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SAKARYA UNIVERISITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

MONGOLIAN CONSUMER'S PERCEPTIONS, ATTITUDES AND PREFERENCES FOR FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC BRANDS: THE CASE OF COMPUTER INDUSTRY

M.A THESIS

Yanjindulam TUVD

Department : **Business**

Subfield : **Production Management and Marketing**

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Remzi ALTUNIŞIK

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This thesis has been accepted by the below jury with unanimity on the date of 25.01.2012

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☐ Amendment	☐ Amendment	☐ Amendment

ANNOUNCEMENT

In writing this thesis; I was decisively in accord with academic ethics, I was generally benefited from the writings, speeches and secondary sources as academic journals and books within academic ethics. As a conclusion I would like to state that this thesis could not be found in any libraries as a thesis or project.

Yanjindulam TUVD

23.12.2011

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ABBREVIATIONS

CE   : Consumer Ethnocentrism

COO   : Country- of - Origin

CETSCALE   : Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale

GDP   : Gross Domestic Product

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Sakarya University Institute of Social Science   **Abstract of Master's Thesis**

Title of the Thesis: Mongolian Consumer's Perceptions, Attitudes and Preferences for Foreign and Domestic Brands: The Case of Computer Industry

Author: Yanjindulam TUVD   **Supervisor:** Prof. Dr. Remzi ALTUNIŞIK

Date: 25 January 2012   **Number of Pages:** XI (pre text) + 8 9 (main body) + 10 (appendix)

Department: Business   **Subfield:** Marketing Management

The purpose of this thesis was to study whether or not consumer perceptions and attitudes toward purchasing domestic versus imported computer product differ among consumers in Mongolia. Variables to be investigated include computers' attributes and demographic characteristics. Also, the effects of country of origin and consumer ethnocentrism were examined.

The survey questionnaire was employed to collect the primary data in Ulaanbaatar, the capital city of Mongolia. A total of 230 computer users completed and returned useable questionnaires.

The findings showed that consumer attitudes toward domestic versus foreign computer brand differed significantly. Consumers had an overall more positive attitude towards foreign computer over Mongolian domestic computer (Mogul) with regard to good design, special functions, low price, and case to use, good quality, plus accessories, guarantee policy, brand name, promotions and official software. However, no significant difference was found in consumer attitudes such as demographics that namely gender, occupation and income level. The significant difference was found in between consumers' ages and consumers attitudes.

Their three most preferred country of origin of computer were Japan, America and Korea, respectively. Interestingly, relative to other computer attributes, country of origin was generally of low importance in consumer decision-making. For consumer ethnocentrism, the results indicated that there was a positive correlation between domestic brand computer and ethnocentrism, there was negative correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and attitude and foreign computer brand. Furthermore, demographic variables did not show effects on consumer ethnocentrism.

Keywords: Consumers' Perception, Attitude, Foreign brand, Domestic brand

Tezin Başlığı: Moğol Tüketicilerin Yerli ve Yabancı ve Markalara Yonelik Algı, Tutum ve Tercihler: Bilgisayar Sektörü Örnegi

Tezin Yazarı: Yanjindulam TUVD   **Danışman:** Prof. Dr. Remzi ALTUNIŞIK

Kabul Tarihi: 25.01.2012   **Sayfa Sayısı:** XI (Ön kısım) + 89 (Tez) + 10 (Ekler)

Anabilim Dalı: Isletme   **Bilim Dalı:** Pazarlama Orginazasyon

Bu çalışmanın amacı Moğolistanda bilgisayar satın alma konusunda tüketicilerin algı ve davranışlarında yerli ve yabancı ürünler arasında bir farlılık olup olmadığını ortaya koymaktır. Çalışmadaki değişkenler arasında bilgisayarların özellikleri ve bilgisayar kullancıların demografik özellikleri yer almaktadır. Ayrıca, köken ülke ve tüketicilerdeki kavimcilik etkileri incelenmektedir.

Çalışmada Moğolistanın başkenti olan Ulan Baturda anket yöntemi ile toplanın birincil veriler kullanmıştır. Toplam 230 bilgisayar kullanıcısı anketlerı cevaplamıştır.

Bulgular, yerli ve yabancı bilgisayar markalarına yönelik tüketici davranışlarının önemli ölçüde farklılık gösterdiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Tüketiciler tasarım, özel fonksiyonlar, esnek fiyat, iyi kalite, artı aksesuarlar, garanti politikası, marka ismi, promosyon ve resmi yazımlar bağlamında yerli Moğol (Mogul) bilgisayarlara karşı daha olumlu bir tutum sergilemektedirler. En önemli farklılık tüketicilerin yaşları ve tutumları arasında bulunmuştur.

Moğol tüketicilerin görece tercih ettikleri bilgisayarlar Japonya, Amerika ve Kore'de üretilenlerdir. İlginç olan, diğer bilgisayar özeliklerine gore bilgisayarın üretildiği ülkenin tüketicinin karar vermesinde düşük öneme sahip olmasıdır. Tüketici kavmiyetciliği açısından ise yerli bilgisayar markalarıyla kavmiyetçilik arasında olumlu bir korelasyon varken; yabancı bilgisayar markalarıyla tüketici kavmiyetçiliği ve tutumları arasında olumsuz bir korelasyon tespit edilmiştir. Dahası, demografik değişkenlerin tüketici kavmiyetçiliği üzerinde etkisinin olmadığı görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Tüketicilerin Algısı, Tutum, Tercihler, Yerli Marka, Yabancı Marka

INTRODUCTION

Mongolia is a land-locked country bordered by Russia on the north and China on the south. With a total area of 1.5 million square kilometers and a population of just over 3 million, it is the least densely populated country on earth. In 2009 GDP per capita - current prices was estimated at $3,174. So unemployment rate is 3% rate in 2011[1].

Mongolia's economy is driven by livestock rearing and mining, but services are occupying an increasingly important role in the country's 9% annual GDP growth. Last few years Mongolian economy grows up too fast. So we purpose to developed like high economy country in the marketing sectors, we must research to study the experiences. However, research on consumers' perceptions and evaluations of foreign versus domestic products and brands in various countries is very limited in Mongolia. This is especially research on consumers in developing and newly emerging economies (Kaynak and Kara, 2002: 928).

The research has found that consumers often evaluate the products of foreign origin differently than they do domestic products. Many product information cues (e.g. quality, design, price, country-of-origin, etc.) seem to affect their evaluations and subsequently purchasing intentions (Forsythe, 1999: 275). For consumers in more developed countries, research has consistently found that they have a preference for domestic-made products as well as products from countries regarded as culturally similar to the home country (Crawford and Lamp, 1981: 28) over foreign made products. Bilkey and Nes (1982), suggested that it is particularly when there is a lack of product information. Two variables that may explain this circumstance are consumer perception of quality and consumer ethnocentrism (Watson and Wright, 2000: 1149). On the contrary, consumers in less-developed countries appear to have a reversal pattern. There is a general preference for foreign brands against domestic ones (Wang et al, 2004: 391).

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[1]12.12.2011.(http://www.gfmag.com/gdp-data-country-reports/218-mongolia-gdp-country report.html#axzz1h0gROKlA[1]).

In the consumption of conspicuous products, consumers are inspired by the social rather than the economic or products' physiological utility. Consumers' motivation is a desire to impress other people with their ability to afford high-priced prestige products (Mason, 1981). In sum, perceptions, evaluations and purchasing intensions of consumers, the country-of- origin effects and consumer ethnocentrism are interrelated.

Therefore, now companies have tried to build brand image and rise up their brand loyalty in order to be far away from competitors. In every market, brand name plays a big role on customer's decision. The value of perceived brand will be varied based on the customer's recognition on the brand. The brand can be developed domestically and internationally. In Mongolian market, you would see that international brand can boost more customer perceived value than the domestic one. It is called value of brand. Therefore, it is likely to say that international brand might be an important influence in increasing customer value. Therefore, computer brand is more effectively branch in the market. The computer technology to the consumer market brought with it an evolution of change within the household that is comparable to the likes of radios and televisions in the 20th century. It served as changes in jumpstarting not only how consumers obtain information but also the rapidity, quality and density with which they retrieve it.

Research Objectives

It is relevant to observe how the globalization of business environment has transformed the behavior of consumers across nations and cultures because this can provide useful insights into marketing strategies in global economies. The purpose of this thesis is to investigate consumers' perceptions and attitudes towards purchasing foreign brands versus domestic brand computer in Mongolia. It was worked by case of computer industry. The follows are the objectives aimed to be achieved within the conduct of this thesis.

The first objective is to examine the attitudes of Mongolian consumers toward domestic versus foreign brands computers.

The second objective is to examine the effects of country-of-origin on Mongolian consumers' perceptions of quality and preferences for computer.

The third objective is to examine ethnocentric tendencies of consumers in Mongolia as well as its effect on consumer attitudes.

Brief Methodology

In order to achieve the research objectives, this thesis is conducted based on the reviews of relevant literature and the collection of data through the survey questionnaire.

In the literature review, emphasis is laid on the academic theory, research and literature specific to consumers' perceptions and attitudes, consumers' product evaluations, price, brand and country of origin as evaluative criteria and decisions, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer knowledge and consumer' making decision.

The study in this part will then facilitate in developing the research questions. This research study is based on the development and administration of survey questionnaire. The self-completed survey was administered to 230 convenience samples of people in the capital city of Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar. At the approach of researcher to respondents, the people were asked to participate voluntarily in the survey. So we went to take questionnaire from some government offices and private company offices. There is no limitation about gender, social and income classes of respondents.

Studying on Mongolian consumer behaviors therefore can provide guidelines and suggestions to the marketers in Mongolia. Computers serve as a source of entertainment in addition to its role as resource and productivity tool. This thus makes Mongolian good case study to be observed about the consumer attitudes and preferences in the consumption of computer industry.

Organization of the Thesis

The thesis consists of three main chapters.

Chapter 1 and chapter 2 provide the comprehensive reviews of relevant literature. This particular area of the study will lead to the development of research questions for the thesis.

Chapter 3 demonstrates the research methodology used in this study. The explanation of the research instrument is provided together with its strengths and weaknesses. Further the clarification of sample and the survey procedure of data are described. That reports the research results collected through the survey questionnaire. This chapter exhibits the analysis and interpretation of primary data with the aim to answer the research questions of this thesis.

The final chapter of this thesis, it provides the conclusion and recommendation. A summary of the findings from both the literature review and the survey questionnaire are discussed.

CHAPTER 1: CONSUMER PERCEPTION AND ATTITUDE FORMATION

This chapter provides the comprehensive reviews of relevant literature. All people see things, events and ideas from different view point, and hold different opinions, views for them. Human have different perception of the world.

1.1 Consumer Perception

Human factor relatively one important thing is how to operate to get information. Perception that process by which incoming stimuli activate our sensory receptors: eyes, ears, taste buds, skin and so on (Holyer, 2010: 80). Perception occurs when stimuli are registered by one of five senses: vision, hearing, taste, smell and touch. For example, when we see yellow, that color affect by human's attention paid so most of countries taxis use to yellow color so Mongolian taxis are same. It incomes stimuli activate our eyes.

1.1.1 What is Perception?

Perception is process of receiving, selecting, and interpreting environmental stimuli involving the five senses. Through perception, we define the world around us and create meaning from our environment (Kardes, 2011).

Perception is process of selecting, organizing and interpreting sensations into a meaningful whole. Perception is highly subjective and therefore easily distorted (Nessim, 2009: 113).

Our perception is an approximation of reality. Our brain attempts to make sense out of the stimuli to which we are exposed. This works well, for example, when we "see" a friend two hundred feet away at his or her correct height; however, our perception is sometimes "off" for example, certain shapes of ice cream containers look like they contain more than rectangular ones with the same volume.[2]

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[2] 01.10. 2011.(www.consumerpsychologist.com/cb_Perception.html)

1.1.2 Concepts of Perception

Advertising is all about exposure, attention and perception. If consumers are to register any message after being exposed to an ad in some medium, they must perceive and pay attention to it. So they do so depends on a host of factors. These issues are important because they affect what consumers comprehend, what attitudes they have, and they remember after exposure to and attention paid to ads. They also affect what decisions they make and what actions they take doing so.

Before any type of marketing stimulus can affect consumer, they must be exposed to it. Exposure refers to the process by which the consumer comes into physical contact with a stimulus. Marketing stimuli are messages and information about products or brands and other offerings communicated by either the marketer (via ads, salespeople, brand symbols, packages, signs, prices and so) or by non marketing source (e., the media, word of mouth) (Holyer, 2010:70).

Figure 1.1. Exposure, attention and perception
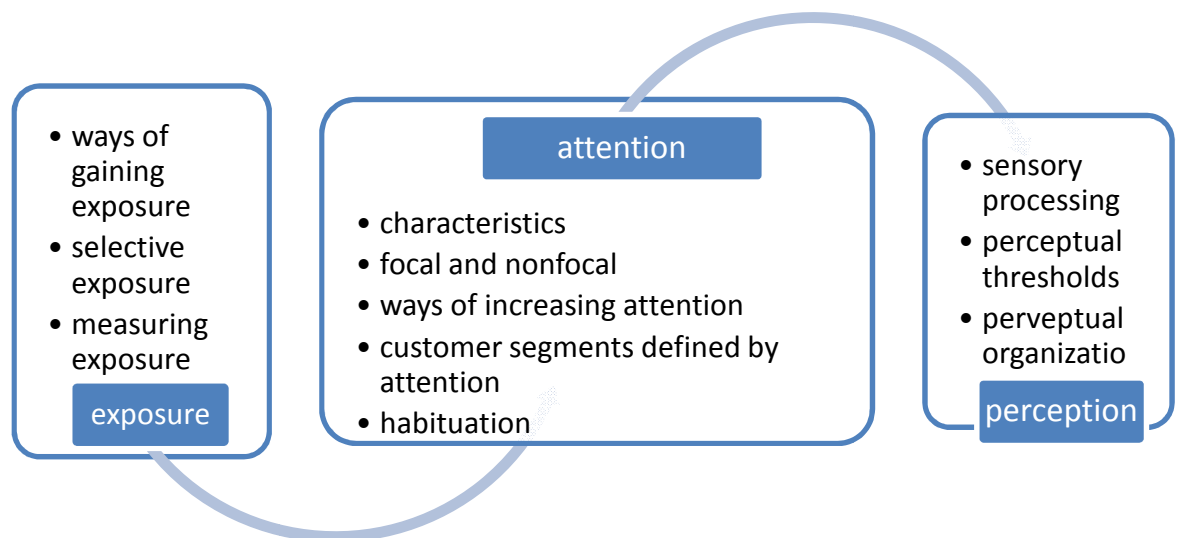
Source: Holyer (2010:71)

Several sequential factors influence our perception.

Exposure involves the extent to which we encounter a stimulus. Most of this exposure is random - we don't plan to seek it out.

However, if we are shopping for a computer, we may deliberately seek out advertisements and "tune in" when dealer advertisements come on the television.

Exposure is not enough to significantly impact the individual—at least not based on a single trial (certain advertisements, or commercial exposures such as the "Swoosh" logo, are based on extensive repetition rather than much conscious attention). In order for stimuli to be consciously processed, **attention** is needed.

Attention is actually a matter of degree—our attention may be quite high when we read directions for getting an income tax refund, but low when commercials come on during a television program. Note, however, that even when attention is low, it may be instantly escalated—for example, if an advertisement for a product in which we are interested comes on (Holyer, 2010:82).

Three concepts are intimately related to perception: exposure, attention and sensation. Acquisition of sensory information is possible only when consumers attend to stimuli they are exposed to (Nessim, 2009: 114).

1. Exposure: Exposure occurs when our senses detect some external cue from the various things we come in contact with. We are all exposed to a plethora of marketing ads continuously. This becomes the starting point of all information processing. But people tend to perceive things they need or want. The strongest the need, the greatest the tendency ignore unrelated stimuli. Hence "Selective Perception" occurs when the consumer selects the stimuli from the environment on the basis of interaction of expectations and motives with the stimulus itself. These factors give rise to four important concepts concerning perception:

a. *Selective exposure* – where the consumers want to avoid unpleasant or painful messages and seek those which are sympathetic, interesting and pleasant.

b. Selective attention or perceptual vigilance – where the consumers exercise selectivity in terms of their attention to commercial stimuli. They have a heightened attention regarding the stimuli that meet their needs and minimal attention to the ones irrelevant to their needs. People also vary in terms of kind of info like price, quality, features etc., forms of messages and type of medium they prefer.

c. Perceptual defense – where consumers subconsciously screen out stimuli that are threatening or damaging even if the exposure has already taken place. Likewise sometimes they unconsciously distort the information that is not matching their needs, values and beliefs. This may be due to psychological factors or any unfavorable past experience.

d. Perceptual blocking – where consumers protect themselves from being exposed by blocking such stimuli from conscious awareness. They do it for self protection because of the visually overwhelming nature of the world we live in (Nessim, 2009: 116-118).

Information processing: is a series of activities where the stimuli are perceived and processed to convert/transform them to information, and then stored (very similar to computer data processing). Later this info is used in selecting a product.

2. Attention: refers to the allocation of mental capacity to a stimulus or task. Normally all the stimuli of a message come to' the various sensory organs simultaneously. But an individual can remember only one of them, usually the strongest and tries to take action on that basis. Marketers try to exploit that situation to their advantage, to leave an impact in the consumer. This is known as attention.

a. Stimulus – is the one which prompts an individual to initiate an action by creating an attention. It has the following characteristics: Size and Intensity; Color and Movement; Position; Format and Design; Isolation; Contrast or Distinction; Information extent.

b. Individual factors – The attention of a consumer depends on the following factors: Interest and Needs; Ability; Involvement, etc.

c. Situational factors – Often the situation, condition, environment or the surrounding of the consumer have an effect on its attention of certain stimuli. Hence the marketers should devise certain methods to help overcome that.

