



THE UNIVERSITY OF  
WESTERN AUSTRALIA

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**The effects of cultural adaptation  
in immigrants' purchasing of store brands**

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This Thesis is presented for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Marketing

Business School

University of Western Australia

**2012**



## ABSTRACT

Immigrants have become important consumers for marketers because of their significant growing and migratory population. The immigrant population is expected to continue growing the future. Immigrants often have different ways of purchasing, different brand and product preferences, and different places to shop than that offering in their new country of residence. The different ways of purchasing may be affected by the culture or values the immigrants bring from their home countries. The literature also mentions that culture is an important variable that shapes consumers' value in purchasing products. Therefore, marketers should examine immigrants' purchasing decisions because their cultural background may affect their future purchasing behaviours. Beside their original culture, immigrants also deal with their new country's culture and tend to adapt to this new culture to be accepted and be successful in their new country.

Although there are many studies on immigrants' acculturation in their new country, studies on how immigrants adapt to the culture in a new country affects in consumers' decision making are limited. For example, there is no research concerning decision making in purchasing store brands. This study explores the effects of the construct of Cultural Adaptation measure in purchasing store brands.

Three studies were conducted to support the main study. The objective of Study 1 was to develop a scale to measure immigrants' cultural adaptation to a new country of residence. The sample of this study was international students in a university in Perth, Western Australia. International students are often considered temporary immigrants by other research in the literature. Using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Study 1 found that the existence of the construct of Cultural Adaptation consists of six factors,

named acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, homie comfort, and neighbour.

The objective of Study 2 was to test the generalizability of the measure of the construct of Cultural Adaptation in a different sample of Indonesian-Chinese students in one university in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. The sample was chosen because Indonesian-Chinese have had to acculturate to the Indonesian culture due to political pressure in the past. The respondents in this sample have to adapt to the dominant culture in Yogyakarta, which is dominated by Javanese culture. The findings of Study 2 support the findings in Study 1, particularly finding the same factors of acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, homie comfort, and neighbour. The cultural adaptation measure is consistent in the two different samples (Study 1 and Study 2).

Study 3 tested how respondents from different cultural background may perceive retail store brands. The sample included international and Australian local students in one university in Western Australia. The study found that International students have a stronger belief that store brands are Australian brands more than Australian students. Furthermore, Australian students more strongly believed that store brands may fail to perform to their satisfaction than international students. The results indicated that an individual cultural background may contribute to their perceptions of purchasing store brands. The finding of Study 3 provided the hypotheses for the dependent variable for the main study.

The main study investigated the effect of the construct of cultural adaptation in consumers' purchases of store brands, with their attitude towards purchasing store brands as a mediating variable. The sample consisted of immigrants from Mainland

China in that live Western Australia. The construct of the Cultural adaptation was tested in this study using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and found that the factor of “neighbour” was not reliable with this sample. Therefore, this factor was not used for further analysis.

Using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), the study found that the factor of “ethnic speaking” was the only factor in the cultural adaptation measure that had a significant effect in consumer purchases of store brands. The factors of acculturation, religion and homie comfort had significantly indirect effects in store brand purchases through the immigrants’ attitude toward purchasing store brands. The factor of “media language” was the only factor that had no direct or indirect effects on store brand purchases.

Regarding gender, females had more interest in participating ethnic activities and socialize with people from their home country than males. These findings suggest that females have more difficulties to adapt to a new culture than males.

The studies contribute to the literature in several ways. The study contributes in developing a multiple factor measure of cultural adaptation allows a diagnosis of which factor of the measure is salient in a specific ethnic scenario, instead of only measuring immigrants’ acculturation and ethnic identity. Moreover, the study is offering important insights into consumer purchases of store brands with cultural adaptation as one of predictors. The study also provides a viewpoint on the mediating role of attitude toward purchasing store brands in the relationship between cultural adaptation and immigrants’ purchasing store brands.



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## **STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP**

To the best of my knowledge and belief, the work presented in this thesis is my own except where acknowledgement is given to the originating author. All sources used in this research have been cited and no attempt has been made to project the contributions of original authors as my own. In addition, this thesis has not been submitted, either whole or in part, for a degree at any other institution.

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September 11<sup>th</sup>, 2012



## PUBLICATIONS RELATED TO THIS RESEARCH

I hereby declare that except where specific reference is made in the text to the work of the others, the contents of this thesis are original and have not been submitted to any other university.

Parts of the work presented in this thesis have been presented in conferences. I acknowledge the detailed and significant contribution of Professor Dick Mizerski and A/Professor Fang Liu in the preparation of the following papers:

Krisjanti, M., Mizerski, D. and Liu, F. (2010): “Testing the Association of Ethnic Identity and Acculturation”, *Cultural Perspectives in Marketing Conference, Academy of Marketing Science*. 21<sup>st</sup> – 24<sup>th</sup> July 2010, IESEG School of Management, Lille, France

Krisjanti, M., Liu, F. and Mizerski, D. (2010): “The Effect of Ethnic Identity and Acculturation on Purchase of Host Country Products”, *Global Marketing Conference, Korean Academy of Marketing Science*. 9<sup>th</sup> – 12<sup>th</sup> September 2010, Tokyo, Japan

Krisjanti, M., Mizerski, D. and Liu, F. (2011): “Evaluating a New Measure of Acculturation and Ethnic Identity with Indonesian Chinese”, *Western Australia Indonesian Forum 2011*, 10<sup>th</sup> February 2011, UWA, Australia

Krisjanti, M. and Liu, F. (2011): “How does Lifestyle Shape Ethnic Shopping Behaviour: A Study on Indonesian Chinese Consumers”, *Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference*, Edith Cowan University, Perth, 28<sup>th</sup> – 30<sup>th</sup> November 2011



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Being international students who learnt English as a third language, a PhD written in English would not have been possible without the patience, and supports from my supervisors: Professor Dick Mizerski and Dr. Fang Liu. My special respects and thanks to Professor Dick Mizerski for his kind understanding with my weaknesses in conducting research and writing thesis. His advice and encouragement lead me to the completion of my thesis.

My acknowledgement goes to Mr. Patrick Litingying from Ethnic Community Council of WA (ECCWA), and Ms. Maria Osman, Mrs. Rita Asfar and Ms. Dragana Danicic from the Office of Multicultural Interest (OMI) who provide me with precious information about potential studies that will help immigrants to adjust in their new country, Australia. Having discussions with them is one of the important stages in my research development.

My acknowledgment is also extended to Dr. Doina Olaru for her assistance in my statistical analysis. I would like to thank administration staff at Marketing Department UWA Business School, Helen Reidy, Maryann Evetts, and Sandra Mayu. Thank you, Shasha Wang, Thang Pham, Stanley Yu, Cici, Donard, Dalma, and Lyn for being my good friends in my PhD journey.

I also acknowledge University of Atma Jaya Yogyakarta and DIKTI for sponsoring my study.

I would like to thank my husband, Agus Santosa, for unlimited love and encouragement for me to reach my dream. I would also thank my kids Bella Santosa and Vincent

Santosa for entertaining me with their sweet talks, warm hugs, and amazing understanding especially when I have to work late.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **Australian Immigration**

The International Organization of Migration (IOM, 2005) reported that in the year of 2000, there were 175 million international immigrants in the world, or 2.9% of the world population. The migrant number increased significantly in 2005 to 191 million people. This number only represents the number of people living in a country other than that in which they were born (IOM, 2005).

In 1990, Australia was one of ten countries that hosted the largest number of international immigrants. Based on the UN data at 2005, Australia was the 11<sup>th</sup> country in term of number of international immigrants (IOM, 2005). During 2000-2010, Australia welcomed 1,759,000 overseas migrants, which significantly increased the Australian population. Furthermore, according to ABS (2011) in 2009–2010, preliminary Net Overseas Migration (NOM) estimates added 57% of Australia's total population growth for the year 2009-2010.

There are two types of people among those who have migrated (Berry, 1997). The first type is the people that are permanently settled in the process. The second are the people that temporarily immigrate (e.g. international students, guest workers).

The number of migrants in the vocational education and training sector, and the higher education sector in Australia in 2008-2009 was 30.8% of the total number of migrants in that year. The number of humanitarian entrants in the same year was 3.9% of the total

migrants. Twenty five per cent of the total immigrants in 2008-2009 entered under the family and skilled worker visa program.

Although international students are not initially permanent migrants to Australia, those that study at the university level are an important force for immigration in developed economies (King & Ruiz-Gelices, 2003). For example, international students that have obtained an Australian qualification may apply for permanent residency while in Australia, provided they meet the selection criteria. In 2004, there were 42,300 overseas students that had completed their higher education course, and 34% were approved for permanent residence onshore (OECD, 2006).

### **Challenges for the Immigrants**

International migration has grown considerably and it gives new challenges for societies and policy-makers all over the world. Indeed, governments in Europe, North America and Australia often treat foreign immigrants with alarm and handle this matter by designing policies to select certain immigrants and keep out others (Hatton & Williamson, 2003). For the people that have been living in the host countries, immigrants are often perceived as threats to them. For example, Australian local painters have been under-priced by immigrants, and immigrants are more willing to work during the weekend.

Beside employment competition, immigrants may also bring new ways of living to the new country. These may be a problem, such as behaviour regarding their faith (for example praying in public) that may not be perceived as common in the new country.



### **Challenges in Social Life**

From the immigrants' side, they may face potential challenges which occur when they migrate to new countries, such as the lack of the jobs at their level of education, largely due to their poor level of the English language. Another problem potentially faced by immigrants is neighbourhoods that provide a different social life that makes them feel isolated. These kind of situations put pressure on immigrants to adjust their life style and values to the new country. Indeed, many immigrants come from countries in which the government or religious leaders require them to wear particular clothes, such as a sari, salwar khameez, kurta, turban, burqa or thobe. They are used to wearing these clothes, but residents of the new country may see these styles as uncommon or threatening clothes. Therefore, there are many dilemmas which are faced by immigrants coming to a new country.

### **Challenges in the Market**

Immigrants may also face difficulties obtaining the products and brands they used to buy in their home country. They need to adjust their buying habits and behaviours in the new country that may take a long time, or never. For example, immigrants must adjust to the food available in the new country's markets. The unavailability of particular grocery items may affect their daily consumption of the food they eat. Some also must adjust to the supermarkets where the prices are fixed. Many immigrants are used to bargaining for their purchases. Having no chance to bargain may not satisfy their purchasing experiences. Moreover, the frequency of shopping may also become another issue. Immigrants often have daily shopping habits in small shops in their neighbourhood. This shopping style is also part of their social life, where they can meet and have a little chat with people in their neighbourhood. This shopping experience may

not be the same in the new country due to the different shopping style and lack of availability of small shops in the neighbourhood.

### **Concern in the Marketing Research**

The immigrants' market is too large to be neglected by marketers. Therefore, investigating immigrants' behaviour as consumers is an important research area in marketing (Wang, 2004). For example, they need to know how immigrants adjust to product unavailability in the market, and how they adopt different buying habits such as where and when they can buy the products. However, the relationship between culture and consumption is quite complex (Ogden et.al., 2004). Manstead's study (1997) reported that cultural variations have significant impacts on the way people view the world, and how this culture affects their behaviours. In marketing, Henry's study (1976) stated that culture has been accepted as an underlying determinant of many aspects of consumer behaviours. People with different cultural background may exhibit different behaviours as consumers. For example, Asians prefer to have green tea for their breakfast instead of cappuccino. For Italians, coffee with milk is only for breakfast. Therefore, Italians prefer having black coffee for their morning and afternoon tea, instead of having a latte or cappuccino.

Acculturation refers to changes that occur as a result of cultural interaction. Immigrants will acculturate to the new country's cultures as a result of the acculturation process. During this acculturation process, immigrants often try to maintain their original culture. Cultural adjustment and cultural maintenance will be a big challenge for marketers that target immigrants. At the very least, marketers have two options; changing immigrants' previous choices or adapting to them.

Previous studies regarding marketing issues and acculturation have not answered these issues. Most of the marketing research in the area of acculturation emphasises advertising and intended product choices, and did not go further to investigate what effects behaviours. Most studies only elaborate the effects on attitudes, whereas in marketing, purchase behavioural information is much more important than the attitude toward the brand. Behavioural information is important for designing a good strategy to target the market. Furthermore, marketing issues regarding the product and brand choices, such as store brands, are not covered by previous studies.

Store brand is branded products owned by an organization whose primary economic commitment is distribution rather than production (Schutte, 1969). Their sales are increasing significantly and start to dominate the market sales in many countries (Garretson, Fisher, & Burton, 2002; Hoch, 1996) due to the strong retail grocery competition in the market. Regarding immigrants, research in the store brand area suggests it is considered as risky buying due to its signal of perceived lower price and low quality.

The previous studies about purchasing the store brand compare the purchasing behaviours and culture in different countries. Those studies report that culture may play some roles in developing purchasing store brand behaviours, and the behaviours may be different from one country to another. None of the previous studies consider the role of the immigrants' adoption to the new culture in developing this behaviour.

### **Research Problems**

This study has been designed to investigate how immigrants adopt to a new culture, especially their approach to maintaining their original culture, and its effects on how to adjust or acculturate to the new culture. Where previous studies did not define the

construct of acculturation clearly, this study will elaborate on it in details. This study expects the immigrants' acculturation will influence their buying behaviours. The study will focus on finding the constructs shaping immigrants' behaviours to purchasing store brands.

The study uses Chinese people as the study sample because it is the biggest immigrant group coming to Australia from a non-English speaking country. Moreover, the Chinese have a strong ethnic identity, especially with regard to language and values.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **The Immigrant Market**

The International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2005) reports that there were 175 million international migrants in the world in the year 2000. By the end of 2010, the number of international migrants was estimated to be 214 million people. If they were a country, they would make a population equal the fifth largest country in the world. Although there are critics of the policy of accepting immigrants, new migrants make significant contributions to their host countries' economies with their labour and purchasing. Approximately 414 billion (US) dollars are spent by immigrants in host countries (IOM, 2005). The significance of migrants makes it very important to better understand that part of the population.

#### **Immigrants in Australia**

With nearly one in four of Australia's 21 million people born overseas (IMMI, 2010), immigrants are a huge market that cannot be ignored in this country. Immigrants' contribution to society, culture and prosperity has been an important factor in shaping Australia (IMMI, 2010). The Department of Immigration and Citizenship (IMMI, 2010) estimated that the total fiscal contribution of new immigrants (around 168,600 persons) in 2009-2010 was \$880 million. Besides getting the benefit from the immigrants, Australia is also enjoying the economic contribution from international students, who are potential immigrants in the future. International students give a significant contribution to the economies of many developed countries. In the case of temporary immigrants, for international students in Australia in 2005, the revenue raised was valued at \$9 billion Australian dollars. From that amount, \$3.8 billion dollars were

obtained from tuition fees alone (OECD, 2006). Expenditure by students on goods and services (\$5.3 billion) was more than double that in 2000 (\$2.2 billion). Hence, temporary immigrant international students have made a significant contribution to Australia's national economy.

Many businesses are trying to develop their marketing strategies to reach immigrant markets, temporary and permanent immigrants. The market will be significantly bigger in the future due to the government's effort to increase Australian economic growth. The Department of Immigration and Citizenship has advised that to reach an economic growth of 3.25%, Australia needs around 170,000 immigrants per year for the next 10 years (IMMI, 2010).

### **Problems for Immigrants**

While giving a significant contribution to the Australian economy, immigrants face their own problems in adapting their life to a new country. Some immigrants will integrate themselves fully in the new country's culture. Nevertheless, maintaining some parts of their home culture is something they tend to do at the same time. For example, they may prefer to eat the same foods and wear the same clothes they wore in their home country. Moreover, due to barriers such as language, some of them may desire to shop where they can continue speaking their language from the country they left.

Adapting to the new culture while maintaining the original culture will be the experiences of most immigrants. This cultural mixture may change immigrants' ways of living and their habits. Furthermore, it will influence immigrants' consuming attitudes and behaviours. The immigrants may have a new perception of the products they buy and the way they buy the products, due to their cultural mixture. Some immigrants who are used to bargaining when buying goods in their home countries will have difficulty

buying groceries in supermarkets that have fixed prices. Some immigrants wear new fashion styles (e.g. blue jeans) that may not be accepted as appropriate wear in their home country.

### **Immigrants as Consumers**

Kara's and Kara's study (1996) found the cultural value orientation of different subcultures plays a fundamental role in their consumer behaviour. However, the level of adjustment to the new culture and the level of maintaining the home country or ethnic culture will be different among immigrants. Some immigrants find it easy to adjust and to accept the new culture. Others may face difficulties in acculturation, and they tend to maintain their own cultures and habits as much as possible. Some immigrants keep buying from the grocery store that sells the products from their home country and others are happy to buy the groceries from the local supermarkets such as Coles and Woolworth. The following are examples from previous studies that support the idea that acculturation may contribute to consumer behaviours, such as choice behaviour and perception of advertisements.

### **Choice Behaviour**

Some studies have noticed that immigrants with different cultural adjustment or acculturation levels may behave differently. Kara and Kara (1996) conducted a study to explore the differences in choice behaviour of high-accultured Hispanics, low-accultured Hispanics, and Anglo-Americans (native English speakers). The study is clustering Hispanics into two groups of high and low acculturation level using some indicators, such as language, behaviour, demographic. For example, high acculturation level indicates by tendency of using English and Spanish equally at home, at work, and to the parents. They also tend to arrived to USA at early ages of childhood, or born in

the USA, and feel closer to the USA than any other country. The study compared the sample groups' reported choice behaviours in selecting toothpaste (a low involvement product) and in selecting a job (a high involvement service), based on their perceptions of the two entities' attributes. This study was done in several cities in the USA, and found that high-aculturated Hispanics and Anglo-Americans have similar choice behaviors across many different product/ service attributes (such as jobs and toothpaste), but their choice behavior is different from low-aculturated Hispanics. The finding indicated that the degree of acculturation is an important segmentation variable for both high and low involvement products. Therefore, to target high-aculturated Hispanics, marketing strategies similar to those for Anglo-Americans may be used.

Another study regarding the product attributes and acculturation level was done by O'Guinn and Faber (1986). Two products were chosen in this study. Laundry detergent represented a non-durable and less expensive product, and a television set represented a durable and more expensive product. The study found that low-aculturated Hispanics and high-aculturated Hispanics have different perceptions of the same product attributes. High-aculturated Hispanic views many of the product attributes as less important than do low-aculturated Hispanics. For durable products, low-aculturated Hispanics view the availability of credit as more important than high-aculturated Hispanics. The study also demonstrated the importance of price consideration in cross-cultural attribute evaluations. The findings supported Kara's findings (1996) that cultural differences have an effect in the evaluation of the product attributes.

### **Perception of Advertising**

Acculturation level has also been found to influence immigrants' viewing and perception of advertising. A study in the USA (Khairullah, 1995) investigated the



perception of Asian-Indian immigrants in the USA toward Indian print, versus American print advertisements. The Indian advertisement represented the Indian culture, such as presenting the Indian looking couple watching a typical Indian dance. The American advertisement showed an Anglo-American couple drinking in a bar. The study reported that low-aculturated Asian-Indian immigrants preferred Indian advertisements more than the American advertisements. Meanwhile, high-aculturated Asian-Indians said they preferred American advertisements more than the Indian advertisement. Surprisingly, moderate-aculturated Asian-Indians had the same preference as the low-aculturated group and favored the Indian advertisement. It seems that high-aculturated Asian-Indian immigrants in the sample have already accepted the American culture and ways of perceiving advertising, and the portrayal of alcohol. The study advised that the marketer would reach low and moderate-aculturated Asian-Indian immigrants more effectively with Indian advertisements that showed Indian cultural values. However, the different theme (with/without liquor) makes it impossible to separate those effects from culture.

Adjusting to the new culture and maintaining the original ethnic identity are part of the immigrants' choice in the new country. The adjustment processes affect immigrants' daily life, including in their life as consumers in the new country.

### **Acculturation and Ethnic Identity**

#### **Acculturation**

Acculturation takes place when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes in the original cultural patterns of either or both groups (Redfield, Linton, & Herskovits, 1936). Similarly, Barry (2001) mentioned that acculturation is a social interaction and communication

response style that individuals adopt when interacting with individuals and groups from another cultures. Both definitions explain that acculturation emerges when an immigrant experiences cross-cultural contact. Seitz (1998) emphasised that acculturation is the process of acquiring the customs of an alternative society. Likewise, Berry (1980) reports that acculturation refers to the changes that occur as a result of continued contact between at least two distinct cultures. All changes that occur as a result of the new cultural interaction will develop on the basis of their acculturation phenomena (Cuellar, Nyberg, Maldonado, & Roberts, 1997). This understanding of the acculturation concept indicates that people may not need to give up their own culture to adjust to the new culture.

