

Consumer interest in purchasing products made in-country vs. imported products & its
relationship with consumer ethnocentrism

by

Ryan Scott Kroll

B.A., University of Kansas, 2011
MBA., Lake Forest Graduate School of Management, 2016

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Food, Nutrition, Dietetics, Health
College of Health and Human Sciences

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2025

Abstract

With the rise of a global economy, instead of marketing to national consumers, companies sought to create international marketing plans as a way for consumers in other nations to experience a slice of life from their country of origin. With the click of a button, the demand for products such as Levi's and Coca-Cola grew, and consumers now had the option to purchase international or domestic products. While some consumers openly accepted the variety of international products, others rejected them, sometimes with ethnocentric tendencies, finding it unpatriotic to support an international brand. To investigate the relationship between country of origin and ethnocentrism, an online survey was developed for thirteen countries, to capture consumers' interest and cost value on purchasing ten different food and beverage products. The purpose of this research is to investigate whether the relationship between country of origin and ethnocentrism exists with specific products or countries.

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Abstract

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Dedication

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Chapter 1 - Literature Review

Throughout history, by means of cultural values, political efforts, and education, each country has aimed to impart a sense of national identity and patriotism to its citizens. Patriotism, intended to instill feelings of pride and gratitude for one's country, has often been viewed as a moral pride associated with people's recognition of their nation's unique identity in the world context. Patriotism might stem from military strength, economic prowess, inventiveness, technological achievements, humanitarianism, aesthetic representations, or cultural achievements. In its extreme sense, the moral attitude of patriotism became a moral conviction characterized by the belief in the superiority of one's nation over all others, which is then termed nationalism. Nationalism can guide behavior and dictate beliefs of superiority – those beliefs can, in turn, affect everything from economic policy, consumer behavior, and attitudes toward peoples, places, and products originating in other countries.

The rise of nationalism in the 1980s in countries like Yugoslavia raised questions over the morality of patriotism and nationalism. Oldenquist (1982) argued that patriotism stemmed from various loyalties, rather than moralities, and saw it as a force that influenced people's biased perceptions about comparative politics and membership in communities. Hofstadter (1981) noted that "it is our fate as a nation not to have ideologies, but to be one." This is a significant shift: instead of being proud because of one's national achievements, one is proud that their nation is simply *better* than another nation. Nationalism becomes associated with domination.

In the twentieth century, patriotism was often the deciding factor in geopolitical alliances. Two world wars and a series of lesser global conflicts were fought along patriotic beliefs, with citizens of various nations perceiving themselves as "good" and enemies as "evil." In the

aftermath of World War II, advertising often focused on patriotic ideals. When the digital revolution created a new conception of globalism, patriotism and nationalism became targets of reform-minded social scientists. Altikulak (2016) notes that, while the ultimate goal of teaching social studies is to raise “good citizens,” there is concern that the current emphasis on instilling “patriotic” ideals and raising “Patriot Citizens” should be revised to raise “global citizens and communitarians.” Globalism rather than nationalism is prized by advocates of a world society in which political, social, and economic opportunity exist and national barriers be torn down. Technology has also facilitated the transcendence of national boundaries, with customer service operations and call centers located thousands of miles away from consumers and multinational component are incorporate in “domestic vehicles and other platforms.

Given this shift from patriotism to globalism, it is unsurprising that economies experienced a historic shift. In the twentieth century, one element of practical patriotism was demonstrated by purchasing domestic goods, based on the popular cultural belief of their innate superiority and the understanding that purchasing domestic goods had a positive effect on the country's well-being. Marketing campaigns like Chevrolet's “See the USA first!” underscored the belief that American scenery, like American products, was superior to any other scenery in the world, and what better way to see it than through the windshield of an American automobile. American winemakers sought to create niches in the American wine market, which had previously been dominated by European vintners and wine merchants. Fifty years ago, when gasoline prices at the pump tripled, renewed calls for American energy independence created a new nationalism as public and private sources sought ways to free domestic consumers from foreign oil producers in the wake of the OPEC energy crisis of 1973. Tariffs protected both

domestic agriculture and industries, making it difficult for foreign producers to compete successfully with domestic producers.

In the newly-created global economy, instead of marketing to national consumers as they had done in the past, producers sought to create international marketing plans. At first, producers advertised their products as ways for consumers in other nations to experience a slice of life in the country of origin. The global demand for Levi's jeans, Big Macs, and Coca-Cola is an example of that strategy. Then, producers established partnerships with companies in other nations with the hope of integrating their goods successfully into those countries' cultural landscape through the host nations' brand reputation. Members of the European Union voted to standardize their currency in the hope of making it easier for foreign consumers to participate in their economies and boost domestic profits. Economic trade agreements became important components in international diplomacy as corporations applied leverage to their political leaders and sought to capture more of the world's spending capital. Some of these efforts were extremely successful; others failed miserably.

The current belief about successful global marketing focuses on the concept of convergence. Boorstin (1978) stated that the supreme law of our modern age is "convergence, the tendency for everything to become more like everything else;" it is the standardization of values, products, and ideals that leads marketers to create a "one size fits all approach to marketing." Red Bull, an Austrian company that has become so Americanized that many Americans assume it is an American brand, found that it could capture global audiences by sponsoring crowd events like the Red Bull Indianapolis Grand Prix in America, the Red Bull Air Race in the United Kingdom, and the Red Bull Soapbox Race in Jordan. Dunkin Donuts, an American chain that successfully launched a global marketing campaign, found that it could alter

its offerings to suit national consumer tastes; the chain offers a mango chocolate donut in Lebanon, a grapefruit coolata drink in Korea, a pork and seaweed donut in China, and a “Dunklair” in Russia. Similarly, Domino’s Pizza, another American chain, found that it could keep its crust and cheese ingredients intact (except in China) and simply change toppings to suit local tastes: seafood in Asia, spiced vegetables in the Middle East, and curry in India. By tailoring its offerings to local preferences, these companies found ways to sell successfully in cultures that usually do not crave American food.

Okigbo, Martin, and Amienyi (2005) found that American cultural values are reflected in global liquor advertising, suggesting that convergence has not taken over all advertising strategies. Mitry and Smith (2009) described standardized marketing strategies and global consumer products as “drivers of cultural change” and note that cultural convergence “is the direct result of the rapid growth of mass communications and marketer’s use of the media to promote product identity with perceived desirability.” Mueller and Taylor (2013) found that convergence is responsible for the ongoing “standardization vs. specialization debate” that concerns global marketers.

Levitt (1983) describes a new commercial reality: the end of the multinational corporation that tailored goods to different markets in favor of a globalized corporation that offers a standardized, low-priced, functional and reliable product instead. Well-managed companies have moved from emphasis on customizing items to offering globally standardized products that are advanced, functional, reliable—and low priced. “Multinational companies that concentrated on idiosyncratic consumer preferences have become befuddled and unable to take in the forest because of the trees.” Long-term success will be attained when globalized companies concentrate “on what everyone wants rather than worrying about the details of what

everyone thinks they might like.” This demonstrates the need for accurate and targeted research to better understand consumer preferences in each nation companies intend to serve. Kenworthy (1978) examined the convergence thesis by studying developments in the seventeen richest industrialized nations from 1960 to 1994 and found some indication of limited convergence, concluding that this is due partly to the fact that globalization has limited abilities to generate convergence. Instead, consumer preference seemed to be the driving force in global purchasing trends.

The importance of consumer attitudes towards products and classes of products in determining purchase behavior is well established. Knight (1999) studied consumer preference for manufactured goods and found a preference for domestic goods unless there was a perception that the imported goods were of a significantly higher quality. Surprisingly, no evidence arose that a domestic product’s importance to the domestic economy influenced the consumer decision. This is significant since it has long been held that consumers identified certain products with nationalism.

Ethnocentrism is the act of judgment: evaluating other cultures and believing that one’s own culture, values, and standards are superior (the “ingroup”). Neuliep and McCroskey (1997) designed an evaluation instrument termed the General Ethnocentrism Scale (GENE) to assess an individual’s belief that her or his own cultural group is the center of everything, and all other cultural groups should be judged based on her or his group. Using 22 like-dislike statements, of which 15 are scored on a five-point range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), the measure has an Alpha reliability of .92 and is considered a “reliable and valid operationalization of ethnocentrism.”

The term “consumer ethnocentrism” represents the belief one has about the appropriateness of purchasing products made in foreign countries (the “outgroup”). From the perspective of ethnocentric consumers, purchasing products not made in their own country is wrong because, in their minds, it takes jobs and profit away from people in their own country, which negatively effects their economy and is viewed as unpatriotic (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Consumer ethnocentrism gives the individual a sense of identity and a feeling of acceptance; understanding degrees of ethnocentric behavior gives researchers insight into the purchasing behaviors that are acceptable or unacceptable to any given “ingroup”. The challenge, then, for researchers is to identify the qualities of each national “ingroup” in order to create a successful marketing plan.

In 1987, Shimp and Sharma studied consumer ethnocentrism and developed an instrument termed the Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CETSCALE). The purpose of the CETSCALE was to measure the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers from the USA when it came to purchasing foreign versus American-made products. It is important to note that Shimp and Sharma emphasized that their scale measures tendencies and not attitude. This is because attitude suggests a greater degree of object specificity than the CETSCALE is intended to capture (Shimp and Sharma 1987). Attitude is used more appropriately as a reference to consumers’ feelings toward a specific object. On the other hand, tendency captures more the general act consumers will take, resulting in a purchase or a refusal. The CETSCALE was originally developed to help researchers “...to measure consumer’s ethnocentric tendencies related to purchasing foreign- versus American-made products” (Shimp and Sharma 1987). After several refinements, the CETSCALE question range was adjusted from 225 statements for consideration to the current number of 17; results of four different reliability studies showed that

reliability of the CETSCALE was very high for measuring consumers' ethnocentric tendencies. Another 10-item scale was used during the "national consumer good study" performed by Shimp and Sharma, termed the Revised Ethnocentrism Scale, in which an alpha reliability estimates in the range of .80 and .90 can be expected in most cases. Today, the CETSCALE can be used to describe the ethnocentric tendencies of any country. While there is significant value in numeric data and analytics to prove or disprove a hypothesis, it is also important to consider the current events that may be influencing the purchasing decisions and subsequent data.