Sensation is the immediate and direct response of the sensory organs to stimuli. A stimulus is a single input of any of the senses. Human beings have sensory receptors called sensory organs. They are eyes for sights and seeing, ears for sounds and hearing, nose for smells and smelling, tongue for tastes and tasting, skin for textures, touch and feeling (Holyer, 2010:76).

Interpretation, just like people's exercise of selective perception on the basis of certain psychological principles, the interpretation of these stimuli is also highly individual because it is based on what the individuals expect to see in the light of their previous experience, motives, interests, reasoning at the time of perception. In the case of any ambiguous stimuli, the individuals usually interpret these in such a way to serve their own needs, interests and wishes (Edwards, 2010).

1.2 Consumer Attitude Formation and Change

Consumer attitude is important located of researches direction in consumer behavior researches. An attitude has been defined as "an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual and cognitive process with respect to some aspects of the individual's world" (Loudon, 1993: 67). Many companies would to change their consumer attitudes because of selling more products. They always search how to change consumers' attitudes becoming positive.

1.2.1 What are Attitudes?

It serves to reinforce the integration of the notions of motivation, perception and learning (Evans et al, 2006). According to Wang (2006), an individual's attitude is a major outcome of learning processes and is powerfully influenced by personal experience, family, friends, and marketing strategy. Based on whatever is learned about the stimulus or object, a person develops either a liking (favorable) or a disliking (unfavorable) towards it. More specifically, an attitude refers to a learned tendency to respond to an object in a consistent or predictable manner (Evans et al, 2006). For this reason, the knowledge about consumer attitude can be a useful predictor of the consumer's intended and actual behavior.

1.2.2 Structural Models of Attitudes

An early study by Rosenberg and Holland (1960) proposed that an attitude has three components: cognition (beliefs), affect (motions) and conation (intentions). A cognitive component consists of a person's beliefs or knowledge about an object. These beliefs may not be exact in terms of product specifications or objective assessments of reliability.

Figure 1.2. Attitudes
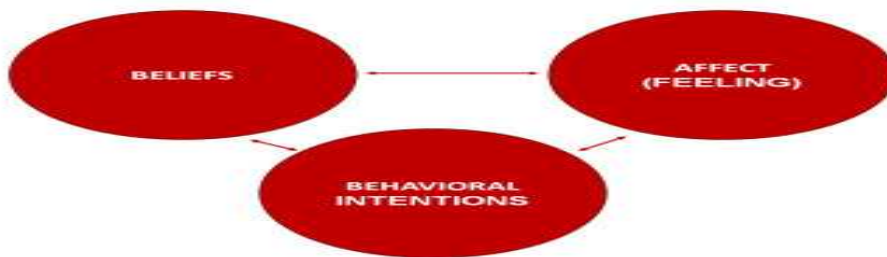
Source: Wang and Heitmeyer, 2006

However, the beliefs are still important in many ways because they reflect how the individual perceives the issue to be, even if a mismatch between their beliefs and reality occurs. An affective component consists of a person's feelings or emotions toward the object. These feelings can be either positive or negative. For a co native or behavioral component, it consists of how the individual tends to respond to the object based on what they know and how they feel about it. In other words, this component refers to the individual's readiness to respond behaviorally to the object (Evans, 2006). There is a support from several studies for the interlinked nature of the three components (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Dickson and Littrell, 1996).

Figure 1.3. ABCs

Version 1 is where attitudes are a result of information processing.
Version 2 is where attitudes derive from a behavioral learning process
Version 3 is where attitudes are based primary on emotion, such as hedonic buying.
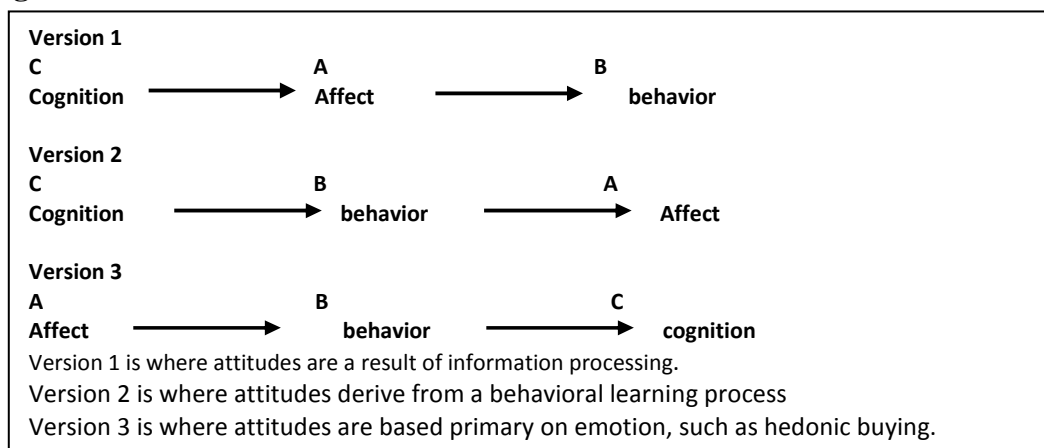
In terms of the sequence, alternative arrangements are available for how cognition, affect and conation operate. In provide a summary of these in a form of the 'ABC' acronym (Figure 1.3). The authors applied the hierarchy of effects specifically to attitudes and called conation 'behavior'. Nevertheless, it should be noted that this is not actual behavior, rather intention to behave (Evans et al, 2006).

Because of its diagnostic value in explicating attitudes, the Fishbein's (1967) Attitude Model is widespread use in consumer research (Ryan and Bonfield, 1975) to assess consumer attitudes.

In 1967, Fishbein developed his attitude model with the basic assumption that in order to have a better understanding of human behavior, the measure of attitudes should not be oriented merely toward evaluating attitude toward objects, people, or institutions themselves, but rather toward assessing the attitudes toward performing a specific behavior related to them (Wang and Heitmeyer, 2006: 64). Fishbein (1967) explained that an individual's attitudes toward performing a behavior are determined by two major components: (1) the strength of the beliefs (b_i) held about the objects, and (2) the individual's subjective evaluation (e_i) of those beliefs. The estimation of the attitude is then calculated by following this formula:

$$A\,b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i\, e_i$$

where: A b = attitude toward the behavior,

bi = belief that performing behavior Ab leads to consequence attribute (or Ai),

ei = evaluation of consequence 'i' refers to the importance of the attribute,

n = number of salient consequence (Fishein, 1967).

Affect. Consumers also hold certain feelings toward brands or other objects. Sometimes these feelings are based on the beliefs (e.g., a person feels nauseated when thinking about a hamburger because of the tremendous amount of fat it contains), but there may also be feelings which are relatively independent of beliefs.

Behavioral Intention. The behavioral intention is what the consumer plans to do with respect to the object (e.g., buy or not buy the brand). As with affect, this is sometimes a logical consequence of beliefs (or affect), but may sometimes reflect other circumstances--e.g., although a consumer does not really like a restaurant, he or she will go there because it is a hangout for his or her friends.

1.2.3 Attitude-Behavior Consistency

Attitude-Behavior Consistency. Consumers often do not behave consistently with their attitudes for several reasons:

- *Ability.* He or she may be unable to do so. Although junior high school student likes pick-up trucks and would like to buy one, she may lack a driver's license.

- *Competing demands for resources*. Although the above student would like to buy a pickup truck on her sixteenth birthday, she would rather have a computer, and has money for only one of the two.

- *Social influence*. A student thinks that smoking is really cool, but since his friends think it's disgusting, he does not smoke.

- *Measurement problems*. Measuring attitudes is difficult. In many situations, consumers do not consciously set out to enumerate how positively or negatively they feel about mopeds, and when a market researcher asks them about their beliefs about mopeds, how important these beliefs are, and their evaluation of the performance of mopeds with respect to these beliefs, consumers often do not give very reliable answers. Thus, the consumers may act consistently with their true attitudes, which were never uncovered because an erroneous measurement was made (Wang and Heitmeyer, 2006: 70).

1.2.4 Attitude Change Strategies.

Changing attitudes is generally very difficult, particularly when consumers suspect that the marketer has a self-serving agenda in bringing about this change (e.g., to get the consumer to buy more or to switch brands).

Changing affect. One approach is to try to change affect, which may or may not involve getting consumers to change their beliefs. One strategy uses the approach of *classical conditioning* try to "pair" the product with a liked stimulus. For example, we "pair" a car with a beautiful woman. Alternatively, we can try to get people to like the advertisement and hope that this liking will "spill over" into the purchase of a product. Although Energizer Bunny ads try to get people to believe that their batteries last longer, the main emphasis is on the likeable bunny. Finally, products which are better known, through the mere exposure effect, tend to be better liked--that is, the more a product is advertised and seen in stores, the more it will generally be liked, *even if consumers to do not develop any specific beliefs about the produc*t (Kardes, 2011).

Changing behavior. People like to believe that their behavior is rational; thus, once they use our products, chances are that they will continue unless someone is able to get them to switch. One way to get people to switch to our brand is to use temporary price discounts and coupons; however, when consumers buy a product on deal, they may justify the purchase based on that deal (i.e., the low price) and may then switch to other brands on deal later. A better way to get people to switch to our brand is to at least temporarily obtain better shelf space so that the product is more convenient. Consumers are less likely to use this availability as a rationale for their purchase and may continue to buy the product even when the product is less conveniently located. (Notice, by the way, that this represents a case of shaping).

Changing beliefs. Although attempting to change beliefs is the obvious way to attempt attitude change, particularly when consumers hold unfavorable or inaccurate ones, this is often difficult to achieve because consumers tend to resist (Kerin, 2002). Several approaches to belief change exist:

1. *Change currently held beliefs.* It is generally very difficult to attempt to change beliefs that people hold, particularly those that are strongly held, *even if they are inaccurate* (Kardes, 2011). For example, the petroleum industry advertised for a long time that its profits were lower than were commonly believed, and provided extensive factual evidence in its advertising to support this reality. Consumers were suspicious and rejected this information, however.

2. *Change the importance of beliefs*. Although the sugar manufacturers would undoubtedly like to decrease the importance of healthy teeth, it is usually not feasible to make beliefs less important - consumers are likely to reason, why, then, would you bother bringing them up in the first place? However, it may be possible to strengthen beliefs that favor us - e.g., a vitamin supplement manufacturer may advertise that it is extremely important for women to replace iron lost through menstruation. Most consumers already agree with this, but the belief can be made stronger.

3. *Add beliefs*. Consumers are less likely to resist the addition of beliefs *so long as they do not conflict with existing beliefs*. Thus, the beef industry has added beliefs that beef (1) is convenient and (2) can be used to make a number of creative dishes (Kerin, 2002). Vitamin manufacturers attempt to add the belief that stress causes vitamin depletion, which sounds quite plausible to most people.

4. *Change ideal*. It usually difficult, and very risky, to attempt to change ideals, and only few firms succeed. For example, Hard Candy may have attempted to change the ideal away from traditional beauty toward more unique self expression.

CHAPTER 2: CONSUMER EVALUATION, CHOICE AND CONSUMER DECISION MAKING

This chapter is provided literature about consumer evaluation, choice and how to consumer makes the decision. Also, it includes that consumer ethnocentrism, country of origin phenomenon and consumer knowledge.

2.1 Consumer Product Evaluation

When considering a product purchase, consumers are likely to compare and contrast alternative products by using various information cues as a basis to form perceptions of quality and value and finally, to make purchase decisions (Forsythe et al, 1999: 290). According to (Forsythe et al, 1999), perceived quality refers to the consumer's judgment of a product/brand's overall excellent and superiority based on intrinsic and extrinsic cues. Within the field of marketing, the concept of perceived quality is of major significance to marketers because it is widely acknowledged as the primary driver of purchase intention (Jacoby and Olson, 1985). Forsythe (1999) stated that the evaluations of product quality are subjective evaluations, rather than objective, which determine consumer response. Without a doubt, consumers who experience a high level of perceived quality tend to subsequently reveal positive behavioral intentions (e.g. positive word of- mouth and repurchase intentions) towards the product/brand (Wong and Zhou, 2005). For perceived value, it is defined in terms of performance or utility of a product versus price. Unlike quality, value entails a trade-off between what is received and what is sacrificed.

In a product-evaluation situation, a cue can be described as a product's characteristic that can be encoded and utilized to categorize and evaluate the product (Ulgado and Lee, 1998: 595). Partially, it can be expected that consumers directly evaluate tangible aspects or physical attributes of products. These are often regarded as intrinsic cues, for instance size, shape, taste, design and fit (Bilkey and Nes, 1982: 93).

Nevertheless, Loudon and Della Bitta (1988) suggest that, for many products, consumers appear to have difficulties to distinguish between diverse offerings based on such direct product attributes.

Consumers may be able to differentiate between brands when using only intrinsic cues, but they may not be able to verify whether these differences are significant in judging which brands will offer superior satisfaction (Loudon and Della Bitta, 1988).

Therefore, it is not surprise to find that other factors beyond actual physical characteristics of the product itself often influence consumers' perceptions. These additional stimuli are known as extrinsic cues, referring to intangible product traits, for example price, brand name, country-of origin, warranties, packaging, and advertising messages (Bilkey and Nes, 1982: 95). The extrinsic cues tend to be especially influential in consumers' evaluations when the product is complex in nature and also, when consumers have little prior knowledge of the product (Cattin et al, 1982) as frequently may be the case with imported products (Elliott and Cameron, 1994: 50). For consumers, the extrinsic informational cues are used as surrogate indicators of a product's quality and value (Forsythe et al, 1999: 280). In sum, the intrinsic and extrinsic cues are interconnected in product evaluations. He pointed out that the same product cues may be used in a different way, depending upon the type of product being evaluated. Moreover, the impact of cues on evaluations and purchase intentions appear to differ not only across product categories and purchase situations, but also across consumer markets (Forsythe et al, 1999: 284). For this reason, Douglas and Craig (1992) called for further research to study potential cross-national market segments because the little is known about cue usage among consumers in other countries as opposed to consumers in the America.

In addition to product information cues, environmental and individual factors also play an important role. Wang and Heitmeyer (2006: 68) in their consumer decision-making model, there are direct and indirect influence of environmental dynamics and individual differences (e.g. an individual's attitude and personality) on consumers' final purchase intention and behavior.

2.1.1 Alternative evaluation

Alternative evaluation—the process through which we compare and contrast different solutions to the same marketplace problem—is the third step in the decision-making process.

Usually occurring simultaneously with information searching, it involves comparing different products, services, retail outlets, and/or brands in order to select what best delivers the benefits we are seeking (Nessim, 2009).

It progressed from simple habitual buying to a brand comparison involving minimal search and limited problem solving to a category comparison with fairly extensive problem solving. The process of alternative evaluation became increasingly complex.

Figure 2.1. Alternative evaluation process

Consumer Benefits Sought

Evaluative Criteria
- *Attributes Produce Benefits*
- *Types: Tangible and Intangible*
- *Number of Criteria*
- *Salience of Criteria*
    - Relative Importance of Criteria
    - Determinant Attributes

Consumer Decision Rules
Noncompensatory Rules
- Disjunctive
- Conjunctive
- Lexicographic
- Elimination-by-Aspects
Compensatory Rules
- Simple Additive
- Weighted Additive
Decision Heuristics
- Price
- Brand Reputation
- Key Product Signals
- Market Beliefs
- Mere-Possession

Source: Nessim, 2009; 63

Shows the flow diagram for the alternative evaluation process.

We saw how consumers' consideration sets of products, services, brands, or retail outlets simplify the information search process. Consideration set jumps to mind as soon as a need to purchase arises, because members of such a set are likely candidates for purchase.

Consideration set construction involves reducing the number of alternatives that the consumer will actually compare in the marketplace to a manageable size and retaining alternatives that will be easy to compare when making a final choice (Chakravarti, 2003: 244).

Also, consumers appear to create consideration sets of heterogeneous alternatives when (1) they don't want to miss a viable choice, (2) they see some common benefits that will make comparison easier, or (3) different groups of potential choices offer a benefits trade-off (Chakravarti, 2003: 250).

Alternative evaluation involves two other types of consumer sets, The universal set is made up of all product, service, outlet, or brand alternatives in the marketplace to which the consumer has reasonable access, whether she or he is aware of them or not. Of these, a retrieval set is the subset that consumers can bring up from memory (Kardes, 1993). The objective for marketers is to make sure that their products, services, outlets, or brands are, at a minimum, part of the latter set and therefore remembered when it comes time to buy. However, the key is to be part of the consideration set. Consumer sets are extremely important for marketers who want to attempt to influence alternative evaluation. Consumers evaluate goods and services based on the benefits offered to them. If the benefits of a brand are important to the consumer, the brand has a good chance of becoming part of the consumer's retrieval set and, from there, becoming part of the consideration set from which a final selection is made.

To assess benefits offered by goods and services, consumers use a range of evaluative criteria. These are the means through which consumers compare product classes, brands, vendors, and so on. Evaluative criteria can be tangible. In that case, benefits associated with such characteristics as price, color, size, shape, and performance are compared.

Intangible benefits criteria also may be considered, such as whether the consumer's perceived image matches the image of the brand user or other feelings associated with ownership or use.

How well a product ''scores'' on these tangible and intangible benefits criteria determines its chances of being part of the consumer's retrieval set and/or consideration set (Loudon, 1993: 67).

Evaluative criteria vary from consumer to consumer, from product to product, and from situation to situation.

Because of this, it is essential for marketers to determine which criteria consumers in the target market use in judging goods or services in various purchase situations.

Two questions are important in understanding the use of evaluative criteria in selecting from several alternatives. First, how many criteria do consumers use during alternative evaluation? Second, what is the relative importance of each criterion?

2.1.1.1 Number of Evaluative Criteria

Consumers typically use six or fewer evaluative criteria (Engel, 1995). As a general rule, the more important the consumer considers the purchase and the more experience he or she has with the product category, the greater the number of evaluative criteria used (Rothschild, 1977: 74). Notebook buyers who see their purchases as simply a means of use price (economic benefit), capacity (power), easy to transport and reliability (guarantee) as evaluative criteria.