There are many studies used different acculturation measures. There is no standardised measure of acculturation that has been developed (Khairullah, 1995). The language used by the immigrant, their culture, and when they entered the country (US) was used by Kara and Kara (1996) to indicate low-acculturated and high-acculturated Hispanics. Language, food, music, recreation, social activities and gestures has been used to identify three different groups. These groups are low, medium, and high-acculturated Asian-Indians in the US market (Khairullah, 1995). The details of the immigrant's friendships, their behaviours, age upon arrival in the US and years of residence in a non-Asian neighbourhood has been used to indicate the acculturation level in the study by Ownbey and Horridge (1997). Another study used the individual's length of stay in the country (US), their use of English in various situations, their reported interpersonal relationships, the ethnic composition in their neighbourhood and their preference for various media (W. N. Lee, 1993). The findings from these studies support Khairullah's opinion (1995) that no standardised accepted measure of acculturation has been developed.

## **Ethnic Identity**

Ethnic identity is perceived and described in many ways. In his study on reviewing 70 studies of ethnic identity, Phinney (1990) found that two thirds of the reviewed articles did not provide an explicit definition of the construct. This finding indicates why there are wide differences in the understanding of ethnic identity, especially how to judge ethnic identity. Is it self-assessment or should others judge someone's ethnic identity?

According to Maldonado and Tansuhaj (1999), ethnic-identity is an identification with a group that is distinguished by colour, language, religion or some other attributes of common origin. Relevant to this, Zaff et al. (in Ogden et al., 2004) claimed that one's ethnic identity is a self-designation that relays a person's commitment and strength of association to a particular group. This is relevant with Phinney's definition (1992) that ethnic identity referred to the personal knowledge of his or her membership of a social group, and the value and emotional significance attached to that membership. Furthermore, Laroche, Kim and Tomiuk (1998) proposed that one's ethnic identity should be considered the extent to which a person identifies himself or herself as belonging to an ethnic group, even after extended contacts with the other culture. Parker (1964) argued that ethnic identity refers to one's evaluation of his/ her own ethnic group identification and his/ her evaluation of other ethnic groups. It includes the degree of attraction to, or repulsion from, these groups. This self-assessment or self-judgment may cause a bias. This is especially true, when someone tries to deny his own ethnic background and tend to attach himself to another ethnicity due to other benefits he may get. For example, due to the benefits for indigenous people from many governments in the world, non-indigenous people may claim they are indigenous. On the other hand, many indigenous people have tried to hide their ancestry because of societal pressure.

Appiah (2001) reported that ethnic identity can be recognized from a person's attitude and behaviour that are consistent with their core cultural values. This identity often involves customs, language, dress, foods, religion, product use and media use. This meaning of ethnic identity relies on others' judgment. Therefore, people may justify someone's ethnic identity based on what they eat, how they talk, how they dress up, and so on.

A more integrated definition was developed by Phinney (1992), where ethnic identity may include a developmental component. That is, the extent to which an individual has achieved a secure sense of his/her ethnicity based on the process of exploration and commitment. It is consistent with Caltabiano's study (1984) that indicates ethnic identity is achieved rather than simply given. Moreover, Cuellar et al (1997) mentioned that developing ethnic identity involves choice with regards to value and beliefs, and include a connection to one's past and future. Obviously, these studies indicate that ethnic identity is not something as simple as skin colour, language accent and so on.

### **Acculturation and Ethnic Identity as One Construct**

Phinney (1990) noted that the term ethnic identity has sometimes been used synonymously with acculturation. Nguyen and Messe (1999) noted that ethnic identity and acculturation are often used interchangeably. Likewise, Phinney et al (2001) stated that the distinction between the construct of ethnic identity and acculturation is unclear because both constructs rely on statements about similar areas of language, perceived reference group influence, adherence to cultural customs and food preferences. Ogden et al (2004) reported that it is probable that the construct of ethnic identity and acculturation are identical because they are often viewed as part of the same phenomenon. If the two constructs have similar items in their measures, one would

expect a strong association between them. It means that increasing the individual's acculturation level will mean giving up the individual's ethnic identity.

### **Acculturation and Ethnic Identity as Two Independent Constructs**

Laroche and Kim et al. (1997) report that ethnicity has two main dimensions, acculturation and ethnic identity. One's ethnic identity results from belonging to a particular ethnic group. Furthermore, the level of acculturation recognizes the extent to which the person has adapted some characteristics of a different culture because of repeated contact with that culture. This view sees consumer's acculturation and ethnic identity as two different constructs.

Similarly, Keefe and Padila (1987) reported on a study testing a two-dimensional model of ethnic change using measures of acculturation and ethnic identity. The study found two factors; the first they named "cultural awareness", which referred to an individual's knowledge of the new host culture. The second factor was "ethnic loyalty" and referred to the preference for the consumers' old cultural orientation and ethnic group.

Nevertheless, Ward and Rana-Deuba (1999) argued that one's ethnic identity is dependent on acculturation. It is relevant with Jun's and Ball's study (1993) that found that an individual's acculturation and cultural identification are influenced by different factors in their environment. Cultural identification appears to be influenced by an individual's preference for residence. Acculturation is influenced by the place in which a person was raised and the amount of direct contact the individual has with a new culture. This separation is supported by Cleveland and Laroche et al (2009), who argued that ethnic identity and acculturation were two distinct processes.

Laroche and Kim et al (1998) reported that some measures of ethnic identity were almost identical in content to acculturation measures. However, it was believed that ethnic identity measures the individual's maintenance/ retention of the culture of origin whereas their acculturation focuses on the acquisition of a host or dominant culture. This explanation argues that these two constructs are different and measure different things. Moreover, Phinney (1990) stated that a strong ethnic identity does not necessarily imply a weak relationship or low involvement with the dominant culture. Similarly, Hui and Laroche et al. (1998) claimed that some immigrants can be somewhat acculturated to the dominant culture but still maintain a strong ethnic identification.

### **The Association of Ethnic Identity and Acculturation**

The nature of the association of acculturation and ethnic identity seems problematic because similar variables are used to indicate them. The idea that acculturation may involve 'rejection of' or 'retention to' cultural elements and not simply the adoption of foreign cultural elements (Sam, 2006) further shows that the assumed independence of these two constructs is questionable.

Berry's model (Gentry, Jun, & Tansuhai, 1995) views acculturation as a bi-directional process in which the acculturation of the minority subculture can be measured along two dimensions; the degree of adoption of the majority culture and the degree of retention of the culture of origin. This model positions acculturation as having two dimensions that balance acculturation between the new and old culture of the consumer. It indicates that ethnic identity, which is associated with the old culture, plays some roles in developing acculturation.

According to Penaloza's survey (1994) conducted in a Mexican immigrant community in the USA, the immigrants' ethnic affiliation is negatively related to their consumer acculturation. O'Guinn and Faber (1986) reported that as individuals become acculturated, they may switch their reference groups from being members of their ethnic minority to the members of the new dominant society. This finding supports the interpretation that immigrants' acculturation and their ethnic identity would be negatively associated. Another study was conducted by Cleveland and Laroche et al. (2009) in a Lebanese community in Montreal, Canada. They found that the constructs of acculturation and ethnic identity were negatively correlated. However, Berry's study (1980) found individuals often report they maintain their original cultural identity while exhibiting behavioural responses expected by the host culture.

Maldonado's and Tansuhaj's US study (1999) reported that the strength of one's ethnic identity had a significant impact on how valued were the possessions that symbolized new roles. The stronger the immigrants' ethnic identification, the more they value US possessions. This finding is contrary with some previous studies (Penaloza, 1994; O'Guinn and Faber, 1986) that a stronger ethnic identity results in a lower perceived value of US built possessions, and indicates the negative correlation between acculturation and ethnic identity. The study predicted that a strong ethnic identification provides the needed psychological support to pursue socially visible possessions that will smooth transition into the new culture. Another study conducted by Jamal and Chapman (2000) on Pakistani immigrants in Bradford, UK found that immigrants designated as "highly acculturated" tend to engage in consumption activities that reflect a strong affiliation and identification with their new UK culture. If it is assumed that ethnic identity and acculturation correlate negatively, then the findings of these two studies are contradictory to a study conducted by Maldonado and Tansuhaj (1999). This

study reports that stronger ethnic identity and high-acculturated will positively and significantly influence the preference to consume products that has affiliation with the host cultures.

It is obvious from the review of previous studies that the nature of the association of acculturation and ethnic identity is still undecided. According to Persky and Birman (2005), ethnic identity is an important component of immigrants' acculturation processes. Phinney and Horencksky et al. (2001) defined ethnic identity as identification with the original culture and an adequate national identity as a member of one's new, potentially multiethnic society. This explanation assumes that one's ethnic identity is a part of one's acculturation. Phinney (1990) stated that ethnic identity is an aspect of acculturation that focuses on the subjective sense of belonging to a group or culture. This idea is different from previous studies, which positioned ethnic identity as a construct that may relate (positively or negatively) to acculturation.

From the literature overview, there are at least four different interpretations about the relationship of one's ethnic identity and acculturation. First, these two constructs are the same construct (Phinney et al., 2001; Ogden et al., 2004). Second, the ethnic identity correlates (negatively or positively) with the acculturation (Laroche, et al., 1997; Keefe and Padila, 1987). Third, ethnic identity and acculturation are two different constructs (Jun and Ball, 1993; Cleveland, et al., 2009; Laroche, 1998). Four, one's ethnic identity is part of one's acculturation (Phinney and Horencksky, 2001; Phinney, 1990).

Previous studies shows that acculturation and ethnic identity are 2 constructs that some studies indicate different associations between the two constructs. Because acculturation and the ethnic identity will be used this study, the association of individual ethnic



identity and acculturation needs to be tested. Study 1 will be conducted to examine the association of the two constructs. Hypothesis for study 1:

H1: Acculturation and ethnic identity are two constructs that are independent.

### **Study 1. Measure Development <sup>1</sup>**

Study 1 will empirically test the independence of the ethnic identity and the acculturation, and will evaluate the composition of the constructs.

#### **The Study Method**

##### **The Measure**

Measurements of ethnic identity are varied. One of the measurements is called Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM), which was developed by Phinney (1992). MEIM consists of three aspects of ethnic identity; affirmation and belonging, ethnic identity achievement, and ethnic behaviours. This scale has been empirically tested by numerous studies. For example, Roberts et al. (1999) tested the use of MEIM on a sample of international students from diverse ethnic groups and the results supported the reliability of the scale. Therefore, MEIM is generally considered a good global scale of ethnic identity. This scale, however, has received some criticism. For example, Barry (2002) argued that MEIM may ignore some unique factors that could be critical in defining an individual's ethnic identity. Therefore, he developed a new ethnic identity scale for East Asian immigrants, named the East Asian Ethnic Identity Scale (EAEIS). This scale consists of questions about family values, ethnic pride, and interpersonal distance.

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<sup>1</sup> Study 1 has been presented in Cultural Perspective in Marketing Conference, Academy of Marketing Science, IESEG School of Management, Lille, France (M. Krisjanti, Mizerski, D. and Liu, F. , 2010)

There are some scales to measure the acculturation which have been used in previous studies. These are some of the acculturation scales, SL-ASIA (Suinn, Rickard-Figueroa, Lew, & Vigil, 1987) and ARSMA (Cuellar, Harris, and Jasso, 1980). The SL-ASIA (Suinn-Lew Self-Identity Acculturation Scale) was developed to measure Asian-American acculturation. ARSMA (Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican-American) has been used to measure Hispanics' acculturation.

Most of the previous studies either focused on the effect of acculturation (Podoshen, 2006) or ethnic identity (Cleveland & Chang, 2009). Only a few studies attempted to examine the effects of both within the same context (Laroche et al., 2007). Indeed, researchers still have different ideas about the association of these two variables. Therefore, study 1 tests the association of the measures of acculturation and ethnic identity.

Acculturation and ethnic identity scales used in this study were adapted from the questionnaire developed by Laroche, et al, (1998). It consists of 12 ethnic identity statements and 9 acculturation statements. Five-point Likert scales of 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree were used for all items.

One of Laroche's study's goals was to determine the underlying structure of Italian ethnic identity in the population of Montreal. The study predicted that immigrants' ethnic identity had a negative correlation with their acculturation, due to the findings of previous studies. According to the study, the measure of ethnic identity consisted of 3 questions about the use of the Italian language with family members, their social interactions with Italian immigrants and their level of Catholicism. Furthermore, the

acculturation construct consists of 2 variables, which are English-Canadian mass-media exposure and English-Canadian social interaction and participation.

### **The Study Sample**

In this study, the questionnaires were distributed to a sample of undergraduate and postgraduate international (non-Australian) students attending a university in Perth, Australia. The subjects used as participants in this study were those born in countries other than Australia, and were not residents or citizens of Australia. International students are a good sample in this study because they are like long term immigrants in their need to adapt their living and habits to the new country of Australia. About one third ultimately become Australian citizens. Due to the study time duration, the international students in this study may only have been living in Australia for up to three years. This short term in Australia may allow them to largely keep their original cultural affectations.

International students, particularly those studying at the university level, are an important force of immigration in developed economies (King and Gelices, 2003). For example, international students who have obtained an Australian qualification may apply for permanent residency while they do their studies in Australia. By 2004, there were 42,300 overseas students who had completed their higher education courses, and 34% of them were approved for permanent residence in Australia (OECD, 2006). Therefore, international students are an appropriate group to be sampled for this study.

### **Data Analysis**

The data was collected among international students at the University of Western Australia. A majority of this university's undergraduate students come from other

countries, primarily those in Asia. A total of 186 questionnaires were collected. After data cleaning, 172 questionnaires were available for further analysis. The sample contained 60% females and 40% males. About 40% of the respondents had lived in Australia for less than one year, 37% for between one to three years, and the rest (23%) for more than 3 years. About 28% of the respondents were between 18 to 20 years of age, 46% between 21 to 24 years of age, and the rest were older than 24 years old. The respondents came from 35 different countries with the largest share from Singapore (27.3%) followed by China (14.5%).

To investigate the association of respondents' acculturation and ethnic identity, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used. Factor analysis is an interdependence technique, whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis (Hair & Black, 2010). It provides the tools to analyse the structure of interrelationships among variables (factors) by defining sets of variables that are highly interrelated. These groups of variables (factors) represent dimensions within the data. According to Hair et al (2010), these dimensions may correspond to concepts that cannot be adequately described by a single measure. EFA is designed for the situation where links between the observed and latent variables are unknown or uncertain.

By using EFA, the factors that formed the acculturation and the ethnic identity will be found. In the analysis the number of factors in a solution was not constrained. This is because no one had proposed more than two factors. However, the EFA found six factors which had eigenvalues more than 1.0. Using an Eigen value cut off of 1, factor analysis can be used to estimate the factor(s) that make up the construct of acculturation.

**Table 2.1. Total Variance Explained by factors with eigenvalues of 1+**

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues |               |              |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|
|           | Total               | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1         | 5.927               | 28.233        | 28.233       |
| 2         | 2.857               | 13.603        | 41.826       |
| 3         | 2.240               | 10.665        | 52.491       |
| 4         | 1.936               | 9.219         | 61.710       |
| 5         | 1.188               | 5.656         | 67.336       |
| 6         | 1.132               | 5.391         | 72.758       |

The factor analysis outcome shows that the KMO MSA is 0.785, with a significance of  $p < 0.001$ . The result indicates that six factors account for the responses for measuring the constructs of acculturation in this sample. The six factors explain 72.75% cumulatively of the variance in the acculturation construct (see table 2.1).

Table 2.2 presents the 6 factors found with the EFA, the Cronbach alpha scores of each multi-item factor, and the factor loading.

**Table 2.2. The 6 factors of the Cultural Adaptation**

| Factors                          |  | Cronbach Alpha | Factor Loading |
|----------------------------------|--|----------------|----------------|
| <b>Factor 1: acculturation</b>   |  | <b>0.845</b>   |                |
|                                  | I often participate in the activities of the Australian community.                     |                | 0.580          |
|                                  | I am strongly attached to all aspects of the Australian culture.                       |                | 0.751          |
|                                  | I am very comfortable dealing with Australians.  |                | 0.599          |
|                                  | I like to go to places where I can be with Australians.                                |                | 0.788          |
|                                  | Most of my closest friends are Australian  |                | 0.476          |
| <b>Factor 2: media language</b>  |  | <b>0.904</b>   |                |
|                                  | I prefer to read an English language newspaper   |                | 0.866          |
|                                  | I prefer to read magazines and books in English.                                       |                | 0.817          |
|                                  | I prefer to listen to radio in English.  |                | 0.709          |
| <b>Factor 3: religion</b>        |  | <b>0.844</b>   |                |
|                                  | I consider myself to be strong believer of the religion I learned in my country.       |                | 0.774          |
|                                  | I had a religious childhood upbringing.  |                | 0.839          |
|                                  | My religious beliefs are an important part of my life.                                 |                | 0.784          |
| <b>Factor 4: ethnic speaking</b> |  | <b>0.901</b>   |                |
|                                  | I speak in English frequently with my relatives. (R)                                   |                | 0.894          |
|                                  | I frequently speak in English with my family. (R)                                      |                | 0.892          |
|                                  | I speak in English frequently with friends from my home country. (R)                   |                | 0.664          |
| <b>Factor 5: homie comfort</b>   |  | <b>0.751</b>   |                |
|                                  | I am very comfortable dealing with people from my home country.                        |                | 0.649          |
|                                  | I like to go to places where I can be with people from my home country.                |                | 0.731          |
|                                  | I often participate in the activities arranged by and for people from my home country. |                | 0.580          |
|                                  | I am strongly attached to all aspects of my home country culture.                      |                | 0.323          |
|                                  | Most of my friends are from my home country  |                | 0.517          |
| <b>Factor 6: neighbours</b>      |  | <b>0.645</b>   |                |
|                                  | Most of my neighbours come from my home country.                                       |                | 0.817          |
|                                  | Most of my neighbours are Australians. (R)   |                | 0.541          |

The first factor that consists of five items, labelled as acculturation, appears to symbolize the respondents' acceptance of Australian culture (new culture). All of the questions in the first factor come from items in the original acculturation construct. These items include choosing Australians as his/her closest friends and going to and participating in the activities of Australia. These questions appear to capture the desire of the respondents to be Australians. It is similar to the definition of acculturation developed by previous researchers such as Seitz (1998), which described acculturation as the process of acquiring the customs of an alternative society. Similarly, Ownbey and

Horridge (1997), discussed the acculturation as the process of learning and adopting cultural traits different from the ones the person had originally. The first factor represents items that are quite similar with a definition of acculturation.

The second factor that consists of three items, which is labelled media language, represents the preference of the immigrants for English as the language favoured in newspaper, magazine and radio. Originally, these questions come from the construct of acculturation. The fourth factor represents language as well. This factor, which originally came from the construct of ethnic identity, symbolizes the ethnic language preferred by the respondents. When the factor analysis is constrained with only 3 factors, the second factor and the fourth factor become one factor. Although some statements correspond to the ethnic language, others signify the host culture language. All of the questions emphasise the language favoured. The separation of the second and the fourth factors support the argument that some measures of ethnic identity were practically identical to those used in acculturation measures (Laroche, Kim, & Tomiuk, 1998). Moreover, some previous researchers had reported that the language favoured by the respondents is one dimension of both acculturation and ethnic identity (Cleveland et al., 2009; Kara & Kara, 1996; Khairullah, 1995; Laroche et al., 1997; Laroche, Pons, & Richard, 2009; W. N. Lee & Tse, 1994; O'Guinn & Faber, 1986; Ogden et al., 2004; Ownbey & Horridge, 1997; Phinney, 1990; Phinney et al., 2001; Ponterotto, Baluch, & Carielli, 1998).

Three questions from the third factor symbolize the religion of the immigrants. All of the questions come from the ethnic identity construct and explain the tendency of an individual to keep the religion learned early as a factor in the home culture. These factors describe how one will maintain their religion, and how the religion may

influence their life. Kara and Kara (1996) reported that religion is part of culture, and would be expected to be a predictor of acculturation. Nevertheless, Hussein and Oyebode (2009) seem to put religion and culture as two different constructs that influence the continuing bonds of Pakistani Muslims living in the UK. Some cultures, like the Saudi's represent a particular religion (Islam). The finding of this research seems to support the position that religion and culture are independent constructs.

The fifth factor that consists of five items labelled as 'homie comfort', describes the preference to socialize with the people from their home culture. The questions in this factor originally come from the construct of ethnic identity. There are five similar questions that represent the respondents' preference to socialize with the people from the host country, and load on the acculturation construct (the first factor). This finding supports the previous research that reported some questions of the ethnic identity and the acculturation measure were the same thing (Ogden et al., 2004).