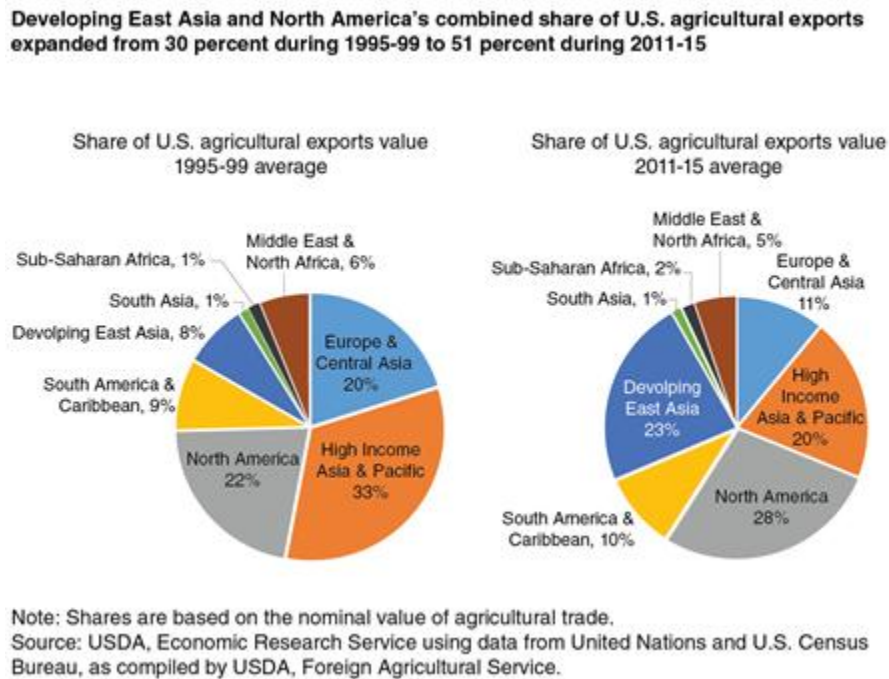
LeVine and Campbell (1972) found a strong connection between current events, cultural bias, and patriotism/nationalism and consumer behavior. The bias of consumers towards domestic goods offers a vital clue to strategies of global corporations. Extensive debates and movements on this issue argue that it has a moral side as well. Agbonifoh and Elimimian (1999) studied Indian consumer behavior, focusing on consumption of domestic versus foreign goods, and found that Indian consumers display a marked tendency toward ethnocentrism in their purchasing behavior – one that matches levels found in the United States and other fully-developed countries. What is particularly noteworthy is that "ethnocentrism in Indians does not vary significantly with the selected levels of education, age and gender." Aware that limited scholarly data on Russian consumer preference exists, Durvasula, Andrews, and Netemeyer (1997) studied ethnocentric patterns in Russia and the US and found that, contrary to popular opinion, Russian consumers have a favorable attitude toward purchasing imported goods. In part, this is due to the limited availability of comparable domestically-produced goods.

Consumer behavior is often affected by access to foreign products. Jouanjean, Maur, and Shephard (2015) provide evidence that "domestic political economy considerations may influence the decision to grant market access to foreign producers" through the use of the US

phytosanitary restrictions. These restrictions control market access for fruit and vegetable products from other countries in an effort to meet health and plant protection objectives. Governments can limit access through legal trade barriers like protective tariffs, which place financial duties (taxes) on imported products. Tariffs are meant to bolster domestic access to consumer dollars while making it prohibitively expensive for outside corporations to compete. In the new global economy, member nations are encouraged to eliminate protective tariffs to promote access to their economies by international suppliers.

Zahniser, Beckman, and Heerman (2018) noted that there have been significant improvements in world access to agricultural goods: “between 1995 and 2014, world agricultural trade more than tripled in nominal terms (not adjusted for inflation) and nearly doubled in real terms (adjusted for inflation).” Much of this change was caused by two factors: a “more than 25-percent increase in the world’s population” and a roughly “75-percent increase in the real size of the world’s economy.” The authors go on to cite “falling trade barriers and technological advances in agricultural production, transportation, information, and communications” as improvements in the global access for agricultural markets for American producers and consumers. The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) between The United States, Mexico, and Canada opened up markets for American goods at attractive price points in the two biggest foreign markets in close proximity to the USA; the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) credits increased income and government assistance programs for record boosts in agricultural production in Russia, China, India, and Indonesia. The following table illustrates the changing international marketplace for US agricultural goods from 1995 – 2015:

Figure 1.1. Developing East Asia and North America's combined share of U.S. agricultural exports expanded from 30 percent during 1995-99 to 51 percent during 2011-15



In 1993, a year before the NAFTA agreement was signed, European Union countries transformed their free trade area into a common market. Zahniser, Beckman, and Heerman (2018) found that the EU common market promoted member consumption of one another's agricultural products through "free internal movement of not only goods but also people, services, and capital.; as of June 2017, 279 separate bilateral or regional trade agreements covering trade in goods and services had been notified (officially reported) to the WTO and were in force." Given this newly-created freedom of access, it fell to international companies to accurately perceive the consumer preferences in each country they wanted to successfully penetrate and also consider the degree of ethnocentrism that was present in each nation.

In 1992, the European Union (EU) approved the Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) for its members, designed to regulate domestic agricultural products, liquor, and food of member countries. Using UV absorbance spectroscopy, food inspectors can verify where agricultural

products were grown. This relatively-simple technology is readily available and assists regulatory institutions in their work. If widespread acceptance of PDO labeling is achieved, it will greatly assist consumer choices.

PDO is designed to promote transparency and give consumers greater, more well-informed choices when products from several different origin countries are available to choose from. M.J. Martelo-Vidal, M. Vázquez, (2016) describe the Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) as an authentication tool for vegetables, fruits, juices, olive oils, alcoholic beverages, honeys, and coffee, that helps prevent fraudulent marketing of these goods to different nations whose consumers might not select goods from certain countries based on their cultural values and ethnocentrism. Currently, a non-EU country of origin must voluntarily agree to include PDO labeling on its products; there is no legal compunction to do so. As in the case of Country of Origin Labeling (COOL), more widespread acceptance is needed in order to create universal compliance. This, then, is the context for the current study where we assess a country's ethnocentric tendencies towards other countries and food products from those other countries.

Quality is a prime mover in consumer behavior. The perception of one product's superiority over another product, regardless of origin, can influence purchasing to a great degree. Rahman (2012) studied consumer preference in Pakistan to determine if there was a marked preference for domestic or imported goods and found that consumers "perceive quality of local products higher than imported ones and intend to purchase and own local products more often." Nijssen, Douglas, and Bressers (2002) investigated consumer ethnocentrism in Dutch markets by comparing preference for German automobiles (a product that has no Dutch alternative) and German televisions (a product with a highly-regarded Dutch alternative: Philips). The researchers found that the absence of an alternative, feelings of animosity, and likelihood of

foreign travel influenced Dutch consumer behavior, with the perceived lack of a domestic alternative having significant influence on buying behavior. In another study, after examining consumer preferences in Asia, Han (1994) concluded that consumer patriotism plays a much greater role in consumer decision-making than previously thought; prior assumptions that cognition (empirical quality) was the dominant factor in consumer decision-making appeared to be incorrect.

Torrico and Fuentes, et.al., (2019) examined the sensory preferences of Western and Asian food consumers and found that Asians and Westerners differed in their familiarity scores and visual liking of foods. Asian participants had neutral to negative emotions toward familiar foods while Western participants expressed positive emotions toward familiar foods. Cultural differences and familiarity affected the liking of the tasted products. Asians preferred higher temperatures when tasting than Westerners. These insights can help food purveyors develop menus and prepared offerings that will be palatable to different consumer groups, thereby maximizing consumer satisfaction by delivering the type/taste/temperature, and variety that are likely to meet approval.

In their comparative study of consumer preference, Gurhan-Canli, and Maheswaran (2000), asked consumers in the United States and Japan to evaluate mountain bikes based on quality reviews and country of origin. Japanese consumers preferred the domestic product regardless of quality determinations, while US consumers based their purchasing preference on quality reviews rather than country of origin, demonstrating that consumer preference for domestic/imported products is not uniform across the global market, but reflects historic and cultural bias for/against other nations.

Consumer preference and national consumer protection led to Country of Origin Labeling, or COOL. COOL is a labeling law that “requires retailers, such as full-line grocery stores, supermarkets and club warehouse stores, to notify their customers with information regarding the source of certain foods.” COOL was necessitated by consumers’ desire to know the origin of foods they would purchase and consume; an example would be Americans’ desire to know whether the chicken they were purchasing originated in America or another country, like China or Japan. The current debate over mandatory COOL is backed by American food producers’ belief that Americans will prefer domestically-produced meat, poultry, fruits, and vegetables over foreign goods of the same type, while other nations, such as Canada, feel that COOL unfairly inhibits Canadian producers’ ability to compete in North American markets. Studies of ethnocentrism among American consumers for Canadian products versus Chinese or American products will help determine whether Canadian producers are indeed being unfairly affected; if no adverse consumer ethnocentrism exists, it will support Canadian allegations. Consumer preferences are influenced by attitudes that often stem from feelings of identity. National identity has become an important factor for consideration when marketing products in the global economy. This study will examine those behaviors.

Chapter 2 - Methodology

1.0 Introduction

In order to better understand consumers' interest in and preference for products originating from other countries, it is important to also comprehend their overall feelings and impressions toward those countries, including their perceptions of peoples, cultures, and products (Knight 1999). This consumer preference information is critical for companies trying to effectively position their products and services to gain competitive entry into other countries and increase their global market exposure. This data is also valuable to consumer researchers and sensory scientists, as it helps to better understand how similar products originating from different countries are perceived by transnational consumers.

Extensive research has been conducted to examine international consumers' ethnocentric tendencies toward products or services from their own country or other countries. Examples include Gurhan-Canli, and Maheswaran (2000), asking consumers in the United States and Japan to evaluate mountain bikes, based on quality reviews and country of origin. Japanese consumers preferred the domestic product regardless of quality determinations, while US consumers based their purchasing preference on quality reviews rather than country of origin, demonstrating that consumer preference for domestic/imported products is not uniform across the global market, but reflects historic and cultural bias toward/against other nations. Additionally, Nijssen, Douglas, and Bressers (2002) investigated consumer ethnocentrism in Dutch markets by comparing preference for German automobiles (a product that has no Dutch alternative) and German televisions (a product with a highly-regarded Dutch alternative: Philips). They found that the absence of an alternative, feelings of cultural animosity, and likelihood of foreign travel influenced consumer behavior, with the perceived lack of a domestic alternative having significant influence on buying behavior. While there has been research done comparing two or three countries consumer preference and ethnocentric tendencies, there is a limited amount of research broadly sampling consumers from many different countries. The objective of this research is to explore consumer preference from thirteen different countries to understand ethnocentric tendencies regarding food and beverage products that originate from different countries based on purchase interest and value. Additionally, the study seeks to explore the degree of ethnocentric tendencies among consumers from the sampled nations.

1.1.0 Section One: Products Selection Process

Early discussions suggested that a total of ten different food and beverage products would be selected for each country to evaluate. No products would be served/sampled, but rather evaluated conceptually based on each specific product's country of origin. Among the ten selected products, five consistent products would be evaluated for respondents from all 13 countries. This was decided with the intention of evaluating these five products performances across all the countries. These five products needed to be agreed upon, to the best of possibilities, by the 13 countries' participating researchers. For the remaining five products, each country was permitted to select any food products they wished to evaluate: consensus among the 13 countries' researchers was not required for the selection of the remaining five products, though discussions and input from other researchers were encouraged.

The lead researchers compiled a list of ten products to propose to the other researchers and discuss which five products they would select for all 13 countries to use. The ten options were coffee, chicken, sweet cookies, oranges, snack chips, rice, nuts, cooking oil, onions, and chocolate. These ten products were selected to diversify the types of food and beverages evaluated and to avoid repetition of any items that could fall into the same product category. Additionally, product identification terminology was intentionally left generalized rather than specific terms; for example, "chicken," rather than "chicken wings", "chicken breast," "chicken thighs," etc. This was necessitated by the fact that while each country may consume these products, the variability of common or popular variants of each product differs. For example, according to Mordor (2022), palm oil is one of the most distributed cooking oils in the world with the primary users consisting of China, India, Indonesia, and the European Union (EU), as well as in other countries such as Brazil. In contrast, soybean oil is the most common type of cooking oil used in the US. It's for reasons such as this as to why generalized terms were used so no product was alienated by any particular country.