Evaluative criteria are often used in combination, making it difficult to understand the influence of each on consumer choice. A study of alternative evaluation of women's clothing bricks-and-mortar stores, for example, found that such criteria as price, quality of apparel, class of customers, merchandise displays, apparel styles, helpfulness of salespeople, and the benefits these imply were all combined in the consumer's mind into a single criterion named ''exclusiveness'' (Lindquist, 1973).

In the marketplace today, providers of goods and services assume that the greater the number of features and their resultant benefits offered, the greater the utility expected and experienced by consumers.

But what has been found is that consumers may actually experience feature fatigue. For example, considering digital audio and video players, what consumers appear to do as features are added is to increase their product capability expectations?

However, simultaneously, expected product usefulness is perceived to be lessened. This is reinforced by the findings that product capabilities carry more evaluation weight before use than after use. Also, less weight is assigned to product usability in their satisfaction ratings before use than after use. This was found for both experts and novices (Thompson, 2005: 431).

Interestingly, the more important the decision is to the consumer, the fewer acceptable alternatives there are. Also, each additional evaluative criterion used narrows the consumer's options to some extent (Rothschild, 1977:78).

2.1.1.2 Salience of Evaluative Criteria

By determining the relative importance or salience of each evaluative criterion, marketers are able to identify those characteristics most likely to influence target consumers. Goods and services can be shaped to satisfy the most salient criteria, as can the positioning of a good or service offering in the consumer's mind, and in promotional communications the most salient/important attributes and/or benefits information can become the focus of the copy and visuals presented.

Salience varies from consumer to consumer, product to product, and situation to situation. Consider, for example, ''quality'' as an evaluative criterion. For some products, such as paper clips or low-grade copy paper, quality hardly matters at all, whereas for others quality may be very important. In general, it is far more important in high visibility goods, such as clothing or gifts, and for durable goods than it is for low visibility, nondurable goods (Tillis, 1987: 245).

In today's world there are consumers who claim that ethical considerations (a form of intangible benefits) are used as evaluative criteria when choosing products and services and/or in making outlet choices at which to buy.

Example criteria include such factors as protection of natural resources, avoidance of unfair labor practices, social or economic justice issues, and animal welfare. Certainly any product or service attribute may include an ethical dimension depending on the viewpoint of the consumer. So the ethical evaluative criteria picture is not always clear.

One would expect that if ethical criteria are considerations, a consumer should ask for information that would help determine whether her or his ethical conditions were being met before making a choice. This is not always the case. In a recent series of studies, it was found that when comparing ethical and non ethical evaluative criteria, consumers appeared to intentionally ''under request'' important ethical attribute information (Holyer. 2010: 82).

For example, in the case of a potential choice of wooden desks where the source of the wood was a rain forest, individuals asked for less information, even though it was important to them, because it was likely to evoke a ''tug of- war'' feeling and increase emotional stress in making a choice. This behavior is termed willful ignorance. In a situation concerning the use of child labor to produce cell phones, there was again reluctance to ask for ethical attribute information because an actual purchase decision was to be made and the product was otherwise attractive (Ehrich, 2005: 267). Are there ethical evaluative criteria that you use in the marketplace? What are they? Have they had any impact on your behavior as a consumer?

A recent Canadian test of the influence of online product recommendations on consumer online choices for hand calculators and wine showed positive influence. Overall, 22.5 percent of product choices were made without recommendations, whereas 45.6 percent resulted from consumers checking product recommendations online. Of the three sources tested, ''other consumers,'' ''a team of experts,'' and objective ''analysis customized to the consumer,'' the latter had the most influence on product choice. Also, there was more dependence placed on all three types of recommender sources for the wine, which is an experience product, than the calculator, which is a search product (Senecal, 2004:160). Why do you think that this discussion is included within the topic of evaluative criteria? Aren't we talking about information sources here? Salience also varies from buying situation to buying situation.

Copy paper that is good enough for rough drafts or letters to friends may fall too short on quality to be used for term paper, report, or photograph printing from a computer file. Attributes that are salient for some consumers are less important or not important at all to others.

In this example, consumers planning to buy a new car are asked to distribute 100 ''salience points'' (''importance points'') among the attributes they consider important. Remember that attributes are indicators to the consumer of certain deliverable benefits. The more important the attribute, the higher the points awarded. Consumer Type A considers five criteria to be salient, with price, style, and economy accounting for 75 percent of the total points awarded. Price (30 points) is three times as important as trunk capacity (10 points), twice as important as color (15 points), and one and one-half times as important as economy (20 points).

For Consumer Type B, price and safety account for 70 percent of the points for salience. Price is the most salient criterion, and color is the least. Who do you think is a typical Type A consumer, and what types of cars would they buy? Answer the same questions for the Type B consumer. Marketers can use even a simple analysis like this to identify salient evaluative criteria and to develop and market their products based on them.

Consumers on occasion treat unimportant attributes, called trivial attributes, as though they are critically important in their impact on product or service choice. These irrelevant or unneeded evaluative criteria affect choice because they are unique to one of the options, draw attention away from more important attributes, or dilute the effect of important attributes. In some cases, the trivial attribute acts as a ''heuristic cue'' that allows the consumer to forgo the more detailed evaluation process of more meaningful attributes (Brown, 2000: 275). Sometimes the results are negative, and sometimes they are positive Whether a consumer will use trivial attributes to make the final choice seems to be a function of the product or service type, the number of choices in the set, the choice situation, and the consumer himself or herself (Brown, 2000:301). An example of the use of a trivial attribute might be where three hair dryers all have equal power, are the same with respect to the main features a person is considering, and have feature price and performance similar enough to be seen as equal.

All three deliver the same benefits package. Although color is not an issue, the person is drawn to the silver dryer, even though the dryer's color is a trivial attribute (Zhang, 2002:129).

2.2 Price, Brand and Country of origin as Evaluative Criteria

The range of evaluative criteria that consumers use to compare products and brands is extensive. Two are almost always used: price and brand reputation. In certain product or service categories, country of origin also enters the evaluation picture of the consumer.

2.2.1 Price

Price is for most consumers, and in many buying situations, the most significant influencer in alternative evaluation.

Knowing this, marketers count on price in promotions and at retail to attract consumers across a wide range of goods and services, from food products and household items to major appliances and cars to brokerage services and fast-food restaurants.

The use of price as an evaluative criterion varies, however, across product categories (Gabor, 1964: 40). Price is not typically used in isolation but is one of a mix of evaluative criteria. Consumers generally do not think in terms of a specific, fixed price they are willing to pay for a specific product, but in terms of acceptable price ranges. Past purchases, perception of product benefits, and perception of possible product costs all help determine what price range is acceptable (Lane, 1982:31). Shoppers often use a reference price when evaluating a good or service for purchase. In some cases a normative reference price is considered. This is a price that consumers consider ''fair'' or ''just''. The judgment of fairness is based on prior prices, competitive prices, estimated seller's costs, and what is thought to be a normal profit (Bolton, 2003: 474). The dual entitlement principle may also be at work. This is where people expect that manufacturers will abide by community standards of costs and profits. If this does not occur, consumers ''punish'' sellers by not buying from them (Kahneman, 1986: 285). If a low price advertising appeal is to be pursued by a seller one of the most common ways is to use either a 99 or 95 price ending.

In a recent study of about 1,000 ''low-price'' newspaper ads (where price was at least three digits), 29.3 percent ended in 99 and 12.8 percent in 95.24 Price may also be reframed in the consumer's mind with what is called the ''pennies-a-day'' strategy (Gourville, 1998:395). Here, people are encouraged not to think of the price as the aggregated value but in much smaller manageable increments.

When talking to a salesperson at an auto dealer where you are thinking about purchasing or leasing a new car, notice how he or she emphasizes the size of the monthly payment rather than the total price of the car. Such a price reframing can influence the consumer to see a product or service as being affordable (Gourville, 1998: 399).

There are consumers, however, who think beyond the initial price of a product to actual cost of ownership. For example, if you buy a more expensive car, auto insurance is going to be pricier, as will be annual state registration and maintenance.

Purchasing a heavier car and/or one with a bigger engine will result in lower gas mileage and higher annual fuel costs.

Consumers do not always look for the lowest price or even the best price/quality ratio. Other criteria can be equally or more important than price for certain types of purchases and in certain buying situations (Monroe, 1973: 70).

Quality was the overriding factor here. Further, strong national consumer product brands can successfully charge higher prices than competitors yet periodically cater to the more price-sensitive consumers with short-term price reductions. This way, national brands can attract both quality-sensitive and price-sensitive consumers (Sivakumar, 1997:71). In some instances, high price can, in fact, positively influence alternative evaluation—by leading consumers to attribute higher quality to a brand that carries a higher price tag (Dodds, 1991:307). Some consumers wish to pay a high price for a good or service just to be able to do so or let others know they did so.

In some situations, consumers are not even aware of the price of the goods purchased. (Haines, 1966: 665) This often occurs for products that are low in importance to consumers, such as household necessities like toothpaste or floor cleaners.

This phenomenon is also more common for consumers with money to spend than for those on extremely tight budgets.

The price paid by customers buying through catalogs, through direct mail, by phone, and online often includes added shipping and handling fees. Retailers who sell merchandise through such operations may eliminate these fees so that purchase price will match that available at bricks-and-mortar stores in the shopper's home area. Shoppers also may be able to save sales tax by buying direct. Goods purchased in a city away from home in some cases can be shipped to the customer cheaper than paying the sales tax.

2.2.2 Brand Reputation

The reputation of a brand is a second major influence in alternative evaluation. Brand name is frequently perceived by consumers to be an indicator of product or service quality. A high-quality position is important in establishing brand power, also called ''brand equity,'' because this leads to greater brand market share and profitability in the long run (Grewal, 1998: 46). This apparent brand-quality relationship is most likely tied to the perceived risks associated with a poor purchase decision. The more difficult it is for consumers to judge quality, the higher the perceived risk. If consumers can rely on brand reputation for that quality assessment, they perceive less risk. In the pharmaceutical industry, consumers often face a number of choices in making even the simplest of purchases. By viewing them as a series of linked decisions, marketers are better able to lead consumers toward their brands and away from those of competitors. (Bauer, 1960: 389)

Consumers' benefits and evaluative' criteria are consumers use a range of different judgment factors or evaluative criteria when assessing purchase options. These are based on the benefits sought by the person. By understanding which criteria are used, their salience, and the extent to which they are determinant, marketers can better identify opportunities to develop and position their offerings, and present favorable information about these goods and services.

2.2.3 Country of Origin Phenomenon

Country of origin and consumer knowledge has an impact on consumers purchase intentions. Many factors that are believed to influence consumer perceptions, evaluations, and purchase intentions of products – and therefore brands – in an age of global competition, country-of-origin (COO) effects remain the most researched international aspect of consumer behavior (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998: 150). During the period 1965 – 2002, there are more than 400 academic articles published on COO effects, with a number of diversity in countries (as origins), product categories, and types of consumers surveyed (in terms of demographics and nationality) (Usunier, 2006: 60).

Samli (1995) summarized the country-of-origin phenomenon, indicating that the concept of COO is a critical information cue, which plays a key role in having the product accepted in various world markets.

2.2.3.1 Definition of Country of Origin

Many definitions of country-of-origin (sometimes referred to as product country image or PCI) are emerged in the literature over the past several decades (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998:154).

Originally, COO was referred as 'made in –' (Nagashima, 1977: 95). This term has been used to define the country-of-origin of the product (or product origin). In later studies, however, several authors claimed that product origin cues included more than 'made in –' product labels and defined COO as the 'country of manufacture or assembly' (Bilkey and Nes, 1982: 89). This definition refers to the final point where a product is manufactured or assembled, in which it can be the same as the headquarters of a company. Samiee (1994) explained that "country of manufacture pertains to firms that maintain a relatively large global network of operations or do business with a variety of suppliers, e.g. contract manufacturing". This is the country where the product was designed and developed (Usunier, 2006). COO is the country where corporate headquarters of the company marketing the product or brand is located.

COO is inherent in certain brands, for instance IBM and Sony implies American and Japanese origins, respectively. In subsequence, 'the country of brand' has progressively emerged in the COO literature because global companies are likely to manipulate brand names to suggest particular origins (Usunier, 2006: 70). The traditional concept of 'made in –' labels therefore can be less of an identifier of the product origins. Defining the COO can be very complicated and misled in the modern marketplace. Parts of the reason are the growth of multinational corporations and the proliferation of hybrid products. Hybrid products are those products that may involve more than one country-of-origin (O'Cass, 2002: 54). For example, a product may typically be designed in one country, manufactured in another, and assembled in a third country or a product may have components from various source countries, but a domestic brand name. Due to the changing strategies of global companies, hybrid products will be progressively widespread in the global marketplace.

Consequently, this led to an increasing need for a multidimensional concept of COO effects on consumers' product evaluation (Ahmed and d'Astou, 1994:35).

2.2.3.2 Effects of Country of Origin

There is a large body of published research on consumers' belief and buying behavior regarding the country-of-origin of a product/brand/service (Usunier, 2006: 72). It is not surprise to find different conclusions of the COO effects, in which some of them appear to contradict one another. There is an attempt to explain the contradictory conclusions of the COO effects that have constrained the general ability of findings, theory building and the overall usefulness of findings to marketing practitioners. By examining past studies, Bhaskaran and Sukumaran (2007) suggested that the contradictions are often the consequence of different contextual, sampling frames, methodological underpinnings, and timing.

Generally, marketers and consumer behavior researchers accept that a product's country-of-origin is significant in consumer decision-making. It has been found to influence consumers' evaluative reactions to products.

There are three predominant dimensions influenced by the COO effects when consumer evaluates foreign products: perceptions of quality, perceptions of purchase value, and perceptions of risk (Hampton, 1997: 53). Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999) found that the COO effect was more strongly related to perceived quality/reliability than either attitudes toward the product or toward purchase intentions.

More significantly, Papadopoulos et al. (1991) asserted that the effects of COO can lead to consumer preferences from one country over another. And also, the COO effects were found to include some tendencies. First is the tendency for consumers to evaluate their own country's products more favorably than imported products. This bias tendency is well-known as consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma, 1987: 280). However, for many consumers, the effect of product evaluation bias can be offset by price concessions. Kaynak (2000) had generated similar results.

They studied consumers' perceptions of different product classes from 25 countries and found that respondents generally held positive attitudes towards products made in their own country. Nevertheless, the same respondents could be swayed to choose imported products if quality and price considerations were sufficiently favorable. Further, the researchers concluded that consumers may not accept inferior-quality domestic products when superior foreign products are available and additionally, consumer attitudes toward products of foreign origin vary considerably across product categories. For the second tendency, it is the tendency for products from emerging countries to be evaluated negatively (Bilkey and Nes, 1982: 97).

Other studies further suggest a hierarchy of effects among countries as they found a relationship between COO, the level of economic development and the perceived superiority of the products (Wang and Lamp, 1983: 71). According to Wang and Lamp (1983), products from developed countries are often perceived as more superior to products from developing and less-developed countries. The reasons behind these perceptions are largely accredited to the economic, cultural and political systems of the source countries (Wang and Lamp, 1983: 74). The researchers found that products from developing and less-developed countries were rated lower on quality and higher in risk regardless of brand name.

For this reason, the COO effects can also act as intangible barriers to enter new market for firms from less-developed countries in the form of negative bias held by consumer toward imported products.

A well brand name would lead the product made in less-developed country to be perceived as being high quality and lower risk than if the brand name is unknown or not given. Therefore, negatively perceived COO can be overcome in a situation where other important information of products is available (Acharya and Elliott, 2001: 61).

The relationship between culture similarity and the COO effects has been researched widely (Heslop et al. 1998: 113). These researchers observed that consumers tend to prefer products originated from culturally similar countries than from countries that are culturally dissimilar to home country.

According to Wang and Lamp (1983), American consumers have a positive bias towards products from countries regarded as culturally similar to the USA (i.e. some European countries, Australian and New Zealand). Similarly, Crawford and Lamp (1981) found a greater willingness to buy products from source countries that are politically and economically similar to the home country.

 There is an ongoing debate on the issue of the significance of origin information for consumers. According to Bilkey and Nes (1982), the scholars pointed out that the primary objective of COO research was to demonstrate that the COO cue actually influences consumer evaluation. Nonetheless, they argued that COO was only one attribute among the many other attributes (i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic attributes) that characterize a product. Consumer may use the COO to evaluate product in the absence of other information cues. Thus, single-cue studies (i.e. presenting COO as the sole evaluation cue to respondents) are likely to over-estimate the impact of COO.

Kaynak and Kara (2002) provided a summary of the results of empirical research concerning the COO effects.

They summarized that the results of three experiments designed to examine the impact of three formats of presentation (i.e. single cue, explicit multiple cues, and implicit multiple cues) in the effects of COO for four evaluative reactions (i.e. perceived quality, product evaluations other than quality, affect, and purchase intentions) suggested that COO effects in the single-cue format was the strongest and in the implicit multiple-cue condition was the weakest. This proves that the magnitude of COO effects tends to diminish in the presence of other product cues (Knight, 1999: 151). In the case of evaluative reactions, perception of product quality was most strongly affected by COO, followed by product evaluations other than quality, and the smallest effect of COO was on purchase intention (Kaynak and Kara, 2002: 930).

Moreover, Hsieh (2004) claimed that the COO effects on purchase behavior can vary across nations due to the level of market development, defined as the availability of international brands. The author stated that the COO effects might be weaker in highly developed markets than in less-developed markets. It is because when the level of market development is high, market players are likely to put more effort into product differentiations.

Accordingly, sufficient product attribute information is readily available in highly developed markets and thus, COO information tends to be treated as only one aspect of the product/brand (Hsieh, 2004: 280).

Additionally, Schaefer (1997) indicated that individual factors, especially the level of consumer knowledge, may facilitate or inhibit reliance on country of origin. This issue will be discussed later in the paper.