The sixth factor that consists of two items labelled as neighbour, consists of two questions that originally come from the construct of ethnic identity and acculturation. Although they come from allegedly different constructs, they both emphasize neighbours. This new factor supports the idea of similar measures used for the constructs of acculturation and ethnic identity (Laroche, Kim, & Tomiuk, 1998; Ogden et al., 2004). Moreover, the finding is also in line with the previous research which stated that the distinction between the construct of ethnic identity and acculturation is unclear (Phinney et al., 2001). However, it can also be understood that the factor of neighbours should be grouped with the factor of acculturation or the factor of ethnic identity.



The outcome of this EFA did not support the previous research that the constructs of acculturation and the constructs of ethnic identity are two or less constructs. This sample provided responses that the construct of acculturation consists of six factors that include; acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, homie comfort and neighbours.

Further analysis should be conducted to measure the internal consistency and reliability of the factors. The reliability indicates the degree to which the items that make up the scale are consistently measuring the same underlying attributes (Pallant, 2007). In this study, the internal consistency will be measured with Cronbach alpha that shows the amount of a construct's variance that is accounted for by a common source among the items' responses (N. Lee & Hooley, 2005).

The inter-item reliability test indicated that Cronbach alpha for the six factors ranged from 0.645 to 0.904. A Cronbach alpha above 0.60 indicates acceptable internal consistency among items in the variables (Sekaran, 2003). The resulting Cronbach alphas of the factors indicate that all the factors have reached adequate inter-item reliabilities.

This finding rejects the assumption that the construct of acculturation necessarily includes ethnic identity, or that two factors of acculturation and ethnic identity comprise an immigrant's perception of acculturation. These 6 factors will be considered as factors of a measure of acculturation called Cultural Adaptation. The factors of Cultural Adaptation are labelled acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, homie comfort and neighbour.

## **Implication**

The data does not support the idea of acculturation and ethnic identity as two independent constructs. The alleged constructs of acculturation and ethnic identity consist of more than two factors. Ethnic groups will have different ways of acculturating and maintaining their ethnic identity. The factors of cultural adaptation may be of differing importance. For example, language might not be a major factor of acculturation if the immigrant uses the same language. As a result, developing a multi factors measure would allow a diagnosis of which factors of cultural adaptation were salient.

This finding may also mean the previous research which assumes acculturation and ethnic identity are similar constructs should be questioned. Those previous studies (Nguyen et al., 1999; Phinney, 1990; Phinney et al., 2001) questioned the independence of those two constructs due to similar items in each measure. Previous studies (Cleveland et al., 2009; Jun & Ball, 1993; Laroche, Kim, & Tomiuk, 1998; Laroche et al., 1997; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999) which argue that acculturation and ethnic identity are two constructs are not supported.

A further study, with an extension or replication needs to be conducted to test the reliability of the measure of cultural adaptation. Singh et al (2003) define replication as the duplication of a previous study to determine whether the finding is repeatable. Furthermore, replication studies are desperately needed in order to determine facts (Hunter, 2001). The next study (Study 2) will attempt to replicate study 1 using the same methods but a different sample.

H1: the Cultural Adaptation measure consists of six factors; acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, homie comfort, and neighbour.

## **Study 2. Testing the Reliability and the External Validity of the Measure<sup>2</sup>**

The purpose of Study 2 is to test if the cultural adaptation measure is reliable when used with different populations, and whether 6 factors represent the individuals' acculturation. The samples for Study 2 were from the Indonesian Chinese population of university students that have undergone an acculturation process.

### **Indonesian Chinese Acculturation**

Chinese migration started in the 1800s during the period of western colonisation, and the opium war in that region. Since that time, more Chinese located in countries outside of the Mainland China. In the last two centuries, many Chinese have left the country to migrate to Southeast Asia, Oceania, and North and South America (Wu, 1991). One of the countries is Indonesia. The Chinese in Indonesia may have a different story of acculturation compared to the Chinese in other countries.

The Indonesian Chinese experienced Indonesian government policies that punished them and stopped them from keeping their Chinese identity. For example, they were forced to change their Chinese names to Indonesian names, and were not permitted to use a Chinese language or show Chinese culture (e.g. art, dance) in public. Therefore, many Indonesian Chinese did not experience Chinese culture in their life. This notorious policy ended in the Indonesian Reformation Era. Nonetheless, many Indonesian Chinese still do not have the capability to use any Chinese language. This

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<sup>2</sup> Study 2 has been in Western Australia Indonesian Forum, 2011, Perth, Australia

process happened to the population of Peranakan, and to the Indonesian Chinese that did not live in the provinces with a Chinese majority population. Peranakans are mixed-race descendants, part Chinese and part Indonesian. Peranakans are perceived to behave more like Indonesians than Chinese (Suryadinata, 2007). There is a traditional view that overseas Chinese remain Chinese in the fullest sense as long as they are able to claim a Chinese male ancestor, a home place in China from where this ancestor supposedly emigrated, and observe some manner of cultural practices (Wu, 1991). According to these criteria, many Indonesian Chinese cannot be considered as “Chinese”, because most do not have the answer about their ancestors and their home place.

Regarding the Chinese language, only the elderly and people that live in provinces with a Chinese majority population are fluent in Chinese. Unless they live in that society, they will speak Indonesian local languages more fluently than the Chinese language.

The ways Indonesian Chinese acculturate with the dominant Indonesian culture make them unique. That may not be the same as other Chinese migrants in other countries where they are free to maintain their own cultures. Therefore, this immigrant community will offer a good comparison to test the Cultural Adaptation measure.

### **The Study Method**

The same questionnaire used in study 1 will be used in study 2. It is adapted from the questionnaires developed by Laroche, et al, (1998), and consists of 12 ethnic identity statements and 9 acculturation statements. Five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) were used for all items. There are 2 demographic questions, asking for age and gender. The English language questionnaire

from study 1 was translated in Indonesian and then re-translated in English. The re-translation version was compared, and the Indonesian version was revised based on the feedback of the previous comparison.

The questionnaires for the main survey were distributed to Indonesian Chinese students in one private university in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. Many Indonesian Chinese from Indonesia send their children to study at this university. Many of them come from the provinces and cities with a Chinese majority population. Therefore, many of them speak Chinese and are attached to the Chinese culture. However, while in Yogyakarta, these students need to adjust to the dominant culture in Yogyakarta, which is Javanese culture. For example, people in Yogyakarta speak Javanese (local language), although the official Indonesian language is used formally in the university.

These respondents show some similarity with the respondents in the Study 1. The international students in Australia needed to adjust to the dominant culture, Australian culture. The respondents in Study 2 have been chosen to replicate study 1 to test the external reliability of the Cultural Adaptation measure.

### **Data Analysis**

There were 164 questionnaires for further analysis, which consisted of 47% male respondents and 53% females. The analysis will use the EFA. The factor analysis outcome shows that the KMO MSA is 0.702, with a significance of  $p < 0.001$ . The result indicates that there are six factors which have eigenvalues more than 1.0 in this sample. The six factors explain 72.7% cumulatively of the variance in the cultural adaptation construct. Table 2.3 shows the total variance explained by factors.

**Table 2.3. Total Variance Explained by factors with eigenvalues of 1+**

| Component | Initial Eigenvalues |               |              |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------|--------------|
|           | Total               | % of Variance | Cumulative % |
| 1         | 4.715               | 26.197        | 26.197       |
| 2         | 2.947               | 16.370        | 42.567       |
| 3         | 1.975               | 1.0970        | 53.537       |
| 4         | 1.231               | 5.840         | 6.337        |
| 5         | 1.171               | 6.503         | 66.880       |
| 6         | 1.043               | 5.792         | 72.672       |

The finding of Study 1 is largely the same for Study 2. Four out of six factors are the same statements and factors as the outcome of Study 1. However, there were two items that previously in the factor of acculturation (Study 1) went to the homie comfort variable in the study 2. Those items are ‘I am very comfortable dealing with Indonesian Non-Chinese’ and ‘I like to go to places where I can be with Indonesian Non-Chinese’. The slight difference in these two studies may be due to the different cultural elements in the sample.

As in Study 1, the data in Study 2 will be tested for reliability by measuring the inter-item consistency of the factors. The internal consistency will be measured with Cronbach Alpha that estimates the amount of a scale’s variances that are from a common source among the items’ responses (Lee & Hooley, 2005). Moreover, a Cronbach Alpha above 0.60 indicates an acceptable internal consistency among items (Sekaran, 2003).

**Table 2.4. Cronbach Alpha of the Cultural Adaptation Measure in Study 2**

| Factors         | Cronbach Alpha |
|-----------------|----------------|
| Acculturation   | 0.689          |
| Media Language  | 0.955          |
| Religion        | 0.695          |
| Ethnic Speaking | 0.919          |
| Homie Comfort   | 0.801          |
| Neighbours      | 0.721          |

The reliability test indicates the Cronbach Alpha for the six variables range from 0.695 to 0.955. The range of Cronbach Alphas indicates that the 6 factors exceed an adequate level of inter-item reliability.

The measure of cultural adaptation is an important contribution of Study 1, and it is supported by the finding of study 2. Future research should further test the measure of cultural adaptation in other segments and samples, and with dependent variables such as consumer behaviour. However, the literature study on ethnic consumer behaviour needs to be reviewed.

### **Ethnic Consumer Behaviour**

Past research has demonstrated the effect of ethnic identity in consumer attitude and behaviour. For example, Maldonado and Tansuhaj (1999) reported that the strength of one's ethnic identity had a significant effect in how one valued their possessions that symbolized new roles. Appiah (2001) reported that ethnic identity can be recognized from a person's attitudes and behaviours that are consistent with one's core cultural values. The stronger the immigrant's ethnic identity, the less they valued US possessions. Based on a study of a sample of Italian-Canadians in Montreal, Canada, Laroche et al. (1998) found that ethnic identity is positively related to the consumption of traditional (or ethnic) food, and negatively related to the consumption of some convenience goods made in the host country. Xu et al. (2004) also found that the ethnic identity of a sample of young Asian American adults is positively related to their culture-specific consumption behaviour, such as buying food clearly identified with their ethnicity of origin. Chen (1994) found a positive relationship between respondents' ethnic identity and their conspicuous consumption of luxury products in a sample of Chinese consumers in Toronto, Canada. The Chinese migrants in the sample

that had a strong Chinese ethnic identity tended to have a higher level of preference for status-oriented products (expensive watches and automobiles), than the respondents reporting a weak Chinese ethnic identity.

Some studies report that acculturation influences consumer attitudes and behaviour. Jamal and Chapman (2002) found that highly-acculturated migrants in the UK often engage in consumption activities that reflect a strong affiliation and identification with the new culture. Kara and Kara (1996) reported that acculturation influences Hispanic migrants' consumption of utility products (soaps, detergents etc.) in the US, irrespective of their involvement with those products. This study also suggests that the degree of acculturation can be used as an important segmentation variable for products targeted to migrants. For example, a sample of Hispanic immigrants with higher level of acculturation tends to use US brand cosmetics more often than those with lower level of acculturation. Acculturation also changes people's stereotypes. In Asian culture, women are more likely to be seen as the "shopping person" for family goods. Based on a study among Asian-American migrants in the US, Ownbey and Horridge (1997) found that highly acculturated Asian-American consumers are less likely to adopt these gender-based stereotypes than those who have a low level of acculturation. Another study was conducted by Krisjanti, Liu and Mizerski (2010) also reported that acculturation has a positive effect in purchasing host country products. The finding gives support to my hypothesis that when people become more acculturated to the host country culture, they will prefer to buy host country products.

### **Language in Ethnic Consumer Behaviour**

Adjustment is a big part of immigrants' lives in the new country, due to their often different way of living. Making adjustments to the new country may cause many losses



for immigrants, such as loss of significant people and past culture, loss of familiarity and the loss of using their mother tongue (Akhtar, 1995; Mirsky, 1991; Wyatt-Brown, 1995). Language is one of the contributors to, and predictors of, ethnic identity (Laroche et.al, 1998; Phinney et.al, 2001). Immigrants often face difficulties in maintaining their mother tongue (ethnic language), and have more challenges when communicating with their children in this language (Tannenbaum & Howie, 2002). Parent-child cohesion is an important mediating factor in the relationship between the parent's attitude toward the language and the children's retention of the ethnic language (Luo & Wiseman, 2000).

To become proficient at the host country's language is quite important for immigrants because this skill will put them in a stronger position in the job market. Kossoudji's study (1988) in the USA reported that not being able to speak English imposes a real cost by reducing observed earnings and by altering occupational opportunities. Furthermore, the lack of fluency in the host country's language may drive immigrants to live in linguistically concentrated areas (Chiswick and Miller, 2002), where people speak the same language. The lack of fluency also limits socialization to people who speak their ethnic language.

There are some factors that may contribute to proficiency in speaking the host country language. The age at migration, the longer the duration of residence, and the higher the level of education before immigration are factors for language fluency of immigrants from non-English speaking countries (Chiswick, Lee, Miller, 2005). Holmes (1993) and Aikio (1992) reported that women are linguistically more conservative, or less willing to learn the new language than men. Holmes (1993) described that women's networks tend to encourage women to extensively use the ethnic language in regular social

interactions more than men. Moreover, women tend to place a higher value on the social and affective functions expressed by their ethnic language. Luo and Wiseman (2000) reported the children that immigrate at an older age have more exposure to, and knowledge of their native culture and language.

Language may play a role as a predictor of consumption. Kim, Laroche and Joy (1990) mentioned that there are four clusters of English-French Canadian based on communication variables: strong English, moderate English, moderate French and strong French. Furthermore, Laroche, Joy, Hui and Kim (1992) also reported that language is one of the most frequent elements used in French Canadian and English Canadian ethnicity measurements used in research on consumer behavior. However, Krisjanti, Liu and Mizerski (2010) found that student immigrants' language proficiency does not influence the buying of host country products. Their study indicates that this sample's preference to use their ethnic language will not necessarily influence their preference to buy host country products. Nevertheless, the finding may not be generalizable because the respondents' ability to speak English was a requirement for English language based international students.

### **Religion in Ethnic Consumer Behaviour**

Religion is an important part of the socialization process whereby parents condition their children to fit into the cultural pattern of their society (Terpstra, 1991). Therefore, it is understandable when people migrate to another country with a different culture, they will tend to maintain their religion as one way to keep their children bound to their original culture. Consequently, many immigrants tend to actively participate in religious institutions. Religious activities often become the primary ethnic community activity for immigrants (Ebaugh & Chafetz, 2000; Kurien, 2001; Yang & Ebaugh, 2001). Mayer's

and Sharp's study (1962) reported that ethnic background was found to be important because members of some religious groups may have distinct and occupational roles as part of their cultural heritage. For example, followers of the Eastern Orthodox religion in Detroit are mostly Syrians, Lebanese, and Greeks. They tend to be traditionally traders, shopkeepers, merchants and entrepreneurs. Similarly, Kurien's study in the USA found that religion and religious institutions often play a central role in the process of ethnic awareness for immigrants. Moreover, immigrants also find that religious institutions may facilitate their adaptation to the new country. For example, most immigrant/ ethnic churches make major efforts to serve the social and economic needs of their congregants. These usually include information about housing, social, and economic opportunities that may help the immigrants facilitate their adaptation to American society (Hirschman, 2004).

Religion appears to influence one's behaviour, well-being and life in general (Ebaugh & Chafetz, 2000; L. J. Francis & Kaldor, 2002; Poloma & Pendleton, 1990; Sloan, Bagiella, & Powell, 1999). Moreover, religion plays roles in influencing people's values, habits, attitudes, lifestyle and consumer decision-making (Delener, 1994). Delener (1990) reported that religiosity is one of the most important cultural forces on immigrants and influences their consumer behavior. The influence of religion on a society's value systems, and the effect of these value systems on consumer behavior, cannot be underestimated (Delener & Institute, 1990). Religion is a key element of culture that greatly influences behavior, and in turn affects purchasing decisions (Hirschman, 1981, Delener 1990).

Mokhlis' study (2006) reported that there are three shopping orientations that are consistently related to religiosity. These orientations are quality conscious, impulsive

shopping and price conscious. The study found that there were positive relationships between religiosity, perceived quality and price conscious. However, a negative relationship exists between religiosity and impulsive shopping. Some of the findings in Mokhlis' study are consistent with previous studies (Burroughs & Rindfleisch, 2002; Essoo & Dibb, 2004; Kavanaugh, 1993; Smith & Frankenberger, 1991; Sood & Nasu, 1995; Wilkes, Burnett, & Howell, 1986) which indicate that self-reported religious people tend to buy their products on sale, prefer national brands, are more economic, are less materialistic and are more worried about the potential risk associated with the products they buy. Religion can have a negative effect in purchasing the host country's product, (Krisjanti, Liu and Mizerski, 2010). The more people report they are religious, the less they prefer the host country's products. Unfortunately, this study did not go on to find out whether the host country's products and brands are perceived as less or more expensive. Therefore, the finding of this study cannot be used to support for the theory concerning price conscious.

### **Immigrants' Buying in the New Country**

For an immigrant, product purchase and consumption may be an important means of establishing themselves in a new culture (Kwak & Sojka, 2010). Immigrants tend to minimize the risk in product purchasing. Well-known brands help consumers avoid risk and they use brand names as an indicator of quality based product attributes (Wänke, Herrmann, & Schaffner, 2007). They tend to rely on trusted brand names extended to a new product category (Aaker & Keller, 1990), reduce consumers' perception of risk about product quality (Moon & Millison, 2000), reduce search cost and reduce cognitive effort when making product evaluation (Landes & Posner, 1987).

Brands can be used to reflect who we are and may take on the role of reflecting an extended self (Belk, Bahn, & Mayer, 1982). Kwak and Sojka (2010) found that

immigrants (Hispanics and Asian in the USA) with a high degree of ethnic identification tend to express a preference toward the purchase of high-priced prestige brands. Indeed, Motameni and Shahrokhi (1998) note that a high-priced brand has a symbolic meaning or social status for immigrants. Deshpande et al (1986) and Segal and Sosa (1983) reported similar finding. These studies indicate that Hispanic consumers view the ownership of high quality national brands as symbols that they have adapted to the new domestic economy, and are financially able to provide high quality products for their families.

According to the study on brand loyalty and the acculturation of Hispanics in USA (Petroshius, Newell, & Ross, 1995), when Hispanics' acculturation increases, their brand loyalty decreases. The study result indicated that as the use of English language media increases, their brand awareness will increase, that may affect their loyalty to the previous brands they bought.

However, Kossoudji's study (1988) indicates that immigrants' language problems may cost them by altering occupational opportunities that in turn cause them to have lower average earnings. By having lower income, the immigrants may face a more difficult adjustment in the new country. Therefore, they tend to save and to avoid the risks by buying cheaper products, such as store brands. Studies done by Starsynski (1993), Hoch (1996), and Ailawadi et al. (2001), reported that store brand buyers tend to be from lower income groups. Furthermore, the perceived risk associated with buying a store brand is significantly higher than buying a national brand alternative (Livesey & Lennon, 1993; Richardson, Jain, & Dick, 1996). However, the acceptance of store brands has come a long way from these early studies.

The findings of these studies indicate a lack of understanding about this issue. On one side, buying high-priced products are considered a status symbol by the immigrants. On the other side, due to the financial difficulties they face in the new country, immigrants tend to prefer to buy cheaper store brands. This study will attempt to test this issue.

### **Store Brands**

The store brands market share is increasing. Nielsen reported that on average store brands are growing 13% globally on an annual basis (brand, 2011). From grocery stores, department stores to specialty stores, most of these retailers sell store brands, also known as private brands. There is a significant increase of store brands' distribution in grocery stores. Store brands are starting to dominate the sales in many countries. The latest data reported by Nielsen on store brand's market share shows that store brands have 53% of grocery market in Switzerland, 49% in Spain, 47% in the UK, 43% in Portugal, 41% in Germany and in the USA and Canada, 22% of grocery sales are from store brand (Channel, 2011). In Australia, store brands enjoy 28% of sales (Nielsen, 2011), or around \$21.6 billion (Ibisworld, 2011). Store brand products are growing to be a significant share in many countries.

Store brands are considered important for retailers because the brands are usually only available in their store (Hansen, Singh, & Chintagunta, 2006). Store brands may contribute to building store loyalty (Corstjens & Lal, 2000), as well as increase store traffic (Dick, Jain, & Richardson, 1996) and store brands generally have a higher unit margin than national brands (Mulhern & Williams, 1994). A store brand can be a strategic tool for retailers to be more powerful in beating the competition in the market (Chintagunta, Bonfrer, & Song, 2002).