Each country researcher's rationale for selecting their five preferred products consisted of interest in research/results, production availability of the product within their own country, and frequency of consumption. Consequently, five common products ranked in order of popularity from a majority of the countries were selected. The final list included coffee, chicken, cooking oil, chocolate, and onions. The following sections further support to the selection of the five common products.

1.2.0 Chocolate

In the 2022-2023 cocoa production season, the world produced nearly five million tons of chocolate. Most cocoa is grown in West Africa, where Ivory Coast and Ghana produce over half of the world's production. Two-thirds of the world's cocoa is processed in the European Union. Around the world, chocolate consumption takes on different forms: bitter chocolate flavorings in Mexico, Italian gelato, Japanese sake, sweet pralines in Belgium, and earthy flavors in Africa. Artisanal chocolatiers have become very selective of the ripeness of chocolate, selling rotten cocoa to mass manufacturing and reserving pristine, ripe cacao for chocolate products that command premium prices. During the Covid-19 pandemic, chocolate exports suffered from supply chain disruptions caused by extreme health and social measures. Global warming is also affecting the world's chocolate supply, with yields in some countries declining as much as 4.8 percent.

While the global chocolate market and supply chain were impacted by COVID-19 during the start of 2020, the market did become more stable post the relaxation of restrictions for both importing and exporting between countries. During this time, there was a steep increase of consumers' in-home consumption of chocolates during the lockdown where chocolates, among other consumables, were bought in bulk in supermarkets and hypermarkets.

According to Mordor (2022), the premium sector of the global chocolate market was severely impacted by low sales during the COVID-19 pandemic due to supply-side issues linked to quality and certification. While this may be the case, consumers have shown strong interest in and preference toward premium chocolates in most countries. Premium chocolates are mostly purchased from supermarkets and hypermarkets because of the attraction of unique variants being offered from different parts of the world, the appeal of in-store promotions, and confidence in quality consistency. Additionally, consumers are willing to pay higher prices for higher quality chocolates that are perceived to be better and more nutritious. For example, in Europe, recent sales of chocolate have been negatively impacted due to increased health concerns about rising levels of obesity and new nutrition recommendations. In response, chocolate manufacturers are offering premium chocolate options to consumers seeking higher quality and healthier chocolate.

In 2020, the chocolate market saw a slight preference towards dark chocolate variants for its heightened health benefits, lower calories, and the new perception about and preference for premium options, as stated in Mordor (2022).

In a 2020 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations Statistic (FAOSTAT, 2021) review Germany (906,312 tons), Belgium (651,393 tons), Netherlands (413,557 tons) are the top 3 countries on export quantity of chocolate products. Following in fourth position, Poland, one of the 13 countries to take part in this research, exported 410,607 tons of chocolate product in 2020. The United States of America, ranking 9th place, exported 277,663 tons in 2020.

According to Mordor (2022), chocolate is a global product that benefits from the impulse buying phenomenon. Consumers report having no intent to buy chocolate and other confectionaries while shopping. With strategic displays in prominent places within shops and pop-up ads for chocolate appearing on online stores websites, consumers become attracted and subsequently impulse buy and indulge their desire for immediate gratification. Rising income levels and changing lifestyles are also key factors contributing to these impulse purchases, providing both adults and children instant gratification despite their economic situation. Color and packaging have also played important roles in consumer purchases of chocolate. With the consumers' perspective changing, manufacturers have adapted to invest greatly on product design and labeling. For stimulating purchases of chocolate, purple has been ranked as the most influential color, followed by red and blue. Additionally, a main reason for chocolate consumption is the emotional impact it can have on the consumer. When one is under emotional stress, chocolate can provide positive effects on mood by releasing endorphins, making the consumer feel happy and pleasure.

European consumers have placed the greatest emphasis on quality of chocolates, largely in part of the increasing health concerns involving cheaper chocolates in the region and a surge in popularity of fine cocoa. As a result, consumers in the European region are willing to pay more for chocolate products that meet their criteria. This shift in European consumers perception towards high quality chocolate is a major factor driving the chocolate market in the region. Seasonal demand also plays a key role in the sales of premium chocolates, with companies launching a wide selection of chocolates during occasions such as Easter and Christmas.

1.3.0 Cooking Oil

As of 2025, the global cooking oil market is driven primarily by the demand from consumers for organic, health-based products. This is in part by health-conscious individuals wanting to consume high-quality oils/cooking oils through a variety of different product categories such as confectionery/candies. Refined olive and coconut oils are increasingly being used in bakery applications as they are minimal in taste and allow the foods being made to maintain their original flavors (Mordor 2022). Palm oil is one of the most distributed cooking oils in the world, with primary users including China, India, Indonesia, and the European Union. These countries do not produce crude palm oil, and the demand is entirely met by imports, which amplified significantly, with almost the entire supply demand coming from Malaysia and Indonesia. The US department of Agriculture states that palm oil imports were 47.56 million metric tons during the current year, which is higher than previous year's imports which were 47.21 million metric tons. While palm oil is the most distributed cooking oil in the world, the associated large-scale deforestation is restricting palm oil's application in varied food sectors as consumers are becoming more aware of the damages being caused to the environment. Asia-Pacific accounts for the largest share of the global vegetable oil market and it is the second fastest growing region. In Asia-Pacific, China holds the largest share of vegetable oil consumption as well as production.

Cooking oil is a plant, animal, or synthetic liquid fat commonly used for frying and baking, as well as they transport heat, keep food from sticking to cooking vessels, and dissolve and carry flavors from other ingredients in our food. Research shows that the market demand for cooking oil is driven largely by the demand for organic health-based products. Consumers who are health conscious are increasing consumption of high-quality edible oils/cooking oils that are significantly lower in saturated fats and add fewer calories to meals. There is also a growing demand to use these healthier alternative options for various applications such as in the production of candies and other confectionery, which can similarly reduce caloric intake.

Refined oils such as olive and coconut are increasingly being used in various bakery applications. This is largely in part to their bland taste, which allows for the food being prepared to maintain its original flavor. Additionally, these oils do not exhibit any strong aromas. The demand for non-GMO cooking has also allowed for this segment to be catered to consumers, as

it has augmented the shares of sunflower oil, coconut oil, and olive oil. Other leading oil segments include palm oil, canola oil, and soybean oil (Mordor 2022).

According to Mordor (2022), palm oil is one of the most distributed cooking oils in the world, with the primary users including China, India, Indonesian, and the European Union. Interestingly, India, China, and the European Union do not produce crude palm oil and their demand is entirely met by imports. The demand for palm oil also comes from other various end-users across the world because it is 20% less in cost compared to most other cooking oils. Additionally, palm oil is also versatile. The production of palm oil grew significantly during the late 2010s with almost the entire demand being supplied by Malaysia and Indonesia. The increased demand of biofuel in most developed regions has augmented the demand for palm oil.

The Asia-Pacific region accounts for the largest global share of the vegetable oil market and it is the second fastest growing region. When it comes to fish oil consumption, Asia-Pacific has become the dominant market largely in part to the massive concentration of the aquaculture industry in China, India, Vietnam, and Indonesia, as stated by Mordor (2022).

Rising health concerns among consumers have also led to increased demand and usage of fish oil as a nutritional supplement in developed countries such as Japan and Australia. Aside from fish oil, consumption of olive oil has increased the most, due mostly to its health benefits. China holds the largest share of vegetable oil consumption as well as production. According to Mordor (2022), while the production volume of vegetable oil may be high, consumption is even higher, which results in higher import volumes when compared to export volumes, making China an import-oriented country.

Covid-19 moderately impacted the cooking oil market, experiencing a slow growth during. This was in part by complete lockdown conditions which resulted in disruptions in distribution networks making edible oil refiners struggle to sell their finished goods. The shutting down of restaurants, hotels, and other establishments may have also contributed to the decrease demand for cooking oil.

1.4.0 Onions

About 170 countries in the world produce onions for domestic use, while some also grow onions for global trade. China, India, and the United States are the world's leading countries for producing onions. According to World Atlas (2017), China is the leading producer of onions in

the world, producing 20,507,759 metric tons, and the farmers are constantly experimenting with new techniques for cultivation and as a result onion production with the country has increased.

India, the second largest producer of onions are famous for their strong flavor. According to World Atlas (2017), in India, onions are grown in two crop cycles, the first harvest between November and January and the second harvest from January to May.

The United States, the third leading onion producing nation in the world, produce about 6.2 billion pounds on onions. California, Idaho-Eastern Oregon, and Washington are the top three US states that produce onions.

In 2021, the growth of the onion product market significantly changed compared to 2020. This is largely in part of the progress of COVID-19. At the start of the COVID-19 pandemic, many strict lockdown regulations for imports and exports greatly impacted the growth and sales of consumer goods, onions included. For example, India imposed an export ban on domestic onions, which immediately resulted in a higher demand for onions by other countries. According to Market Watch (2022), one of these countries was the Netherlands, which saw the India export ban as an opportunity to sell the oversupply of red onions they produced.

Onions are very popular globally and is a vegetable used in most parts of the world, either as an ingredient to a dish or eaten raw. Onions are available in three varieties; yellow/brown, red, and white. Being made up of 89% water, onions are also made up of sugar, protein, fiber, and low amounts of essential nutrients. According to World Atlas (2017), the onion can enhance the flavor to the food it is combined with without raising the caloric content of the dish.

1.5.0 Coffee

Coffee is the most popular and consumed brewed drink prepared from roasted coffee beans. Countries like Brazil and Vietnam are responsible for the highest production of coffee. With the production of 3.6 billion metric ton of green coffee, Brazil is the largest producer globally, followed by Vietnam, Colombia, Indonesia, and Ethiopia (Businesswire 2021). In 2020, the global coffee market was valued at 102.02 billion USD and is projected to see a 4.28% growth during 2021-2026 (Mordor 2022). Geographically, the coffee market covers countries in the North America, Europe, Asia-Pacific, South America, Middle East, and Africa. The main markets that import and consume coffee are in Europe, North America, and Asia. In regards to distribution channels, coffee segmented as on-trade and off-trade. The off-trade channels include

super/hyper markets, convenient stores, specialty retailers, and others. The coffee market is segmented by product type, distribution channel, and geography. It is also a market driven by multiple factors, including demand for certified coffee products, the acceptance of single-serve coffee brew systems by consumers, and the constant innovation by top leaders in the coffee market.

For product type in this research, coffee is segmented into whole-bean, ground coffee, instant coffee, and coffee pods/capsules. The convenient forms of coffee are becoming popular among the masses, especially in North America and Western Europe. This is largely in part by consumers wanting to prepare good coffee in the comfort of their homes, in less time. By the other hand, a survey conducted by the National Coffee Association in the United States showed that more than 70% of the consumers prefer at-home coffee preparation. In developed economies, there is the expectation that some consumers will make a switch from instant coffee to more premium options. The reasoning for this is based on quality and flavor. Additionally, instant coffee, once thought as a high-end product, has began to lose its positioning to younger consumers, which is changing the coffee market greatly (Mordor 2022).