While some scholars maintain that origins are still significant because globalization will bring about specialization, thereby stressing the strengths of origin countries, others contend that the converse is true and claim that origins are no longer relevant in global markets where hybrid products are the norm (Lundstrom et al. 1998: 5). COO effects will remain and will always color consumer's attitudes toward brands. Nonetheless, the effects are neither as important nor as powerful as in the past or traditional view.

Kaynak et al. (2000) supported this proposition and further stated that as products made in a developed country offer a guarantee on the product's quality and performance, COO will hold its importance in developing and less-developed countries for a long time.

The author indicated that the multinational production, global branding, and the decline of origin labeling in WTO rules are the factors that blur the COO issue and lessen its relevance. Thus, many consumers appear to be unaware of the manufacturing origins (made-in) of the products they buy and, if aware, they are likely to consider the origin information in conjunction with a number of other information cues, e.g. price, brand, retail store image, etc (Usunier, 2006: 71).

2.2.3.3 Country Image

Country image has been noted to have a certain influence on consumer evaluation. Therefore, examining the concept of country image can facilitate in understanding the psychological process behind the COO effects.

Consumers tend to hold stereotype images about countries and these images are used as information cues in judging products from different origins (Lotz and Hu, 2001: 105). Two often quoted descriptions of country image are accredited to Roth and Romeo (1992) defines imagery of the COO as "the picture, the reputation, the stereotype that businessmen and consumers attach to products of a specific country. This image is created by such variables as representative products, national characteristics, economics and political background, history, and traditions".

Roth and Romeo (1992: 480) redefined country image as "the overall perception consumers form of products from a particular country, based on their prior perceptions of the country's production and marketing strengths and weaknesses".

Several other scholars view the country image as reflecting consumers' general perceptions of the quality of products made in a particular country along with the nature of people from that country (Bilkey and Nes, 1982: 98).

The image of country can be both an asset when it is positive and a liability when it is negative (Lampert and Jaffe, 1998: 61). For example, a poor country image associated with ongoing wars (e.g. an Arab-American) may backfire on the image of products/brands made in that particular country (Martin and Eroglu, 1993: 191). Hence, a negative country image constitutes market barriers for global companies.

Nagashima (1970) stated that different countries tend to have distinctive images in specific product categories. For instance, consumers may judge German car as high-quality, reliable, and technologically advanced because Germany provides people in the world an image that workers and engineers in the country are hardworking, meticulous, and well-educated (Amine et al. 2005). This implies that countries tend to be identified by some form of personality. Examples of countries' personalities include: Germany is seen as robust and precise, Japan is seen as cutting edge and Futuristic, England is seen as solid and reliable, and Scotland is often related to its traditional exports and tourist attractions, such as Scotch whisky, tartan and castles (Baker and Ballington, 2002: 160).

To some extent, however, the same image can be shared by one or several product types, but not by all product classes. For instance, while perfume, fashions and wine made in France may have a positive image; cars, television and high technology products may have a less positive image (Lampert and Jaffe, 1998).

Additionally, consumer sensitivity to the country image also diverges from one country to another. This is why Japanese-made technical products have a more positive image in the USA than in Europe (Bilkey and Nes, 1982: 95).

Many researchers have posited that the use of country image in product evaluation can explained either as a halo or a summary effect.

2.2.3.4 Halo and Summary Constructs

Han (1989) identifies two major functions of country image as halo and summary. The halo function influences a consumer's evaluation indirectly through beliefs, whereas the summary function influences the consumer's evaluation directly.

According to Han (1989), consumers tend to use country image as a cue to generate inferential beliefs about the quality of products when they are not familiar with the products from that country and when other information is not available. This inferred evaluation is known as halo effect. In this case, country image is based on whatever knowledge the consumer has about the country, including the level of economic, political, social development (Nebenzahl et al. 1997: 27).

Han's (1989) halo construct implies that country image affects product attributes (beliefs), which further affect brand attitude (product evaluation). Thus, there is a positive relationship between country image and a consumer's beliefs in the process of product and brand evaluation (Nebenzahl et al. 1997: 30). This relationship is hypothesized as:

Country image $\longrightarrow$ beliefs $\longrightarrow$ brand attitude

The summary construct, on the other hand, is where country image helps consumers summarize product attribute information when they become more familiar with a country's products. Therefore, country image directly affects consumer attitude toward the specific product or the brand (Han, 1989). Han's (1989) proposition is hypothesized as:

Experience $\longrightarrow$ beliefs $\longrightarrow$ country image $\longrightarrow$ brand attitude

In such case, Nebenzahl et al. (1997) suggested that country image functions as a summary statistic for a set of attributes of given products in more or less the same way as does a brand name.

Han's explanation was that when consumers are unfamiliar with a country's products, COO effects operate as a halo. Subsequently, as consumer experience with a product or brand increases, the summary construct becomes more apparent in place of the halo. Hence, it can be concluded that COO is a dynamic processes (Lampert and Jaffe, 1998: 65). Over time, the role of country image effect (or COO effect) will gradually shift from the initial halo effect to a summary effect as familiarity from product experience becomes more salient.

This is based on the assumption that if consumer perceives various brands originating from a given country as having the same or little variance between similar attributes (e.g. quality), country image effect (or COO effect) will become a summary concept. On the other hand, if there is a high variability in the brands correlated with a country, a country image will have a minor effect which only colors the product perception (Nebenzahl, 1997: 35). From the preceding discussion, it can be noticed that familiarity, knowledge, and experience are significant individual dynamics that may affect how country image or COO information is used and influences consumer's product evaluation.

The concept of attitudinal component processes can be used to explain how the relationship between a country-of-origin cue and product evaluations described by the halo and summary constructs occurs. A favorable country image depends on the three components of attitude, namely cognitive, affective and behavioral, being in accord with each other (homeostasis) (Nebenzahl, 1997).

2.3 Consumer Ethnocentrism

Along with country-of-origin and Consumer Ethnocentrism (CE) is cultural dimension that also influences consumer attitudes toward products and brands as mentioned previously (O'Cass, 2002).

Consumer ethnocentrism refers to the phenomenon of consumer preference for domestic products, or prejudice against imports (Levine and Campbell, 1972). In 1987, the term consumer ethnocentricity was introduced by Shimp and Sharma as a distinctively economic from of ethnocentrism which is domain-specific for the field of consumer behavior and has marketing implications. It is argued to represent the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products in place of local-made products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987: 285). In functional terms, Shimp and Sharma, (1987) stated that CE provides the individual a sense of identity, feeling of belongingness, and an understanding of what purchase is acceptable or unacceptable to the in-group (i.e. those with which an individual identifies).

Some scholars argued that ethnocentrism is a part of human nature and claimed that it is a trait-like property of one's personality. Accordingly, it can be said that ethnocentric tendencies are indeed a separate matter from quality evaluations or past experience with product (Herch, 1992: 261).

Consumers with high ethnocentric tendencies are probably most prone to biased judgments by being more inclined to adopt the positive aspects of local-made products and to discount the virtues of foreign-made products. From the perspective of ethnocentric consumers, purchasing imports is wrong because it is not only immoral and unpatriotic, but also detrimental to the domestic economy and results in loss of jobs in industries threatened by imports (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Consumers therefore tend to purchase local products, even if the quality is inferior and the price is higher than that of imports (Balabanis et al. 2001: 157).

Additionally, highly ethnocentric people generally take pride in their own values, symbols and people and view domestic products as objects of pride and identity as opposed to those from other countries (Upadhyay and Singh, 2006: 59). It can be concluded that the more ethnocentric a nation is, the less favorable consumers' attitudes and the less likely consumers will hold preferences and purchase intentions toward foreign products (O'Cass, 2002). Besides, as the implication is that choosing a foreign product can threaten domestic industry, ethnocentrism is likely to boost when economic times worsen.

In contrast to ethnocentric consumers, non-ethnocentric consumers believe that foreign products should be evaluated on their own merit and on the basis of the utility and benefit they offer to consumers without consideration for where they are manufactured or assembled (Shimp and Sharma, 1987).

Whilst originally introduced in the context of American consumers, the concept of CE (and its measure) has been tested by researchers in a limit but increasing number of countries (Herche, 1994: 4). It is being expected to exhibit similar effects across national boundaries.

A series of homological validity tests conducted in the USA by Shimp and Sharma (1987) indicated that the concept of CE is moderately predictive of consumers' beliefs, attitudes, purchase intentions, and ultimate purchases. Furthermore, the CE concept can improve the understanding of how consumers and corporate buyers compare domestic with foreign products and how and for what reasons their judgments may be subjected to different forms of bias and error (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). More importantly, Herche (1994) demonstrated that CE is better predictor of import purchase behavior than demographic and marketing mix variables.

Klein et al. (2006) claimed that it is still unclear how CE in developing economies will manifest itself since little research has been conducted in such countries. There is a particular lack of research looking at the variables which may moderate the relationship between CE and willingness to buy domestically-made products in developing countries. According to Hamen and Elliott (2006), there is increasing evidence for the view that it is essential for less-developed countries to be more aware of the issues of COO and the concept of CE. The scholars made a point that when considering the combined effects of COO and CE, various possibilities arise. For consumers from more developed countries, it seems likely that the COO effect and CE will lead the consumers to a preference for their domestic products. However, for consumers from less-developed countries, there are contrary expectations. On the one hand, the COO effect will lead the consumers to a preference for foreign products from more developed countries. CE, on the other hand, will lead to a preference for domestic products. For this reason, the COO effect and CE provide mixed signals for consumers.

It therefore appears to be more difficult to predict preferences and choices of consumers from less-developed countries (Hamen and Elliott, 2006: 86).

The concept of CE and COO bias are often confused, though the two concepts are distinct and independent of each other. There is an example provided by Herche (1992) about the difference. An American consumer can have a positive COO effect say for French wine because of its product-class attributes but decide not to buy it because of nationalistic rationale. Therefore, CE is more of a general tendency to avoid purchasing foreign products as opposed to a specific COO image.

2.3.1 Application and Construct of CETSCALE

Among empirical studies, a major contribution to consumer research has been the development and limited international application of the consumer ethnocentrism scale or CETSCALE (Kaynak and Kara, 2002). Luque-Martínez et al. (2000) explained the use of the CETSCALE as (1) an explanatory variable in experimental designs, in which the effect of country of origin of a product is controlled by the researcher; and as (2) an explanatory variable (along with psychographic and demographic variables) of attitudes, purchase intentions and consumer behavior. The CETSCALE was developed by Shimp and Sharma, (1987) to assess the construct of CE. It was originally designed to measure the ethnocentric tendencies of (American) consumers in relation to purchasing foreign versus American-made products. Shimp and Sharma used the term 'tendency' instead of 'attitude' because the former refers to the more general notion of the disposition to act in some consistent fashion toward imported products. The original CETSCALE consists of 17 items scored on seven-point Liker-type formats and represents an accepted means of measuring CE across cultures and nations (Kucukemiroglu, 1999: 482). It has been carefully constructed and distilled through the stages of item generation, item screening, two purification studies, and four independent studies in the U.S. to investigate the psychometrics of the scale (Bawa, 2004: 45). In the four studies, the scale was shown to be correlated to consumers' intent to purchase domestically-made products (Herche, 1994: 10). Shimp and Sharma were able to demonstrate the reliability and validity – convergent, discriminate and homological – for the 17-item CETSCALE.

The CETSCALE adheres to the standpoint that CE is a matter of 'how ethnocentric?' rather than 'whether ethnocentric?'. It does not provide a categorization of consumer ethnocentric or not ethnocentric type. Instead, it provides overall scores ranging from 17 to 119. Although Shimp and Sharma did not classify the items in this manner, Lindquist et al. (2001) claimed that the 17 items of the CETSCALE are associated to the four concepts: 'it hurts the domestic economy', 'results in loss of jobs', 'is unpatriotic', and 'is tied to product availability'.

There is evidence that the psychometric properties and homological validity of the CETSCALE extend beyond North America to measure consumers' attitudes and preferences. Most of these studies, however, were conducted in developed and predominantly western countries, i.e. the US, Western Europe, and Japan in which consumers in all advanced economies generally take pride in their domestic products and judge them more favorably than imports. In addition to the above countries, the extension of research using CETSCALE were conducted in Australia, Azerbaijan, China, Indonesia, Korea, Poland, Russia, Singapore, Turkey, etc. (Balabanis et al. 2001: 157-162).

2.4 Consumer Knowledge

Consumer knowledge is an individual dynamic that has an impact on the use and reliance of COO, as mentioned previously. In the literature, knowledge refers to product familiarity or prior knowledge of the object or stimuli. It, traditionally, has been treated as a un dimensional construct (O'Cass, 2002). However, made a point that it should be regarded as a multi-dimensional construct, in which different types of product-related experience lead to different knowledge dimensions. Further, these different knowledge dimensions cause different effects on product evaluations and choice behavior, depending on the particular situation and task at hand (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987: 14).

Consumer product knowledge is the cognitive representation of product-related experience stored in consumer's memory.

It takes the form of a product schema and tends to contain knowledge in the form of coded representations of brands, product features, usage situations, product class information in general, and evaluation and choice rules (Schaefer, 1997: 56).

With respect to consumer brand knowledge, it determines how a consumer tends to think about a brand and how that consumer responds to various stimuli regarding a brand. Brand awareness has been claimed to be a major component of brand knowledge, which is reflected by a consumer's capability to classify a brand under different conditions. Moreover, it is interrelated to the strength of the brand node or trace in consumer's memory (Rossiter and Percy, 1987).

Also, brand awareness influences how consumers perceive a brand in the consideration set leading to a purchase (Keller, 1998: 2).

2.5 Consumer making decisions

The actions a person takes in purchasing and using products and services, including the mental and social processes that precede and follow these actions.

The behavioral sciences help answer questions such as: Why people choose one product or brand over another, how they make these choices, and how companies use this knowledge to provide value to consumers.

2.5.1 Decision Making Theory

Data is new information, but information is power. When data can be transformed into information, the user is equipped with better decision making tools. Different data can become information to different people, all based on its relevancy to the user in achieving the desired goal of making an informed decision. The stages a consumer experiences in working through this process are similar, and a certain sense of consistency has emerged as a result of continuous research around decision making.

2.5.2 Decision Making Theory and Information Acquisition

In order for a decision to be made, an individual must first identify a perceived need that must to be met. As mentioned, for this discussion, the individual will be identified as a consumer with the need for a product or service. Then the process begins. Within the normative model of decision making, the consumer collects information about alternatives, evaluates them based on their relevancy and makes a decision that will maximize the value of that decision (Lau, 1995). Otherwise known as the value-maximization theory, the normative model has been criticized as too broad, ignoring human limitations and an evolutionary, bounded rationality model emerged to enhance it.

Here consumers were assumed to have limited processing capability, selectively search alternatives and terminate the search when a suitable solution has been found (Simon, 1985). Further criticism emerged from this model as well. By selective selection, the consumer is compromising the random nature of the information search and may compromise the decision choice. How a consumer collects his information affects the choice strategy he uses. For example, decision makers choose a certain strategy depending on the complexity of the task. The more complex the decision task, the more likely people employ strategies to simply that task (Johnson and Payne, 1985).

2.5.3 Consumer Choice through Decision Making

This section will introduce to the reader the models that support the underlying drivers to consumer choice and the attributes that act as influencers to enable purchase decisions. It will answer the questions: what drives consumer choice and what attributes from those drivers influence purchase? The reader will understand how the consumer approaches the concept of making a decision and the internal, processes and tools he uses to arrive at that decision. For the purposes of this discussion, the scope of attributes influencing purchase as they relate to consumer choice will be bound to the area of technology adoption. The concepts of consumer choice and decision making are described in the general context. Discussion relations to them focus in on the technology adoption component. Choice can be a double-edged sword (Simon, 1985). When not faced with it, one feels mandated. When faces with its entirety, one feels overwhelmed.

In between exist and delicate balance, once where the decision-maker believes enough in the way of resources has been allocated to enable him to generate a high quality decision. In the context of consumer choice, the process an individual assumes to ensure the quality is driven by the individual, similar in methodology to all but unique in deployment.

2.5.4 The Consumer Decision-Making Process.

The purchase decision process is the stages a buyer passes through in making choices about which products and services to buy. (Kerin, 2002) refer to Five Stages of Consumer Behavior

1. Problem recognition

2. Information search,

3. Alternative evaluation,

4. Purchase decision,

5. Post-purchase behavior

Figure 2.2. Consumer Decision Process
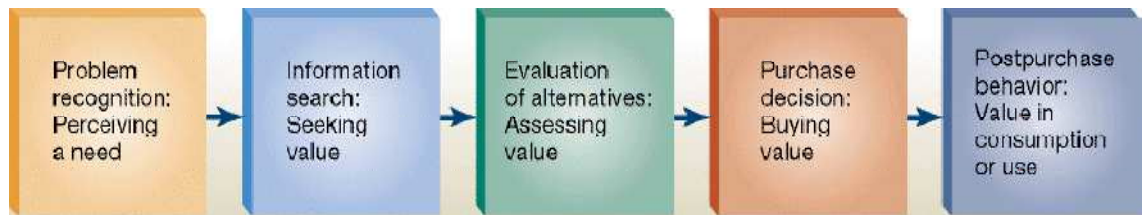
Source: Kerin Berkowitz (2002).

1. Problem Recognition: Perceiving a Need

It is a process of perceiving a difference between a person's ideal and actual situations big enough to trigger a decision and can be as simple as noticing an empty milk carton or it can be activated by marketing efforts.