### **Why is the Store Brand Generally Cheaper?**

Store branded products are often defined as branded products owned by an organization whose primary economic commitment is distribution rather than production (Schutte, 1969). Although the brand belongs to the retail store, in most cases store brands are not produced by the retailers. Manufacturers may produce own-label products for retailers in order to achieve the scale economies in production and distribution (Baltas, 1997). This means that the manufacturers may produce the same or similar products for many retailers under many retailer-own-brands (store brands), as well as their own brand. Although not producing their brands, at least the production processes are similar, which save the production costs. This parity or similarity is one of the reasons why store brands are generally 10%-30% cheaper, compared to the national brands.

The lower price of the store brands is enabled by having lower advertising and promotion costs as well. Store brands rarely receive advertising support because benefits associated with the retailer are promoted (Baltas, 1997). Indeed, the advantage of cheaper price is also often the result of inexpensive packaging (Dick et al., 1996).

Nevertheless, store brands have suffered from a low-quality image compared to the national brands because price is used by consumers as a cue for the quality of their item (Richardson, Dick, & Jain, 1994). The same study also mentioned that perceptions of poor quality may be the result of poor product ingredients. For example, a television program in Australian, A Current Affair (ACA), had compared brands of chicken tempura products to evaluate the ingredients versus their prices. Two of those brands are Ingham tempura chicken and Coles-smart-buy tempura chicken. Ingham is a national brand, and Coles-smart-buy is a store brand.

## 2.5. National Brands vs. Store Brands

|                                 | Price/ 100g | Chicken ingredient | Fat   |
|---------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|-------|
| Ingham tempura chicken          | \$ 0.86     | 60%                | 5.50g |
| Coles-smart-buy tempura chicken | \$ 0.60     | 32%                | 17.1g |

Even though this is only a small study that may not be generalizable, this finding supports the idea that store brands may be poorer quality than national brands in some cases.

However, the poor quality of store brands is often only the perception of the consumers. The private label manufacturers association has claimed that store brands offer the same quality as national brands (Dick, Jain, & Richardson, 1995). Nevertheless, the same report found that consumers generally perceived the quality of store brands and the quality of national brands to be significantly different.

### Store Brand Buyers

It has not been settled as to who buys store brands and what differentiates them from others (Dick et al., 1995). The consumers and non-consumers of store brands are reported to be indistinguishable based on demographic measures (Burger & Schott, 1972; Frank & Boyd Jr, 1965). Moreover, Myer's study (1967) predicted some variables may explain differences in private brand attitudes. However, the study found that psychological, sociological, and socioeconomic variables were not predictors of differences in private brand attitudes.

Although these variables have not been identified in earlier studies, there are later studies that describe the profile of the store brand buyers. Dhar and Hoch (1997) reported that less wealthy and more elderly households, larger families and more



working women (Hoch, 1996) tend to buy store brands. Having lower income is associated with individuals' price sensitivity and their preference to less expensive store branded products. Similarly, Starsynski (1993) reported that private brand buyers tended to have lower incomes, or be larger blue collar households with part-time employed female head of households. In terms of education level, higher education was related to higher financial status and decreased purchase of store brands (Ailawadi, Neslin, & Gedenk, 2001). All of these studies found profiles of store brand buyers with lower incomes.

Consumers that avoid buying store brands believe that they offer lower quality, have less reliable ingredients and are of lower nutritional value (Dick et al., 1995). Another study found that consumers tended to perceive store brands as offering lower quality than the national brands (Bellizzi, Krueckeberg, Hamilton, & Martin, 1981; I. C. M. Cunningham, Hardy, & Imperia, 1982). People with higher education have been related with higher quality consciousness, and lower preference in store brands (Ailawadi et al., 2001). However, it is argued that some other consumers keep purchasing store brands due to their marginal perceived differences in quality (Guerrero, Colomer, Guãrdia, Xicola, & Clotet, 2000).

### **Cultural Effect in Store Brand Purchasing**

An individual's culture contributes to developing his/ her behaviours. Culture also has a role in shaping shopping attitude and behaviours. Therefore, certain differences in immigrants' shopping attitudes and behaviours may be influenced by the individuals' cultures (Shannon & Mandhachitara, 2005).

Even though studies on store brands have been done by many researchers, only a few consider culture as one of variables that may contribute to store brand purchasing

decisions. It has been argued that culture plays several roles in building shopping behaviours. Therefore, culture should be considered as a factor that may affect immigrants' store brand purchasing.

A study conducted by Shannon and Mandhachitara (2005) attempted to understand the attitudinal and behavioural factors associated with private label grocery purchases in Thailand vs. the USA. The consumer adoption of store brands is low and slow in Thailand, and the study's objective was to understand the factors contributing to this problem. A comparative study with USA consumers, who have a higher rate of store brands adoption, was done. The study found that culture contributes to store brand adoption. Eastern collectivist cultures in Thailand tend to have high uncertainty avoidance, and prefer to purchase products that lower the risk of a bad outcome. Another study in the USA mentioned that there is a relationship between risk-avoidance and private purchase of label brands. The buyers who believed that well-known brands offer higher quality were less likely to find private label brands appealing (Batra & Sinha, 2000).

Another study on store brands that considered the effects of cultural variables was done with respondents in Thailand (collectivist culture) and USA (individualist culture). This study investigated possible explanations of the phenomenon of unsuccessful private label grocery brands in Asia (Mandhachitara, Shannon, & Hadjicharalambous, 2007). They argued that given Thai consumers' relatively lower income (compared to USA consumers), they will have a lower tendency to buy less expensive private label grocery brands. The study found that in a collectivist culture in Thailand, the buyer is influenced more by others because they try to maintain group harmony. The buyers in individualist culture tend to be less likely to concern themselves with what others think, and have

more ability to be innovative and less risk averse. They further argued that individualist cultures have buyers that tend to be more attracted to sales and less likely to perceive private label brands as a risky purchase.

These two studies did not measure culture in their research model. The studies assumed that the cultural backgrounds of two country sample groups are different and represent the individualist cultures and collectivist cultures.

Mulhern and Williams (1994) conducted a study on Hispanic shopping behaviours, with store brand purchasing as one of the behaviours. The study compared the estimated responses from Hispanic market areas to the response coefficient from stores located in the market areas with a low concentration of Hispanics. It found that the shoppers in the Hispanic trading area are more prone to purchase store brands. This finding is surprising because it does not support the other studies on Hispanic higher-priced branded product purchasing. While other studies found Hispanics prefer to buy high-priced products to show their social status, this study found that Hispanic immigrants prefer to buy the generally less expensive store brand.

### **Study 3. Acculturation in Store Brand Purchasing**

There are no empirical studies that consider immigrant acculturation in store brand purchasing. Therefore, this study uses the construct of Cultural Adaptation to test its potential effects in purchasing store brand. Study 3 will empirically test the effect of cultural backgrounds toward the perceptions of store brands and preference to purchase store brands. Hypothesis for the Study 3:

H1: Cultural backgrounds affect the perception of store brands.

H2: Cultural backgrounds affect the preference to purchase store brands.

## **Study Methods**

The perceived risk scale used in Study 3 is adapted from Ko, et.al. (2004). Ko's study investigated the perceived risk with shopping in two culturally different countries, South Korea and the US. The scale was originally developed by Garner (1986), and consists of six statements about the perceived risks under a hypothetical purchasing situation. The statements represent performance risk, social risk, financial risk, physical risk, time risk and psychological risk.

The items were adapted to the store brand purchasing environment. Performance risk is the perceived risk that the product may fail to perform to the respondents' satisfaction. Social risk is the perceived risk of the friends' and relatives' negative judgment on the person's purchasing store brands. Financial risk is the risk of losing money due to purchasing store brands. Time risk is the risk of wasting time due to the effort to get the product repaired or replaced. Psychological risk is the perceived risk due to store brands purchasing that there may be a negative effect on peace of mind.

Besides asking questions about their perceived risk in buying store brands, there are several demographic questions that include the respondent's as age, gender, citizenship, length of stay in Australia and country of origin. There are 3 questions regarding their perception of purchasing a store brand product. The first question asked about their perception that store brands are Australian brands. The other two questions are about their perception of whether their friends and relatives buy store brands. Another sample was asked about perceptions of purchasing store brands. Two samples were used so the questions about their perceptions of store brands would not lead the subjects that were asked about purchasing.

The questionnaires were distributed to undergraduate students in the same university in Perth used for Study 1. The sample included local as well as international students. The purpose of having this sample is to be able to compare the perceived risk of store brand buying, and perception of purchasing store brands between local students and international students. These two sample groups have different cultural backgrounds. Their cultural backgrounds (immigrants and locals) are expected to be an effect in their perceptions of store brands, and the perceived risks of purchasing store brands and purchasing store brands.

### **Data Analysis and Discussion**

After data cleaning, 194 questionnaires were available for analysis. The sample consisted of 58.5% (n=113) of the samples are Australian (local) students, and 42% (n=80) are international students. The 74 respondents were used to test their perception of purchasing store brands. The sample consisted of 53% (n=39) Australian students and 47% (n=35) International students. Independent-samples t-tests, with Bonferroni error level adjustment will be used to investigate the different aspects of store brands, the perceived risk of purchasing store brands and perception of purchasing store brands between Australian and international students.

After analysing the data using an independent-samples t-test, it was found that international students (mean=2.8) believed that store brands are Australian brands significantly ( $p < 0.001$ ) more than the Australian students (mean=2.3). Regarding the respondents' perception of whether their friends and relatives/families buy store brands; the independent-samples t-test indicated a similar relationship. The international students (mean=3.1) tend to perceive that their friend and relatives/ families buy store brands significantly ( $p < 0.001$ ) more than Australian students (mean=2.7).

There are 6 statements that represent the constructs of risk; performance risk, social risk, financial risk, physical risk, time risk and psychological risk. Independent-samples t-tests have been used to investigate the differences between the Australian students and the international students. The outcome of the independent-samples t-tests indicates that only performance risk is significantly different between the two sample groups. However if the significant result is evaluated with a Bonferroni adjustment to the error level ( $p < 0.008$ ) for multiple comparisons, no comparisons are significantly different. Table 2.6 presents the finding in the study 3.

**Table 2.6. Independent-samples t-test on Perceived Risk**

| Perceived Risks    | mean                     |      | t value | p value (2-tailed) |
|--------------------|--------------------------|------|---------|--------------------|
| performance risk   | Australian std.(n=113)   | 3.27 | 2.618   | 0.010              |
|                    | International std.(n=80) | 2.91 |         |                    |
| social risk        | Australian std.(n=113)   | 2.38 | .616    | 0.538              |
|                    | International std.(n=80) | 2.30 |         |                    |
| financial risk     | Australian std.(n=113)   | 2.30 | -1.531  | 0.127              |
|                    | International std.(n=80) | 2.49 |         |                    |
| physical risk      | Australian std.(n=113)   | 3.01 | .713    | 0.477              |
|                    | International std.(n=80) | 2.90 |         |                    |
| time risk          | Australian std.(n=113)   | 2.68 | .655    | 0.514              |
|                    | International std.(n=80) | 2.58 |         |                    |
| psychological risk | Australian std.(n=113)   | 2.36 | -.350   | 0.727              |
|                    | International std.(n=80) | 2.41 |         |                    |

The Australian students believed that store brands may fail to perform to their satisfaction more than the international students. This finding may relate to the statement on store brand perception. Because the study found Australian students have lower beliefs that store brands are Australian brands, they may not believe in the favourable performance of the products.

**Table 2.7. Independent-samples t-test on Behaviour of Store Brand Purchasing**

| <b>Behaviour of SB Purchasing</b>                                  | <b>Sample groups</b>      | <b>mean</b> | <b>t value</b> | <b>p value (2-tailed)</b> |
|--|---------------------------|-------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| I always buy store brands if I can                                 | Australian std. (n=39)    | 2.36        | -2.684         | .009                      |
|  | International std. (n=35) | 2.94        |                |                           |
| I will buy national brands, only if store brands are not available | Australian std. (n=39)    | 2.49        | -.722          | .473                      |
|  | International std. (n=35) | 2.66        |                |                           |
| Store brands are always on my shopping list                        | Australian std. (n=39)    | 2.31        | -2.619         | .011                      |
|  | International std. (n=35) | 2.97        |                |                           |
| Store brands are my favourite choices                              | Australian std. (n=39)    | 2.38        | -.557          | .579                      |
|  | International std. (n=35) | 2.51        |                |                           |

The t-test results found that, compared to Australian students, International students have more preference to purchase store brands on all four statements. Applying a Bonferroni shows two statements are significantly different. These questions suggest that International students tend to buy store brands and to have store brands in their shopping list, compared to Australians in the sample.

### **Implications**

This study investigated the perception of store brands, and on the perceived risks of purchasing store brands in the two sample groups from different cultural backgrounds (Australian vs. non-Australia). The finding of this study indicates that the cultural background of an individual may have an effect on his/ her perceptions of store brands and the tendency to purchase store brands. However, cultural background may only partially influence the perceived risks of purchasing store brands.





## CHAPTER THREE

### THE HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT OF THE MAIN STUDY

Study 1 has already empirically supported that the construct of cultural adaptation consists of several factors; labelled as acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, and homie comfort. Study 2 applied the measure of the construct of Cultural Adaptation to another population and found the same six factors, and supports the external generalizability of the measure. In this study, the six factors of the construct called Cultural Adaptation will again be tested.

**H1** : Cultural adaptation consists of the six factors found in Study 1; acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, homie comfort, and neighbour.

#### **Cultural Adaptation in the Adoption of the New Brands**

Immigrants need to adjust to the new culture, new communities, and new ways of living. One area of acculturation includes new ways of purchasing the products. An adjustment of their purchasing behaviour is important for marketers to understand. Moreover, the unavailability of products and brands they used to buy in their home country will be another challenge for immigrants in their process of cultural adaptation. Immigrants' adoption of new products and brands not available in their old country is an important issue in a country like Australia with a rapid growth of immigration.

The construct of cultural adaptation is assumed to be a significant effect in immigrants' store brands purchasing behaviour.

**H2:** Cultural adaptation will be an effect in immigrants' reported purchase of store brands.

Study 3 found that Australian students have a lower belief that store brands are Australian brands, than international students. Australian students also have a stronger belief that believed that store brands may fail to perform to their satisfaction, than international students. The different perceptions of store brands between these two sample groups indicates a relationship between the immigrants' cultural background and their perception of store brands. The study also found that international students have a greater tendency to purchase store brands than Australian students. Therefore, it is hypothesised that the factor of acculturation will have a negative effect in immigrants' purchasing of store brands. The more acculturated, the less immigrants will report purchasing store brands.

**H2a:** The cultural adaptation factor of acculturation will be a negative effect in the immigrants' reported purchasing of store brands. The greater the immigrants' acculturation with the host country's culture, the less they will report purchasing store brands.

Language is one of the most important factors in culture and acculturation. The language barrier of the new country may drive people to access information in their original language that is not easily available in their new country. Therefore, media that provide information and entertainment in their mother tongue language will tend to be preferred over media in the host country's language. In this study, the factor of media language represents the preference for media in English.

It is hypothesised that the choice of new culture's media language will be a negative effect in the immigrants' preference to purchase store brands. It is relevant with hypothesis H2a, because a higher ability to understand or speak English may indicate

higher acculturated immigrants. Therefore, the less the immigrants prefer English as the language in their media, the more they will report purchasing store brands.

**H2b:** The cultural adaptation factor of media language (preference in English) will be a negative effect in immigrants' reported purchasing store brands.

The factor of ethnic speaking represents the preference to speak in their ethnic language to family, relatives or people from the same country. Immigrants also tend to speak in their own ethnic language because they cannot, or find it more difficult to speak in English. Because of the limits of speaking English, this type of immigrant tends to shop in ethnic owned stores more than immigrants that are more fluent in English. For example, they will prefer to buy the products and brands that were available in their home country at ethnic stores that tend to offer these products and brands.

It is expected that immigrants' preference for speaking in their ethnic language is positively associated with their low adoption of the new country's culture. For example, immigrants with limited fluency of the host country language will tend to avoid participating in activities dominated by people originally come from their new host country.

According to Kossoudji (1988), immigrants that do not speak English are "pushed down" the occupational ladder. Moreover, Chiswick and Miller (2002) highlight that immigrants who are fluent in English tend to be favorably selected for jobs with higher earnings. Therefore, immigrants with a better ability to speak English would be expected to have more disposable income to buy products. The immigrants with lower ability to speak English would be expected to buy more store brands that are cheaper than the national brands.

Immigrants' preference to speak ethnic language may indicate lower level of their adjustment to the dominant culture. Relevant with the finding in Study 3, the factor of ethnic speaking have a positive effect to their tendency to purchase store brands. The higher the immigrants' preference to speak their ethnic language, the higher their tendency to report purchasing store brands.

**H2c:** The cultural adaptation factor of ethnic speaking will be a positive effect in the immigrants' reported purchasing behaviour for store brands. The more immigrants report preferring to speak in their ethnic language, the more they will report purchasing store brands.

Religion is a key element of culture that can influence the consuming and buying behaviours of its members (Delener, 1990; Hirschman, 1981), and the way they shop (Essoo & Dibb, 2004). Religion may contribute to immigrants purchasing store brands. Wilkes et al. (1986) reported that religious commitment was positive effect in a sample's preference for national brands. Delener's study (1990, 1994) indicated the highly religious followers of religion tend to have a lower risk tolerance in their shopping. Store brand purchasing may be associated with risky buying due to the immigrants' perception of poor brand quality compared to the national brands. Consequently, it is expected that immigrant's attachment to their religion or belief brought from their home country will be a negative effect in their reported purchasing of store brands.

**H2d:** The cultural adaptation factor of religion will be negatively associated with the immigrants' reported store brand purchasing. The more the respondent is attached to their religion, the less they will report purchasing store brands.

The factor of homie comfort represents the immigrants' tendency to socialise with people who come from the same country or area of origin. This factor is expected to show a relationship with their use of their ethnic language. The convenience of using their ethnic language may make people interact with others from the same country. This preference may have a relationship with their adoption of the host country's products and brands. Based on this expectation, the factor of homie comfort will be positively related to the immigrants' reported purchasing of store brands.

**H2e:** The cultural adaptation factor of homie comfort will be positively related to the immigrants' reported purchasing of store brands. The greater their tendencies to socialise with people from their old country, the higher their purchasing of store brands.

Gur (1994) finds that socio-cultural differences and the period of acculturation are important factors in determining the appropriate patterns of houses and their layouts for a culture. Elazar (1976) reported how multiple ethnic or socio-religious groups may reside together symbiotically keeping up their culture. These studies indicate that cultural background will be an effect in house design and house location.

Living in the community that has a similar cultural background to the immigrant has been chosen by many immigrants due the benefits of "feeling at home". The community tends to speak the same ethnic language, eat the same ethnic food, fashion similar interiors, and celebrate values from their old ethnic home. However, Chiswick and Miller (2002) indicated that the lack of fluency in the host country's language may drive immigrants to live in linguistically concentrated an area, which eventually limits

socialization to people who speak their ethnic language. Therefore, living in an ethnic neighbourhood tends to delay immigrants acculturating with the new country's culture.

The factor of neighbour represents the immigrants' preference to live in neighbourhood the people from the same country. It is expected that living in an ethnic community will be associated with less adjustment and cultural adaptation to the new culture. Adaptation includes accepting products and brands associated with the new culture. Therefore, it is hypothesised people that tend to have ethnic neighbours will report more purchasing store brands than people that live in non-ethnic neighbours.

**H2f:** The cultural adaptation factor of neighbour will be positively associated with the immigrants' reported purchasing of store brands. The greater the tendency to live in the same neighbourhood with people from the old country, the more their purchasing of store brands.

### **Attitude toward Store Brands as a Mediating Variable**

The role of attitude toward purchasing store brands in mediating the influence to store brand purchasing behaviour has not been previously tested. Nevertheless, a study of green energy brands reported a significant role of brand attitude in reported purchasing of green products (Hartmann & Apaolaza-Ibañez, 2011). Jayawardhena (2004) reported on the study of e-shopping behaviour, and found personal values have a direct influence on an individual's e-consumer attitude toward e-shopping, as well as an indirect influence on the behaviour prompted by these attitudes. Previously, Kahle (1980) similarly mentioned that values have an indirect effect on consumer behaviour through mediating factors such as attitude toward the behaviour.

This study will test the effect of attitude toward purchasing store brands, in mediating the influence of the factors of acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, and homie comfort in reported purchasing store brands. It is hypothesised that the respondent's attitude toward purchasing store brands will mediate the influence of their cultural adaptation in the purchase of a store brand.

**H3:** An immigrants' attitude toward purchasing store brands will tend to mediate the effect of acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, homie comfort and neighbour in their purchasing store brands.