Observations have shown that consumers are becoming more educated on the manufacturing process of the coffee they are buying and from where their purchases are coming from. As a result, consumers are proactively looking for certified coffee products, ensuring the credibility of their coffee purchases. Certified coffee is an assurance to consumers in regards to the reliability of the product, as it is becoming an increasing target for food counterfeiters. To help combat these food counterfeiters, UTZ certification, the largest certification program in coffee and cocoa, provides reassurance of a reliable coffee product. UTZ aims to make sustainable farming a norm, encouraging farmers to implement eco-friendly agricultural practices and manage their farms profitably with respect to coffee consumers and nature (Businesswire 2021). A number of coffee certification organizations are engaged in keeping a check upon the production procedures and supply chain of coffee. These coffee certification organizations include but not limited to Fair Trade Certification, Rainforest Alliance Certification, and UTZ Certification. For the purpose of this research, we did not specify coffee as “certified coffee”, but rather as the general term of “coffee”.

With Governmental measures, such as social distancing and lockdowns, establishments such as cafes, micro-roasters, restaurants, and other out-of-home outlets have been greatly impacted. There is hope though, as trends towards online shopping for at-home consumption has forced retailers, roasters, and consumers to adapt to the current reality. This new reality is expected to increase the consumption of coffee globally, with consumers buying in bulk to enjoy at home.

1.6.0 Chicken

The chicken industry, recognized as one of the most competitive markets, is also in a matured stage globally, meaning the market has reached its highest point in the demand cycle and advertising strategies have minimal impact on the product's continuing sales growth. This may be explained by the fact that the nutritional benefits of chicken and chicken meat products are globally known, as well as chicken meat is one of the most affordable sources of animal protein available. The import and export of chicken meat products has increased in the recent years in many countries across the globe. For instance, Japan, Mexico, and Saudi Arabia are the leading importers of chicken meat while China is the biggest importer, exporter, producer, and consumer of chicken meat globally. As of 2023, the United States of America, followed by Brazil and China, mainland are the top 3 countries for production of meat of chickens, fresh or chilled (FAOSTAT 2023). Of the 2023/2024 chicken meat production, the United States holds 20% of the global production for a total of 21.08 million metric tons. This is followed by Brazil and China, each with 14% of the global product for a total of 14.8 to 14.9 million metric tons (USDA 2024).

Numerous companies and manufacturers across the globe have been taking initiatives in launching cell-based chicken meat, the use of animal cell culture technology where meat is produced from animal cells using a combination of biotechnology, tissue engineering, molecular biology and synthetic processes, that itself is giving traction to the market. Many companies are developing clean meat in laboratories, which allows the removal of obligation/involvement of animal slaughter (Food Standards 2021).

During the COVID-19 global pandemic, chicken meat sales were greatly impacted in the first few months, as rumors spread that COVID-19 was transmitted by eating meat (Food Standards 2021). As time went on however, the chicken market stabilized to pre-COVID 19 sales.

For the remaining five products for each country, researchers were given free reign for product selection. The five specific products each researcher selected would only be evaluated from responses obtained within their respected country. The selection of these five products were based on each researchers' own professional interests and needs. The following table shows each country's five unique product selections:

Table 2.1. List of Unique Products Each Country Selected

Country	Product One	Product Two	Product Three	Product Four	Product Five
Australia	Potato Chips	Sweet Biscuits	Pineapple	Sausages	Macadamia Nuts
Brazil	Beans	Steak (Beef)	Soft Drinks	Bananas	French Bread
China	Condiments	Wine	Beer	Cheese	Rice
Colombia	Tuna	Cheese	Wine	Beer	Mushrooms
India	Lentils (Daal)	Banana	Potatoes	Namkeen (Snacks)	Milk
Kenya	Apples	Tea	Rice	Maize Meal	Sugar
New Zealand	Plain Bread	Canned Standard Tuna (Chunky Style Tuna in Sprint Water)	Canned Beans (Baked Beans in Rich Tomato Sauce)	Walnut Halves	Garlic (7 Bulbs)
Peru	Rice	Oranges	Asparagus	Quinoa	Sole
Poland	Apples	Beer	Cottage Cheese	Semi-Dried Sausage	Sauerkraut
South Korea	Butter	Potatoes	Bottled Water	Beef	Kimchi
Spain	Extra Virgin Olive Oil	Serrano Ham	Cheese	Tomatoes	Rice

Thailand	Beef	Tea	Beer	Sliced Cheese	Honey
United States	Apples	Almonds	Chocolate Chip Cookies	Cheddar Cheese	Pre-Popped Popcorn

2.0 Methods and Design

2.1.0 Questionnaire Development

The consumer preference survey was divided into two sections: one that compared 13 different countries' views on different product categories based on country of origin and each country's ethnocentric tendencies/beliefs. The questions for the country-of-origin survey served the purpose of helping researchers understand each country's interest in purchasing products that originated from the 13 countries represented in the research, as well as what price point respondents would be willing to pay for each product that originated from each country. While five of the ten product categories were consistent across all 13 countries, the remaining five products were included for researchers to sample products based on availability and popularity, as well as country preference.

The survey used for understanding each countries ethnocentric tendencies was a revised version of the Generalized Ethnocentrism Scale (GENE). Specifically, the revised version replaces the word "country" with "culture" which generalizes each statement rather than identifying it with a specific country. The purpose of the GENE scale is to assess an individual's belief that their own country and its products are the best and most important and that all other cultural groups should be judged on a comparative basis against their own product. The scale consists of 22 Likert-type statements, with 15 of the 22 used to measure each country's degree of ethnocentrism. The other seven statements are included to balance the number of positively and negatively-worded items. The format of for each statement is a five-point agree/disagree scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Table 2.2. Generalized Ethnocentrism Scale

Below are items that relate to the cultures of different parts of the world. Work quickly and record your first reaction to each item. There are no right or wrong answers. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each item using the following five-point scale:

Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; Neutral = 3; Agree = 4; Strongly Agree = 5;

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My culture should be the role model for other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
People from other cultures act strange when they come to my culture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other cultures should try to be more like my culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am not interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Most people from other cultures just don't know what's good for them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I respect the values and customs of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have many friends from different cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I apply my values when judging people who are different.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I see people who are similar to me as virtuous.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I do not cooperate with people who are different.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Most people in my culture just don't know what is good for them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I do not trust people who are different.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2.2.0 9-Point Hedonic Scale

The 9-Point Hedonic Scale is a commonly-used scale for measuring food acceptability. First developed by David Peryam and colleagues at the Quartermaster Food and Container Institute of the U.S. Armed Forces, the original purpose of this scale was to measure the food preferences of soldiers in wartime. With soldiers needing to maintain their strength and health in the line of duty, dietary research was invaluable to ensure that food and beverages were acceptable for consumption. As awareness and acceptance of this scale increased, the scale was subsequently adopted by the food industry for civilian research. Today, this scale is being used not just within the food and beverage category, but also by researchers studying consumer preference for personal products, household products, and cosmetics (SSP 2021).

Extensive research was subsequently conducted by the Quartermaster Food and Container Institute and researchers at the University of Chicago to develop the current hedonic scale. Jones, Peryam & Thurstone (1955) showed that by having longer scales, up to nine intervals, respondents would tend to be more discriminating and results would be more precise than if they were to use shorter scales. There was some indication that an 11-point scale could be more effective in the evaluator's discrimination, but due to the 9-point hedonic scale fitting better on the size of paper used to print the ballots, this ultimately became the standard.

For selecting the verbal anchors of the scale, researchers made sure the physical distance between each scale point was equal. This equality in scale points helped “justify the practice of analyzing responses by assigning successive integer values (1, 2, 3, ...up to 9) to the scale points and testing the differences in average acceptability using parametric statistics (SSP 2021).” By testing this scale with soldiers in the field, in the laboratory, as well as in large-scale food preference surveys, there was enough support to show the reliability, validity, and discriminative ability of the 9-point hedonic scale in food acceptance tests (SSP 2021). To this day, the 9-point hedonic scale has been widely used for a variety of different product categories, with considerable success. The scale itself is easy to understand and used for a wide range of different consumers, requiring minimal instructions or explanation. Results in research have proven to be stable, with product difference in liking being reproducible with different groups of consumers (Thomas, 2021).

There have been several variations of the 9-point hedonic scale. For instance, Kroll (1990) showed that a child friendly scale with more kid appropriate verbal anchors (“super good” to “super bad”) performed better with 5–10-year-old children than either the original 9-point hedonic scale or a scale utilizing “smiley” faces could. The 9-point hedonic scale has also been translated into several foreign languages. While the principle of the 9-point hedonic scale never changed, the adjustment of verbal anchors needed to be considered to be appropriate in each respected country to ensure value equality between each scale point. For this study, no changes to the 9-point hedonic scale were made, with the exception of translation to each countries respected language of choice.

Table 2.3. Example of 9-Point Hedonic Scale Question Used in This Research

How interested would you be to purchase **coffee** grown and processed in some of these countries if it were available?

	Not At All Interested (1)	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Extremely Interested (9)
United States	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Spain	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Poland	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
South Korea	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
China	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Thailand	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
India	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
New Zealand	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Kenya	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Brazil	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Colombia	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Peru	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Australia	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2.3.0 Slider Question

The slider question is an alternative question type to the matrix table or Likert question that is more interactive to the respondent. Instead of having the respondents select a scale point, they can now drag a bar to indicate their preference level on a topic. In the case of this research, the preference value of each product category it originated from the represented countries within this research.

Fundamentally, slider questions resemble Likert Scales, but with a much greater range of response categories available to the respondent. Instead of selecting one of the defined number of options available in a Likert Scale, respondents can use a slider to position their specific desired responses to a certain question. Not only does the slider question enable respondents to participate in a more interactive online survey, but also allows respondents to indicate their opinions more precisely. With more response options available to the respondent, results can be more discriminating and exact.

Slider questions can be useful when respondents want to enter a response that is between two digits. For instance, if a researcher wants to determine how much a respondent would be willing to spend on a product, the research can provide a minimum and maximum value as the two anchors. The respondents can then provide a value response both in dollars and cents. Additionally, slider questions have other advantages. For instance, a researcher can gather feedback on multiple items related to the same question all at once as well as they are quick and easy to answer, and works well on both a desktop and mobile device.

Table 2.4. Example of Slider Bar Question Used in This Research

Assume that the current average cost to buy **coffee** is \$8.50 per pound. How much would you be willing to pay for a **pound of coffee** that is grown and processed in these countries?

Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.



2.4.0 *Questionnaire Translation*

With 13 countries involved in this research, the use of one common survey in one language would be impractical. Thus, there was a high importance placed on the reliability of each represented country's survey being accurately translated. The researchers of Chambers, Catie Godoy, and Kroll first developed the template survey in English. The template survey was designed to contain the five products each country would include as well as the five specific products that the United States survey would use. Once a template survey was finalized, the lead researchers from each country were assigned the task of translating the template in their native language while updating and including their five specific/unique product categories.

Additionally, each country's lead researcher updated the screening criteria to accurately depict the demographics for their country as well as the currency used and value range for the questions that asked how much a respondent would be willing to pay for a product based on its origin. Once a researcher had completed their country's specific version of the survey, translation and question set-up was proofed to ensure accuracy by Qualtrics. To further ensure that each survey was translated accurately and that survey flow and skip logic were correct, a soft launch via Qualtrics for the survey of each country was conducted to ensure respondents understood the questions and actions asked of them. For each soft launch, approximately 50 respondents' data was collected and analyzed. For India and Kenya, respondents were given the option to take the survey in one of two languages in prominent use. Indian respondents were given the option of English or Hindi; Kenyan respondents were given the option of English or Swahili.

