnic Groups ? *Journal of Business and Policy Research*, 7(1), 178–192.

- Mintu-Wimsatt, A., & Graham, J. L. (2004). Testing a negotiation model on Canadian anglophone and Mexican exporters. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 32(3), 345–356. JOUR.
- Mohd Noor, M., Abdul Aziz, A. R., & Iskandar Lee, M. A. (2006). *Hubungan Etnik di Malaysia*. JOUR, Petaling Jaya: Prentice Hall.
- Mostafa, M. M. (2010). A Structural Equation Analysis of the Animosity Model of Foreign Product Purchase in Egypt. *Global Business Review*, 11(3), 347–363. <http://doi.org/10.1177/097215091001100303>
- Muhammad, N., & Che Razak, R. (2004). Consumer Ethnocentrism: The Relationship with Domestic Products Evaluation and Buying Preferences. *International Journal of Management Studies*, 11(Special Issues), 29–44. Retrieved from <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/cbdv.200490137/abstract>
- Nagashima, A. (1970). A comparison of Japanese and US attitudes toward foreign products. *The Journal of Marketing*, 68–74. JOUR.
- Nesdale, D., Rooney, R., & Smith, L. (1997). Migrant ethnic identity and psychological distress. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 28(5), 569–588. JOUR.
- Newell, S. M., Logan, H. L., Guo, Y., Marks, J. G., & Shepperd, J. a. (2015). Evaluating Tablet Computers as a Survey Tool in Rural Communities. *The Journal of Rural Health*, 31(1), 108–117. JOUR. <http://doi.org/10.1111/jrh.12095>
- Ng, E. (2015). DAP supported Razak' s NEP, until it became “Umno-putra” agenda, says Kit Siang. Retrieved February 24, 2015, from <http://www.themalaysianinsider.com/malaysia/article/dap-supported-razaks-nep-until-it-became-umno-putra-agenda-says-kit-siang>
- Nijssen, E. J., & Douglas, S. P. (2004). Examining the animosity model in a country with a high level of foreign trade. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 21(1), 23–38.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory* (3) McGraw-Hill. New York. JOUR.
- Oppermann, M. (1995). E-mail surveys--potentials and pitfalls. *Marketing Research*, 7(3), 29–33. JOUR.
- Ouellet, J.-F. (2005). Consumer Racism and Its Effects on Attitude. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 32, 422–428. Retrieved from [http://www.acrwebsite.org/volumes/v32/acr\\_vol32\\_122.pdf](http://www.acrwebsite.org/volumes/v32/acr_vol32_122.pdf)
- Ouellet, J.-F. (2007). Consumer Racism and Its Effects on Domestic Cross-Ethnic Product Purchase : An Empirical Test in the. *Journal of Marketing*, 71(January), 113–128.
- Ouellet, J.-F., Beaunoyer, M., & Lacroix, C. (2009). Consumer Sexism: Scale

- Development and Validation. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 8, 100–105. Retrieved from [http://www.acrwebsite.org/volumes/ap08/ap\\_2009\\_vol8\\_139.pdf](http://www.acrwebsite.org/volumes/ap08/ap_2009_vol8_139.pdf)
- Pappu, R., Quester, P. G., & Cooksey, R. W. (2007). Country image and consumer-based brand equity: relationships and implications for international marketing, 726–745. <http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400293>
- Paradies, Y., & Cunningham, J. (2009). Experiences of racism among urban Indigenous Australians: findings from the DRUID study. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 32(3), 548–573. <http://doi.org/10.1080/01419870802065234>
- Patel, A. (2014). *Malaysian education : what do the poor really want ?* Kuala Lumpur. Retrieved from <http://ideas.org.my/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/PolicyNo12-lowres2.pdf>
- Peter, J. P., & Olson, J. (2009). *Consumer Behavior and Marketing Strategy* (9th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Petersen, B., Welch, L. S., & Liesch, P. W. (2002). The Internet and Foreign Market Expansion by Firms. *Management International Review*, 42(2), 207–221.
- Pettigrew, T. F., & Meertens, R. W. (1995). Subtle and blatant prejudice in Western Europe. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 25(1), 57–75. JOUR.
- Pires, G., & Stanton, J. (2000). Marketing services to ethnic consumers in culturally diverse markets: issues and implications. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 14(7), 607–618. <http://doi.org/10.1108/08876040010352772>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879–903. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879>
- Poon, P., Evangelista, F., & Albaum, G. (2010). Attitudes of migrants towards foreign-made products: an exploratory study of migrants in Australia. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 27(1), 35–42. <http://doi.org/10.1108/07363761011012930>
- Putra, T. A. R. (2012). *13 Mei Sebelum dan Selepas* (3rd ed.). BOOK, Kuala Lumpur: Utusan Publication & Distributors.
- Qing, P., Lobo, A., & Chongguang, L. (2012). The impact of lifestyle and ethnocentrism on consumers' purchase intentions of fresh fruit in China. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 29(1), 43–51. <http://doi.org/10.1108/07363761211193037>
- Rahim, L. Z. (2004). *Dilema Singapura: peminggiran politik dan pelajaran masyarakat Melayu*. (Y. Ali, Ed.). BOOK, Kuala Lumpur: ITBM.
- Ramo, D. E., & Prochaska, J. J. (2012). Broad reach and targeted recruitment using Facebook for an online survey of young adult substance use. *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, 14(1), e28. <http://doi.org/10.2196/jmir.1878>