### **Length of Stay and Store Brand Purchase**

The longer an immigrant stays in Australia, the more they tend to adopt Australian culture. Study 3 reported that Australian students are less interested in buying store brands compared to temporary immigrants (international students). It is hypothesised that the longer the immigrant stays in Australia, the less the likelihood they will purchase store brands.

The immigrants' length of residence is expected to have an association with their tendency to purchase store brand. It is expected that an immigrants' length of stay will negatively related to their tendency to purchase store brands.

**H4a:** The immigrants' length of stay in Australia is positively related to their cultural adaptation.

**H4b:** The immigrants' length of stay in Australia is negatively related to store brand purchase.

### **Income and Store Brand Purchase**

Kossoudji (1988) and Chiswick and Miller (2002) reported that immigrants that do not speak the host country's language fluently tend to have lower incomes. It could be that having more disposable income would help acculturating to the host country's culture, and purchasing store brands.

**H5a:** An immigrants' income will be positively related to their cultural adaptation.

**H5b:** An immigrants' income will be negatively related to their store brand purchasing.

### **Gender and Store Brand Purchase**

Previous studies indicated gender affects in purchasing (Dao Jr & Kazin, 2007; Laroche, Saad, Cleveland, & Browne, 2000; Mitchell & Walsh, 2004; Moss, Gunn, & Heller, 2006). For example, Sethuraman and Cole (1999) reported that females are willing to pay larger price premiums than males.

Gender is an important determinant on predicting the adoption of new cultural values (Dasgupta, 1998). This study expects that gender will be an effect in the Cultural Adaptation of a sample of immigrants in Australia, and their purchasing store brands. Holmes (1993) reported that women's network encourage more extensive use of ethnic language. Furthermore, Aikio (1992) mentioned that linguistically, women are more conservative than men

**H6a:** Gender will be an effect in the immigrants' cultural adaptation. Females will tend to adapt less to their new country culture than males.

**H6b:** Gender will be an effect in the immigrants' purchasing store brands. Females will have higher tendency to purchase store brands than males.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **Pre-Testing**

This study will investigate immigrants' adoption of the purchasing behaviour of the new country, especially in terms of purchasing store brands. It tests whether immigrants' cultural adaptation will have an effect on their reported behaviour.

#### **Construct of Cultural Adaptation**

Prior to the main data collection, three studies were conducted in order to determine the parameters of further interest. The first study determined the degree of acculturation and ethnic identity. The study found that the constructs of acculturation and ethnic identity consist of six factors; acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, homie comfort and neighbour. The first study suggests that factors of cultural background may influence the immigrants' adjustments to the new culture and to its new products and brands.

The second study extended the measure of cultural adaptation to a sample from a different population. The sample of the second study was from Indonesian Chinese students in Indonesia. Study 2 found that the six factors in the first study were largely supported. Therefore, the measure exhibits adequate reliability in study 2 and will be used in the next study for capturing what will be called "the construct of Cultural Adaptation".

The third study expects to find the sample of respondents' perceptions of store brands. The third study found that there were significant differences between the international

students' perceptions and the Australian students' perceptions regarding store brands. International students tend to believe that store brands are Australian brands more than do the Australian students. Moreover, international students tend to have a stronger belief that their friends and relatives buy store brands. An addition, Australian students perceived that the store brands might fail to perform their satisfaction. The study provided the insight that international students and Australian students have different perceptions of store brands. Moreover, the study found that International students have higher preference to purchase store brands.

### **The Sample**

The population for this study is Chinese immigrants who reside in Western Australia. Due to the crucial variable of ethnic background in Cultural Adaptation, the sample should be as homogenous as possible with regard to this factor. Consequently, the sample is limited to Chinese immigrants from Mainland China, as Chinese people from other countries are probably influenced by the dominant culture of home country - for example; Malaysian Chinese might have been influenced by Malaysian culture.

One of the most important considerations in choosing Chinese immigrants from Mainland China as the population sampled in this study was the size and growth of this community in Australia. Although immigrants born in the United Kingdom continue to be the largest group of overseas-born residents, the Chinese-born immigrants constituted the largest group of new immigrants in 2010-2011 in Australia.

The adjustment for immigrants depends on the extent to which their culture of origin differs from the host culture (Tannenbaum & Howie, 2002). Therefore, considering the cultural background of the top three immigrants' home countries, England, New

Zealand and China, the immigrants from England and New Zealand will be expected to experience an easier adjustment to the Australian culture, compared to immigrants from China. This is largely due to the similarity of some important cultural factors such as language. Therefore, choosing Chinese as an immigrant population to sample is relevant to contemporary Australian immigration because of the number of possible differences that may have an effect on their cultural adaptation.

The sample consists of international students and recent immigrants with Australian permanent residency from Mainland China. The international student sample was chosen after considering the literature regarding the profile of potential immigrants to Australia. Approximately 34% of international students that have completed their undergraduate degree education course have been approved for permanent residency in Australia (OECD, 2006).

### **Translation and Pilot Study**

The questionnaire was developed based on a thorough literature review. It was originally designed in the English language. Nevertheless, due to the possibility that respondents that may have difficulties in reading English, the questionnaire was translated into Mandarin. This translation was very important in order to avoid any ambiguity in the understanding of the questions in the questionnaire.

According to Francis et al. (2004), the person that translates the questionnaire should be a native speaker of the language. Consequently, two Chinese (Chinese native speakers) helped to translate and back-translate the questionnaire. The English version of the questionnaire was sent to the first translator to be translated into Mandarin. After all

items in the questionnaire were converted into Mandarin, the Mandarin version of the questionnaire was sent to the second translator, who back-translated it into English.

During the process of back-to-back translation, there were a few problems due to the possible miss-understanding of some questions or words. Therefore, the process required one more Chinese native speaker to take the English version questionnaire and translate it into Mandarin. Then, the translated questionnaire was again sent to the second translator to back-translate in English. After the second round, the back-translated English version was compared to the original English version. The outcome of the comparison was accepted after some minor changes. There were no conceptual differences between those two versions.

A small-scale pilot test was conducted using the Chinese version questionnaire (after back-to-back translation) on two immigrant Chinese native speaker respondents. The two respondents gave some suggestions about improving the questionnaire, especially regarding the structure of the questionnaire and how to attract potential respondents to participate in the survey. These suggestions were incorporated in the final questionnaire.

### **The Procedure**

The Chinese Students' Association in Western Australia was contacted in order to reach international students from China for the samples in this study. The association was asked for advice on how to reach their members. The association suggested reaching their members via their main social gathering. The association committee agreed to act as an intermediary for distributing the survey. Prior to distributing the questionnaires, the committee explained the survey to their members. Although questionnaires were

distributed at the social event, some students preferred to fill them out at home. Therefore, pre-paid envelopes were distributed to those students.

Another approach was used to reach the immigrants from China. Two Chinese churches were contacted to assist with collecting the data, namely the Chinese Church in Belmont and the Chinese Church in Hamersley. Both areas are Perth suburbs. The contact persons agreed to explain the data collection to the church members. The members were free to decide whether they would participate in the survey. People who were interested in the survey could take the questionnaire placed in front of the church, bring it home and fill it in. A pre-paid envelope was prepared, so that the respondents could post it from any post office or post/ mail box.

A Chinese dance lesson group was approached as well. The contact person acted as an intermediary and explained about the data collection to the group members. The members were free to decide if they wanted to participate in the survey. A third approach to collecting Chinese sample members came from a Chinese seminar at UWA. The contact person explained about the survey and the potential respondents were free to participate. Pre-paid envelopes were used to make the data collection more convenient for the respondents.

### **Instruments**

The survey questionnaire contains four main measurement sections; (1) Cultural Adaptation, previously known as the factors of acculturation and ethnic identity, (2) Attitude toward purchasing store brands, (3) Reported store brands purchased, and (4) a section requesting the respondent's demographics. The demographic questions included their ethnicity, home country and the length of their stay in Australia.

## **Ethnic Identity and Acculturation**

As discussed in the literature review chapter, the measurements of acculturation and ethnic identity have existed for some time. Some acculturation measures are SL-ASIA (Suinn et al., 1987) and ARSMA (Cuellar, Harris, & Jasso, 1980). The SL-ASIA (Suinn-Lew Self-Identity Acculturation Scale) was developed particularly to measure Asian-American acculturation. The ARSMA (Acculturation Rating Scale for Mexican-American) has been used to measure Hispanics' acculturation.

Regarding the ethnic identity measure, one of the scales used is MEIM (Phinney, 1992). The multi-group ethnic identity (MEIM) claims to be able to be used with all ethnic groups. This scale can also be used to examine similarities and differences in ethnic identity from different ethnic groups.

Although those measures of acculturation and ethnic identity have been used in previous studies, none of the studies measured the ethnic identity and acculturation at the same time. Indeed, many researchers still have different ideas about the association of these two variables. Therefore, it would be problematic to use those measures in this study and acculturation and ethnic identity scales used in only one study (Laroche, Kim, Hui, & Tomiuk, 1998) were chosen. This measure was used in Study 1 and replicated in Study 2. Study 1 developed a measure of cultural adaptation that had six factors. Study 2 tested their measure on a sample from a different population group and supported the finding of six factors.

## **The Measures of Attitude and Behaviour toward Store Brands**

This study adapted the measure of attitude toward the store brands that was developed by Burton et al. (1998). Ten items comprised the attitude towards store brand scale, and

to measure the immigrants' attitude toward store brands in this study. Five-point Likert scales that ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) were used for all responses.

**Table. 4.1. Items of Attitude toward Store Brands (English version)**

|     |  |
|-----|--|
| 1.  | Buying store brands make me feel good.   |
| 2.  | It is important that store brands are available for the product categories I purchase. |
| 3.  | For most product categories the best buy is usually the store brands.                  |
| 4.  | Store brands are poor-quality products.  |
| 5.  | I prefer store brands to national brands due to the value for money.                   |
| 6.  | I always feel that I am getting a good deal when buy store brands.                     |
| 7.  | The lower price on store brands is because of the poor quality of the products.        |
| 8.  | The advertised national brands always have better quality than store brands.           |
| 9.  | I think store brands offer great value for money.                                      |
| 10. | I feel like a smart shopper when I buy store brands                                    |

In this study, a single measure of store brand purchasing behaviour was used. The item, "I often buy store brands (e.g. Select, Homebrand, Coles brand) products", was measured on a 5-poin scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

### **The Respondents' Details**

The census data about immigrants' country-of-origin revealed that China is the country that contributed the biggest number of immigrants to Australia in 2010-2011 (ABS, 2011). The biggest group of immigrants that come from non-English speaking countries are Chinese from the Mainland. In this study, consideration regarding the first language (mother tongue) of the respondents was important because this study assumed that

people from China would find it more difficult to acculturate than immigrants who come from English speaking countries.

## **Statistical Analysis**

### **Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)**

SEM is a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypotheses-testing) approach to the analysis of structural theory concerning some phenomena (Byrne, 2010). Furthermore, SEM analysis is an established set of statistical tools that combine multiple regression and factor analysis techniques (Holmes- Smith, 2006). The power of SEM lies in its mechanism which combines econometric structural equation modelling and psychometric elements (Bollen, 1998). Those two elements facilitate the estimation of multiple equations simultaneously, while accounting for measurement errors in a model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). SEM extends the traditional analysis in at least two important ways (E. Cunningham, 2008). First, SEM allows researchers to account for the error that is inherent in the measure they use to operationalize their constructs. Second, SEM provides tests of goodness-of-fit that answer important questions about the extent to which sample data provides support for a hypothesised theoretical model. Likewise, SEM is very useful to test theoretical and measurement issues, causal hypotheses and parameter estimations on a comprehensive framework, in a straightforward manner (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Gerbing & Anderson, 1985). To gauge whether model fits the data will be assessed based on several indicators of fit indices (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996). These indicators comprise the chi-square value, normed chi-square value, Goodness- of-Fit (GFI), Adjusted Goodness- of-Fit (AGFI), Root Mean-Square Residual (RMR), Root Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) and Comparative Index (CFI). Table 4.2 represents the summary of the fit indices.



**Table 4.2. Summary of Fit Indices**

| Name   | Abbrev.     | Type                            | Acceptable Level                     | Comments   |
|--|-------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| Chi-Square   | $\chi^2$    | Model Fit                       | $P < 0.05$<br>( $\alpha = 0.005$ )   | Greatly affected by sample size. The larger the sample the more likely the p-value will indicate a significant difference between the model and the data |
| Normed Chi-Square  | $\chi^2/df$ | Absolute fit an model parsimony | $1.0 < \chi^2/df < 3$                | Value less than 1 may indicate over fit.   |
| Goodness-of-Fit and Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit                             | GFI<br>AGFI | Absolute fit                    | GFI and AGFI > 0.95                  | Value between 0.90-0.95 may also indicate satisfactory fit.  |
| Root Mean-Square Residual  | RMR         | Absolute fit                    | RMR < 0.05                           | Large values for RMR when all other fit indices suggest good fit may indicate outliers in the raw data.  |
| Root Mean-Square Error of Approximation                                  | RMSEA       | Absolute fit                    | RMSEA < 0.05                         | Value between 0.90-0.95 may also indicate satisfactory fit.  |
| Tucker Lewis Index, Non Normed Fit Index, and Rho 2                      | TLI<br>NNFI | Incremental fit                 | TLI and NNFI > 0.95                  | Value between 0.90-0.95 may also indicate satisfactory fit. Value less than 1 may indicate over fit.   |
| Comparative Fit Index  | CFI         | Incremental fit                 | CFI > 0.95                           | Value between 0.90-0.95 may also indicate satisfactory fit. Values close to 0 indicates poor fit, CFI=1 indicates perfect fit.                           |
| Akaike Information Criterion and Consistent Akaike Information Criterion | AIC<br>CAIC | Model parsimony                 | No defined level (minimum is better) | The model that fits with the smallest value of AIC/ CAIC is the most parsimonious fitting model.   |

Source: Holmes-Smith, Coote and Cunningham (2004)

The software that will be used to analyse the SEM in this study is the Analysis of Moment Structure 20 (AMOS 20).

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used to develop the measure in Study 1 and also in Study 2, when the same measure was replicated. The measure that was developed in Study 1 will be once again tested for its reliability. The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) will be used to test the data. According to Byrne (2010), CFA can be used when a latent variable structure has been understood. Because the latent variable structure was developed in the previous studies (Study 1 and Study 2), this study will use the CFA instead of EFA.

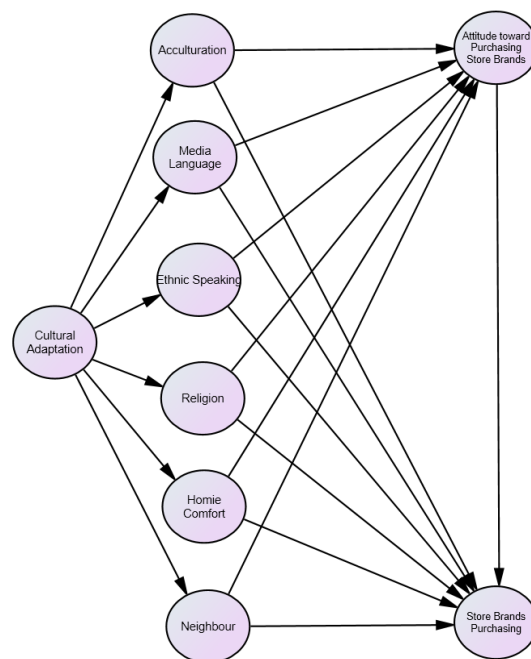
When the latent variable structure is understood, the researchers can then postulate the relations and test this hypothesised structure statistically to determine the adequacy of its goodness-of-fit to the sample data (Bollen, 1998). Byrne (2010) mentioned that, because the CFA model focuses on the link between factors and their measured

variables, it represents what has been termed a measurement model. In this study, Confirmatory Factor Analysis, which is part of SEM, will be used to test the reliability of the Cultural Adaptation construct.

The Cultural Adaptation measure will be the independent variable, while the reported store brands purchasing behaviour will be the dependent variable in the model. There will be one mediator, attitude toward the purchasing the store brands, between the dependent variable and the independent variables. This constitutes the full model that will be tested.

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) will be used to test hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. The theoretical framework and hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 are presented in Figure 4.1.

**Figure 4.1. The Theoretical Framework Model**



### **Independent-Samples t-test**

An Independent-Samples t-test is used when the two samples are not related in the experiment under investigation (N. Malhotra & Birks, 2003). The test compares the mean score of a continuous variable for two groups of subjects (Pallant, 2007). It requires two variables. One categorical variable is an independent variable and one continuous variable is a dependent variable. According to Pallant (2007), an independent-samples t-test will indicate if there is a statistically significant difference in the mean scores for the two groups, or the probability that the two scores came from the same population group.

By running an Independent-samples t-test using SPSS, the outcome will not only provide the t-test for equality of means, it also provides the Levene's test for the equality of the variances. The Levene's test indicates whether the scores of the variance for the two groups are the same (Pallant, 2007). When the test indicates a significance value  $p \leq 0.05$ , it indicates that the data violate the assumption of equal variance. In this case, Pallant (2007) recommends the use of t-value under "equal variances not assumed".

For finding out whether a significant difference exists between the two sample groups, the p-value under t-test for equity of means will be used. The p-value equal or less than  $p \leq 0.05$  indicates the significant difference in the mean scores on the dependent variable for each of the two groups (Pallant, 2007). Because multiple comparisons will be tested in Bonferroni error level adjustment will be applied.

In this study, the Independent-samples t-test will be used to test hypotheses 4 and 6. In hypothesis 4, the Independent-samples t-test will be used to determine if there are

significant differences in the mean scores of the Cultural Adaptation factors, attitude toward purchasing the store brands and purchasing of store brands, based on the length-of-stay in Australia. For hypothesis 6, the test will be used to determine if there are significant differences in the mean scores of the Cultural Adaptation factors based gender in the samples.

### **Analysis of Variance**

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is used for examining the differences in the mean values of the dependent variable associated with the differences of the controlled independent variables. This analysis also takes into account the influence of any uncontrolled independent variables (N. K. Malhotra, 2008). In using ANOVA, there should be a dependent variable (the data using interval or ratio scale) and one or more independent variables (which must be categorical).

The fifth hypothesis in this study is that the immigrant respondents' income will influence their reported store brands purchasing. ANOVA will be used to test if Cultural Adaptation and purchasing behaviour differences between the population groups are based on the income levels. Table 4.3 describes the procedures for conducting One-Way ANOVA.

**Table 4.3. The Procedure for Conducting One-Way ANOVA**

|        |  |
|--------|--|
| Step 1 | Identify the Dependent and Independent Variables |
| Step 2 | Decompose the Total Variation                    |
| Step 3 | Measure the effect                               |
| Step 4 | Test the significant                             |
| Step 5 | Interpret the result                             |

Source: Malhotra, 2008

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **RESULT**

The data collection method was reported in Chapter 4. The first part of this chapter will present the preliminary examination of the data for accuracy, missing data, outliers and normality. The second part of the chapter describes the profiles and the analyses of the respondents, followed by the tests of hypotheses using Analyses of Variances (ANOVAs), independent sample t-test and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

#### **Data Cleaning and Screening**

The raw data was cleaned for coding errors, missing data, outliers and normality (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Hair & Black, 2010; Tabachnick, Fidell, & Osterlind, 2001).

#### **Coding Errors and Missing Data**

To examine for coding errors, an analysis of the basic descriptive statistics and frequency distribution was conducted. By using this method, the values that are improperly coded will be detected. The tests were conducted and detected one case with an incorrect data entry. It was corrected by going back to the respondent's original answer in the questionnaire, and correcting the data.

Missing data may affect the generalisation of any research finding (Tabachnick et al., 2001) and may contribute to problems or bias in the results (Hair & Black, 2010). Problems with missing data depend on the pattern and the amount of missing data (Tabachnick et al., 2001). Random missing data may be less critical than the non-

random missing data. To avoid bias due to missing data, it should be deleted or replaced (Hair & Black, 2010).

Three items that were to be used in SEM analysis had missing data. The missing data for those items appeared to be independent of each other and missing at random. Because the missing data appeared to be random and accounted for less than 5% of the total sample, an imputation method that replaces missing data with the mean of the group was chosen.

### **Outliers**

Outliers are observations with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as distinctly different from the other observations (Hair & Black, 2010). Outliers will be identified when the responses are distributed far from other responses. According to Hair et al. (2010), outliers could be categorised as problematic if they are not representative of the population may counter the objective of the analysis and distort statistical tests. Therefore, identifying the outliers is important before doing further analyses.

Outliers may have been caused by coding errors or missing values. However, these two problems have been corrected. Therefore, only outliers that cause sampling errors because they are not representative of the intended population should be deleted. There are two ways to examine outliers; univariate and multivariate approaches (Tabachnick et al., 2001).