Table 2.5. List of Languages Used for Each Country Survey

Country	Languages
Australia	English
Brazil	Portuguese
China	Chinese (Simplified)
Colombia	Spanish
India	Hindi or English
Kenya	Swahili or English
New Zealand	English
Peru	Spanish
Poland	Polish
South Korea	Korean
Spain	Spanish
Thailand	Thai
United States	English

2.5.0 Respondents and Recruitment

Respondents from each of the 13 countries were recruited by Qualtrics using its own or its partners existing database. Qualtrics or its partners maintain their database of consumers in each country and have a range of demographics based on age, sex, purchasing behaviors, etc. For each country ~600 respondents were used for data collection. Screening criteria consisted of being born between 1964 to 2003 and being the primary grocery shopper/food purchaser in the household. Additional demographic information collected contained gender, education, income level, number of people in household 18 and older and number of children 18 or younger in the household. Demographic questions were adjusted accordingly to the culture of each country such as gender options and education levels.

Prior to answering any questions within the survey about product country of origin or value, respondents have to complete and pass the screening criteria. If a respondent did not pass the screening qualifications, they were sent to the end of the survey and were not included within the final data. Any data of respondents who did not fully complete the survey were removed from the final data.

3.0 Procedure

3.1.0 Data Collection

3.1.1 Panel Screening Process

This research fielded during the summer of 2021. Respondents were required to be born between the years 1944 to 2003, making them 18 to 80 years old. Respondents that did not meet this age criteria, were declined further participation in the survey and were sent to the end of the survey. Additionally, respondents had to be the primary grocery shopper/food purchaser for the household. Similar to age, if a respondent did not meet this criterion they were sent to the end of survey. Respondents who were also unwilling to provide their best answers and complete the survey in its entirety were removed for further participation in the survey. Adjustments for demographic criteria for some countries were made to properly represent the culture and research criteria for that country, such as gender options and education levels.

3.1.2 Survey Testing Design

Respondents first completed a short questionnaire on demographics. Once respondents successfully completed and qualified the demographic criteria, respondents would continue onwards to the “Consumer Interest in Purchasing Products made In-Country vs. Imported Products” survey which contained 10 different product category sections. Once the main survey was completed respondents would complete a Generalized Ethnocentrism survey. Prior to the launch of the research, a soft launch was conducted with 50+ respondents for each country to ensure that the survey questionnaires were collecting data as intended. The soft launch data was examined for any missing or inaccurate data and identified any corrections that needed to be made for any of the surveys before the surveys were officially launched for final data collection. For example, in the surveys for South Korea and New Zealand, some question anchors and anchor values needed the text updated to accurately represent the scale programming. Any data that was incomplete or there were partial responses were removed from the final data for each country.

3.2.0 *Survey Timeline*

There was no set timeframe that was expected for the respondents to be recruited and to complete the survey for each of the 13 countries. This was due to both the screening process and the survey completion was done at the same time. Though from the start of respondent recruitment for the first country to the completion of the quotas for the last country it took around a week and half to complete. Order of completion by country was based on time it took to reach the required number of respondents and quotas for each country.

3.3.0 *Data Analysis*

For data of respondents from the United States, Tukey's ratings of significances are represented by Common Lettering at the 95% confidence level with boxes as a McNemar function and was used to identify significant differences among the 13 countries for each product category. This was used to determine which country of origin per product category, if any, showed a significant interest in purchasing and a significant difference in value from the perspective of respondents from the United States.

4.0 *Expected Results*

Given existing differences in cultural values and beliefs in the global community, it can follow logically that different countries will have different degrees of ethnocentrism and different consumer preferences. Historical conflicts, political differences, regional strife, religious beliefs, and dietary preferences are expected to influence final results. Past efforts by international countries to introduce their products to foreign markets have had mixed results: some, like Coca-Cola, Levi's, and Mercedes, have been successful; others, like fast-food companies, have been less universally-accepted. Within the five country-specific products, it is expected that sharp differences will be found, particularly among products that resonate with cultural pride and identity. These differences, if evident, will guide marketing team campaigns to their best efforts to introduce, attract, and retain consumers in each country.

The results of this research can help to better understand the perspective and relationship one country has towards another when it comes to consumer goods. This can provide a competitive insight whether a product from one country can be successful in another country with its original branding, or if a rebranding and new marketing strategy needs to be developed for a new product to have a competitive edge in a new country. Additionally, the value questions can give valuable information on how much a consumer would be willing to spend and see if

manufacturing the product to fit that price range is feasible. This could be valuable information for the discovery phase of a product development, that requires no actual product to be consumed but can give insight to R&D and Marketing for product development.

5.0 Discussion

5.1.0 Survey Timeline

5.1.1 Development of Survey Questionnaire(s): Time for Completion: 2 weeks

Based on the overall objective of this research, there were key items that needed to be identified and agreed upon across all researchers from the 13 countries involved. These key items included, the five products that all 13 surveys would include, the structure of the questions being asked, as well as the demographic criteria and questions properly representing each country. Agreement from the researchers of each country was important in order for data to be useful to them. The time spent to develop the structure of the questionnaire was in part of accommodating each researchers schedule outside of this research.

Determining the five products that would be used differed among countries surveyed. An initial list of ten different proposed products was shared with each researcher. These ten items were selected by the project lead researchers (Chambers, Catie, Godoy, and Kroll) which entailed initial research to determine popular products developed within countries and imported from other countries. Researchers provided their feedback of which five products they would select. This was determined by their own research within their country as well as products they would be interested collecting data on. Once feedback was provided by each country, the five products selected by the majority of countries were determined as the five products used in each survey.

Early on in the development of the questions within the questionnaire entailed two key questions would be asked for each product. These questions were based on interest and value. Initial layout of the survey entailed an individual question for each country for each product. This resulted in the overall questionnaire potentially taking less than 30 minutes to complete which increases the chances of respondents dropping out to complete the survey as well as respondents experiencing question fatigue, which would result in respondents clicking options without thought in order to complete the survey faster. It was recommended to approach the two questions for each product as a matrix table where respondents would answer for each country

based on a product all at once. This resulted in a decrease in the potential time it would take a respondent to complete the survey. It was estimated that respondents would complete the survey in 15 to 20 minutes.

Researchers for each country were asked to review the demographic questions and to provide feedback on criteria that needed to be updated to properly represent their country. This included items such as education levels and gender options.

5.1.2 Questionnaire Translation, and Survey Flow Verification: Time for Completion: 2 and a half months

The time involved to properly translate and confirm the survey flow was largely in part to accommodate the schedule of all the researchers involved in this research. The translation of the survey was not limited to just translating the survey from one language to another. It included updating the survey to represent the five specific products each country would include within the survey, updating scale values to represent the currency type and average costs for each product based on packaging and volume typically sold in each country for each product presented in the survey, as well as update any demographic questions with options appropriate to their country. Once the translation of a survey was completed, the survey flow was checked to ensure all questions were asked and respondents were forced to select options for each question. Additionally, the anchors of each question were verified to ensure the anchor values matched the value range of the scale. This was verified a second time during the soft launch test prior to the full launch of the survey.

5.1.3 Respondents Recruitment and Survey Fielding: Time of Completion: 2 weeks

For this research, recruitment and survey execution was done at the same time. Respondents within the Qualtrics database were screened for each respected country. Recruitment and completion for each country varied based on timing. While some countries completed data collection in 3 to 4 days, others took the full 2 weeks.

5.1.4 Data Analysis and Reporting: Time for completion: On-going

As of writing this, data analysis and reporting are on-going. Timing is based on the work schedule of the researchers working on this project. Respondent responses were recorded in real time as the respondents completed the survey questionnaire. While basic analysis can be done directing through Qualtrics, further, in depth analysis may be needed to fully understanding the findings of this research.

6.0 *Limitations*

Future research could benefit from further development of demographic criteria as well as survey flow. Gender-specific questions were not included for this research and it is recommended they be included in future research. Additionally, the ten products within each survey were not rotated. Every respondent saw the same 10 products in the same order for each country. While no actual products were tasted, even rotation would be encouraged for future research in order to avoid the potential of question fatigue so each product receives the same attention to detail based on position.

As with all surveys conducted in multiple languages, translation or adaptation issues may occur. It is possible that terms used in English do not translate well to other languages and can cause misunderstandings by consumers. Although we used an accepted method for translation it is still possible that terms do not completely align among languages. In addition, although on-line surveys are common, there can be a bias, especially when testing internationally with lower participation by those without easy access to technology. Although all countries in our study had wide access to technology (typically greater than 75-90% of consumers in each country had access to the internet), China 72% and India 53% had lower access (Statista 2025).

Chapter 3 - USA Data Analysis

1.0 Introduction

Since 2002, Country of Origin (COO) Labeling has been an integral component of global food, textiles, and manufacturing and marketing. According to Levinson (2017), “Made in USA” is a country-of-origin label attached to American-made products that indicates that a product is all or mostly domestically produced, manufactured and assembled in the United States of America (USA) and is regulated by the Federal Trade Commission (FTC). “Made in USA” is also a label of preference for American consumers, according to Coates (2020). While goods imported into the United States must have a country-of-origin label unless exempted, goods manufactured in the United States can be sold with no origin label unless explicitly required. The majority of American food producers and manufacturers support the concept of country-of-origin labeling as they believe that Americans will prefer domestically-produced products over foreign goods of the same type (Foreign Affairs and International Trade Canada, 2011). However, international countries believe that country-of-origin labeling unfairly inhibits their products’ ability to compete in the United States, the result of their preconceived notion that American consumers have a keen interest in knowing the origin of the foods they purchase and consume and as a result will be biased against products not made in their own country, according to Foreign Affairs and International Trade Canada (2011).

Coates (2020) found there is a high preference among American consumers to purchase and consume products made in America. While consumers in the United States have entrenched patriotic beliefs about domestic consumption, they also live in a global economy: with a click of a button can purchase a seemingly-limitless variety of international goods and have them delivered to their homes. With this convenience of purchasing capabilities, consumers may overlook their predisposition toward buying domestic products simply because of the ease of acquiring imported goods. This convenience factor raises the question whether consumers from the United States put as much value on products produced domestically vs internationally and whether or not they have ethnocentric tendencies towards consumer products. This chapter focuses on the portion of research conducted with respondents from the United States as they contextually evaluated ten different food and beverage products based on COO.

1.1.0 Section One: Products Selection Process

As outlined in chapter 2, section 1.1.0, a total of ten different food and beverage products were selected for respondents from each country to evaluate. All products were evaluated conceptually, rather than actually being served or sampled. Among the ten selected products, five products were included that are commonly purchased across countries around the world: coffee, chicken, cooking oil, chocolate, and onions.

The remaining five products were selected were chosen to represent foods commonly purchased and eaten in the USA, but not necessarily in most countries. They were chosen to represent foods US consumers often associate with the USA or are known to be grown or processed in the USA. The five products selected for the USA were apples, almonds, chocolate chip cookies, cheddar cheese, and pre-popped popcorn. The following sections examine these selections.