- Reinartz, W., Haenlein, M., & Henseler, J. (2009). An empirical comparison of the efficacy of covariance-based and variance-based SEM. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 26(4), 332–344. JOUR.
- Revilla, M. a., Saris, W. E., & Krosnick, J. A. (2013). Choosing the Number of Categories in Agree-Disagree Scales. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 43(1), 73–97. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0049124113509605>
- Riefler, P., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2007). Consumer animosity: a literature review and a reconsideration of its measurement. *International Marketing Review*, 24(1), 87–119. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02651330710727204>
- Rigdon, E. E., Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., & Gudergan, S. P. (2011). Assessing Heterogeneity in Customer satisfaction studies: Across industry similarities and within industry differences. *Advances in International Marketing*, 22(2011), 169–194. [http://doi.org/10.1108/S1474-7979\(2011\)0000022011](http://doi.org/10.1108/S1474-7979(2011)0000022011)
- Ringle, C. M., Sarstedt, M., & Mooi, E. A. (2010). *Data Mining*. (R. Stahlbock, S. F. Crone, & S. Lessmann, Eds.) (Vol. 8). Boston, MA: Springer US. <http://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-1280-0>
- Ringle, C., Wende, S., & Will, A. (2005). SmartPLS 2.0 (M3) Beta, Hamburg. GEN.
- Rofie, M. K. (2010). *Hubungan Etnik di Malaysia: Realiti dan Cabaran*. CONF, Jitra: Pure Honey Enterprise.
- Rose, M., Rose, G. M., & Shoham, A. (2009). The impact of consumer animosity on attitudes towards foreign goods: a study of Jewish and Arab Israelis. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 26(5), 330–339. <http://doi.org/10.1108/07363760910976583>
- Rosenberg, M. J., & Hovland, C. I. (1960). Cognitive, affective, and behavioral components of attitudes. *Attitude Organization and Change: An Analysis of Consistency among Attitude Components*, 3, 1–14. JOUR.
- Roslan, A. H. (2001). Income inequality, poverty and development policy in Malaysia. In *Conference on Poverty and Sustainable development* (p. Vol. 4). University Montesquieu-Bordeaux.
- Run, E. C. De. (2007). Ethnically targeted advertising: views of those not targeted. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 19(3), 265–285. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13555850710772932>
- Run, E. C. De, & Fah, C. S. (2006). Language Use in Packaging: The Reaction of Malay and Chinese Consumers In Malaysia. *Sunway Academic Journal*, 145(3), 133–145.
- Saffu, K., Walker, J. H., & Mazurek, M. (2010). The role of consumer ethnocentrism in a buy national campaign in a transitioning country: Some evidence from Slovakia. *International Journal of Emerging Markets*, 5(2), 203–226.