An examination to detect univariate outliers was conducted for each item. This examination was done by converting the data values to standard z scores for each item.

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), a z score of  $\pm 3.29$  is representative. Nevertheless, Hair et al. (2010) mentions that the rule of thumb for large sample sizes (more than 80) can be up to  $\pm 4$ . Therefore, due to the relatively large size in this sample (n=220), a z score of  $\pm 4$  will be used to detect univariate outliers. Based on a z-score generated by the SPSS program, there was one item that had univariate outliers. The Z score was 4.025, slightly more than the acceptable value of  $\pm 4$ . These two cases have been deleted from the data set due to the potential problems outliers could have on the SEM analysis. Multivariate outliers and the normality of the data distribution will be tested based on the factors of the Cultural Adaptation measure developed in Study 1.

### **Multivariate Outliers**

Mahalanobis distance has been used to identify cases distributed far from the centroid (Hair & Black, 2010). A conservative approach using an alpha level of  $P \leq 0.001$  has traditionally been used to detect multivariate outliers (Hair et al., 1998). Considering an alpha of  $P \leq 0.001$  (df=4), the mahalanobis distance should not be higher than 18.47.

There were seven cases which have been identified as multivariate outliers in the data set with these criteria. However, a closer examination indicated that the distance of these multivariate outliers from the centroid was not large relative to other observations. Therefore, the outliers were kept in the data set for further analysis. Table 5.1 presents the cases with Mahalanobis d-squared of more than 18.47.

**Table 5.1. Multivariate Outliers based on Mahalanobis distance**

| Observation number | Mahalanobis d-squared |
|--------------------|-----------------------|
| 94                 | 23.612                |
| 118                | 22.268                |
| 33                 | 21.879                |
| 43                 | 21.536                |
| 164                | 20.326                |
| 41                 | 20.165                |
| 16                 | 17.157                |

### **Normality**

Normality of the data distribution is identified based on the skewness and kurtosis of the data (Hair et al., 1998). Positive skewness is where the data are concentrated on the left side, while negative skewness shows the opposite (Tabachnick et al., 2001) Regarding kurtosis values, it shows very high peaks and short tail graphs of distribution when the value is more than zero, while below zero indicates a very flat distribution (Hair & Black, 2010).

Some non-normality in data is considered acceptable, because an absolute normal distribution resulting in zero values for skewness and kurtosis is not a common condition in many social science studies (Tabachnick et al., 2001). Skewness greater than 3.0 is considered too skewed, while kurtosis greater than 10 is problematic for univariate normality (Chou & Bentler, 1995). A critical ratio exceeding the value of  $\pm 2.58$  ( $p < 0.01$ ) will be considered non-normal (Hair, 1998).

The normality test was done using AMOS 20 and the outcome found that there was no skewness greater than 3 and no kurtosis greater than 10. Form these two indicators, the data set had an acceptably normal distribution (Chou & Bentler, 1995). However, there was one variable that had a critical ratio of more than  $\pm 2.58$ , which indicates that it



does not have a normal distribution. Table 5.2 presents the assessment of normality by factors and variables.

**Table 5.2. The Assessment of Normality**

| Variable                             | Skewness | Critical ratio | Kurtosis | Critical ratio |
|--------------------------------------|----------|----------------|----------|----------------|
| Homie_Comfort                        | -.428    | -2.577         | .196     | .592           |
| Media Language                       | .415     | 2.509          | .223     | .675           |
| Ethnic Speaking                      | -.844    | <b>-5.097</b>  | .545     | 1.646          |
| Religion                             | .296     | 1.790          | -.019    | -.058          |
| Acculturation                        | .236     | 1.429          | -.123    | -.372          |
| Attitude                             | -.417    | -2.522         | .476     | 1.439          |
| Behaviour                            | -.055    | -.334          | .087     | .263           |
| Multivariate<br>(Mardia Coefficient) |          |                | 7.533    | 4.965          |

Although there was one indication of non-normality in the data set, the impact of normality in a ‘large’ sample size ( $n > 100$ ) tends to diminish with the size of the sample (Tabachnick et al., 2001). Moreover, The Maximum Likelihood Estimation method will be adopted to deal with any non-normal data because it is a robust estimation method (Holmes-Smith et al., 2004). Although non-normal data distributions will not affect the stability of parameter estimations, they may produce positively biased chi-square results (Philip Holmes-Smith et al., 2007). When that occurs, a bootstrapping method will be used to calculate a chi-square value based on a nonparametric significant test (Bollen, 1989; Holmes-Smith et al, 2004).

### **Demographic Profile**

The sample of Chinese immigrant respondents was between 17 to 60 years old, with more than 30% aged 23 to 26 years old. Based on gender, the numbers of female and male respondents were relatively balanced, with approximately 47.9% of the respondents being female and the other 52.9% male.

The information about the immigrant respondents' length-of-stay in Australia and their residency status was collected. Twenty one per cent of respondents reported that they were Australian citizens. The rest of the sample (79.9%) reported Chinese citizenship status only. About 50% of the respondents had been in Australia for more than 2 years.

## **Measurement**

### **The Cultural Adaptation Measure**

The Cultural Adaptation measure was developed in Study 1 and replicated with a sample from a different population in Study 2. The measure will be tested again to see if the measure is reliable in terms of factors of cultural adaptation for this sample.

In order to measure the internal consistency of the variables, a test of inter-item reliability was conducted. The reliability indicates the degree to which the items that make up factors in the construct all measure the same underlying attributes (Pallant, 2007). In this study, the internal consistency of the factors will be measured with a Cronbach Alpha (Lee & Hooley, 2005).

Table 5.3 presents the items and variables of the Cultural Adaptation measure as well as their Cronbach Alpha.

**Table 5.3. The Cronbach Alpha of the Cultural Adaptation Measure**

| Factors                          |  | Cronbach Alpha |
|----------------------------------|--|----------------|
| <b>Factor 1: acculturation</b>   |  | <b>0.67</b>    |
|                                  | I often participate in the activities of the Australian community.                     |                |
|                                  | I am strongly attached to all aspects of the Australian culture.                       |                |
|                                  | I am very comfortable dealing with Australians.  |                |
|                                  | I like to go to places where I can be with Australians.                                |                |
|                                  | Most of my closest friends are Australian  |                |
| <b>Factor 2: media language</b>  |  | <b>0.82</b>    |
|                                  | I prefer to read an English language newspaper   |                |
|                                  | I prefer to read magazines and books in English.                                       |                |
|                                  | I prefer to listen to radio in English.  |                |
| <b>Factor 3: religion</b>        |  | <b>0.73</b>    |
|                                  | I consider myself to be strong believer of the religion I learned in my country.       |                |
|                                  | I had a religious childhood upbringing.  |                |
|                                  | My religious beliefs are an important part of my life.                                 |                |
| <b>Factor 4: ethnic speaking</b> |  | <b>0.76</b>    |
|                                  | I speak in English frequently with my relatives. (R)                                   |                |
|                                  | I frequently speak in English with my family. (R)                                      |                |
|                                  | I speak in English frequently with friends from my home country. (R)                   |                |
| <b>Factor 5: homie comfort</b>   |  | <b>0.71</b>    |
|                                  | I am very comfortable dealing with people from my home country.                        |                |
|                                  | I like to go to places where I can be with people from my home country.                |                |
|                                  | I often participate in the activities arranged by and for people from my home country. |                |
|                                  | I am strongly attached to all aspects of my home country culture.                      |                |
|                                  | Most of my friends are from my home country  |                |
| <b>Factor 6: neighbours</b>      |  | <b>0.52</b>    |
|                                  | Most of my neighbours come from my home country.                                       |                |
|                                  | Most of my neighbours are Australians. (R)   |                |

The Cronbach Alpha for the six variables ranges from 0.513 to 0.819. A Cronbach Alpha above 0.60 indicates acceptable internal consistency among items in the factors (Sekaran, 2003). The Cronbach Alpha for five variables, namely acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, and home comfort, indicated the five factors were at an acceptable level of reliability. However, one factor, labelled “neighbour”, is not reliable as indicated by a low Cronbach Alpha value ( $r=0.52$ ). Francis et al. (2004) advised that items that are not significantly related to other items should be dropped to increase the alpha value. Unfortunately, there were only 2 items in this factor so it was

not possible to drop one of them in order to get a higher Cronbach Alpha value. Therefore, the factor of neighbour was deleted from the scale for this study.

Prior to testing the hypotheses using SEM, Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) was conducted. The CFA model must fit the data in order to be able to conduct further analyses using SEM. Therefore, it is critical to have the data fit the CFA model of Cultural Adaptation before testing further hypotheses. A goodness-of-fit CFA model can only be developed if it is supported by a fit to a one-factor congeneric. This indicates the uni-dimensionality of the constructs. A one-factor congeneric model is the simplest form of measurement model and represents the regression of a set of observed variables on a single latent construct.

Table 5.4 shows the findings of the one-factor congeneric test that indicate fitness indices of the factors.

**Table 5.4. The Goodness-of-Fit Indices of the Factors of the Cultural Adaptation**

| Indices  | Recommended          | Acculturation | Media Language | Home Comfort | Religion | Ethnic Speaking |
|----------|----------------------|---------------|----------------|--------------|----------|-----------------|
| $X^2/df$ | $1.0 < X^2/df < 3.0$ | 0.905*        | 0.889*         | 1.279        | 0.182*   | 0.084*          |
| GFI      | $\geq 0.90$          | 0.994         | 0.997          | 0.989        | 0.999    | 1.000           |
| AGFI     | $\geq 0.90$          | 0.976         | 0.984          | 0.967        | 0.997    | 0.998           |
| TLI      | $\geq 0.90$          | 1.007**       | 1.001**        | 0.983        | 1.019**  | 1.016**         |
| CFI      | $\geq 0.90$          | 1.000         | 1.000          | 0.991        | 1.000    | 1.000           |
| RMR      | $\leq 0.05$          | 0.016         | 0.017          | 0.023        | 0.015    | 0.005           |
| RMSEA    | $\leq 0.08$          | 0.000         | 0.000          | 0.036        | 0.000    | 0.000           |

\*) Values less than 1 may indicate over fit (Holmes- Smith, Coote and Cunningham, 2004)

\*\*) Values greater than 1 may indicate over fit (Holmes- Smith, Coote and Cunningham, 2004)

Because the one-factor congeneric model adequately fits the data, the next analysis is a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The important preliminary step in working with a full SEM model is to first test for the validity of the measurement model (Byrne, 2010).

The CFA found that the measurement model fit the data. However, during the process of reaching the goodness-of-fit CFA model, there were some items that need to be dropped because of covariance problems, large standardised residuals and low factor coefficients. Two items (items 9 and 18) in the acculturation variable and two items (items 6 and 20) in the home comfort variable were deleted. Table 5.5 presents the four items that have been deleted in the CFA.

**Table 5.5. Deleted Items**

| <b>Factors</b>       | <b>Items</b> |   |
|----------------------|--------------|---|
| <b>Acculturation</b> | 9            | I like to go to places where I can be with Australians                                |
|                      | 18           | Most of my closest friends are Australians  |
| <b>Home Comfort</b>  | 6            | Most of my closest friends are from my home country                                   |
|                      | 20           | I often participate in the activities arranged by and for people from my home country |

Therefore, the factor of acculturation and the factor of home comfort will only consist of three items each for further analysis. Table 5.6 shows the goodness-of-fit indices of CFA for the model with these deletions.

**Table 5.6. The Goodness-Fit of the Measurement Model**

| <b>Indices</b> | <b>Recommended</b>      | <b>Outcome</b> |
|----------------|-------------------------|----------------|
| $\chi^2/df$    | $1.0 < \chi^2/df < 3.0$ | 1.310          |
| GFI            | $\geq 0.90$             | 0.930          |
| AGFI           | $\geq 0.90$             | 0.901          |
| TLI            | $\geq 0.90$             | 0.951          |
| CFI            | $\geq 0.90$             | 0.961          |
| RMR            | $\leq 0.05$             | 0.049          |
| RMSEA          | $\leq 0.08$             | 0.038          |

The normed chi-square ( $X^2/df$ ) was 1.310, which indicated a good fit of the model. Other measures of fit also showed a good fit and GFI, AGFI, TLI and CFI were more than 0.90. Furthermore, RMR and RMSEA were less than 0.05.

The Goodness-of-Fit-Index (GFI) was 0.930. GFI indicates the relative amounts of covariance among the latent variables that are accounted for by the model (Mathieu, Tannenbaum, & Salas, 1992). Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit-Index (AGFI) is GFI adjusted for the degrees of freedom of the model relative to the number of variables (Mathieu et al., 1992). In this study AGFI was 0.901.

The Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) estimates the relative improvement per degree of freedom of the target model over an independence model (Hu & Bentler, 1998) was 0.951. The comparative fit index (CFI) and was 0.961.

The Root-Mean-Square Residual (RMR), which measures the average of the residual, was 0.049. The last criterion is RMSEA, and it was found that the RMSEA was 0.0387, which reflects a model of close fit to the sample data.

All indices indicate that the cultural adaptation model tested has an adequate goodness-of-fit. The result indicates that the structural model needs to further examine to check the validity and the reliability model, which are Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Maximum Shared Squared Variance (MSV), and Average Shared Squared Variance (ASV). Hair et al (2010), recommend that CR should be above .70 to get acceptable reliability. AVE needs to be above .50 and less than CR for convergent validity. MSV and ASV need to be less than AVE for discriminant validity.

Table 5.7 presents the validity and reliability index values that indicate no concerns about the validity of the Cultural Adaptation measure.

**Tabel 5.7. Validity and Reliability Indexes Values**

| <b>Constructs</b> | <b>CR</b> | <b>AVE</b> | <b>MSV</b> | <b>ASV</b> |
|-------------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
| Media_Language    | 0.831     | 0.627      | 0.154      | 0.062      |
| Acculturation     | 0.809     | 0.591      | 0.154      | 0.047      |
| Homie_Comfort     | 0.763     | 0.522      | 0.028      | 0.009      |
| Ethnic_Speaking   | 0.770     | 0.532      | 0.075      | 0.030      |
| Religion          | 0.818     | 0.601      | 0.017      | 0.007      |

The measure is appropriate to use in further analysis. This finding supports Hypothesis 1 (H1) that the immigrant respondent's acculturation consists of more than two factors. This finding also largely supports the findings in Study 1 and Study 2 concerning the factors of Cultural Adaptation. However, the items that made up the neighbour factor in this sample were not a factor in the sample members' cultural adaptation.

Before doing further analyses, composite scores of the five factors of Cultural Adaptation measures were developed. The composites would be used in subsequent analysis as predictors in regression. Composite scores in this study were developed by considering regression-weighted instead of unit-weighted scores. By using a regression-weighted composite, each item is weighted according to its factor loading. This is a better approach than using a unit-weighted composite where each item is equally weighed.

This analysis indicated that hypothesis 1 was partly supported. The Cultural Adaptation measure in this study consists of 5 factors; acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking and home comfort.

## **Immigrants' Attitudes towards Purchasing a Store Brand**

Attitude toward purchasing store brands will be one of the variables in the full model. This variable is expected to mediate the effects of immigrants' cultural adaptation to purchasing store brands.

The measure of attitude toward purchasing store brands was adapted from Burton et al. (1998). Ten items of the attitude toward purchasing store brands scale are expected to measure the sample immigrants' attitude towards buying store brands. Before further analyses, there are two tests that should be conducted; reliability and a one-factor congeneric test.

Reliability indicates the internal inter-item consistency among the 10 items in the construct. Cronbach Alpha would be used to gauge reliability. The Cronbach Alpha of this construct was 0.758, a level which indicates that the measure is reliable.

The one-factor congeneric test will indicate the uni-dimensionality of the construct. The results indicate that the data is a fit. Four items (items 4, 7, 8 and 9) were deleted during the process due to covariance problems, large standardised residuals and low factor coefficients. The goodness-of-fit indices indicate that the construct is an adequate fit with the data. Table 5.8 shows the indices for the measurement of immigrants' attitudes towards store brand purchasing.



**Table 5.8. The Goodness-Fit of the Measurement Model**

| <b>Indices</b> | <b>Recommended</b>   | <b>Outcome</b> |
|----------------|----------------------|----------------|
| $X^2/df$       | $1.0 < X^2/df < 3.0$ | 1.513          |
| GFI            | $\geq 0.90$          | 0.982          |
| AGFI           | $\geq 0.90$          | 0.953          |
| TLI            | $\geq 0.90$          | 0.979          |
| CFI            | $\geq 0.90$          | 0.989          |
| RMR            | $\leq 0.05$          | 0.024          |
| RMSEA          | $\leq 0.05$          | 0.049          |

To be considered a good fit, the indices of GFI, AGFI, TLI and CFI should be more than 0.95. Furthermore, RMR and RMSEA should be less than 0.05. All indices in this analysis indicated a good fit of the model to the data. Table 5.9 shows the items of Attitude toward purchasing the store brand measured with a one-factor congeneric test.

**Table. 5.9. Items of Attitude toward Purchasing the Store Brands**

| <b>The Items</b>   |
|--|
| Buying store brands make me feel good.   |
| It is important that store brands are available for the product categories I purchase. |
| For most product categories the best buy is usually the store brands.                  |
| I prefer store brands to national brands due to the value for money.                   |
| I always feel that I am getting a good deal when buy store brands.                     |
| I feel like a smart shopper when I buy store brands.                                   |

Composite scores of the attitude toward purchasing the store brand construct were obtained by regression-weighting.

In order to test hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 3, regression analysis using AMOS was conducted to test the direct and the indirect effects of cultural adaptation in purchasing the store brands. The regression outcome indicates that the model fit the data. Table 5.10 presents the goodness-of-fit indices of the path model to test the association

between cultural adaptation and the sample reporting purchasing store brands, with Attitude towards purchasing the store brands as a mediating variable.

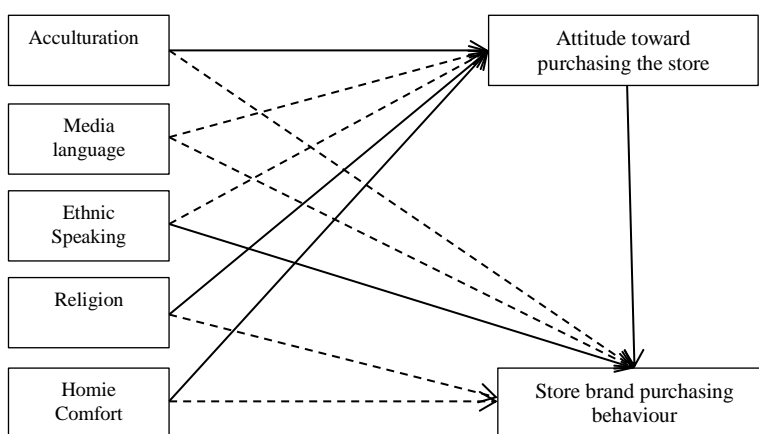
**Table 5.10. The Goodness-Fit Indices of the Regression Model**

| Indices  | Recommended          | Outcome |
|----------|----------------------|---------|
| $X^2/df$ | $1.0 < X^2/df < 3.0$ | 2.312   |
| GFI      | $\geq 0.90$          | 0.988   |
| AGFI     | $\geq 0.90$          | 0.918   |
| CFI      | $\geq 0.90$          | 0.976   |
| RMR      | $\leq 0.05$          | 0.013   |
| RMSEA    | $\leq 0.08$          | 0.078   |

The indices of GFI, AGFI and CFI are more than 0.90 and indicate the model adequately fit the data. Furthermore, RMR and RMSEA are less than 0.05 and also show that the model with Cultural Adaptation fit to the data.

Table 5.1 presents the path model as result of the data analysis. The direct and indirect effects of the variables will be explained separately in the part of data analysis for hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 3.

**Figure 5.1. The Path Model**



----- indicates significant effect  
 - - - - indicates not significant effect

## **Testing Hypothesis 2: The effect of Cultural Adaptation factors on Purchasing Store Brands**

### **Testing Hypothesis 2a**

An examination of the regression coefficient of the acculturation factor to the purchasing the store brands behaviour was not significant ( $p=0.34$ ). That means the factor of acculturation was not a significant direct effect in purchasing store brands.

Therefore, hypothesis H2a, that the factor of acculturation will be an effect in purchasing the store brand, was not supported.

### **Testing Hypothesis 2b**

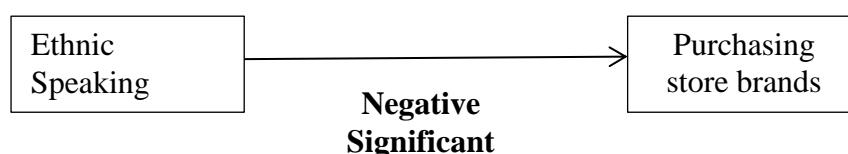
An examination of the regression for the factor of media language to the purchasing of the store brands behaviour shows that the path is not significant ( $p=.49$ ). Media language did not have a significant direct effect in the purchasing of store brands.