1.2.0 Apples

Western Missouri Medical Center (2022) labeled apples an “American Superfood” that has been a staple of American diets since apples arrived in America from Europe. Praised for their versatility, ability to be used in a wide variety of recipes, and excellent source of fiber, vitamin C and quercetin, apples are popular among American consumers of all ages. According to Mordor Intelligence (2022), the apple market was adversely affected by the COVID-19 pandemic, largely due to lockdown restrictions that led to a decrease in production efficiency. Despite setbacks, the fresh apple market in the recent years has seen growth, with an increasing demand for fresh produce around the world. Vasylieva (2021) notes that globally there is a particularly-strong demand for fruits in general, sharing that by 2025 and 2050 there is an expectation that the world average daily consumption of fruit will increase from 204 to 242 grams per capita. This demand for fresh fruit, with the increase interest in their benefits, has led to the development of new hybrid apple varieties which in turn increase factors such as contract farming helping the growth of the global market, according to Mordor Intelligence (2022). The US grows around 200 unique variants of apples, with top variants being Red Delicious, Gala, Granny Smith, Fuji, and Golden Delicious to name a few (Agricultural Marketing, 2024). The

United States has 5,000 plus apple producers who grow on average 240 million bushels of apples each year (Agricultural Marketing, 2024). The USA also is the world's third largest consumer of apples after China and the European Union (Mordor Intelligence, 2022; Helgi Library, 2023). Of the 50 states within the United States, 32 raise apples commercially, with the top five being Washington, New York, Michigan, Pennsylvania, and California (Agricultural Marketing, 2024). For every three apples that are grown in the United States, one is exported. In 2024/2025, the top three export markets included Mexico, Canada, and India. The United States does import fresh apples, specifically to make up for a lack of production in the late season or before the fall harvest (Agricultural Marketing, 2024). The United States primarily imports apples from Chile, New Zealand, and Canada, with smaller quantities from Argentina and China, according to 2022 trade data from the World Bank's World Integrated Trade Solution (WITS) database (World Bank, 2022).

1.3.0 Almonds

Widmar (2021) notes that Americans ate nearly four times as many almonds in 2021 compared to two decades previously with per capita consumption rose 5.5% annually. Nutritionally, almonds provide great nutritional benefits to consumers, with minerals and nutrients that make them a versatile and healthy ingredient that can be combined in a variety of recipes and manufactured products (Mordor Intelligence, 2022). With these nutritional values in mind, and the shifting preference for healthy and nutritious snack foods from consumers, there is the expectation of a steady growth in the consumer almond market. According to the estimated size of the almonds ingredients market in 2022 was around \$9 billion and the market for almonds as an ingredient is growing as consumers' desire for healthy lifestyles increase. The almond ingredient market is estimated to reach \$22.1 billion by 2033 (Future Market Insights, 2023).

Almonds are also consumed as a snack food as well as an ingredient for cooking. Grand View Research (2022) reports that healthy snacking is increasing globally. Recent focus group research in multiple countries showed that the basic concept of "snack food" was the same among participants from all countries (Kumar and Chambers, 2019). The concept typically referred to "snack food" as convenient, something that is small, quick, packaged ready to eat,

eaten between meals, and not considered healthy. However, with changing lifestyles, rapid urbanization, high disposable income, and the increasing demand for “on the go” healthy convenience foods, consumers are growing the ready-to-eat food market. Manufacturers are taking a strategic approach by launching innovative and healthy snack food products consisting of almonds and other nuts either as a whole or as an ingredient, which expands their business portfolio into the healthy snack segment globally.

The USA is the major producer of almonds in the world, producing roughly 1.8 million tons annually (FAOSTAT, 2024). Factors such as a favorable climate with fertile soil, abundant sunshine, as well as the required types of equipment to be used during the growth, harvesting, processing, and packaging phases allow for the United States to be a major contributor in the almond market. Although the United States is the primary producer of almonds globally, Australia, Spain, and Vietnam export almonds to the United States to meet rising domestic consumer demand.

1.4.0 Cheddar Cheese

Cheddar cheese is considered a healthy and wholesome food with several nutritional attributes that are essential to strengthening the metabolism within the human body; it appeals to people’s taste, pairs well with other foods, and has a long, stable shelf life (Mordor Intelligence, 2022). Cheddar cheese exhibits various bio-functional properties which are attributed due to bioactive peptides, which are short chains of amino acids which exhibit biological effect in humans (Das, Supriya & Sen, Chandrakanta & Bhattacharyya, Mahasweta & Ray, Pinaki. (2021). Cheese, overall, is considered a nutrient dense and well-tolerated fermented dairy product consumed worldwide (Zhang M, Dong X, Huang Z, Li X, Zhao Y, Wang Y, Zhu H, Fang A, Giovannucci EL., 2023). However, opinions are polarizing regarding the health effects of cheese consumption. From one viewpoint, cheese is a rich source of high-quality proteins (mainly casein), lipids, and a variety of minerals and vitamins. Conversely, cheese contains high contents of saturated fat and salt, which are unfavorable dietary components for cardiovascular health (Zhang M, Dong X, Huang Z, Li X, Zhao Y, Wang Y, Zhu H, Fang A, Giovannucci EL., 2023). Regular cheese consumption does not appear to increase cardiovascular risk and may

even offer a modest protective effect, as a meta-analysis of 15 prospective studies found inverse associations between cheese intake and cardiovascular disease, coronary heart disease, and stroke (Chen et al., 2019). The consensus is that cheese is recommended for most dietary guidelines, while avoiding variants that are full-fat and high sodium. Cheddar cheese is an excellent source of calcium, one of the most important nutrients for promoting bone health. Cheddar cheese can assist in maintaining healthy teeth; in one study, researchers saw that participants who consumed cheddar had a significant increase in pH levels in their mouths compared to people who drank milk or ate sugar-free yogurt (Academy of General Dentistry, 2013). Beyond cheddar cheese's health benefits, is its desirable its unique, sharp taste that can make any meal or snack enjoyable.

The global cheddar cheese market is segmented by different factors: form, type, and distribution channel (Maximize Market Research, 2023). When it comes to form, the market is segmented into block, crumbed, and spreadable. As for distribution, there are a variety of segments including supermarket/hypermarkets, convenience stores, specialty stores, and online retail stores. With regard to type, the market is segmented into natural and processed. Natural cheese has been dominating the overall cheese category for the past decade, and this trend has resulted into positive growth for natural cheddar cheese (Mordor Intelligence, 2022). Much of this growth within the natural cheddar cheese category is because of two overarching factors: increased consumption of cheese in the food service industry and increased consumption as snacking cheese. Innovative recipes and culinary trends are becoming more mainstream across the world and because of increased internationalization of continental and American cuisines, cheddar cheese consumption by the food service industry at home and abroad has seen significant growth. For this research we do not specify natural or processed cheddar cheese, but leave it as the generalized term of cheddar cheese.

Product and packaging innovations also play a key role in the growth of cheddar cheese consumption in the form of a snack with segments being snacking on cheddar cheese "as is," as a liquified dip or sauce, or as a key ingredient of snack crackers. The United States accounts for the majority of global cheddar cheese consumption and is driven mainly because of its ubiquitous presence in American cuisine (Buzby, 2005). Snacking habits of cheese in general have also been a major factor impacting positive growth within the market.

1.5.0 Pre-Popped Popcorn

Pre-popped popcorn has been a snack staple of American consumers since the 1960s. During COVID, stay-at-home and work-from-home policies quickly made popcorn a major consumable snack procured by consumers as it was a healthy snack option, depending on the popcorn type, and easily available (Data Bridge Market Research, 2022). North America has traditionally been the largest market for popcorn globally, with the trend of healthy snacking impacting the growth of the popcorn market in this region the most. Much of this growth can also be attributed with RTE (ready-to-eat) popcorn (Mordor Intelligence, 2022)

The popcorn market is segmented by two main types of popcorn: microwave popcorn and RTE popcorn (Mordor Intelligence, 2022). Often thought of as a classic cinema treat, RTE popcorn has become one of the perceived nutritious alternatives to unhealthy snacking (Future Market Insights, 2025). The American Heart Association (2019) shares the popcorn is a good source of fiber and polyphenols which are antioxidants that have been linked to better blood circulation and digestive health. Snacking on the RTE, air-popped popcorn between meals can help consumers avoid snacking on candies and fatty foods. This is because of popcorn's high fiber content, low calorie count, and its low energy density (American Heart Association, 2019). With big manufacturers offering healthy and delicious RTE popcorn in a variety of different flavors, the demand for this segment is expected to increase, driving the overall growth of the popcorn market (Mordor Intelligence, 2022). For this research, we specified RTE popcorn rather than the general term of popcorn. However, we did not specify a flavor of RTE popcorn.

1.6.0 Chocolate Chip Cookies

According to Mordor Intelligence (2022), Europe dominates the cookie market, followed by North America, with countries such as Italy and Spain leading the market demand for cookies in Western Europe. During 2023, Mexico was the top exporter of cookies valuing at \$1.2 billion USD which is 10.6% of the total global export of cookies (Worldstopexports, 2023). Mexico, the Netherlands, Germany, Belgium, and Canada are the other top five exporters of cookies, generating 40.5% of the overall value of the global export. Globally, the United States, India, and China are reported to be the bigger markets for cookies. Asia-Pacific represents the fastest

growing market for cookies due to the increasing urbanization and disposable income among consumers.

Data collected in 2016 on Statista for sales of private label cookies and crackers showed that in the U.S. retail stores private label cookie category generated 1.2 billion U.S dollars worth of sales. This was followed by saltine crackers with 153 million in sales, a drastically smaller amount compared to cookies, showing that the cookie category in general is popular among consumers of the United States.

To go further, data collected in 2020 showed that the most often eaten ready-to-eat cookie in the United States is sandwich cookies, with 85.47 million respondents indicating they consumed this type of cookie. This is followed by soft chocolate chip (67.7 million) and regular (crunchy) chocolate chip (61.04 million) (Statista, 2020).

For this research we specified chocolate chip cookies to respondents and not the generalized term of “cookies”. Additionally, we did not specify “soft” or “crunchy” chocolate chip cookies but the generalized term of “chocolate chip cookies”.

1.7.0 Objectives

The overall objectives of this research were:

- A. Determine if respondents from the United States showed more interest in purchasing products, using each product category we presented in the survey, from the United States compared to the other countries participating in this research.
- B. Determine if respondents from the United States show a significant difference in value or significantly willing to pay more for each product, we presented in the survey that originated from the United States compared to the other countries participating in this research.
- C. Determine if results from objective A and B are the result of Consumer Ethnocentrism.

2.0 Materials and Methods

2.1.0 Respondents and Recruitment

This research was approved by the Kansas State Human Subjects Review Committee (protocol #7297.3) and fielded during the summer of 2021. To obtain a broad range of responses and experiences, 644 respondents in the USA were selected based on age and purchasing role: they were between 18 and 80 years old (born between the years 1944 to 2003). This age range was broken up into four different age groups representing four different consumer age demographics; Boomers (ages 60 to 80), Gen X (ages 45 to 59), Millennials (ages 31 to 44), and Gen Z (ages 18 to 30). Respondents that did not meet this age criteria were excluded. Additionally, respondents had to be the primary grocery shopper/food purchaser for the household. Respondents who did not meet this criterion or were unwilling to provide their best answers and complete the survey in its entirety were eliminated from the survey. The survey was fielded by a commercial on-line agency with a database of more than 7 million consumers in all USA states. The survey was conducted such that consumers from the four major US geographic areas, Northeast, South, Midwest, and West were represented based on their prevalence in the USA census.