2. Information Search: Seeking Value

The information search stage clarifies the options open to the consumer and may involve two steps of information search

Internal search

1. Scanning one's memory to recall previous experiences with products or brands.

2. Often sufficient for frequently purchased products

3. When past experience or knowledge is insufficient

4. The risk of making a wrong purchase decision is high

5. The cost of gathering information is low

External search The primary sources of external information are:

1. Personal sources, such as friends and family.

2. Public sources, including various product-rating organizations such as Consumer Reports.

3. Marketer-dominated sources, such as advertising, company websites, and salespeople

3. Alternative Evaluation: Assessing Value The information search clarifies the problem for the consumer by

1. Suggesting criteria to use for the purchase.

2. Yielding brand names that might meet the criteria.

3. Developing consumer value perception.

A consumer's evaluative criteria represent both the objective attributes of a brand (such as locate speed on a portable CD player) and the subjective factors (such as prestige). These criteria establish a consumer's evoked set the group of brands that a consumer would consider acceptable from among all the brands in the product class of which he or she is aware.

5. Purchase Decision: Buying Value

There are three possibilities

1. From whom to buy, which depend on such considerations as terms of sale, past experience buying from the seller and return policy?

2. When to buy, which can be influenced by store atmosphere, time pressure, a sale, pleasantness of the shopping experience.

3. Do not buy

6. Post-purchase Behavior: Value in Consumption or Use

After buying a product, the consumer compares it with expectations and is either satisfied or dissatisfied. Satisfaction or dissatisfaction affects consumer value perceptions, consumer communications and repeat-purchase behavior (Edward, 2010). Many firms work to produce positive post purchase communications among consumers and contribute to relationship building between sellers and buyers. Firms often use ads or follow-up calls from salespeople in this post purchase stage to try to convince buyers that they made the right decision.

Consumers decision rules and heuristics.

To carry out alternative evaluation, consumers consciously or unconsciously use decision rules. These are either non compensatory-where weaknesses in one attribute are not offset by strengths in another or compensatory, allowing trade-offs among the weak and strong points of an alternative. Consumers also use informal rules of thumb, or decision heuristics, to make quick decisions. These include price, brand name, key product signals, and market beliefs.

Summary

This chapter provides a detailed review of the literature along with the results of empirical research relevant to consumer perception and attitude, product evaluation and consumer making decision, the country-of-origin phenomenon, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer knowledge and consumer making decisions.

It has been noted in the literature that while evaluating products, brands or services, both intrinsic and extrinsic cues can affect consumers' judgments which further turn into consumer attitudes toward the object, thereby influencing their purchase intention and behavior (Wang and Heitmeyer, 2006). Generally, consumers in developed countries appeared to have a preference for domestic products and products from countries regarded as culturally similar over imported products, whereas consumers in less-developed countries appear to have a preference for foreign products over domestic products (Wang et al. 2000).

Two main variables affecting consumer evaluation between foreign versus domestic products are perception of quality and consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma, 1987).

In the next chapter, the research methodology used in conducting research will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3: REASEARCH METHODOLOGY, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Selecting the right methodology for research is an important task that can never be underestimated since it has a large influence on the relevance of information extracted and, subsequently, the whole research.

3.1 Research Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to illustrate and critically evaluate the research methodology chosen for collecting the primary data.

The chapter begins with the explanation of research questions, followed by the method of conducting research and the reason why this method is chosen. Next, the procedures of data collection and sampling will be described.

3.1.1 Research Questions

Based on the research objectives, there are nine research questions dealt in this thesis:

Consumer Attitude

RQ1: Will there be significant difference between Mongolian consumers' attitude towards Mongolian-made computer attributes and Mongolian consumers' attitude towards foreign made computer attributes?

RQ2: Will there be significant difference between Mongolian consumers who prefer Mongolian-made over foreign-made computers and those consumers who prefer foreign made over Mongolian-made computer on demographic variables?

Characteristics of Mongolian consumer perception

RQ3: Which brand's computers did Mongolian consumers purchase?

RQ4: Is international brand name affect buying decisions?

RQ5: What are difference perception Mongolian consumers' foreign brand and domestic brand computers?

Country-of-Origin

RQ6: Will Mongolian consumers perceptions of quality vary across different country-of-origins of computers?

RQ7: What are Mongolian consumer preference patterns for domestic made computer and the same product originating from other specific countries?

Consumer Ethnocentrism

RQ8: Will the level of consumer ethnocentrism be significantly different based on various consumer demographics?

RQ9: Will consumer ethnocentrism (*a*) be positively related to consumer attitude towards domestic computer brand (Mogul) and (*b*) be negatively related to consumer attitude towards foreign brand computers?

3.1.2 Method of Research

Social scientists make a distinction between two broad methodologies utilized in collecting data: qualitative and quantitative approaches. The choice between these two methodologies depends upon the suitability in answering particular research questions.

Before discussing each of them in detail, it should be noted that qualitative and quantitative methods should not be placed to compete against one another. As opposed to qualitative research, quantitative research is useful to study statistically meaning of involving variables by the approach of mathematics (McDaniel. 2002). The results obtained from this method are frequently expressed in statistical form.

Quantitative techniques include survey methods, formal methods (e.g. econometrics), and numerical methods (e.g. mathematical modeling) (Myers. 1997). With its strong statistical analysis capability, high reliability and general ability, quantitative research is extensively used by marketing researchers and is well-recommended in conducting research.

Based on the above discussion, quantitative research was chosen as it best fits the nature and purpose of this study that attempts to understand Mongolian consumers' perceptions and attitudes toward foreign versus domestic products. Another reason is that since almost all the researches in this area employed quantitative research, applying the same methodology therefore allows comparison with prior results made in other studies within the same context.

To be more precise, a survey method, one of quantitative techniques, was selected. It represents an inquiry which gathers information from a selected sample through a questionnaire. This technique is often undertaken to learn about people's knowledge, beliefs and preferences, and to assess the view of general population (Kotler. 2000).

3.1.3 Data Collection

The data collection was carried at some places such as some private company, public offices and streets situated in Ulaanbaatar, the capital city of Mongolia, from 5th July 2011 to 25th July 2011. Every effort was made to get a cross section of the population and to enhance general ability of the findings by selecting located at different areas for the administration of the survey. The selected offices are both public and private company. To minimize bias and to further maximize the good representation of the sample, the surveys took place on weekdays, at different hours of the day and on different days of the week. In other words, what the researcher tried to do here is to avoid the potential bias that could occur if the data is collected at a single location, at a single time on a single day.

3.1.4 Sampling Procedure

A total of 250 questionnaires were distributed. Of these, 242 questionnaires (96.8%) were administrated and returned to the researcher.

However, twelve of the returned questionnaires were found to have missing data and incomplete or had illogical answers, as some respondents were in a hurry or filled in answers without serious consideration, and so were discarded. This, finally, left 230 usable questionnaires (92%) which were qualified for further analysis and were included in this study.

3.1.5 Instrument

The questionnaire is basically in English but since not all of Mongolian people are good at English reading and it might originate the mistranslation, it is necessary to translate it in Mongolian language for Mongolia people to answer more easily.

The questionnaire is classified into 6 parts

At the top of the first page, the questionnaires open with the introduction of the research and ask about when you bought computer in last time use.

Part 1: Characteristics of international brand for customer perception

The questions indicate which brand Mongolian consumers usually use to computers and customer's perceived value on international brand.

Part 2: Country-of-origin

The questionnaire contains questions regarding the effects of country-of- origin. For question 1, the respondents were instructed to rank different countries from 1= the most preferred country-of–origin to 7 = the least preferred country- of- origin. This question was based under the assumption that computer produced in seven countries had similar attributes or features and were sold at the same price. Last question concerned with consumer perception of quality. The respondents were asked to rate the quality of computer made in the same seven countries.

Part 3: Measures of attitudes toward purchasing domestic and imported

       computers

This part measures attitudes toward purchasing domestic versus imported computer using the Fishbein model, discussed in Chapter 1.

Since the main interest of this research is on imported computers as a whole category, the study intentionally focuses on respondents' opinions about imports in general and not opinions about a specific brand or about computers from a specific country. In the context of the present study, the variables in the Fishbein formula were defined as:

$$A \, b = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i \, e_i$$

A_B = *attitude toward the purchasing of domestic (A_d) versus foreign (A_f) computer,*

b_i = *the belief that purchasing a domestic (or an imported) computer will lead to a certain attribute, for instance good design, good quality, etc.,*

e_i = *the evaluation of the importance of the attribute.*

To compute the overall attitude towards domestic and foreign computers for each respondent, computer attributes chosen to use for the instrument came from the preliminary study. The 11 attributes were:

Table 3.1. Eleven attributes

How important each of following attributes is when you purchase computers? $(e)_i$	1= very unimportant to 7 = very important.						
1. Good design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Special functions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Service support	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Flexible price	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Case of use	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Good Quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Plus accessories	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Guarantee policy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Brand name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Promotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Computer official software	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

To compute the b_i, respondents were asked to indicate how likely domestic and imported computers were to possess each of the 11 attributes using a seven-point Liker scale (*from 1 = very unlikely to 7 = very likely*).

To compute the e_i, respondents were asked to indicate how important each of the same 11 attributes is when they purchases computers using a seven-point Liker scale (*from 1 = very unimportant to 7 = very important*). In order to investigate importance of country-of-origin in relation to other attributes, additional attribute – country-of-origin – was included in the section concerning computers attribute importance.

The overall attitudes toward domestic and foreign computer brands were calculated using the following formula:

This was multiplication of the belief score (**b$_i$**) by the evaluation score (**e$_i$**), and then summing across the 11 computers attributes (excluding the attribute of country-of-origin). Higher scores indicated a more positive consumer attitude towards computers. Cronbach's alpha reliability scores of the measure of attitudes toward domestic brand computer and attitudes toward international brand computers were **0,892** and **0,849** respectively (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2. Reliability Statistics of Fishbein's Attitude Model *(Cronbach's alpha reliability scores of the measure of attitudes toward domestic brand computer and attitudes toward international brand computers)*

Attributes	Cronbach's alpha reliability scores of the measure of attitudes		
1. Good design	Attitude of Domestic brand computer (A$_d$)$_i$	Attitude of Foreign brand computer (A$_f$)$_i$	Attitudes of Domestic and foreign brand computer
2. Special functions			
3. Service support			
4. Low price			
5. Case of use			
6. Good Quality			
7. Plus accessories			
8. Guarantee policy			
9. Brand name			
10. Promotions			
11. Computer official software			
Score	**0.892**(*n=22*)	**0.849**(*n=22*)	**0.894** (*n=33*)

(b$_i$)= **belief score** *(from 1 = very unlikely to 7 = very likely)*
(e$_i$) =**evaluation score** (*from 1 = very unimportant to 7 = very important*)
A_B = *attitude of toward the purchasing of domestic(A_d) versus foreign(A_f) computer*
$A_B = \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i\, e_i$

Source: Appendix A1 (Table A1.3), (Table A1.4) and (Table A1.5)

Combining both measures of attitudes, the coefficient alpha of the whole scale was **0.894** (Table 3.2), proved to be very reliable instruments in evaluating consumer attitude towards foreign brand versus domestic brand computers.

Part 4: Measures of consumer ethnocentrism

This part focuses on consumer ethnocentrism. Respondents were administered a set of statements comprising the reduced 17-item version of CETSCALE proposed by (Shimp and Sharma,1987) to determine their extent of agreement on statements relating to the level of ethnocentrism in reference to Mongolia-made products in general. The respondents rated the items on a seven-point Liker scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree), yielding a potential minimum score of 17 and a maximum score of 119 for each individual. The mean scale value of CETSCALE is taken as the indicator of the intensity of consumer ethnocentrism: a higher mean scale value denotes higher consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). In the present study, the statements were adapted for Mongolian consumers. In adapted scale, an internal consistency was identified through Cronbach's alpha to have a value of 0.899, as shown in Table 3.3 This value can be considered a reasonably high reliability coefficient. Based on this, it can be assumed that all 17 items employed are measuring the same construct – ethnocentrism. Thus, a summative measure can be used to represent the ethnocentrism score of Mongolian respondents.

Table 3.3. Reliability Analysis of 17- item CETSCALE [a]

Consumer Ethnocentrism	Reliability [b]
1.Mongolian people should always buy Mongolian-made products instead of import	0.892
2.Only those products that are unavailable in Mongolia should be imported	0.896
3.Buy Mongolian-made product. Keep Mongolian working	0.896
4.Mongolian products, first, last, and foremost	0.891
5.Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Mongolian.	0.892
6.It is not right to purchase foreign-made products because it puts Mongolian out of jobs.	0.889
7.A real Mongolian should always buy Mongolian –made products.	0.890
8.We should purchase products manufactured in Mongolian instead of letting other countries get rich off of us.	0.893
9.It is not right best to purchase Mongolian products	0.903
10.There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from countries unless out of necessity	0.996
11.Mongolian should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Mongolian business and causes unemployment.	0.888
12.Curbs should be very put on all imports.	0.914
13.It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Mongolian products	0.894
14.Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	0.888
15.Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Mongolia	0.888
16.We should buy from foreign countries only those products we cannot obtain within our own country	0.894
17.Mongolian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Mongolian out of work.	0.889
Total (N of Item= 17)	**0.899**

Note: a response format is seven-point Liker-type scale: Strongly disagree(1) to strongly agree (7)
b calculating using **Cronbach's alpha**

Part 5: Buyer's Decision

The questionnaire indicated where the Mongolian consumers bought their computers and where they obtain information research about computers. These questionnaires influenced by Mongolian consumer's perception.

Part 6: Demographic information

The final part of the questions was general information of respondents, gender, consisting of age, education, occupation and monthly income.

3.1.6 Data analysis

The collected data in 6 sections of the questionnaire were analyzed for the report. Raw data drawn from the responded questionnaires was analyzed using the Statistic Package for the Social Science (SPSS 11.0) software. It is utilized to compute statistical scores and to test a series of hypotheses. Analysis comprises of descriptive statistics, t-tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and correlation analysis.

Additionally, t-tests, ANOVA, and correlation analysis were performed at the 5% significance level.

Summary

In this research, the survey method was applied for collecting the primary data. The instrument in the questionnaire was developed based upon the analysis of the literature review chapter. The survey was self-administrated and a convenient sample of people who use computers in Ulaanbaatar was targeted. As a result, 230 usable responses were collected. After the completion of data collection, the statistic software package, SPSS, was utilized in this study.

3.2 Analysis Results

Once data has been collected through the survey questionnaire, the next stage of the research process is to analyze and conclude those data. The objective of this chapter is to present the research results. The first section contains the demographic and shopping behavior descriptions of the sample.

Subsequently, the results regarding consumer perception, country-of-origin, consumer' attitude and consumer ethnocentrism will be reported in four separated sections. Eventually, the findings with respect to the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitude will be provided.

3.2.1 Characteristics of the Sample

Table 3.4 presents the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the sample who participated in the survey.

The sample of this study was a non-probabilistic convenient sample, comprising 230 consumers. The gender breakdown for the sample was 107 male (46.5%) and 123 female (53.5%), which were almost equally balanced. In terms of age, respondents were divided into six categories: '17 - 25', '26 – 30', '31 – 35', '36 – 40', '41 – 50' and 'over 51'. The youngest (17-25 years old) represented 30.4 % of the sample. Those between 26 – 30 years old and 31 – 35 years old constituted 41.7% and 13 %, respectively. About total 21 % of the sample were in the oldest category ('36 – 40', '41 – 50' over 51 years old).

With regard to the estimated monthly personal income, more than half of the respondents ($n = 117$, 50.9%) indicated that they earned less than 500,000 tugrig per month, which is around \$370.37. The remaining 49.1% of the sample ($n = 113$) earned monthly income more than 500,001 tugrig.

In the sample, respondents earn income from first category who work in private companies 47.8 % n=110, Second category is employees who work in government (public) sectors 27% (n= 62) and third category is employees who work in non-government sectors 11.7 % (n= 27). So others are who business owners, retired and students, are 13.5 % (n= 31).

Last one is respondent's education level. Most consumers are 70.4 % (n= 162) bachelor degree and 21.7 % (n=50) are master or doctoral degree. The others (diploma degree, secondary school and below secondary school) are 7.4 % (n= 18).

Table 3.4. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Characteristics	Frequency (n=230)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	107	46,5
female	123	53,5
Age		
17-25	70	30,4
26-30	96	41,7
31-55	30	13
36-40	23	10
41-50	3	1,3
51- over	8	3,5
Monthly income		
Below 300,000 tugrig	34	14,8
300,001-500,000 tugrig	83	36,1
500,001- 800,000 tugrig	76	33
800,001-1,000,000 tugrig	28	12,2
1,000,001-1,500,000 tugrig	3	1,3
1,500,001- over	6	2,6
Occupation		
Government employee	62	27
Private Company employee	110	47,8
Non-government employee	27	11,7
Business Owner	20	8,7
Student	9	3,9
Retired	2	0,9
Education level		
Below secondary school	1	0,4
Secondary school	8	3,5
Diploma degree	9	3,9
Bachelor Degree	162	70,4
Masters or doctoral degree	50	21,7

Note: a Monthly income is in Mongolian tugrig (mnt). At the time of the data collection, the exchange rate was $1 equal to 1,350 tugrig.

The descriptive data of behavioral characteristics of the respondents are given in Table 3.5. The sample (*n* = 104, 45.2 %) specified that they bought their computers in last 1 – 12 months. Those bought computers 13 - 24 months, 25 months - 4 years and 4 years than more represented 20.9 %, 14.3 % and 14.8, respectively. Only 4.8 % of the sample never bought computers.

Regarding purchasing place frequency (Table 3.5), Mongolian consumers responded that 84 (36.5%) shopping by dealers, 79 (34.3%) shopping by import, 32(13.9%) shopping by second hand, 21 (9.1%) shopping by department store, 9 (3.9%) shopping by internet and 5 (2.2%) shopping by other resources.

In respect to information search (Table 3.5), most of the respondents obtained information about computer followed by family/relative/friend (32.2%) and information about computers from television (21.3%). The remaining respondents indicated that they acquired shopping information from website (16.5%), magazine and newspaper (10.4%), salesperson (10%), sales catalogue (7.8%) and street wall (1.3%), respectively.