- Said, E. (1979). *Orientalism*. 1978. *New York: Vintage, 1994*. JOUR.
- Sakarya, S., Eckman, M., & Hyllegard, K. H. (2007). Market selection for international expansion: Assessing opportunities in emerging markets. *International Marketing Review*, 24(2), 208–238. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02651330710741820>
- Samiee, S., Shimp, T. A., & Sharma, S. (2005). Brand origin recognition accuracy: its antecedents and consumers' cognitive limitations. *Journal of International Business Studies*. <http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400145>
- Sarstedt, M., Schwaiger, M., & Ringle, C. M. (2009). Do we fully understand the critical success factors of customer satisfaction with industrial goods?-extending Festge and Schwaiger's model to account for unobserved heterogeneity. *Journal of Business Market Management*, 3(3), 185–206. JOUR.
- Saucier, D. a, Hockett, J. M., Zanotti, D. C., & Heffel, S. (2010). Effects of racism on perceptions and punishment of intra- and interracial crimes. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 25(10), 1767–84. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0886260509358386>
- Saucier, D., & Miller, C. T. (2003). The persuasiveness of racial arguments as a subtle measure of racism. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(10), 1303–15. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0146167203254612>
- Schmidt, M. J., & Hollensen, S. (2006). *Marketing research: An international approach*. BOOK, England: Pearson education.
- Schooler, R. D. (1965). Product bias in the Central American common market. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 394–397. JOUR.
- Seidenfuss, K.-U., Kathawala, Y., & Dinnie, K. (2013). Regional and country ethnocentrism: broadening ASEAN origin perspectives. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 25(2), 298–320. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13555851311314077>
- Shankarmahesh, M. N. (2006). Consumer ethnocentrism: an integrative review of its antecedents and consequences. *International Marketing Review*, 23(2), 146–172. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02651330610660065>
- Sharma, S., Shimp, T. A., & Shin, J. (1995). Consumer ethnocentrism: a test of antecedents and moderators. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23(1), 26–37.
- Sharma, S., Shimp, T. A., & Shin, J. (1995). Consumer Ethnocentrism A test of Antecedents and Moderators.pdf. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23(1), 26–37. JOUR.
- Sheehan, K. B. (2001). E-mail Survey Response Rates: A Review. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 6(2), 0. JOUR. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2001.tb00117.x>

- Shibutani, T., & Kwan, K. M. (1965). Ethnic stratification. *A Comparative Approach*. New York: Mac-Millan. JOUR.
- Shimp, T. A., Dunn, T. H., & Klein, J. G. (2004). Remnants of the US Civil War and modern consumer behavior. *Psychology & Marketing*, 21(2), 75–91.
- Shimp, T. A., & Sharma, S. (1987). Consumer Ethnocentrism: Construction and Validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, XXIV(August), 280–289.
- Shuttleworth, M. (2009). Research Bias. Retrieved from <https://explorable.com/research-bias>
- Siemieniako, D., Kubacki, K., Glińska, E., Krot, K., Głinska, E., & Krot, K. (2011). National and regional ethnocentrism: a case study of beer consumers in Poland. *British Food Journal*, 113(3), 404–418.
- Smith, M., & Li, Q. (2010). The boycott model of foreign product purchase: an empirical test in China. *Asian Review of Accounting*, 18(2), 106–130. <http://doi.org/10.1108/13217341011059381>
- Smith, N. C., & Cooper-Martin, E. (1997). Ethics and target marketing: The role of product harm and consumer vulnerability. *The Journal of Marketing*, 1–20. JOUR.
- Sommers, S. R., & Norton, M. I. (2006). Lay Theories About White Racists: What Constitutes Racism (and What Doesn't). *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 9(1), 117–138. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1368430206059881>
- SPSS, I. B. M. (2010). SPSS for Windows (version 19) SPSS. Inc., Chicago, Illinois. JOUR.
- Stayman, D. M., & Deshpande, R. (1989). Situational Ethnicity and Consumer Behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(3), 361. <http://doi.org/10.1086/209222>
- Stewart, B. (2004). *Smashing Terrorism in the Malayan Emergency: The Vital Contribution of the Police*. BOOK, Pelanduk Publications Sdn Bhd.
- Stoltman, J. J., Lim, Y. K., & Morgan, F. W. (1991). The effect of country of origin, product familiarity and ethnocentrism on the acceptance of foreign products. In *Marketing Theory and Applications, Academy of Marketing Winter Educators Conference* (pp. 82–89). CONF, International Business Press.
- Stone, M. (1974). Cross-Validatory Choice and Assessment of Statistical Predictions. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series B (Methodological)*, 36, 111–147. <http://doi.org/10.2307/2984809>
- Supphellen, M., & Rittenburg, T. L. (2001). Consumer ethnocentrism when foreign products are better. *Psychology & Marketing*, 18(9), 907–927. JOUR.