Hypothesis 2b was not supported. The sample of the study did not indicate the relation between media language and the purchasing the store brands behaviour.

### **Testing Hypothesis 2c**

The regression analysis indicated that the factor of ethnic speaking had a direct and significant ( $p=0.05$ ) effect to the store brand buying behaviour. The negative effect was indicated by  $\beta=-0.03$ . This means that the more the immigrant respondents preferred to speak Chinese, the lower the likelihood they would purchase store brands.

**Figure 5.2. Hypothesis 2c**



The analysis supports hypothesis H2c, that the factor of ethnic speaking is a negative effect in purchasing the store brands.

### **Testing Hypothesis 2d**

The regression analysis indicated that the factor of religion was not a significant effect in purchasing store brands ( $p=0.60$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 2d was not supported in this analysis.

### **Testing Hypothesis 2e**

An examination of the regression for the factor of homie comfort to purchasing the store brands behaviour was not significant ( $p=.774$ ). Hypothesis 2e was not supported in this study.

### **Testing Hypothesis 3: the Mediating Effect of Attitude toward Purchasing the Store Brands**

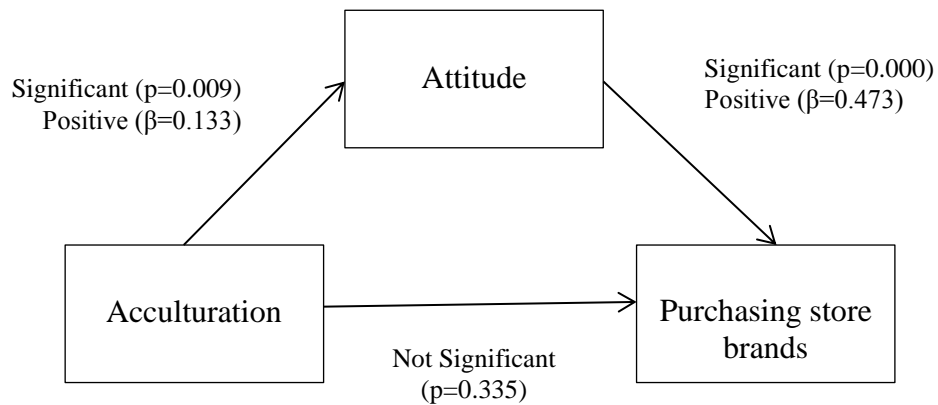
Hypothesis 3 proposed that attitude toward purchasing the store brands will mediate the relation of the cultural adaptation factors and the purchasing of store brands. The direct and the indirect effect of these variables will be tested to confirm the mediational role.

### **Hypothesis 3a**

From the previous analysis, the factor of acculturation did not have a direct effect ( $p=0.34$ ) on the immigrant respondents' reported purchasing of store brands. However, acculturation had a significant direct effect in attitude toward purchasing store brands. Furthermore, the attitude towards purchasing store brands indicated the effect of the factor of acculturation in purchasing store brands. The analysis showed that

acculturation had an indirect effect on purchasing of store brands behaviour, through the attitude towards purchasing the store brands.

**Figure 5.3. Hypothesis 3a**



The analysis showed the indirect (mediated) effect of acculturation on store brands purchasing behaviour was 0.063. Statistically, when acculturation goes up by 1 standard deviation, the behaviour on store brands purchasing goes up by 0.063 standard deviation. Therefore, hypothesis 3a was supported. The immigrants' attitude toward purchasing store brands tends to mediate the influence of acculturation on purchasing store brands.

### **Hypothesis 3b**

The analysis indicated that there were no significant direct (p=0.489) and indirect (p=0.995) influences of the factor of media language in purchasing the store brands behaviour. Having an insignificant effect indicates that hypothesis 3b was not supported.

### **Hypothesis 3c**

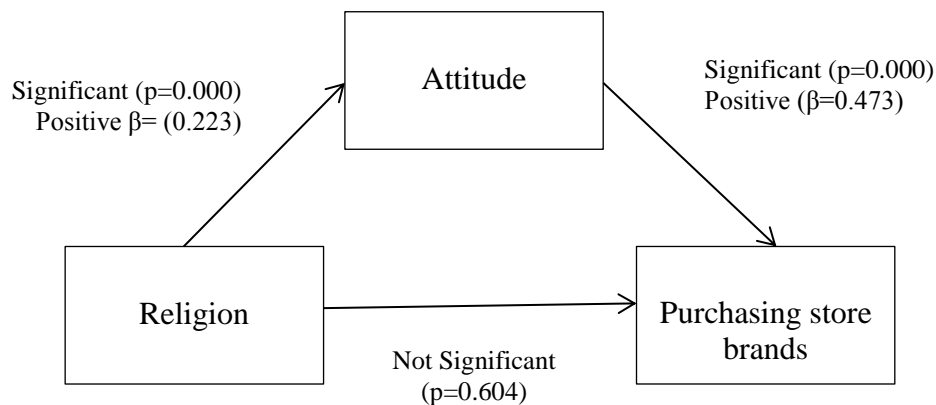
The factor of ethnic speaking is a significant direct effect (p=0.043) to purchasing store brands. The negative effect shows that the greater the preference for using their original

ethnic language, the less they report purchasing store brands. However, the factor of ethnic speaking is not an effect in purchasing store brands indirectly, indicated by the not significant effect ( $p=0.164$ ) to the attitude. Therefore, hypothesis 3c was not supported.

### Hypothesis 3d

The cultural adaptation factor of religion did not have a direct effect ( $p=0.604$ ) in purchasing store brands. However, the factor of acculturation had a significant direct effect ( $p=0.000$ ) in their attitude toward purchasing store brands. With a significant effect of the attitude toward purchasing the store brands, the factor of religion had an indirect effect in reported store brands purchasing, through the attitude. It means the attitude mediating the effect of the religion variable on purchasing the store brands behaviour.

**Figure 5.4. Hypothesis 3d**



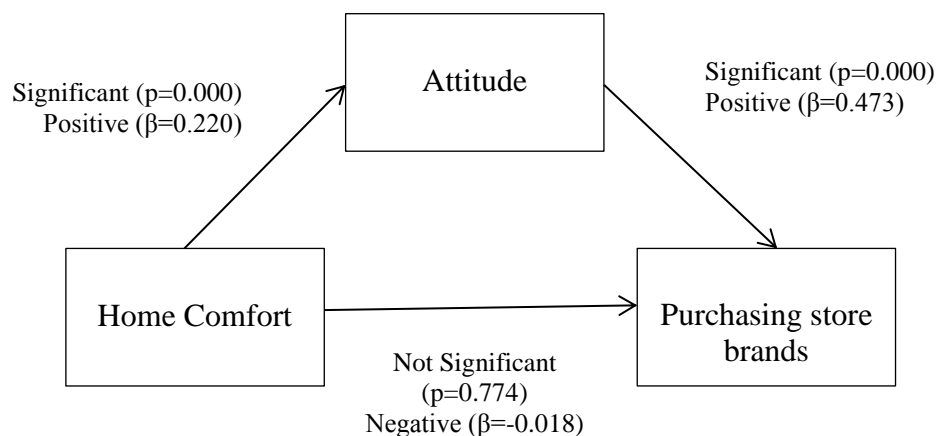
The analysis indicated that the indirect effect of the religion variable on purchasing the store brands behaviour was 0.105. Statistically, it can be explained that when the immigrants' strength of religion factor goes up by 1 standard deviation, their purchasing store brands goes up by 0.105 of a standard deviation. Therefore, hypothesis

3d was supported. The attitude toward purchasing the store brands mediates the effect of the Cultural Adaptation factor of religion in purchasing store brands.

### Hypothesis 3e

Although the factor of home comfort did have a significant direct effect ( $p=0.78$ ) in purchasing store brands, it had an indirect effect. The analysis found a significant effect ( $p=0.000$ ) of the factor of the home comfort in attitude towards purchasing store brands.

**Figure 5.5. Hypothesis 3e**



The analysis found the indirect effect of the factor of home comfort in purchasing store brands was 0.104. The hypothesis 3e is supported. The attitude toward purchasing store brands mediated the effect of the home comfort in purchasing store brands.

### Testing Hypothesis 4a and 4b

The immigrants' length of stay in Australia may affect their way of adapting to Australia's culture and their way of perceiving the store brands. Grouping of respondents was based on the median of the data, and the median was 3 years of residence. The first group of the sample is the respondents that have been living in

Australia for a maximum of 3 years. The second group of the sample is the respondents that have been living in Australia for more than 3 years.

The independent-samples t-test was used to test the differences of respondents' cultural adaptation based on their length of stay in Australia. The test revealed that only the factor of religion ( $p=0.02$ ) was perceived differently by immigrants in these two sample groups. The mean score indicated that the longer the immigrants said they stayed in Australia, the stronger their attachment to their religion or belief they brought from their home country. Hypothesis 4a was only partially supported. Immigrants who differ in their length of stay did not perceive the factors of ethnic speaking, media language, home comfort, and acculturation differently.

It was expected that the length of stay in the host country would influence the store brand purchasing behaviour. However, the independent-samples t-test did not support the expectation. The p value (0.30) is not significant. Therefore, hypothesis 4b was not supported. Table 5.11 presents the findings of the independent-sample t-test.



**Table 5.11. The independent-samples t-test on the Length of Stay**

| Variable        | Length of Stay | Mean Score | t-value       | p-value (2-tailed) |
|-----------------|----------------|------------|---------------|--------------------|
| Religion        | ≤3 years       | 2.2450     | <b>-2.441</b> | <b>0.015</b>       |
|                 | > 3 years      | 2.4933     |               |                    |
| Ethnic Speaking | ≤3 years       | 3.0129     | -1.458        | 0.146              |
|                 | > 3 years      | 3.1148     |               |                    |
| Media Language  | ≤3 years       | 1.9348     | .067          | 0.947              |
|                 | > 3 years      | 1.9296     |               |                    |
| Homie Comfort   | ≤3 years       | 1.9498     | .673          | 0.502              |
|                 | > 3 years      | 1.9170     |               |                    |
| Acculturation   | ≤3 years       | .9869      | .066          | 0.948              |
|                 | > 3 years      | .9846      |               |                    |
| Behaviour       | ≤3 years       | 2.61       | 1.014         | 0.312              |
|                 | > 3 years      | 2.49       |               |                    |

### **Testing Hypothesis 5a and Hypothesis 5b**

It was expected that income level would affect the immigrants' way of adapting to their new country's culture. ANOVA tests found that immigrants with different income levels did not perceive the factors of Cultural Adaptation differently. Therefore, hypothesis 6a was not supported.

Although previous studies report store brand buyers are people who have low income, this study indicates a different finding. The study found that immigrants with different income levels did not perceive purchasing store brands behaviour differently. This finding shows that income may not be a good predictor of this behaviour in this sample.

### **Testing Hypothesis 6a and Hypothesis 6b**

It was expected that gender would have a significant effect on the factors of cultural adaptation and the behaviour of purchasing store brands. An independent-sample t-test was used to evaluate the hypotheses. The finding revealed that gender only contributed in the factors of the media language variable and the factor of home comfort.

Aikio (1992) reported that linguistically, females tend to be more conservative, which means that females have a greater tendency to tend to speak their ethnic language than do males. This study found female respondents are more interested in participating in activities which are related to the people from China. This may be related to the Chinese language that they use in this community. It is also concurrent with Holmes' study (1993) which reported that women's networks encourage the extensive use of their ethnic language.

However, this study also uncovered a contradictory finding that females tend to have more preferences in media that uses English than do males. Females in this study tend to prefer media using English than media using the Chinese language.

Nevertheless, females and males did not perceive the behaviour of purchasing store brands differently ( $p=0.15$ ). Hypothesis 6b was not supported. Table 5.12 shows the finding of the t- test.

**Table 5.12. The independent-samples t-test on the Gender**

| Variable              | Gender | Mean | t-value      | p-value (2-tailed) |
|-----------------------|--------|------|--------------|--------------------|
| Religion              | Female | 2.40 | 1.080        | 0.282              |
|                       | Male   | 2.29 |              |                    |
| Ethnic Speaking       | Female | 3.06 | .212         | 0.832              |
|                       | Male   | 3.04 |              |                    |
| <b>Media Language</b> | Female | 2.02 | <b>2.430</b> | <b>0.016</b>       |
|                       | Male   | 1.84 |              |                    |
| <b>Home Comfort</b>   | Female | 1.99 | <b>2.554</b> | <b>0.011</b>       |
|                       | Male   | 1.87 |              |                    |
| Acculturation         | Female | .99  | .701         | 0.484              |
|                       | Male   | .97  |              |                    |
| Behaviour             | Female | 2.48 | -1.448       | 0.149              |
|                       | Male   | 2.64 |              |                    |

## CHAPTER SIX

### SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

#### Summary

The present study was divided into four studies, Study 1, Study 2, Study 3, and the main study. Study 1 found that acculturation and ethnic identity consist of 6 factors instead of only one or two factors suggested by the literature. These six factors are acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, homie comfort, and neighbour. Those six factors were named as the factors of the construct and measure of cultural adaptation.

The results did not support the claim that acculturation and ethnic identity were two separate constructs; neither did it support the claim that they were one construct. The results also suggested that the importance of each of these six factors may be contingent on ethnicity. For example, media language may not be an important variable for some immigrants because they come from the country that uses the same language. Developing a multi-variable measure would be better, because it will identify the factors that have an effect in immigrants' acculturation for abroad range of ethnic samples. This is the contribution.

Study 2 tested the generalizability of the construct and measure of Cultural Adaptation in a different sample; Indonesian Chinese students in university in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. There were two reasons why they were considered as a valid sample in testing the generalizability of the measure. First, Indonesian Chinese have a different way of acculturation towards the Indonesian culture due to political reasons in the past. Second, these students came from various regions of Indonesia where Chinese is the main ethnic group. However, Yogyakarta is a city that is not dominated by Chinese culture and the respondents have to acculturate into the dominant culture of Yogyakarta.

Study 2 found similar factors of Cultural Adaptation; acculturation, media language, religion, ethnic speaking, homie comfort, and neighbour. This finding supports Study 1. Hence, the cultural adaptation measure is largely consistent among the two different samples (Study 1 and Study 2).

Study 3 tested the different perception of store brands and the different perceived risk in purchasing store brands among consumers with different cultural backgrounds. The sample included international and Australian local students in one university in Western Australia. The study reported that international and Australian students have different perceptions as to whether store brands are Australian owned. International students have a stronger belief that store brands are Australian brands than Australian students. Another finding was that Australian students believed more strongly that store brands might fail to perform to their satisfaction than international students. International students were also found to report a greater tendency to purchase store brands than Australian students. These finding may be due to the fact that Australians had a weaker perception of store brands' performance than international students, and a lower belief that store brands are Australian, Therefore, they have a lower tendency to buy store brands.

The results also suggest that an immigrant's cultural background may contribute to the differences among local and international students in their perceptions of store brands. This is the first research of immigrants acculturation to private/ store brand purchase in the literature. Furthermore, the results in Study 3 support the use of the dependent variables (such as store brand purchases) for the main study.

The main study investigated the effect of the construct of cultural adaptation in immigrants' purchases of store brands. The sample of this study was Chinese immigrants (who came from Mainland China) in Western Australia. One of the objectives of this study is to test the reliability of the six-factor cultural adaptation measure. This study found that the Cronbach alpha for the "neighbour" factor of cultural adaptation was not satisfactory. Therefore, this factor was deleted from the model and was not used for further analysis in this study. The five factors included in the main study were acculturation, ethnic speaking, media language, religion and homie comfort. One-factor congeneric and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) confirmed the fit of the construct of cultural adaptation to the data..

The main study next examined the effects of the five factors of cultural adaptation in consumers' purchases of store brands. Specifically, how the attitude toward purchasing the store brands will mediate the effect of the cultural adaptation in the purchasing of the store brand. The results showed that the five factors of cultural adaptation had differential effects on consumer purchases of the store brands. Moreover, the attitude toward purchasing the store brands had different mediating effects in the relationships between the five factors of the cultural adaptation and the purchases of store brands.

The factor of ethnic speaking was the only factor in the cultural adaptation measure that had a significant effect in consumer purchases of store brands. The other four factors of cultural adaptation did not appear to have any significant and direct effects in consumer purchases of store brands. However, among these four factors, acculturation, religion and homie comfort had significantly indirect effects in store brand purchases through consumer attitude toward purchasing the store brands.

The factor of media language was the only factor that had no direct or indirect effects in store brand purchases. The attitude toward purchasing the store brands did not appear to mediate the relationship between this factor and store brand purchases.

Some previous studies claimed that the longer the immigrants stay in their new country, the better they adapt to their new culture. In this study, however, most factors of cultural adaptation failed to support the notion that length-of-stay is an effect in immigrants' adaptation into the new culture. The only exception was religion. The longer immigrants live in their new country, the stronger will be their attachment to the belief or the religion they brought from their home country. However, the length-of-stay in their new country was not an effect in their store brand purchases.

Previous studies reported that males adapt to a new culture better than females. This study partially supports this notion. Gender was a effect in only two factors of the cultural adaptation measure (media language and homie comfort). Females had more preferences towards the media that used their ethnic language than males. Furthermore, females had more interest in participating in ethnic activities and socializing with people from their home country than males. These findings suggest that females tend to have more difficulties in adapting to a new culture than males.

### **Limitation and Future Research**

The findings from this study are subject to several limitations. Therefore, generalizations of the study finding should be done carefully. The finding of the study may not be generalised because the immigrants that have different cultural backgrounds may produce different responses. Future research could use broader samples to get a better understanding on how cultural adaptation will affect their purchasing behaviours.

The second limitation is using students (Chinese students) as part of the main study sample. Students should have a particular ability to speak English in Australia; hence, they may have less language barriers compared to other groups of immigrants. Their ability to speak English may also affect the finding relating to the factor of media language. Students may also have similar 'income levels'. This financial background may contribute to the finding that did not show any significant cultural adaptation differences between respondents with different income levels. In future research, a non-student immigrant sample may give better results due to the heterogeneity of the demographic profile, such as income, age and education background.

Collecting the data in the Chinese Church as one of several data collection methods become another limitation. Data collection in particular religion institutions may have a confounding impact on the role of religion in the research model. To avoid the bias in the data collection, collecting data in 'neutral' places would be recommended in future research.

## **Discussion**

### **The Measure of Cultural Adaptation**

One of the major findings of this study was that the established scales of acculturation and ethnic identity contain more than two constructs. This finding contradicts previous studies that found these two constructs were the same and can be used interchangeably (Laroche, Kim, Hui, et al., 1998; Nguyen et al., 1999; Ogden et al., 2004; Phinney, 1990; Phinney et al., 2001).

Consistent with Study 1 and Study 2, the main study confirms five out of six factors included in the Cultural Adaptation measure (acculturation, media language, ethnic

speaking, religion, homie comfort, and neighbour). The factor of neighbour was not shown among Chinese immigrants in this study. Consequently the factor of neighbour was dropped from the final model.

The profile of the sample which is dominated by students may cause the unreliability of the factor of neighbour. This factor indicates the preference to live in the community that is dominated by the people from the same countries. However, students may consider housing that are close to a university and those units with low rent costs. Students may not highlight the cultural factors in the same way as the other types of immigrants.

While one previous study (Keefe & Padilla, 1987) recommended using separate acculturation and ethnic identity measures for immigrants' ethnic changes, the Cultural Adaptation measure may be better in terms of more comprehensively measuring immigrants' adjustment to their new countries. The cultural adaptation measure offers multiple factors that are capable of application to immigrants of different ethnic or cultural backgrounds. Some immigrants may not need to adjust to a particular factor because their home culture and the new culture share some similarities. For example, immigrants from English speaking countries may not go through the language adaptation when they migrate to Australia. Muslim immigrants to Saudi Arabic may find acculturation easier than Christian Australian.

### **The Effects of Cultural Adaptation on Store Brand Purchases**

Mandhachitara et al., (2007) investigated the unsuccessful store brands in Asia (with the sample in Bangkok, Thailand) and found that culture contributes to store brand adoption. Mulhern and William (1994) reported the effect of cultural attachment to



purchases of store brands in the Hispanic community in the US. However, no reported study has empirically tested the relationship between cultural adjustment or cultural adaptation and purchases of store brands. Store brands now account for up to 55% of total retail purchases by country, and 25% in Australia.

Another important finding of this study was that ethnic speaking had a direct and significant effect in store brand purchases. The greater the immigrants' preference to speak their ethnic language, the less preference they had towards the purchase of store brands.