Table 3.5. Behavioral Characteristics of the Sample

Characteristics	Frequency (n=230)	Percentage (%)
When did you buy computer or notebook		
Never bought	11	4,8
1-12 months	104	45,2
13-24 months	48	20,9
25-48 months	33	14,3
Over 48 months	34	14,8
Where did you buy computer from		
Department store	21	9,1
Second hand	32	13,9
Import*	79	34,3
dealer (brand name shop)	84	36,5
internet	9	3,9
others	5	2,2
Information search		
Family/ relative / friend	74	32,2
Salesperson	23	10
Magazine, newspaper	24	10,4
Television	49	21,3
Website	38	16,5
Sales catalogue	18	7,8
Street walls	3	1,3
• Import that mean respondent who purchase or order from foreign countries		

3.2.2 Characteristics of Mongolian Consumer Perception

The questions were related from part one which indicated customer's perceived value on international brand.

3.2.2.1 Influence of International Brand

Table 3.6. Analysis of Mongolian Consumers which Brands Computers Buying and Using

	Frequency	Percent
Never bought	15	6.5
Sony (Japan)	16	7.0
Acer (Taiwan)	23	10.0
Dell (America)	78	33.9
Samsung (Korea)	21	9.1
Mogul (Mongolia)	4	1.7
Panasonic (Japan)	6	2.6
Toshiba (Japan)	16	7.0
HP (America)	18	7.8
Mac book (America)	6	2.6
Others	27	11.7
Total	**230**	**100**

From Table 3.6 it shows that most of Mongolian consumers bought Dell (America) computer that 78 respondents or 33.9%. Second rank is Acer (Taiwan) computer brand that is 23 respondents or 10 % bought it. Third one is Samsung (Korea) computer that is 21 respondents or 9.1 % bought it. The results indicate that HP (America) (n=18) or 7.8 %, Sony (Japan) (n=16) or 7%, Toshiba (Japan) (n=16) or 7% and 15 respondents never bought computers it means 6.5%. it ranked last one that is Mongolian domestic brand Mogul just 4 (1.7%) respondents using. Because Mogul brand is the first time in Mongolia, MCS Electronics had introduced fully automated computer factory line technology and manufactured in 2010.[3]

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[3] 11.12.2011.http://electronics.mcs.mn/web/15997/71

Table 3.7. Analysis of International Brand Affecting Buying Decision

Level	Frequency (n=230)	Percentage (%)
Strongly affect	47	20.4
Affect	137	59.6
No affect	46	20.0
Total	**230**	**100**

From Table 3.7, it shows that within 230 respondents, there are 47 respondents or 20.4% feel that international is "Strongly Affect" their buying decision, there are 46 respondents or 20% feel that international is "No Affect" their buying decision and there are 137 respondents or 59.6% as a majority of all samples feel that international has "Affect" on their buying decision.

3.2.2.2 Comparisons between International Computers Brand and Domestic Computer Brand Perception

Table 3.8. Analysis of "Design" of International Brand being Better Compared with Domestic Brand Perception

Level	Frequency (n=230)	Percentage (%)
Disagree	43	18.7
Neutral	42	18.3
Agree	145	63
Total	**230**	**100**

From Table 3.8, as for "Design" of international brand being better than domestic brand, there are 43 respondents or 18.7% who "Disagree" on this point, 42 respondents or 18.3% who "Neutral" on this point, and 145 respondents or 63% who feel "Agree" on this point.

Table 3.9. Analysis of "Quality" of International Brand being Better Compared with Domestic Brand Perception

Level	Frequency (n=230)	Percentage (%)
Disagree	24	10.4
Neutral	43	18.7
Agree	163	70.9
Total	**230**	**100**

From Table 3.9, as for "Quality" of international brand being better than domestic brand, there are 24 respondents or 10.4% who "Disagree" on this point, 43 respondents or 18.7% who feel "Neutral" on this point, 163 respondents or 70.9% who "Agree" on this point.

Table 3.10. Analysis of "Easier to Use" of International Brand being more Comfortable Compared with Domestic Brand Perception

Level	Frequency (n=230)	Percentage (%)
Disagree	68	29.6
Neutral	81	35.2
Agree	81	35.2
Total	**230**	**100**

From Table 3.10, as for "easier to use" of computer in international brand being more comfortable than domestic brand, there are 68 respondents or 29.6% who "Disagree" on this point, 81 respondents or 35.2% who feel "Neutral" on this point, and 81 respondents or 35.2% who "Agree" on this point.

Table 3.11. Analysis of International Brand having more Celebrities to Endorse than Domestic Brand

Level	Frequency (n=230)	Percentage (%)
Disagree	41	17.8
Neutral	59	25.7
Agree	130	56.5
Total	**230**	**100**

From Table 3.11, as for "Celebrities to endorse" of computer in international brand having more than domestic brand, there are 41 respondents or 17.8% who "Disagree" on this point, 59 respondents or 25.7% who feel "Neutral" on this point, and 130 respondents or 56.5% who "Agree" on this point.

3.2.3 Country of Origin

In Table 3.12 exhibits the mean preference rankings regarding country-of-origin, with the highest ranking as 1 and the lowest ranking as 7. The preference for Mongolian computer was next compared to preferences for the same product originating in the other six countries (mean= 4.76). Japan was most preferred (mean = 2.48), followed by America (mean = 2.86), Korea (mean = 3.45), and Taiwan (mean = 4.05). The lowest ranked country was China (mean = 5.19). For Mongolia, it ranked fifth on the list, in which the rank was higher than the Turkey (mean = 4.82). These findings answer *RQ6*.

Table 3.12. Preference Rankings for Country of Origin of Computers

Country	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.Japan (Sony. Sharp, NEC, Panasonic, Toshiba …)	**2.48**	1.56
2.Mongolia (Mogul)	4.76	1.41
3.Korea (Samsung, LG …)	3.45	1.45
4.China(Gateway…)	5.19	1.35
5.Taiwan (Acer, ASUS …)	4.05	2.12
6.Turkey (Casper)	4.82	1.27
7.America (HP, Dell, Apple, Packard Bell)	**2.86**	2.11
Note: seven point scale: the most preferred (1) to the least preferred (7), n=230		

The differences in ratings of quality between computer products which have made in seven countries are illustrated in Table 3.13. The results indicate that computer originated from America was rated as being of the highest quality (mean = 6.35), followed by the Japan-made (mean = 6.05), the Korea-made computer (mean = 4.89) and the Taiwan-made computer with the mean score of 4.43 respectively.

Although the perceived quality of Mongolian-made computer (mean = 4.0) was not as high as the four countries mentioned above, its quality was rated higher than the Turkey (mean = 3.72) and the Chinese (mean = 3.69). For *RQ7*, the answer is that when computer differed only in its country-of-origin, there was a difference in perceived quality of consumers.

Table 3.13. Quality Ratings for Computer

Country	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.Japan (Sony. Sharp, NEC, Panasonic, Toshiba …)	**6.05**	1.223
2.Mongolia (Mogul)	4.00	1.416
3.Korea (Samsung, LG …)	4.89	1.256
4.China(Gateway…)	3.69	1.452
5.Taiwan (Acer, ASUS …)	4.43	1.329
6.Turkey (Casper)	3.72	1.276
7.America (HP, Dell, Apple, Packard Bell)	**6.35**	0.940
Note: seven point scale: Low quality (1) to high quality (7), n=230		

Table 3.14 shows the mean importance ratings of the 12 computer attributes. The results indicate that good quality (mean = 6.03), low price (mean = 5.81) and service support (mean = 5.73) were the three most important attributes assessed by Mongolian consumers when purchasing computer, followed by guarantee policy (mean = 5.53), case of use (mean = 5.50), promotion (mean = 5.48), plus accessories (mean = 5.30), special functions (mean = 5.27), good design (mean = 5.16), brand name (mean = 4.98) and computer official software. For country-of-origin, it ranked lowest of the twelve computer attributes (mean = 3.98). Thus, the answer for *RQ6* relative to other computer attributes, country-of-origin was of low importance.

Table 3.14. Importance Ratings of Computer Attributes

Correct Answer ab	Mean importance	Std. Deviation
1. Good design	5.16	1.543
2. Special functions	5.27	1.610
3. Service support	5.73	1.515
4. Low price	**5.81**	1.414
5. Case of use	5.50	1.563
6. Good Quality	**6.03**	1.435
7. Plus accessories	5.30	1.539
8. Guarantee policy	5.53	1.585
9. Brand name	4.98	1.629
10. Promotions	5.48	1.629
11. Computer official software	4.10	1.838
12. Country of origin	3.98	1.672
Note: a rank order item importance **b** seven point scale: very unimportant (1) to very important (7), n=230		

3.2.4 Consumer Attitude towards computer brand

The mean scores of consumer attitude towards domestic and foreign computer attributes are presented in Table 3.15. By utilizing Paired-Comparison T-test, the mean score of consumer's overall attitude towards foreign brand computer was **317.65 ($A_f)_{11}$**, and the mean score of consumer's overall attitude towards Mongolian made computer was **264.13 ($A_d)_{11}$**. The mean difference **53.52** in overall consumer attitude was significant difference from zero ($p<0.05$). Therefore, the answer for *RQ1* is Mongolian consumer attitude toward Mongolian made computer attributes differ significantly from Mongolian consumer attitude toward foreign brand computer attributes.

In order to determine which attribute(s) of computer made this difference significant, consumer attitudes toward Mongolian brand computer and foreign brand computers were compared on each of computer attributes separately. As shown in Table 3.15, Mongolian consumers gave higher evaluations for foreign brand computer than domestic brand computer on most of the 11 attributes:

'good quality' (mean = 35.26 versus 26.13), 'brand name' (mean = 29.93 versus 21.01), 'good design' (mean = 29.86 versus 21.76), 'plus accessories' (mean = 29.63 versus 23.23),'special function' (mean = 29.86 versus 21.76) and 'case of use' (mean = 29.55 versus 25.38). In the sample last four attitudes which are little difference between for foreign brand computers and domestic brand computers. These are 'official software' (mean = 22.16 versus 18.91), 'low price' (mean = 28.65 versus 25.67), 'guarantee policy' (mean = 29.60 versus 26.70) and 'promotion' (mean = 25.90 versus 24.26). The mean difference of the ten computer attributes were significantly different from zero ($p<0.05$).

Additionally, the findings further indicated that there was no significant difference between foreign brand and domestic computer regarding 'service support '.

Table 3.15. Paired comparison t-test between Mongolian consumer attitude toward Mongolian brand and foreign brand computer on each of the eleven computers attributes

Attributes	Attitude toward domestic brand pc $(A_d)_i$	Attitude toward foreign brand pc $(A_f)_i$	Mean difference	t-value	p-value
	mean	mean			
1. **Good design**	21.76	29.86	**-8.10**	-12.628	0.000
2. Special functions	24.43	29.57	**-5.14**	-7.972	0.000
3. Service support	26.65	27.54	-0.89	-1.102	0.000
4. Low price	25.67	28.65	-2.97	-3.611	0.000
5. Case of use	25.38	29.55	**-4.17**	-5.983	0.000
6. **Good Quality**	26.13	35.26	**-9.12**	-12.772	0.000
7. Plus accessories	23.23	29.63	**-6.39**	-10.254	0.000
8. Guarantee policy	26.70	29.60	-2.89	3.723	0.000
9. **Brand name**	21.01	29.93	**-8.91**	-13.280	0.000
10. Promotions	24.26	25.90	-1.64	-2.132	0.034
11. Computer official software	18.91	22.16	-3.25	-5.34	0.000
Overall attitude	**264.13**	**317.65**	-53.52	-10.348	0.000
Note: significant at level < 0.05					

3.2.4.1 Consumer Attitude and Demographics

The relationship between consumer attitude and the demographic variables, namely gender, age, and income level, were examined using T-test and ANOVA.

For gender, by utilizing independent samples t-test, no significant difference was found in both consumers' attitudes toward Mongolian brand ($t = 0.275$, $p = 0.600$) and foreign brand computer ($t = 1.793$, $p = 0.182$) between male and female (see Table 3.16).

Table 3.16. T-test between Attitude and Gender

	male	female	t-value	p-value
N	107	123		
Attitude toward domestic brand PC	21.80	25.93	0.275	0.600
Standard Deviation	7.97	8.28		
N	107	123		
Attitude toward foreign brand PC	26.47	30.97	1.793	0.182
Standard Deviation	7.55	6.96		
Note: significant at level < 0.05				

Regarding age, the mean scores for consumer attitudes were compared among different age groups using One-way ANOVA. The result (Table 3.17) shows that there was statistical difference found between the six age groups for both attitudes toward domestic computer brand ($F = 3.897$, $p = 0.002$) and foreign brand computer ($F = 2.538$, $p = 0.030$). It means Mongolian consumers thoughts are different foreign and domestic computer brand because of age of levels.

Specially, in result of research indicated that separated two groups of consumer attitudes were statistical difference found between three age groups such as 17- 25, 31-35 and 51 above for both attitudes toward domestic computer brands and foreign computer brands.

Table 3.17. ANOVA Test between Attitude and Age

Domestic	N	Mean	SD	F-value	p-value
17-25	70	24.54	9.10		
26-30	96	22.92	7.35		
31-35	30	25.24	7.98	3.897	0.002
36-40	23	21.69	8.88		
41-50	3	22.48	3.93		
51 over	8	35.06	6.61		
Foreign	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**F-value**	**p-value**
17-25	70	27.96	7.17		
26-30	96	28.24	7.44		
31-35	30	28.79	7.03	2.536	0.030
36-40	23	32.61	8.51		
41-50	3	27.42	6.00		
51 over	8	34.77	8.38		
Note: significant at level < 0.05					

Regarding consumer's occupation, the mean scores for consumer attitudes were compared among six different occupations groups using One-way ANOVA. The result (Table 3.18) shows that there was no statistical difference found between the six works groups for both attitudes toward domestic computer brand ($F = 0,761$, $p = 0.579$) and foreign brand computer ($F = 3.054$, $p = 0.061$). In additional, research questionnaire had ten different occupations but respondents just separated different six occupation groups.

Table 3.18. ANOVA Test between Attitude and Occupation

Domestic	N	Mean	SD	F-value	p-value
Government employee	62	24.61	7.88		
Private company employee	110	24.49	9.04		
Non- Government employee	27	21.45	6.43	0.761	0.579
Business owner	20	22.88	9.57		
Student	9	24.77	5.35		
Retired	2	21.50	7.26		
Foreign	N	Mean	SD	F-value	p-value
Government employee	62	30.29	7.86		
Private company employee	110	28.39	7.54		
Non- Government employee	27	25.84	6.53	3.054	0.061
Business owner	20	30.56	6.18		
Student	9	32.84	7.04		
Retired	2	17.97	8.29		
Note: significant at level < 0.05					

The difference between the mean scores of attitudes toward domestic and imported computers among the six income groups was too small to be significant. As indicated by One-way ANOVA (Table 3.19), the impact of level of income was not statistical significant (attitude towards domestic brand computer: $F = 0.229$, $p > 0.05$; attitude towards foreign computer: $F = 1.462$, $p > 0.05$).

Table 3.19. ANOVA Test between Attitude and Income Level

Domestic	N	Mean	SD	F-value	p-value
1,000,001-1,500,000	3	19.6364	5.31		
800,001-1,000,000	28	23.7305	9.32		
300,001-500,000	83	23.9211	7.70		
500,001-800,000	76	24.0191	9.22	0.229	0.950
1,500,001 or more	6	24.4697	9.66		
less than 300,000	34	24.7807	7.53		
Foreign	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**F-value**	**p-value**
300,001-500,000	83	27.2004	6.56		
1,000,001-1,500,000	3	28.5455	7.97		
500,001-800,000	76	29.4438	8.70		
less than 300,000	34	29.8717	7.80	1.462	0.203
1,500,001 or more	6	30.4848	6.84		
800,001-1,000,000	28	30.8344	6.42		
Note: significant at level < 0.05					

Based on the preceding discussion, the answer for *RQ*2 is consumers' demographic characteristics separate two sides that gender, occupations and monthly incomes are not significantly related to consumers' attitudes toward Mongolian and international computer brand at the $p < 0.05$. Other side, respondents age is significantly related to consumers' attitudes toward Mongolian and international computer brand at the $p < 0.05$.

3.2.5 Consumer Ethnocentrism in Mongolia

The 17-item CETSCALE developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) was used to measure the degree of consumer ethnocentric tendencies. In the current study, the total mean scale value of CETSCALE for Mongolian consumers was 74.41, with a standard deviation of 2,175 (Table 3.20). It can be said that Mongolian consumers tended to be highly ethnocentric.

The highest rating (5.67) was for item No. 3, "Buy Mongolian-made product. Keep Mongolian working", while the lowest rating (3.32) were on items No. 5, "Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Mongolian".

Table 3.20. Ethnocentrism Scale for Mongolian Consumers

Item	Mean rating	Std.deviation
1.Mongolian people should always buy Mongolian-made products instead of import	5.32	1.858
2.Only those products that are unavailable in Mongolia should be imported	5.33	1.844
3. Buy Mongolian-made product. Keep Mongolian working	**5.67**	1.671
4.Mongolian products, first, last, and foremost	4.62	1.879
5. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Mongolian.	**3.32**	1.972
6. It is not right to purchase foreign-made products because it puts Mongolian out of jobs.	3.51	1.942
7. A real Mongolian should always buy Mongolian –made products.	3.46	2.072
8. We should purchase products manufactured in Mongolian instead of letting other countries get rich off of us.	4.57	2.022
9. It is not right best to purchase Mongolian products	5.01	1.686
10There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from countries unless out of necessity	4.98	1.746
11. Mongolian should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Mongolian business and causes unemployment.	3.97	1.922
12. Curbs should be very put on all imports.	4.06	3.856
13.It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Mongolian products	4.85	1.878
14. Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	3.55	1.916
15.Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Mongolia	3.87	1.960
16.We should buy from foreign countries only those products we cannot obtain within our own country	4.77	2.030
17.Mongolian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Mongolian out of work.	3.55	1.999
Total mean rating	**74.41**	**2.175**

3.2.5.1 Consumer Ethnocentrism and Demographics

The relationship between the level of consumer ethnocentrism and the demographic variables, namely gender, age, and income level, were examined using T-test and ANOVA.