- Suryanidata, L. (2007). Ethnic Chinese in Southeast Asia: Problems and Prospects. In *Understanding the Ethnic Chinese in Southeast Asia* (pp. 11–28). Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- Tai, W.-P., & Soong, J.-J. (2014). Trade Relations Between China and Southeast. *Chinese Economy*, 47(3), 23–39. <http://doi.org/10.2753/CES1097-1475470302>
- Tajfel, H. (1978). *Differentiation between social groups: Studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations*. BOOK, Academic Press.
- Tajfel, H. (1982). Social Psychology of Intergroup relations. *Annual Review Psychology*, 33, 1–39.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *Psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 7–24). BOOK, Chicago: Nelson-Hall Chicago.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. *The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations*, 33(47), 74. JOUR.
- Tan, C. B. (2002). *Chinese minority in a Malay state: The case of Terengganu in Malaysia*. BOOK, Marshall Cavendish Academic.
- Taylor, C. R., & Lee, J. Y. (1994). Not in vogue: Portrayals of Asian Americans in magazine advertising. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 239–245. JOUR.
- Teo, P., Mohamad, O., & Ramayah, T. (2011). Testing the dimensionality of Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale ( CETSCALE ) among a young Malaysian consumer market segment. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(7), 2805–2816. <http://doi.org/10.5897/AJBM10.1185>
- Thock, K. P. (2007). *Ketuanan politik Melayu: pandangan kaum Cina (Malay political supremacy: The Chinese view)* (2nd Editio). BOOK, Kuala Lumpur: Penerbit Universiti Malaya.
- Tourangeau, R., & Yan, T. (2007). Sensitive questions in surveys. *Psychological Bulletin*, 133(5), 859–83. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.133.5.859>
- Truell, A. D., Bartlett, J. E., & Alexander, M. W. (2002). Response rate, speed, and completeness: A comparison of Internet-based and mail surveys. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, 34(1), 46–49. JOUR.
- Turner, J. C. (1982). *Towards a cognitive redefinition of the social group*. (H. Tajfel, Ed.) *Social identity and intergroup relations* (Paperback). JOUR, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Turner, J. C., Hogg, M., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S., & Wetherell, M. (1987). *Rediscovering the Social group: a self categorization theory*. *Personality and social psychology bulletin* (Vol. 20). JOUR, Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

- Velioglu, M. N., Karsu, S., & Umut, M. O. (2013). Purchasing behaviors of the consumers based on ethnic identities in Turkey. *Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, (13), 1–19.
- Vengadesan, M. (2008). May 13 , 1969 : Truth and reconciliation. Retrieved from <http://www.thestar.com.my/story/?file=%2F2008%2F5%2F11%2Flifefocus%2F21181089>
- Vida, I., Dmitrovic, T., & Obadia, C. (2008). The role of ethnic affiliation in consumer ethnocentrism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(3/4), 327–343. <http://doi.org/10.1108/03090560810852968>
- Vitell, S., & Muncy, J. (2005). The Muncy–Vitell consumer ethics scale: A modification and application. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 267–275. Retrieved from <http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10551-005-7058-9>
- Wan Husin, W. N. (2011). Budi-Islam; Its Role in the construction of Malay Identity in Malaysia. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 1(12), 132–142.
- Wan Husin, W. N. (2012a). Cultural Clash between the Malays and Chinese in Malaysia : An Analysis on the Formation and Implementation of National Cultural Policy, 34, 1–6.
- Wan Husin, W. N. (2012b). *Peradaban dan Perkauman di Malaysia: Hubungan Etnik Melayu-Cina*. Kuala Lumpur: Penerbit Universiti Malaya.
- Wan Husin, W. N. (2013). Business Dominance among the Malays and Chinese in Malaysia from a Civilizational Perspectives. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 3(4), 360–364. <http://doi.org/10.7763/IJSSH.2013.V3.262>
- Wan Husin, W. N., & Ong, J. H. . (2012). The Role of Culture in Strengthening Chinese Business Survival during Malaysian New Economic Policy, 73–77. <http://doi.org/10.7763/IPEDR>.
- Wan Husin, W. N., & Tee, M. R. A. (2012). Social Relation between the Malays and Chinese Communities from a Civilizational Perspectives. In *Proceedings of World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology*. CONF, World Academy of Science, Engineering and Technology.
- Wang, C. L., & Chen, Z. X. (2004). Consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy domestic products in a developing country setting: testing moderating effects. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 21(6), 391–400. <http://doi.org/10.1108/07363760410558663>
- Warren, I., & Tsousis, S. (1997). Racism and law in Australian rules football: a critical analysis. *Sporting Traditions*, 14, 27–54. JOUR.
- Watson, J. J., & Wright, K. (2000). Consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes toward domestic and foreign products. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(9/10), 1149–