The explanation may be that a preference for ethnic-speaking enables immigrants to meet with people of their cultural background. Immigrants who prefer to speak their ethnic languages, therefore, tend to prefer to buy products in ethnic food stores rather than in major chain stores like Woolworths. No ethnic store has store brands in Western Australia. This may be another explanation why immigrants who have a preference to speak in their ethnic language tend not to purchase store brands.

Furthermore, difficulties in understanding information on the packaging designed in an unfamiliar language such as English may direct people to buy familiar or well-known brands. It is because well-known brand will reduce the immigrants' perception of risk about being a quality product (Moon & Millison, 2000). Immigrants, particularly the ones with language barriers, may tend to buy familiar brands such as popular national brands instead of searching out new and unfamiliar store brands.

This study's finding may contradict studies conducted by Kossoudji (1988) and Chiswick and Miller (2002) that both report the association between immigrants' ability

to speak local language (English) with earning or income. The better their ability to speak English, the higher their earnings. Thus, more affluent immigrants can afford to buy more expensive well-known brands.

The findings of this study may offer insights to marketers that target people with a language barrier. For example, businesses may develop store brands that cater for consumers from ethnic backgrounds, such as using ethnic store's name as store brand. Another possible strategy is to offer several languages on product labels or packaging.

### **Attitude toward Purchasing the Store Brands as a Mediating Variable**

Previous studies tested the role of attitude as a mediating variable in purchasing behaviour, for example purchases of green products (Hartmann & Apaolaza-Ibáñez, 2011) and online purchases (Jayawardhena, 2004). No empirical study, however, has tested the mediating role of immigrants' attitude toward purchasing store brands in the relationship between cultural adaptation and store brand purchases.

Results of this study found that immigrant attitude toward purchasing store brands mediated the effect of three factors of Cultural Adaptation including acculturation, religion and homie comfort in the purchases of store brands.

### ***The Factor of Acculturation***

Results from this study revealed that immigrants with a higher level of acculturation, measured by cultural adaptation, tend to have a more positive attitude toward purchasing store brands. For example, immigrants perceived that the availability of store brands is important. Furthermore, immigrants with higher levels of acculturation felt like smart shoppers when purchasing store brands.

The finding could be related with Study 3, international students believed more strongly that store brands are Australian brands than the local Australian students. This perception may be associated with immigrants' perceptions of the store brands. Therefore, when they are more acculturated, they tend to have a more positive attitude toward purchasing store brands because they believe store brands are Australian brands. The immigrant's positive attitude towards store brands may mediate acculturation's effect in store brand purchase.

This finding did not support some previous studies that reported immigrants tend to buy well-known brands (Lee, 1993). There are two explanations for this apparent contradiction. Immigrants may have more purchasing power when they are more acculturated. Some of these affluent immigrants purchase more expensive brands to reflect their self-esteem. To these immigrants, expensive brands can symbolize that they have adapted to the new country and are financially able to provide high quality products for their families (Segal and Sosa, 1983).

### ***The Factor of Religion***

The study found that the more immigrants are more attached to the religion they bring from their home country, the more positive their attitude toward purchasing store brands. This finding was consistent with Essoo and Dibb (2004) that reported people who attach more to their religion will not tend to perceive the importance of well-known brands. They will be more tolerant towards judging product or service quality.

This study found that Chinese immigrants that are more attached to their religion/belief they brought from China, the more they will tend to have positive attitudes toward

purchasing store brands. They prefer private-label brands to national brands due to their perceived value for money (e.g., they may feel that store brands represent a good deal).

Religion in an immigrants' life may give them a peaceful feeling. By being more religious, immigrants will be motivated to be less hedonistic and less materialistic in their life. Burroughs and Rindfleisch (2002) reported that materialism is negatively associated with religion. Religion may direct immigrants to develop an attitude toward a specific purchasing behaviour that is not associated with hedonistic and materialistic beliefs.

### ***The Factor of Homie Comfort***

The study found the immigrants who prefer to socialize with people from the same country tend to have a more positive attitude toward purchasing store brands. This finding is unexpected because immigrants who tend to socialize with people from the same country would be assumed to have more attachment to the home country. Consequently, it was expected that they will not have positive attitudes toward purchasing products associated with their new country. Nevertheless, the results of the main study showed a different direction of relationship.

The unavailability of products associated with their home country in the current market of the new country could be an explanation. Therefore, they do not have options except buying whatever products are available in the market (such as store brands). However, this study cannot explain whether their attitude toward purchasing national brands would be better than their attitude toward purchasing store brands. Income level may play some role as well because store brands are usually less expensive. Nevertheless,

this study did not find a significant effect of their attitude toward purchasing store brands and their income level.

### **Length-of-Stay and Gender on Cultural Adaptation**

Previous studies (Ownbey and Horridge, 1997; Lee, 1993) have used the length-of-stay in the host country to indicate the immigrants' adjustment to their new country. The longer the immigrants stay in their new country, the more acculturate to the dominant culture. This study confirmed most of the factors of the cultural adaptation measure. This study found that the length-of-stay can be a predictor for the factor of religion.

Chinese immigrants who have been living in Australia for more than 3 years are more attached to their religion or belief that they brought from China. The feeling to be a minority and a 'new comer' in Australia may motivate them to be more attached to the Chinese values.

Another explanation for this finding is the Chinese immigrants' pride in helping new Chinese immigrants to adapt to Australian culture socially and economically. It may relate to previous studies (Ebaugh and Chafetz, 2000; Kurien, 1998, Yang and Ebaugh, 2001) that reported many immigrants tend to participate in religious institutions, which become the primary ethnic community activity for them. The Chinese immigrants that have been living in Australia for a longer time tend to become the ones that organize ethnic religious institutions. Ethnic religious institutions may become a place for new immigrants to adapt to the host country culture (Hirschman, 2004).

## **Gender**

The study found that gender can be an effect in immigrants' media language and homie comfort. This finding supported the previous studies (Holmes, 1993; Aikio, 1992) that women are linguistically more conservative. Therefore, they may have more preferences to access media in their ethnic language. Chinese women immigrants tend to access media in Chinese. The ease of understanding the expressions and slang in their own language reinforce their choice of the Chinese media.

The study also found that gender can be an effect in their perception of homie comfort. Women have more preferences toward socializing with people from the same country than men. It may relate to Holmes' study (1993) that reported women's networks tend to encourage them to use their ethnic language in regular social interactions and place a higher value on the social and affective functions conducted in their ethnic language. It happens that Chinese female immigrants tend to socialize with people from the same country, and speak in their ethnic language. This finding may give insight to marketers that target Chinese women. Target them with media using their ethnic language, or reaching them with Chinese women's gathering or activities can be good marketing strategies.

## **Contribution to Knowledge and Theory**

This study does not support the previous research that acculturation and ethnic identity are two constructs, neither did the study support the view that these two refer to the same constructs. The results of this study indicate that the construct of acculturation and the construct of ethnic identity should be regarded as one construct of cultural adaptation which consists of six sub-factors including acculturation, media language, homie comfort, religion, ethnic speaking, and neighbour. Developing a multiple factor

measure of cultural adaptation allows a diagnosis of which factor of the measure is salient in a specific ethnic scenario (e.g., Chinese immigrants or Indian immigrants). Indeed, different ethnic groups may have different ways of acculturating and maintaining their ethnic identity.

This study also offers important insights into consumer purchases of the store brands with cultural adaptation as one of the predictors. Instead of comparing immigrants' purchasing behaviours towards store brand purchasing, this study uncovers the role of cultural adaptation in immigrants' store brand purchasing behaviours

This study also gives a viewpoint on the mediating role of attitude toward store brand purchases in the relationship between cultural adaptation and store brand purchases. This study revealed the significant indirect effect of the acculturation, religion and home comfort on purchasing the store brands. The approaches and the findings of this study should be able to assist marketers or decision-makers in companies to develop a more effective marketing program targeting consumers who need to adapt to new cultures (such as immigrants).

### **Managerial Implications**

There are several important managerial implications derived from this study. Marketers should be aware that the immigrants' ways of adaptation into their new countries affects their behaviour when purchasing products and brands. People from different countries and cultures may have different way of adaptation. Some people are struggling with languages; others may be driven by their religion.

Marketers should have a clear description of the target market to enable them to develop an appropriate marketing strategy. When targeting people with religious concerns, marketers need to use religious symbols to attract them, such as endorsers who can represent religious values. The study also suggests marketers can reach Chinese woman through gathering or activities.

Immigrants have different perception of store brands and tend to perceive store brands as Australian. They may buy these brands because they represent their new country. Nevertheless, some immigrants may perceive store brands as lower quality products, so they prefer not to purchase them. This finding suggests that marketers that sell store brands should gather information that will help them design appropriate marketing strategies. The finding indicated that having store brands may be beneficial for ethnic stores.



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**Appendix A: Questionnaire for Study 2\_Perception of Store Brands and Perceived Risk of Purchasing Store Brands**

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

The following are statements regarding perceptions of store brands and perceived risk of purchasing store brands. Please read each statement carefully and tick (✓) or circle on the relevant number to represent your answers. Tick 1 if you strongly disagree with the statement, tick 2 if you agree, tick 3 if you feel neither agree or disagree with the statement, tick 4 if you disagree with the statement, and 5 if you strongly agree with the statement

1. Gender:     Female     Male

2. Your status at this moment (tick one of them):

| *) Store brands are products owned and/or licensed for exclusive use by businesses for distribution in their respective markets (e.g. Homebrand Milk, Coles tissues, Select groceries) |   | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree or disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|--|---|-------------------|----------|---------------------------|-------|----------------|
| 1.   | I believe that store brands are all Australian brands.                    | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 2.   | Most of my friends buy store brand products.                              | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 3.   | Most of my relatives/ family members buy store brand products.            | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| <b>If I purchase store brand products...</b>   |   |                   |          |                           |       |                |
| 1.   | the product might fail to perform to my satisfaction.                     | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 2.   | my friends will negative judge over my purchase.                          | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 3.   | I might lose my money.  | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 4.   | the product might cause danger to my health or safety.                    | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 5.   | I might waste my time or effort getting the product repaired or replaced. | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 6.   | the purchase might have a negative effect on my peace of mind.            | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
|  |   |                   |          |                           |       |                |

Australian citizen

Australian Permanent Residence

International student



**Appendix B: Questionnaire for Study 2\_Perception of Purchasing Store Brands**

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

The following are statements regarding the purchasing of store brands. Please read each statement carefully and tick (✓) or circle on the relevant number to represent your answers. Tick 1 if you strongly disagree with the statement, tick 2 if you agree, tick 3 if you feel neither agree or disagree with the statement, tick 4 if you disagree with the statement, and 5 if you strongly agree with the statement.

|  |  |                          |                 |                                  |              |                       |
|--|--|--------------------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| *) Store brands are products owned and/or licensed for exclusive use by businesses for distribution in their respective markets (e.g. Homebrand Milk, Coles tissues, Select groceries) |  |                          |                 |                                  |              |                       |
|  |  | <b>Strongly disagree</b> | <b>Disagree</b> | <b>Neither agree or disagree</b> | <b>Agree</b> | <b>Strongly agree</b> |
| 1.   | I always buy store brands if I can                                 |                          |                 |                                  |              |                       |
| 2.   | I will buy national brands, only if store brands are not available |                          |                 |                                  |              |                       |
| 3.   | Store brands are always on my shopping list                        |                          |                 |                                  |              |                       |
| 4.   | Store brands are my favourite choices                              |                          |                 |                                  |              |                       |

1. Gender :  Female  Male
2. Your status at this moment (tick one of them):
  - Australian citizen
  - Australian Permanent Residence
  - International student

*Thank You*



## Appendix C: Main Study Questionnaire\_English Version

### QUESTIONNAIRE – SG1

The following are statements regarding cultural background. Please read each statement carefully and tick (✓) or circle on the relevant number to represent your answers. Tick 1 if you strongly disagree with the statement, tick 2 if you agree, tick 3 if you feel neither agree or disagree with the statement, tick 4 if you disagree with the statement, and 5 if you strongly agree with the statement.

In this survey, home country means the country in which a person was born and/ or usually raised, regardless of the present country of residence and citizenship.

|     |  | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree or disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|-----|--|-------------------|----------|---------------------------|-------|----------------|
| 1.  | I always speak in English with my relatives.   | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 2.  | I always speak in English with my family.  | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 3.  | I speak in English frequently with friends from my home country.                       | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 4.  | I often participate in the activities of the Australian community.                     | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 5.  | I am strongly attached to all aspects of the Australian culture.                       | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 6.  | Most of my closest friends are from my home country.                                   | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 7.  | Most of my neighbours come from my home country.                                       | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 8.  | I am very comfortable dealing with Australians.  | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 9.  | I like to go to places where I can be with Australians.                                | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 10. | I consider myself to be strong believer of the religion I learned in my country.       | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 11. | I had a religious childhood upbringing.  | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 12. | My religious beliefs are an important part of my life.                                 | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 13. | I prefer to read in English language newspapers.                                       | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 14. | I prefer to read magazines and books in English.                                       | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 15. | I prefer to listen to English language radio channels.                                 | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 16. | I am very comfortable dealing with people from my home country.                        | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 17. | I like to go to places where I can be with people from my home country.                | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 18. | Most of my closest friends are Australians.  | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 19. | Most of my neighbours are Australians.   | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 20. | I often participate in the activities arranged by and for people from my home country. | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 21. | I am strongly attached to all aspects of my home country culture.                      | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |

The following are statements regarding Attitude toward Purchasing the Private Branded Products. Please read each statement carefully and tick (✓) or circle on the relevant number to represent your answers. Tick 1 if you strongly disagree with the statement, tick 2 if you agree, tick 3 if you feel neither agree or disagree with the statement, tick 4 if you disagree with the statement, and 5 if you strongly agree with the statement.

\*) In this study, store brand is something for sale in a store, especially a supermarket, that has the store's own label on it and not the label of the company that produced it.

**For example: Coles milk and Homebrand bread.**

|     |  | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree or disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|-----|--|-------------------|----------|---------------------------|-------|----------------|
| 1.  | Buying private label brands make me feel good.   | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 2.  | It is important that private brands are available for the product categories I purchase. | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 3.  | For most product categories the best buy is usually the private label brand.             | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 4.  | Private label brands are poor-quality products.  | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 5.  | I prefer private label brands to national brands due to the value of money.              | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 6.  | I always feel that I am getting a good deal when buy private label brand.                | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 7.  | The lower price on private label brands because of the poor quality of the products.     | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 8.  | The advertised national brands always have better quality than private label brands.     | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 9.  | I think private label brands offer great value for money.                                | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |
| 10. | I feel like a smart shopper when I buy private label brands                              | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |

Tick 1 if you strongly disagree with the statement, tick 2 if you agree, tick 3 if you feel neither agree or disagree with the statement, tick 4 if you disagree with the statement, and 5 if you strongly agree with the statement.

|    |  | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neither agree or disagree | Agree | Strongly agree |
|----|--|-------------------|----------|---------------------------|-------|----------------|
| 1. | I often buy store brands (e.g. Select, Homebrand, Coles brand) products. | 1                 | 2        | 3                         | 4     | 5              |

1. Your age: ..... years
2. Gender:     Female     Male
3. How long have you lived in Australia? \_\_\_\_year(s) and \_\_\_\_months (at September 2011)
4. From which country do you immigrate last? .....
5. What is your ancestry? .....
6. What is your religion? .....
7. Your status at this moment (tick one of them):
  - Australian citizen
  - Australian Permanent Residence
  - International student
  - Others .....
8. What is (are) your current citizenship(s): .....
9. What visa type did you use to enter Australia? .....
10. How much your income level per week (include the government benefits, pensions, allowances, and others)?
  - Less than A\$500
  - A\$ 500 – A\$ 999
  - A\$ 1,000 – A\$ 1,999
  - A\$ 2,000 or more

*Thank  
You*





## Appendix D: Main Study Questionnaire\_Chinese Version

### QUESTIONNAIRE – SG1

以下是关于文化背景的陈述。请仔细阅读每条陈述，并在能代表您意愿的答案上打钩 (✓) 或圈。如果您非常不同意这条陈述请钩1，如果不同意请钩2，如果既不同意也不反对（即中立）请钩3，如果同意请钩4，如果非常同意请钩5。

在这个调查中，原籍国表示出生或成长的国家，而不是现您拥有居留权或公民权利的国家。

|     |                                   | 非常不同意 | 不同意 | 中立 | 同意 | 非常同意 |
|-----|-----------------------------------|-------|-----|----|----|------|
| 1.  | 对于我在原国籍所信奉的宗教，我认为我是一个虔诚的信徒。       | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 2.  | 我的童年接受过宗教教育。                      | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 3.  | 我的宗教信仰是我人生非常重要的一部分。               | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 4.  | 和那些用原籍国的语言的报纸相比，我更喜欢阅读英文报纸。       | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 5.  | 和那些用原籍国的语言的杂志和书籍相比，我更喜欢阅读英文杂志和书籍。 | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 6.  | 和那些用原籍国的语言的广播相比，我更喜欢听英文广播。        | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 7.  | 我感觉与来自和我一样的原籍国的人相处非常舒适。           | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 8.  | 我喜欢去有来自我原籍国的人的地方。                 | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 9.  | 我绝大多数亲密的朋友是澳大利亚人。                 | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 10. | 我绝大多数邻居是当地澳大利亚人。                  | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |

以下是关于购买行为的陈述。请仔细阅读每条陈述，并在能代表您意愿的答案上打钩(✓)或圈)。如果您非常不同意这条陈述请钩1，如果不同意请钩2，如果既不同意也不反对请钩3，如果同意请钩4，如果非常同意请钩5。

解释：以下有些问题是关于“自有商标”的，“自有商标”是指超级商场或零售商自己拥有的品牌。比如说，Coles有Coles自己品牌或商标的牛奶和糖等产品。

|     |                                | 非常不同意 | 不同意 | 中立 | 同意 | 非常同意 |
|-----|--------------------------------|-------|-----|----|----|------|
| 1.  | 我经常不由自主地买东西。                   | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 2.  | “想买就买吧”描述了我买东西的方式。             | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 3.  | 我经常不加思索地买东西。                   | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 4.  | “我看到了我就会买”这句话适合我。              | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 5.  | “现在买，以后再考虑”描述的就是我。             | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 6.  | 有时，我觉得买东西就像是一时冲动。              | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 7.  | 我买东西取决于我当时的感觉。                 | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 8.  | 我绝大多数的购买都有仔细的计划。               | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 9.  | 有时，我对于买的东西有些随意。                | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 10. | 购买自有商标的产品让我感觉很好。               | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 11. | 对于我购买的产品种类来说，自有商标非常重要。         | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 12. | 对于绝大多数产品种类，自有商标是最好的选择。         | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 13. | 自有商标的产品质量比较差。                  | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 14. | 因为价格原因，相比较起那些著名的大的品牌，我更喜欢自有商标。 | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 15. | 当我购买自有商标时，我总觉得自己做了非常好的一次交易。    | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 16. | 自有商标的低价格是因为产品的质量比较差。           | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 17. | 做过宣传的大的著名商标总是比自有商标质量好。         | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 18. | 我认为自有商标的价值就是比较经济。              | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 19. | 当我购买自有商标时，我觉得自己是个聪明的购买者。       | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 20. | 我从来不会没有任何计划的购买。                | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
| 21. | 我总是购买自有商标的产品。                  | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
|     |                                |       |     |    |    |      |

打钩(✓)或圈在相关的数字上以代表您的答案。如果您非常不同意这条陈述请钩1, 如果不同意请钩2, 如果既不同意也不反对请钩3, 如果同意请钩4, 如果非常同意请钩5.

|    |                                  | 非常不同意 | 不同意 | 中立 | 同意 | 非常同意 |
|----|----------------------------------|-------|-----|----|----|------|
| 1. | 我经常购买店家自有商标的产品(例如 Coles 的自有商标等)。 | 1     | 2   | 3  | 4  | 5    |
|    |                                  |       |     |    |    |      |

1. 您的年龄 ..... 岁
2. 性别       女       男
3. 您在澳大利亚生活了多久? \_\_\_\_ 年 \_\_\_\_ 月 (到2011年九月为止)
4. 您最后是从哪个国家移民过来的? .....
5. 您的祖辈是哪里人? .....
6. 您的信仰是? .....
7. 您现在的身份是? (请选择以下的一个)
  - 澳大利亚公民
  - 澳大利亚永久居民
  - 国际学生
  - 其他 .....
8. 您现在的国籍是 .....
9. 您是用什么类型的签证进入澳大利亚的? .....
10. 您每周的收入级别是(包括政府救济、养老金、津贴和其它)?
  - 低于500澳元                       500---999澳元
  - 1000---1999澳元                       2000澳元或更多

*Thank  
You*