Regarding gender, the mean scores for ethnocentrism were compared between male and female, using independent samples t-test. Table 3.21 indicates that there was no significant difference found between male and female in Mongolia (mean score 4.377 for female versus 4.373 for male, $t = -0.023$, $p = 0.981$).

Table 3.21. T-test between Ethnocentrism and Gender

	male	female	t-value	p-value
N	107	123		
Ethnocentrism	4.3738	4.3778	-0.023	0.981
Standard Deviation	1.333	1.236		
Note: significant at level < 0.05				

For age, the mean scores for ethnocentrism were compared among different age groups using One-way ANOVA. The result (Table. 3.22) shows that there was no statistical difference found between the six age groups ($F = 0.487$, $p > 0.05$).

Table 3.22. ANOVA Test between Ethnocentrism and Age

Age	N	Mean	SD	F-value	p-value
17-25	70	4.55	1.14		
26-30	96	4.38	1.17		
31-35	30	4.62	1.45		
36-40	23	3.89	1.50	2.252	0.050
41-50	3	3.27	1.37		
51 over	8	3.61	1.71		
Note: significant at level < 0.05					

Regarding respondents occupation, the mean scores for ethnocentrism were compared among different occupations groups using One-way ANOVA. The result (Table 3.23) shows that there was no statistical difference found between the six occupations groups ($F = 1.383$, $p= 0.232$, $p > 0.05$). In additional, first research questionnaire had ten different occupations but respondents just separated different six occupation groups.

Table 3.23. ANOVA Test between Ethnocentrism and Occupation

Ethnocentrism	N	Mean	SD	F-value	p-value
Government employee	62	70.93	23.62		
Private company employee	110	78.24	21.15		
Non- Government employee	27	71.40	15.51	1.383	0.232
Business owner	20	71.25	25.42		
Student	9	67.55	21.61		
Retired	2	72.00	1.41		

Consumers who earned monthly income between '300,001-500.000 tugrig' exhibited higher level of ethnocentrism than other income groups (mean = 4.59). However, the difference between the mean scores of ethnocentrism among the six groups was too small to be significant. As indicated by One-way ANOVA, the impact of level of income was not statistical significant ($F = 1.037$, $p > 0.05$), see Table 3.24.

Table 3.24. ANOVA Test between Ethnocentrism and Income Level

Income level	N	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value
1,000,001-1,500,000	3	2.47	0.36		
800,001-1,000,000	28	4.30	1.52		
300,001-500,000	83	4.59	1.19	2.185	0.057
500,001-800,000	76	4.28	1.33		
1,500,001 or more	6	3.79	1.24		
less than 300,000	34	4.37	1.07		
Note: significant at level < 0.05					

3.2.6 Consumer Attitude and Consumer Ethnocentrism

In order to test the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitude, correlation analysis was carried to determine the strength and direction of the relationship. Table 3.25 exhibits Pearson correlation coefficients, significance values, and the number of respondents regarding consumer ethnocentrism and attitude toward domestic computer brand. The results show that two coefficients were statistically significance and moderately associated ($p < 0.05$). With the correlation coefficients value of 0.366, the relationship between ethnocentrism and attitude towards Mongolian computer brand were positively correlated and held a medium strength. Hence, *RQ9a*'s answer is consumer ethnocentrism was positively correlated to consumer attitude towards domestic computer brand.

Table 3.25. Correlation between Attitude towards Domestic Computer Brand and Consumer Ethnocentrism

		Consumer ethnocentrism	Domestic attitude
Consumer ethnocentrism	Pearson Correlation	1	.366**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	.000
	N	230	230
Domestic attitude	Pearson Correlation	.366**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	-
	N	230	230
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

For consumer ethnocentrism and attitude towards foreign computer brand, two coefficients were also statistically significant and associated ($p < 0.05$), see Table 3.26. Furthermore, their relationship was negatively correlated ($\gamma = 0.055$). Consumer ethnocentrism and Mongolian consumer's attitude of foreign computer brand are not relating. The answer for *RQ9b* is consumer ethnocentrism was negatively correlated to consumer attitude towards foreign computer brand. So there are not relationship Mongolian consumer ethnocentrism and attitude of foreign computer brand.

Table 3.26. Correlation between Attitude towards Foreign Computer Brand and

Consumer Ethnocentrism

		Consumer ethnocentrism	Foreign attitude
Consumer ethnocentrism	Pearson Correlation	1	**.055**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	.408
	N	230	230
Foreign attitude	Pearson Correlation	**.055**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.408	-
	N	230	230

3.2.7 Summary

The summary of answers for seven research questions is provided as follows.

RQ1: There was statistically significant difference between Mongolian consumers' attitude towards domestic-made computer attributes and Mongolian consumers' attitude towards international brand computers attributes.

RQ2: There was no statistically significant difference between Mongolian consumers who prefer Mongolia-made over domestic-made computer and those consumers who prefer foreign-made over Mongolia-made computer brand on demographic variables such as gender, monthly incoming and occupation. But there was statistically difference between Mongolian consumers who prefer domestic and foreign computer brand on age variable.

RQ3: Mongolian consumers most of them purchased American brand computer that is DELL.

RQ4: The most of Mongolian consumers indicated that foreign computer brand affected their buying decisions.

RQ5: Mongolian consumers think that foreign computer brands are more design, quality, easier to use and celebrities to endorse than domestic computer brand.

RQ6: Mongolian consumers' perceptions of quality vary across different country-of-origins of computer.

RQ7: Regarding preference pattern for country-of-origin, Mongolian consumers preferred computer originating in America, Japan, Korean, Taiwan, Mongolia, Turkey and China, respectively.

RQ8: There was no statistically significant difference in the level of consumer ethnocentrism based upon various consumer demographics.

RQ9: Consumer ethnocentrism (*a*) was positively related to consumer attitude towards domestic computer brand, but (*b*) was negatively related to consumer attitude towards foreign computer brand.

3.3 Discussions

The purpose of this part is to apply the interpretation of the results from the analytical statistic techniques. Based upon this part analyze and discuss the research results of this study as well as referring back to the relevant literature review for comparing the findings.

3.3.1 Mongolian Consumers Perception

The result of research, most of consumers bought their computers from 1 to 24 months ago; it is about 66.1 of percents. Therefore about 70.8 % of consumers bought their computers from import means ordered from foreign countries and dealer that is kind of brand name electronic shop. In the research, most of respondents (53.5 %) obtained about computers information from their families, relatives and friends and televisions. So in Mongolian market, advertising has still more powerful that other promotion mix.

The most of Mongolian consumers purchased and used to **Dell** (America), **Acer** (Taiwan) and **Samsung** (Korea) computers brands. Therefore, computer industry is special factory and most consumers choose their qualities and brand name.

The most of respondents (80%) indicated when they were buying their computers, international brand affect their decisions. The result of research is Mongolian domestic Mogul brand just (1.7%) using so consumers don't know about Mogul.

Because Mogul brand the first time in Mongolian market, MCS Electronics had introduced fully automated computer factory line technology and manufactured in 2010.

In the result of research, Mongolian consumers indicated to international brands better design than domestic computer brands (63%). The international brand computers quality is better than domestic brand computers (70.9%). Consumers answered foreign computer brands celebrities to endorse than domestic brand computer (56.5%). Finally, respondents foreign computer brands easier to use than domestic brand computer result is not so high level (35.2%). Thus, Mongolian consumers perceptions are foreign computer brands that high quality and more design in the computer industry.

3.3.2 Attribute Importance

When making purchase decisions for computer, Mongolian consumers considered good quality as the most important attribute with low price and service support as being the second and the third most important attributes. In the rank of attributes guarantee policy is fourth. The good quality, low price, service support and guarantee policy are more important to purchase computer. Because computer is not anytime when buying things such as food and clothes. Most of consumers want to use long time when they decided to purchase to computer. For quality and price, similar result was found in Jargalsaihan (2002:23) study. The researchers noted that Mongolian consumers' behavior products quality and price are the most important attributes assessed when shopping. Besides, other researches also supported that price is the attribute most frequently used by consumers in evaluating the value of a product (Jargalsaihan. 2002; 32). More significantly, price can be important for the respondents of this study since they were received income not so high and it is not enough to their lives. Moreover, the amount of money most of them earned was to 300.000 from 500.000 tugrig per month (Table 3.4). Accordingly, the respondents had to be careful when spending money.

For quality, the result corresponds to the studies of Lang and Crown (1993) which pointed out that quality is important consideration when buying decisions for products.

Relative to other product attributes, brand name, official software and country-of-origin were generally of low importance.

Although, in the literature, brand name is well reported as an important extrinsic cue in assessing, the present study shows that for Mongolian consumers, brand name was not as significant as other attributes, particularly those of quality, price and services support.

For country-of-origin, the finding accords with past research (Johansson et al. 1989), which found that country-of-origin is generally ranked as being of significantly lower importance than quality and price (Elliott and Cameron, 1994). Nevertheless, when considering only country-of-origin, the majority of Mongolian respondents indicated that they paid attention to country of origin that where they made. These findings are supported by several authors' suggestions. As Piron (2000) believed, COO effects will remain and always color consumer's attitudes toward brands, but the effects are neither as important nor as powerful as in the past. Also, as stated by Kaynak et al. (2000), country-of-origin will hold its importance in developing countries for a long time.

3.3.3 Consumer Attitude towards Foreign versus Domestic Computer brand

Consumer attitude towards domestic computer and consumer attitude towards foreign computer exhibited statistically significant differences. Mongolian consumers used to have an overall more positive attitude towards foreign computers than domestic one. Because Mongolia has new Mogul brand computer that has introduced since 2010 and that is so fresh one. Most consumers don't use and don't know about domestic brand computer. Therefore, Mongolian markets have full foreign brand computers.

There are ten attributes that the respondents gave higher evaluations for foreign-made computer, namely good design, special functions, low price, case of use, good quality, plus accessories, guarantee policy, brand name, promotion and software programs, implying that Mongolian consumers favored imported computers over domestic computer for these attributes.

When ranking in an order of mean differences (from most different to least different), consumers considered foreign computers to be more desirable in the following manners: better quality, better brand name recognition, and better design. There has the most different four attributes for purchasing computer in Mongolian consumers.

There is just one attribute that is a service support, same as foreign brand computer and domestic brand computer purchasing.

Comparing this study to Dawagdorj (1998), even though the respondents were from different country (but still in Asia), the findings from this research supports their study that indicated Mongolian consumers thought foreign-made product even thought not food was better than Mongolia-made product in the attributes of care instruction first price, second product's design, and third services quality.

With regard to demographics, the results illustrate that consumers' gender, income and occupation variables were not significantly related to consumers' attitudes toward domestic made and foreign made computers. However, respondents ages were significantly related both attitudes of foreign made and domestic made computer. To some extent, the findings are contradictory to Wang and Heitmeyer (2006) who demonstrated that female and older people tend to have more positive attitude toward imported products.

3.3.4 Preferences for Country of Origin and Quality Judgments

The respondents expressed their preference of computer's country-of-origin as in the following pattern: Japan, America, Korea, Taiwan, Mongolia, Turkey and China.

In term of quality, computer made in America, Japan were rated as having highest quality, followed by Korea, Taiwan, Mongolia, Turkey and, lastly, China. These results show that Mongolian consumers tended to prefer product from more powerful and developing countries. One factor that may affect their choice is the perception of quality. Therefore Mongolian consumer purchasing computers **table 3. 13** indicated the most important attribute which is good quality.

As suggested by Wang and Chen (2004), consumers in a developing country tend to have preference for products originating in higher technologically - and economically-advanced countries if they judge the quality as better than that of products produced in a less-developed country.

Nes and Bilkey (1993) also found that products from developing and less-developed countries were rated lower on quality regardless of brand name. These suggestions correspond with the results of this study showing that the respondents judged the quality of American and Japan's computers higher than other computers. Additionally, these results also showed that country-of-origin may indeed act as a surrogate of quality.

3.3.5 Consumer Ethnocentrism and Mongolian Consumers

The present study suggests that Mongolian consumers were highly ethnocentric. Mongolia is the middle Asian country that has never been colonized. Apart from collectivism may be another reason why Mongolian consumers exhibited the high degree of ethnocentrism.

One reason of high ethnocentric, Mongolia is the 19th largest and the most sparsely populated independent country in the world, with a population of around 2.75 million people. Mongolia has rich mineral resources, and copper, coal, molybdenum, tin, tungsten, and gold account for a large part of industrial production. In March 2011, six big mining companies prepared to bid for the Tavan Tolgoi area, which is the world's largest untapped coking coal deposit.[4]. Thus, Mongolian people prefer their homeland because of foreign companies moving and globalization.

The results indicate that the ethnocentric tendencies of Mongolian consumers were not associated with their gender, age, income level, as well as their occupation.

The results concerning gender and age correspond to findings of many other studies (O'Cass, 2002; Wang, 1983), which posited that the impact of gender and age on ethnocentric tendency of people is insignificant.

For income level, the findings are inconsistent with Shimp and Sharma (1987) and Wang (1983). These researchers indicated that high-income consumers are normally found to react more favorably toward foreign products and thus, have lesser degree of consumer ethnocentric tendencies.

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[4] 22.12.2011 http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mongolia#Economy

3.3.6 Impact of Consumer Ethnocentrism on Attitude

Consumer ethnocentrism was found to be positively correlated to consumer attitude towards domestic computer brand. This implies that if consumers exhibit high degree of ethnocentrism, they are likely to have strong positive attitude towards domestic computer brand. At the same time, if consumers have low degree of ethnocentrism, their positive attitude towards domestic computer brand to be weak. The results were consistent with the proposition of Shimp and Sharma (1987) which stated that consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to attitude towards domestic products.

When considering the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitude towards foreign computer brands, negative correlation between them was found in this study. This is inconsistent with Shimp and Sharma's (1987) proposition, indicating that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively related to attitude towards foreign products. In the result of study, Mongolian consumers were high ethnocentrism, consumers' foreign computer brands' attitude was higher than domestic attitude.

These are perceived product necessity and perceived economic threat. The authors defined perceived product necessity as the extent to which consumers think that a foreign product is indispensable owing to its absolute necessity and hypothesized that the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on attitudes toward foreign products should be relatively stronger in the negative way for foreign products perceived as unnecessary (Sharma et al. 1995). This implies, for Mongolian consumers, computer products are perceived as necessary.

CONCLUSION

This study was designed to investigate perceptions and attitudes of consumers toward buying foreign versus domestic computer brand in Mongolia.

Consumers bought their computers from import means ordered from foreign countries and dealer that is kind of brand name electronic shop. In the research, most of respondents obtained about computers information from their families, relatives and friends and televisions. So in Mongolian market, advertising has still more powerful that other promotion mix.

In a purchase decision, the three most important computer attributes for Mongolian consumers were good quality, price and service support, whereas brand computer official software and country-of-origin were the least important attributes.

The brand that respondents buy most is Dell and then Acer, Samsung respectively. The analysis shows that international brand has affected to them to buy a computers. The analysis shows that the respondents mostly are in the level of "Agree" that the quality of international computers brands would be better and more durable than domestic brand even design would be better, easier to use and have more celebrities to endorse the brand than domestic brand.

Generally, Mongolian consumers had a more positive attitude towards imported computers over domestic computer brand. They perceived the attributes of good design, special functions, low price, good quality, case of use, plus accessories, guarantee policy, brand name, and promotions of foreign computers' brands as being better than those of domestic made. The three most preferred country-of-origin of computer for Mongolian consumers were Japan, America and Korea. Computers made in these countries were also rated as having highest quality. Accordingly, it can be concluded that Mongolian consumers had a higher tendency to purchase electronic products coming from technologically developed countries than developing and less developed countries.

The result of research is Mongolian domestic Mogul brand just (1.7%) using so consumers don't know about Mogul. Because Mogul brand the first time in Mongolian market, MCS Electronics had introduced fully automated computer factory line technology and manufactured in 2010.

For ethnocentrism, it can be concluded that, in a developing country, Mongolia in specific, where people normally had a more positive attitude towards foreign computer brand, consumer ethnocentrism would only have positive effect on consumer attitude towards domestic computer brand, so would have negative effect on consumer attitude towards foreign computers. There had no relative to attitude of foreign computer and ethnocentrism.

In addition, this study did not find significant difference between demographics that influence gender, occupation and monthly incoming for consumer attitude.

This research indicated with respondents' ages is significantly related to consumers' attitudes toward domestic and foreign computer brand, thus the respondents tended to have different attitude.

Moreover, no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and various demographics was found in this study.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A1 – Survey Questionnaire (English Version)

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. **Last time when did you buy computer (pc, notebook)?**

a. Before …….. days, months, years
b. No never bought it

PART 1: IMPORTANCE OF INTERNATIONAL BRAND

1. **Have you ever bought computer under international brand?**

a. Yes   b. No

 If Yes, Please specify brands ……………………………………….

2. **How much does "International Brand Name" affect your buying decision?**

 (a) Strongly affect   (b) Affect   (c) No affect

Table A1.1. Characteristics of Computer in International Brand in customer perception compared to domestic Brand[5]

	Disagree	Agree	Neutral
	1	**2**	**3**
1.International brands have more Neat design than domestic brands			
2.International brands have better quality than domestic brands			
3.International brand computers are easier to use than domestic brands			
4.International brands have more celebrities to endorse more than domestic brands			

PART 2: COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN

1. **What is your preferred country-of-origin of computers such as pc and notebook?** This is based on the assumption that products originating from them had similar attributes or features and were sold at the same price.