1166. <http://doi.org/10.1108/03090560010342520>

- Wieviorka, M. (2010). Racism in Europe : Unity and Diversity. In M. Guibernau & J. Rex (Eds.), *The ethnicity reader: Nationalism, multiculturalism and migration* (p. 345). BOOK, Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Wilcox, a B., Gallagher, K. D., Boden-Albala, B., & Bakken, S. R. (2012). Research Data Collection Methods From Paper to Tablet Computers. *Medical Care*, 50(7), S68–S73. <http://doi.org/Doi.10.1097/Mlr.0b013e318259c1e7>
- Wilkes, R. E., & Valencia, H. (1989). Hispanics and Blacks in television commercials. *Journal of Advertising*, 18(1), 19–25. JOUR.
- Witkowski, T. (2000). Effects of animosity toward China on willingness to buy Chinese products. *Managing in a Turbulent International Business Environment*, 470–477.
- Wold, H. (1974). Causal flows with latent variables: partings of the ways in the light of NIPALS modelling. *European Economic Review*, 5(1), 67–86. JOUR.
- Wriggins, J. (1983). Rape, racism, and the law. *Harvard Journal of Law and Gender*, 6(1), 103. JOUR.
- Wu, G. (2011). Country image, informational influence, collectivism/individualism, and brand loyalty: exploring the automobile purchase patterns of Chinese Americans. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 28(3), 169–177. <http://doi.org/10.1108/07363761111127590>
- Yagci, M. I. (2001). Evaluating the effects of country-of-origin and consumer ethnocentrism: a case of a transplant product. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 13(3), 63–85.
- Yeong, N. C., Mohamad, O., Ramayah, T., & Omar, A. (2007). Purchase Preference of Selected Malaysian motorcycle buyers: The Discriminating Role of Perception of Country of Origin of Brand and Ethnocentrism. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 12(1), 1–22.
- Yoo, H. C., Steger, M. F., & Lee, R. M. (2010). Validation of the Subtle and Blatant Racism Scale for Asian American. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 16(3), 323–334. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0018674>
- Yow, H. C. (2011). Gardenia takes out ads to deny crony , racist claims. Retrieved February 25, 2015, from <http://www.themalaysianinsider.com/malaysia/article/gardenia-takes-out-ads-to-deny-crony-racist-claims>
- Zikmund, W. G., & Babin, B. J. (2010). *Essentials of Marketing Research* (4th ed.). BOOK, Mason, OH, USA: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Zikmund, W. G., Babin, B. J., Carr, J. C., & Griffin, M. (2010). *Business Research Methods*, South-Western, Cengage Learning. Mason, OH. JOUR.

Zikmund, W. G., Ward, S., Lowe, B., Winzar, H., & Babin, B. J. (2011). *Marketing research: Second Asia Pacific Edition* (2nd ed.). BOOK, Victoria: Cengage Learning Australia Pty Limited.

Zolfagharian, M., Saldivar, R., & Sun, Q. (2014). Ethnocentrism and country of origin effects among immigrant consumers. *The Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 31(1), 68–84. <http://doi.org/10.1108/JCM-06-2013-0620>