Table 3.1. Demographic Distribution of Collected Respondent Data from the United States Survey

Demographic	Sample Size
Males	270 (43%)
Females	360 (57%)
Age Group 1 (1995 to 2003)	57 (10%)
Age Group 2 (1980 to 1994)	266 (42%)
Age Group 3 (1965 to 1979)	153 (24%)
Age Group 4 (1944 to 1964)	154 (24%)
Low Income	248 (40%)
Middle Income	287 (45%)
High Income	95 (15%)

2.2.0 *Survey*

Respondents first completed a short demographic questionnaire. Once respondents successfully completed and qualified with the demographic criteria, respondents would continue on to the “Consumer Interest in Purchasing Products made In-Country vs. Imported Products” survey which contained 10 different product category sections (Appendix 1). The survey included two questions. A) How interested would you be to purchase (**PRODUCT**) grown and processed in some of these countries if it were available? The 13 countries were: USA, Spain, Poland, South Korea, China, Thailand, India, New Zealand, Kenya, Brazil, Colombia, Peru, and Australia. A 9-point scale from “Not at all interested” to “Extremely Interested” was used. The second question was B) Assume that the current average cost to buy (PRODUCT) is (\$ per amount). How much would you be willing to pay for a (amount of PRODUCT) that is grown and processed in these countries? The same 13 countries were listed and a sliding scale from \$0 to \$(Double the Current Assumed Cost per Unit) was used.

After this survey was completed, respondents completed a Generalized Ethnocentrism survey with 22 questions was used (Appendix 2). These 22 questions came from the Revised Ethnocentrism scale developed by Neuliep in 2002. Prior to the launch of the full survey, a soft launch was conducted with 50+ respondents from the United States to ensure that the survey questionnaires were soliciting data as intended. The soft-launch data was examined for any missing or inaccurate data and identified any corrections that needed to be made before the survey was officially launched for final data collection (no corrections were needed). Any incomplete or partially responded questionnaires were removed from the final data for each country.

2.3.0 *Data Analysis*

A McNemar function and was used to identify significant differences among the 13 countries for each product category and Tukey’s ratings of significances were used to determine specific differences. Those differences are represented by Common Lettering at the 95% confidence level.

For data representing the correlation between purchase interest and value for each product category with the ethnocentrism score of respondents from the United States, the data was distributed across four quartiles, each representing a subset of respondents based on their individual general ethnocentrism score.

Table 3.2. Quartile Distribution of Respondents from the United States Based on General Ethnocentrism Score.

Quartile	Sample Size
Q1: Respondents With Ethnocentrism Scores Between 15 and 31	164 (26%)
Q2: Respondents With Ethnocentrism Scores Between 32 and 41	158 (25%)
Q3: Respondents With Ethnocentrism Scores Between 42 and 48	155 (25%)
Q4: Respondents With Ethnocentrism Scores Between 49 and 69	153 (24%)

3.0 Results

3.1.0 Overview

Results from this research with USA respondents indicates there is a strong preference for products that are grown, produced, or manufactured in the USA. When asked how interested they would be to purchase a product from each of the other countries studied, USA respondents showed significantly higher interest in products from the USA compared to those from other countries. Additionally, when USA respondents were asked how much they would pay for a product, they would be willing to spend more on products originating from the USA compared to other countries. The only exception to this was for coffee where product produced in several other countries where USA consumers perceived coffee grown or produced in those countries to be only slightly less desirable for purchase and equal (in the case of Colombia and Brazil) in the price they were willing to pay.

In addition, USA consumers typically scored products from China lower in willingness to purchase than all other countries. Similarly, consumers usually indicated they would pay less, usually significantly less than most other countries of origin.

When analyzing the results among gender, age, and income level, findings were similar to data by total where respondents overall were significantly more interested in purchasing products originating from the USA and significantly willing to pay more for products originating from the USA. The only exception to this was the data break from those between the ages of 22 to 30 (Generation Z). This age range had results similar to other data breaks in that they were significantly more interested to purchase products from the USA compared to other countries, except for coffee where purchase interest was parity compared to coffee originating from Spain,

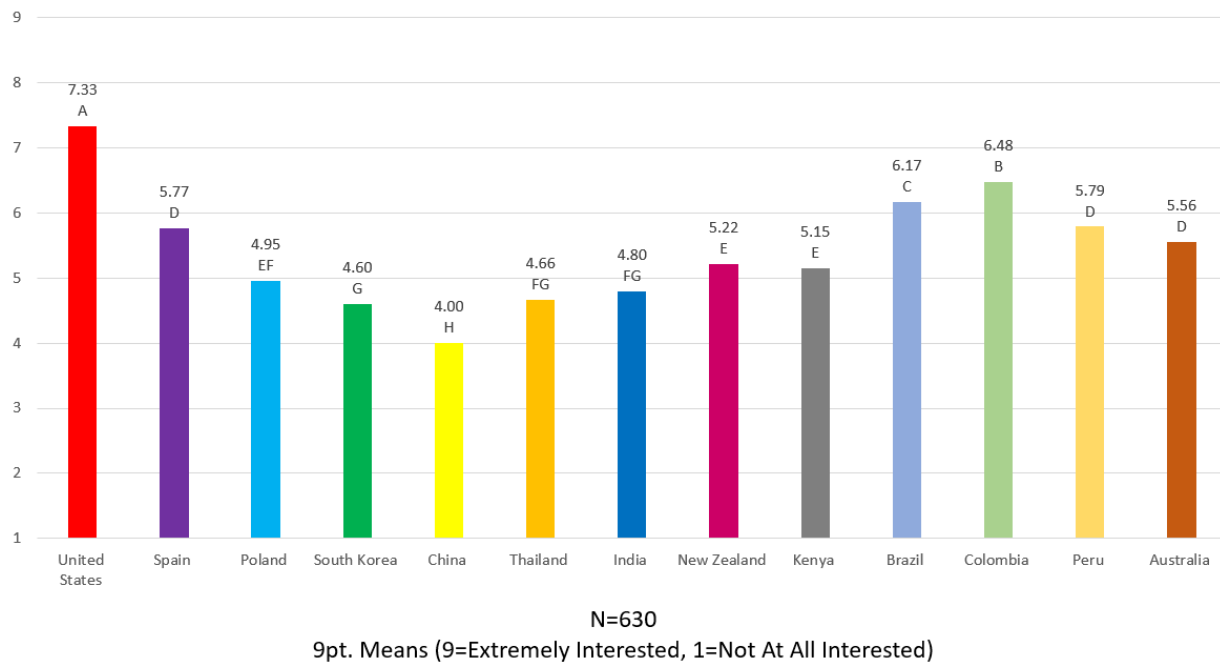
Brazil, and Colombia. However, when it came to price value for products originating from the USA compared to other countries, respondents from this age range were willing to pay similar values for all products evaluated to various countries within each product category compared to other data breaks where the majority were willing to pay significantly more for products from the USA.

When analyzing the correlation of purchase interest and purchase value for all products originating from the USA and other countries, results reveal that the majority of time the relationship between the product interest/value and ethnocentrism has a positive correlation, though varies on whether the correlation is high or low for each category. However, in many instances (all except for coffee, almonds, and pre-popped popcorn) the relationship with product interest with products from the USA compared to the other countries would have a negative correlation with ethnocentrism. Additionally, across all product categories, all four quartile distributions showed a higher interest and willing to pay more for products originating from the USA compared to other countries within its respected quartile. Another consistent pattern was that quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scored similar or higher for purchase interest or purchase value for all products originating from all countries compared to the other quartiles where the respondents have lower ethnocentrism scores. This consistent pattern may indicate that while some respondents/consumers may have high ethnocentrism, it may not directly impact their purchasing habits. Those with higher ethnocentrism may score with values towards the ends of scales resulting in higher values compared to other respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

3.2.0 Coffee

Respondents from the USA are significantly more interested in purchasing coffee originating from the USA, followed by Colombia and Brazil, the only two additional countries to score above a 6.0 on a 9-point scale (Figure 1). Coffee originating from China is at a significant statistical disadvantage compared to all other countries, scoring the lowest in purchase interest with a 4.00.

Figure 2.1. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Coffee from the USA and Other Countries



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that respondents from USA are significantly more interested in purchasing coffee from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. Within this age group, respondents' interest in purchasing coffee from the USA is parity to coffee originating from Spain, Brazil, and Colombia.

Table 3.3. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Coffee from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	7.41 A	6.00 D	5.29 F	5.06 F	4.49 G	5.08 F	5.23 F	5.46 F	5.52 EF	6.64 BC	6.79 B	6.22 CD	5.96 DE
Females (N=360)	7.26 A	5.61 CD	4.69 GHI	4.26 J	3.63 K	4.34 IJ	4.48 HIJ	5.05 EFG	4.87 FGH	5.81 C	6.26 B	5.46 CDE	5.26 DEF
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	6.56 A	5.58 AB	4.68 BC	4.96 BC	4.46 C	5.05 BC	4.63 BC	4.88 BC	5.35 BC	5.54 ABC	5.47 ABC	5.14 BC	5.18 BC
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	7.62 A	6.20 BC	5.53 E	5.32 EF	4.93 F	5.34 EF	5.43 E	5.63 DE	5.49 E	6.41 BC	6.63 B	6.07 CD	6.06 CD
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	7.45 A	5.77 CDE	4.90 FGH	4.29 H	3.54 I	4.39 GH	4.89 FGH	5.24 EF	4.98 FG	6.12 BC	6.69 B	5.93 CD	5.48 DEF
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	6.98 A	5.12 CD	4.09 EF	3.55 F	2.67 G	3.59 F	3.69 F	4.63 DE	4.65 DE	6.03 B	6.41 AB	5.40 C	4.92 CD
Low Income (N=248)	6.90 A	5.60 BCD	4.73 EFG	4.33 G	3.76 H	4.40 FG	4.43 FG	4.83 EF	4.83 EF	5.66 BC	5.95 B	5.35 CD	5.17 DE
Medium Income (N=287)	7.38 A	5.66 DE	4.73 GH	4.40 H	3.71 I	4.50 H	4.73 GH	5.24 EF	5.13 FG	6.30 BC	6.71 B	5.89 CD	5.51 DEF
High Income (N=95)	8.27 A	6.56 BCDE	6.20 CDEF	5.95 DEF	5.49 F	5.81 EF	5.99 CDEF	6.19 CDEF	6.05 CDEF	7.07 B	7.20 B	6.63 BCD	6.73 BC