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[5] 04.05.2011.(www.pdffactory.com)

Please rank them in an order from 1 = the most preferred to 8 = the least preferred.

    a. Japan _____   b. Mongolia _____   c. Korea _____

    d. China _____   e. Taiwan _____   f. Turkey_____   g. America _____

2. **Please rate the overall quality of computer products from the following countries** (1 = low quality to 7 =high quality).

   Instruction: For each of the following statements, please circle one letter or fill in the blanks.

Table A1.2. Quality of Computer Products

	1 = low quality to 7 =high quality						
1. **Japan (Sony. Sharp, NEC, Panasonic, Toshiba)**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. **Mongolia (Mogul)**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. **Korea (Samsung, LG …)**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. **China(Gateway…)**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. **Taiwan (Acer, ASUS …)**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. **Turkey (Casper)**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. **America (HP, Dell, Apple, Packard Bell)**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART 3: ATTITUDE TOWARDS DOMESTIC BRAND COMPUTER VERSUS INTERNATIONAL BRAND COMPUTERS[6]

Instruction: For each of the following statements, please circle the number that indicates your attitude when buying computers from 1 = **very unlikely** to 7 = **very likely**.

Table A1.3. $(b_d)_i$ Belief Score of Domestic Brand Computer

How likely do you think it is that <u>domestic-brand</u> (Mogul) Use possesses the following attributes? $(b_d)_i$	1= very unlikely **to 7** = very likely**.**						
1. **Good design**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. **Special functions**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. **Service support**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. **Low price**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. **Case of use**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. **Good Quality**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. **Plus accessories**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. **Guarantee policy**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. **Brand name**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. **Promotions**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. **Computer official software**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Instruction: For each of the following statements, please circle the number that indicates your attitude when buying computers from 1 = **very unlikely** to 7 = **very likely**.

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[6] 06.04.2011.(www.pdffactory.com)

Table A1.4. $(b_f)_i$ Belief score of Foreign Brand Computer

How likely do you think it is that <u>foreign brand</u> computer Use possesses the following attributes? $(b_f)_i$	**1** = very unlikely **to 7** = very likely**.**						
1. Good design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Special functions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Service support	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Flexible price	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Case of use	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Good Quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Plus accessories	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Guarantee policy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Brand name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Computer official software	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Instruction: For each of the following statements, please circle the number that indicates your attitude when buying computers from 1 = **very unimportant** to 7 = **very important**.

Table A1.5. $(e)_i$ Consumers Evaluation Score of Buying Computer

How important each of following attributes is when you purchase computers? $(e)_i$	**1**= very unimportant **to 7** = very important**.**						
12. Good design	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Special functions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Service support	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Flexible price	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Case of use	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Good Quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Plus accessories	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Guarantee policy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Brand name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Promotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Computer official software	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Country-of-origin	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART 4: CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRIC TENDENCIES

Instruction: For each of the following statements, please circle the number that indicates your attitude from **1 = strongly disagree** to **7 = strongly agree**.

Table A1.6. Consumer Ethnocentrism[7]

Consumer Ethnocentrism	1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.						
1.Mongolian people should always buy Mongolian-made products instead of import	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.Only those products that are unavailable in Mongolia should be imported	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.Buy Mongolian-made product. Keep Mongolian working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.Mongolian products, first, last, and foremost	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Mongolian.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.It is not right to purchase foreign-made products because it puts Mongolian out of jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.A real Mongolian should always buy Mongolian –made products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.We should purchase products manufactured in Mongolian instead of letting other countries get rich off of us.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.It is not right best to purchase Mongolian products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from countries unless out of necessity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.Mongolian should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Mongolian business and causes unemployment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.Curbs should be very put on all imports.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.It may cost me in the long-run but I prefer to support Mongolian products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Mongolia	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.We should buy from foreign countries only those products we cannot obtain within our own country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.Mongolian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Mongolian out of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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[7] 06.04.2011.(www.pdffactory.com)

PART 5: COMPUTER BUYING DECISION

1. **Where did you buy computer from?**

(a)_____ Department store (…….., etc.)
(b)_____ second hand
(c)_____ import
(d)_____dealer (…. etc.)
(e)_____Internet
(f) Others (Pls. Specific) _____

2. **Where do you obtain information about computers before shopping?**

a. Family/Relative/Friend   b. Salesperson

c. Magazines, newspapers   d. Television

e. Websites   f. Sales catalogue

g. FM radio   h. Street walls   i. others ………….

PART 6: DEMOGRAPHICS

1. **Gender**:   a. Male   b. Female

2. Age

a.17 – 25   b.26 – 30   c.31 – 35
d.36 – 40   e. 41-50   f.51 and above

3. Education levels

a.Below secondary school   b. Secondary school

c.Diploma degree   d. Bachelor Degree

e. Masters or doctoral degree

4. Occupation

a. Government employee   b. Private Company employee

c. Non-government employee   d. Business Owner

e. Enterpriser (farmer, herdsman)   f. Unemployed

g. Student   h. Housewife

 i. Retired   j. Others

5. Monthly Income

a. Less than 300,000 t   b.300,001 – 500,000 t

c. 500,001 – 800,000 t   d. 800,001 – 1,000,000 t

e. 1,000,001 – 1,500,000 t   f.1,500,001 or more

Thank you for your time and cooperation

Appendix A2 - Survey Questionnaire (Mongolia Version)

ХЭРЭГЛЭГЧИЙН СУДАЛГАА

Та манай анкетын асуулганд бүрэн хариулж бидний ажилд туслалцаа үзүүлнэ гэдэгт найдаж байна.

Та болон танай гэр бүлийхэн хамгийн сүүлд хэзээ компьютер эсвэл notebook худалдан авсан вэ?

    a. …….. өдөр, сар, жилийн өмнө
    b. Худалдан авч байгаагүй

ХЭСЭГ 1: ГАДААД БРЭНД

1. **Та гадаад брэндийн компьютер худалдан авч байсан уу?**
   a.Тийм   b. Үгүй
    Хэрвээ Тийм бол брэндийн нэрийг бичнэ үү …………………

2. Олон улс дээрх брэндийн нэр хүнд таны худалдан авахад хэр нөлөөлсөн вэ?
  (a) Хүчтэй нөлөөлсөн   (b) Нөлөөлсөн   (c) Нөлөөлөөгүй

Хүснэгт A2.1. Гадаад брэндийн ба дотоод брэндийн талаарх хэрэглэгчийн ойлголт

	Зөвшөө рөхгүй байна.	Зөвшө өрч байна	Мэдэх гүй
1.Гадаад компьютерын брэнд дотоод брэндээс <u>илүү загвар</u> сайн.			
2.Гадаад компьютерын брэнд дотоод брэндээс <u>илүү чанар</u> сайтай.			
3. Гадаад компьютерын брэнд дотоод брэндээс <u>илүү ашиглахад хялбар</u>.			
4. Гадаад компьютерын брэнд дотоод брэндээс <u>илүү баталгаа сайтай</u>.			

ХЭСЭГ 2: COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN УЛС ОРНЫГ ЭРХЭМЛЭХ

1. Таны бодлоор компьютерын брэндийн хаана ямар улсад үйлдвэрлэсэн илүү чухалчилан сонголт хийх үү? Бусад хүчин зүйлс адилхан байхад та компьютер худалдан авах орноо сонголтоо дугаарлан уу? (*Сайн-1, Муу-7*)

a.Япон ＿＿＿　　　c. Солонгос ＿＿＿　　　e. Тайван ＿＿＿
в.Монгол ＿＿＿　　d. Хятад ＿＿＿　　　　f. Турк＿＿＿　　　　g. Америк＿＿＿

2. Та ямар оронд үйлдвэрлэсэн компьютерыг илүүд үзэх вэ? Та доорх орнуудын компьютерын чанарыг тоогоор илэрхийлнэ үү? (1 = бага чанартай - гаас 7 =өндөр чанартай).

Хүснэгт А2.2. Компьютерын чанар

	1 = чанар муутай –гаас 7 = өндөр чанартай						
1. Япон (Sony. Sharp, NEC, Panasonic, Toshiba	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Монгол (Mogul)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Солонгос (Samsung, LG …)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Хятад (Gateway…)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Тайван (Acer, ASUS …)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Турк (Casper)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Америк (HP, Dell, Apple, Packard Bell)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ХЭСЭГ 3: ГАДААДАД ҮЙЛДВЭРЛЭСЭН, ДОТООДОД ҮЙЛДВЭРЛЭСЭН КОМЬПЮТЕРЫН ХАНДЛАГА, ШИНЖ ЧАНАРУУДЫН ЯЛГАА

Хүснэгт А2.3. $(b_d)_i$ Дотоодод үйлдвэрлэсэн компьютерийн шинж чанар

1 - 7 өсөх дарааллаар тэмдэглэнэ үү?.　　1- маш муу　　7-маш сайн

Таны бодлоор дотоодод үйлдвэрлэсэн компьютерийн шинж чанар, онцлогуудыг тодорхойлбол: MOGUL pc and notebook $(b_d)_i$							
1. Гоёмсог (өвөрмөц) дизайн	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Тусгай үйлдлүүд (*тусгайлан гаргасан 1000 үсгийн монгол фонт г.м*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Засвар үйлчилгээ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Боломжийн үнэ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Ашиглахад хялбар (*recovery, эх хэл дээрх зааварчилгаа*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Сайн чанартай	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Нэмэлт тоноглолууд (*Карт уншигч, тв,фм тоглуулагч*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Үйлдвэрлэлийн баталгаат хугацаа	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Брэндийн нэр хүнд (*олонд тарсан байдал*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Нэмэлт урамшуулалууд (*үнэгүй интернэт, сугалаа*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Албан ёсны програм хангамж (*антивирус програм, оргиналь үйлдлийн систем*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Хүснэгт A2.4. $(b_f)_i$ Гадаадад үйлдвэрлэсэн компьютерийн шинж чанар

1 - 7 өсөх дарааллаар тэмдэглэнэ үү?.   1- маш муу   7-маш сайн

Таны бодлоор <u>гадаадад үйлдвэрлэсэн</u> компьютерийн шинж чанар, онцлогуудыг тодорхойлбол: .... pc and notebook $(b_f)_i$							
1. Гоёмсог (өвөрмөц) дизайн	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Тусгай үйлдлүүд	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Засвар үйлчилгээ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Боломжийн үнэ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Ашиглахад хялбар	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Сайн чанартай	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Нэмэлт тоноглолууд (*Карт уншигч, тв,фм тоглуулагч*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Үйлдвэрлэлийн баталгаат хугацаа	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Брэндийн нэр хүнд (*олонд тарсан байдал*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Нэмэлт урамшуулал (*албан ёсны нийлүүлэгчийн….*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Албан ёсны програм хангамж	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Хүснэгт A2.5. $(e)_i$ Компьютер худалдан авахад хүчин зүйлс

1 - 7 өсөх дарааллаар тэмдэглэнэ үү?.   1- маш чухал биш   7-маш чухал

Таны бодлоор <u>компьютер худалдан авахад</u> доорх хүчин зүйл хэр чухал вэ? $(e)_i$ *1 - Маш чухал биш 7- маш чухал*							
1. Гоёмсог (өвөрмөц) дизайн	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Тусгай үйлдлүүд (*тусгайлан гаргасан 1000 үсгийн монгол фонт г.м*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Засвар үйлчилгээ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Боломжийн үнэ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Ашиглахад хялбар (*recovery, эх хэл дээрх зааварчилгаа*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Сайн чанартай	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Нэмэлт тоноглолууд (*Карт уншигч, тв,фм тоглуулагч*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Үйлдвэрлэлийн баталгаат хугацаа	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Брэндийн нэр хүнд (*олонд тарсан байдал*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Нэмэлт урамшуулалууд (*үнэгүй интернэт, сугалаа*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Албан ёсны програм хангамж (*антивирус програм, оргиналь үйлдлийн систем*)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Ямар улсад үйлдвэрлэсэн болох	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ХЭСЭГ 5: ХЭРЭГЛЭГЧДИЙН ҮНДЭСНИЙ ҮЗЭЛ ХАНДЛАГА

Хүснэгт A2.6. Хэрэглэгчдийн үндэсний үзэл

1 - 7 өсөх дараалаар тэмдэглэнэ үү.

Хэрэглэгчдийн үндэсний үзэл	1= зөвшөөрөхгүй 7 = зөвшөөрнө.						
1. Монгол хүмүүс гадаадаас импортоор орж ирсэн бүтээгдэхүүнээс илүү Монголдоо үйлдвэрлэсэн бүтээгдэхүүнийг үргэлж худалдан авах хэрэгтэй.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Зөвхөн Монголдоо үйлдвэрлэх боломжгүй бүтээгдэхүүнүүдийг гадаадаас импортоор оруулж ирэх ёстой.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Монголд үйлдвэрлэсэн бүтээгдэхүүн худалдан авна гэдэг нь Монголын ажлын байрыг хадгалж байна гэсэн үг.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Монголын бүтээгдэхүүн нь эхнийх, эцсийнх ба үргэлж гэсэн үгээр тодорхойлж болно.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Гадаадад үйлдвэрлэсэн бүтээгдэхүүнийг худалдан авна гэдэг нь Монголыг үгүйсгэж байна гэсэн үг.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Гадаадад үйлдвэрлэсэн бүтээгдэхүүнийг худалдан авах нь буруу зүйл учир нь энэ нь Монголын ажилгүйдын төвшинд нөлөөлдөг.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Жинхэн Монгол хүн гэдэг нь үргэлж Монголд үйлдвэрлэсэн бүтээгдэхүүнийг худалдан авах хэрэгтэй.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Бид бусад орнуудыг биднээс илүү баян болгохын оронд Монгол дахь бүтээгдэхүүн үйлдвэрлэлийг нэмэгдүүлэхийн тулд худалдан авалт хийх хэрэгтэй .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Монголын бүтээгдэхүүнийг зөвхөн худалдан авах нь хамгийн зөв арга биш юм.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Хэрвээ хэрэгцээ байхгүй бол гадаадаас орж ирж буй бүтээгдэхүүний худалдаа бага мөнл худалдан авалт нь бага байх болно.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Монголчууд гадаадад үйлдвэрлэсэн бүтээгдэхүүнийг худалдан авахгүй байх хэрэгтэй яагаад гэвэл энэ нь Монголчуудын бизнесийг бууруулж мөн ажилгүйдлийн шалтгаан болдог.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Хязгаарлалт хийх нь бүх импортыг шахан гаргах боломжтой.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Урт хугацаанд магадгүй надад үнэлэгдэх хэдий ч би Монголын бүтээгдэхүүнийг дэмжин хөрөнгө оруулдаг.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Гадаад бүтээгдэхүүнийг бид өөрсдийн зах зээлд байршуулахыг зөвшөөрөхгүй байх ёстой.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Гадаад бүтээгдэхүүнүүд Монгол руу орж ирэхэд таксын хүнд дарамттай мөн хориг тавих хэрэгтэй.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Бид өөрийн улсад үйлдвэрлэж чадахгүй бүтээгдэхүүнүүдийг зөвхөн гадаад орнуудаас худалдан авах ёстой.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Монгол хэрэглэгчид бусад улсад үйлдвэрлэсэн бүтээгдэхүүнийг худалдан авна гэдэг нь Монголын ажилгүйдлыг нэмэгдүүлэхэд хариуцлага хүлээж байна гэсэн үг.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ХЭСЭГ 6: КОМПЬЮТЕР ХУДАЛДАН АВАХ ШИЙДВЭР ГАРГАХ ҮЙЛ ЯВЦ

1.Та компьютер хаанаас худалдан авсан вэ?

(a) Их дэлгүүрээс (……...............)

(b) Танидаг хүнээс, найзаасаа, хамаатан саднаасаа

(c) Гадаадаас авчирсан

(d) Нэрийн барааны дэлгүүр (…...................)

(e) Интернэтээр захиалж

(f) Бусад _____

2. Та компьютер худалдан авахдаа тухайн мэдээллийг хаанаас олж авсан вэ?

1 ээс илүү хариулт сонгох боломжтой

a. Гэр бүл/Хамаатан садан/Найз нөхөд   b. Худалдааны төлөөлөгч

c. Сэтгүүл, Сонин   d. Телевизийн зар сурталчилгаа

e. Websites   f. Танилцуулгаас

g. FM радио   h.Гудамжны гэрэлтүүлэг самбар

i. Бусад ....

ХЭСЭГ 7: ХУВИЙН МЭДЭЭЛЭЛ

1. **Хүйс**:   a. Эрэгтэй   b. Эмэгтэй

2. Таны нас:

a.17 – 25   b.26 – 30   c.31 – 35

d.36 – 40   e. 41-50   f.51 түүнээс дээш

3. Таны боловсрол:

a. Бүрэн дунд бус   b. Бүрэн дунд

c. Тусгай буюу техник мэргэжлийн дунд   d. Дээд

e. Магистр, доктор

4. Таны ажил эрхлэлтийн байдал

a. Төрийн байгууллагад   b. Хувийн хэвшлийн байгууллагад

c. Төрийн бус байгууллагад   d. Хувиариа хөдөлмөр эрхэлдэг

e. Туслах аж ахуй эрхэлдэг (*Мал аж ахуй, газар тариалан*) f.Ажилгүй

g. Суралцдаг   h. Тэтгэвэрт байдаг

i. Гэрийн ажилтай   j. Бусад _____

5. Таны сарын орлого:

a. 0- 300,000 т   b.300,001 – 500,000 т

c. 500,001 – 800,000 т   d. 800,001 – 1,000,000 т

e. 1,000,001 – 1,500,000 т   f. 1,500,001 түүнээс дээш

Цаг зав гаргаж судалгаанд оролсон таньд баярлалаа

CURRICULUM VITAE

Yanjindulam TUVD was born in 19 September 1980 in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. She was graduated to "Ireedui Tsogtsolbor" high school in 1998. She was graduated to Business Administration in Marketing Management of Computer Science and Management School in Mongolian University of Science and Technology in 2004.

She is still student of Master Science of Marketing Management in Sakarya University.