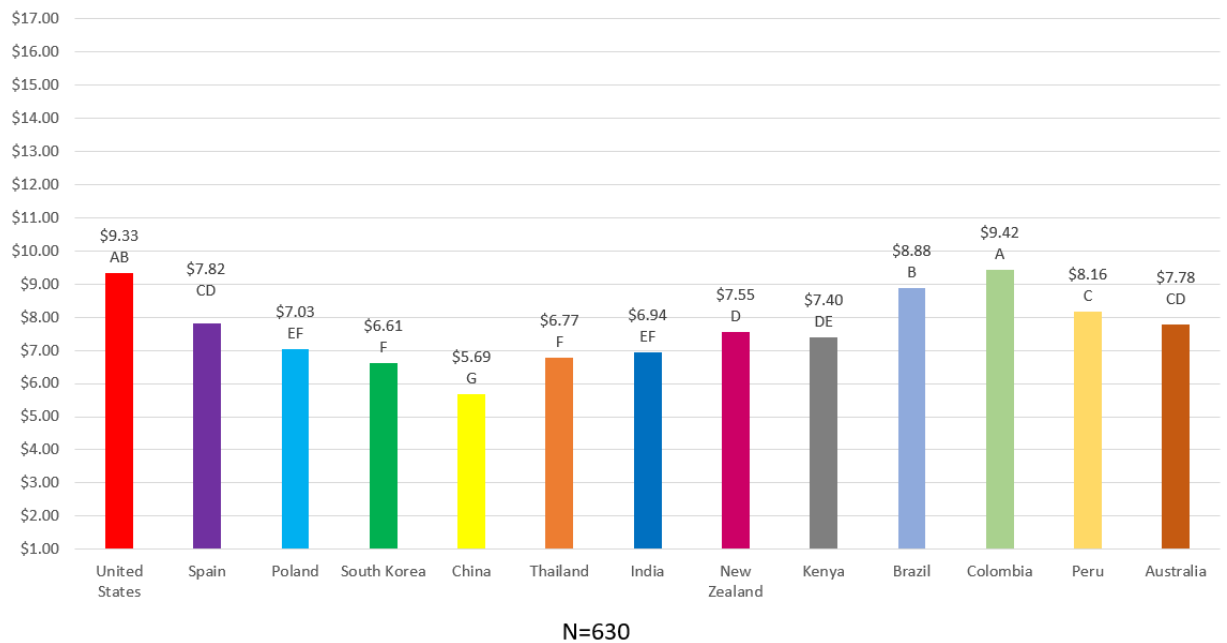
When analyzing the correlation of the purchase interest of coffee among respondents from the USA with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a low positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase interest for coffee for the majority of countries except for Kenya, Brazil, Colombia, and Peru which has a low negative correlation. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while coffee from the USA scores higher compared to coffee from other countries within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scores similar or higher for purchase interest of coffee from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.4. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Interest in Coffee from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
		Base Size	630	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
Q11_1	How interested would you be to purchase coffee grown and processed in some of these countries if it were available?	United States	7.3	7.3	7.4	6.8	7.9	0.0807
Q11_2		Spain	5.8	6.1	5.5	5.1	6.4	0.0178
Q11_3		Poland	5.0	4.5	4.5	4.8	6.0	0.1964
Q11_4		South Korea	4.6	4.5	4.0	4.3	5.7	0.1429
Q11_5		China	4.0	3.6	3.3	3.8	5.3	0.2137
Q11_6		Thailand	4.7	4.6	4.1	4.2	5.7	0.1348
Q11_7		India	4.8	4.8	4.2	4.3	5.9	0.1270
Q11_8		New Zealand	5.2	5.6	4.7	4.7	5.9	0.0391
Q11_9		Kenya	5.1	5.6	4.6	4.5	5.8	-0.0018
Q11_10		Brazil	6.2	6.7	6.1	5.2	6.7	-0.0435
Q11_11		Colombia	6.5	6.9	6.5	5.6	6.9	-0.0430
Q11_12		Peru	5.8	6.3	5.4	4.9	6.5	-0.0130
O11_13		Australia	5.6	5.7	5.1	4.9	6.5	0.0895

When presented with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$8.50 per pound of coffee, respondents from the USA were willing to pay \$9.33 per pound of coffee originating from the USA, \$0.83 more than the “current” price (Figure 2). The cost of coffee originating from the USA performs at parity to coffee originating from Colombia and Brazil, valuing at \$9.42 and \$8.88 respectfully, being the only other two countries to be valued above the average cost. Coffee originating from China scored significantly the lowest, with a value of \$5.69.

Figure 3.2. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Coffee Grown and Processed in the USA and Other Countries, assuming "Current" Price is \$8.50 Per Pound



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that with the hypothetical "current" cost of \$8.50 per pound of coffee, respondents from the USA among all data breaks are willing to pay significantly more for a pound coffee compared to all other countries with the exception of Brazil and Colombia, which are at parity to the USA. Additionally, respondents between the ages of 22 to 30 are willing to pay a similar price of a pound of coffee originating from the USA to those that originate from Spain, Thailand, India, New Zealand, Kenya, Brazil, Colombia, Peru, and Australia.

Table 3.5. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Coffee Grown and Processed in the USA and Other Countries, assuming "Current" Price is \$8.50 Per Pound by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	\$10.68 A	\$8.89 BC	\$8.19 CDE	\$7.71 E	\$6.90 F	\$7.82 DE	\$8.18 CDE	\$8.62 BCD	\$8.40 CDE	\$10.25 A	\$10.60 A	\$9.42 B	\$8.89 BC
Females (N=360)	\$8.32 AB	\$7.02 D	\$6.17 EFG	\$5.78 G	\$4.78 H	\$5.98 G	\$6.02 FG	\$6.75 DE	\$6.65 DEF	\$7.85 BC	\$8.53 A	\$7.20 CD	\$6.94 D
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	\$8.81 AB	\$7.59 ABC	\$6.68 C	\$6.72 C	\$6.88 C	\$7.43 ABC	\$6.97 BC	\$7.61 ABC	\$8.01 ABC	\$8.53 ABC	\$9.25 A	\$7.70 ABC	\$7.89 ABC
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	\$10.28 A	\$8.74 BCD	\$8.05 DE	\$7.88 EF	\$7.10 F	\$7.90 EF	\$8.14 CDE	\$8.37 CDE	\$8.10 CDE	\$9.51 AB	\$9.91 A	\$8.86 BC	\$8.68 CDE
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	\$9.37 A	\$7.77 CD	\$6.92 DEF	\$6.10 F	\$5.04 G	\$6.54 EF	\$6.97 DEF	\$7.47 CDE	\$7.30 CDE	\$8.81 AB	\$9.58 A	\$8.27 BC	\$7.50 CDE
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	\$7.83 AB	\$6.37 CDE	\$5.52 EF	\$4.87 F	\$3.45 G	\$4.82 F	\$4.84 F	\$6.20 CDE	\$6.08 DE	\$7.98 A	\$8.45 A	\$6.99 BC	\$6.44 CD
Low Income (N=248)	\$8.15 AB	\$7.26 CDE	\$6.50 EF	\$5.94 FG	\$5.26 G	\$5.99 FG	\$6.48 EF	\$6.80 DE	\$6.90 DE	\$7.92 ABC	\$8.62 A	\$7.47 BCD	\$7.03 DE
Medium Income (N=287)	\$9.38 A	\$7.47 BC	\$6.63 D	\$6.35 D	\$5.10 E	\$6.59 D	\$6.56 D	\$7.49 BC	\$7.09 CD	\$8.96 A	\$9.58 A	\$8.07 B	\$7.57 BC
High Income (N=95)	\$12.26 A	\$10.33 BCD	\$9.64 CDE	\$9.13 DE	\$8.57 E	\$9.34 DE	\$9.31 DE	\$9.69 CDE	\$9.63 DE	\$11.12 AB	\$10.99 ABC	\$10.19 BCD	\$10.36 BCD

When analyzing the correlation of the price respondents from the USA are willing to pay for a pound of coffee with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a low positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase value for a pound of coffee across all thirteen countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while coffee from the USA is valued higher compared to coffee from other countries, with the exception of Q1 for Colombia, Brazil and Peru, within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) will pay a higher value for a pound of coffee from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

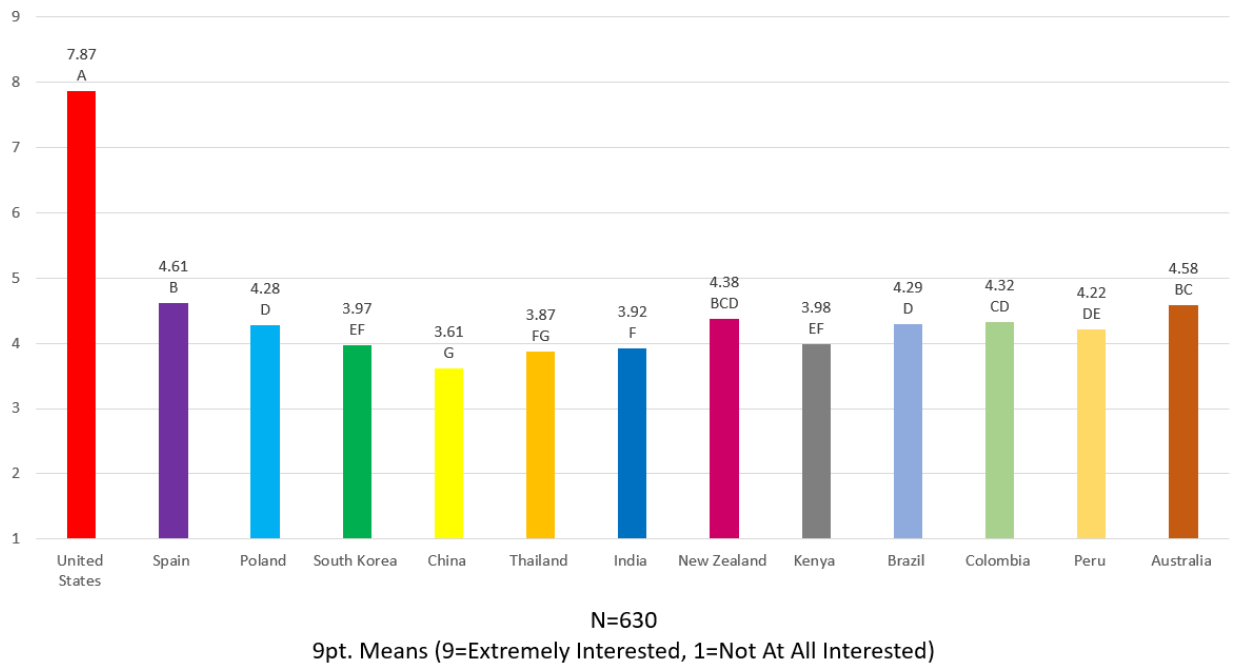
Table 3.6. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Value for a Pound of Coffee from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q12_1	Assume that the current average cost to buy coffee is \$8.50 per pound. How much would you be willing to pay for a pound of coffee that is grown and processed in these countries? Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.	United States	9.33	8.25	8.68	8.65	11.85	0.2891
Q12_2		Spain	7.82	7.65	6.85	7.27	9.56	0.1459
Q12_3		Poland	7.03	6.03	6.02	6.98	9.22	0.2608
Q12_4		South Korea	6.61	5.84	5.35	6.37	8.97	0.2346
Q12_5		China	5.69	4.58	4.25	5.63	8.42	0.2946
Q12_6		Thailand	6.77	6.27	5.49	6.10	9.31	0.2188
Q12_7		India	6.94	6.51	5.58	6.36	9.41	0.2093
Q12_8		New Zealand	7.55	7.54	6.29	7.22	9.20	0.1455
Q12_9		Kenya	7.40	7.46	6.04	6.86	9.30	0.1237
Q12_10		Brazil	8.88	9.37	8.21	7.67	10.27	0.0404
Q12_11		Colombia	9.42	9.62	8.83	8.34	10.88	0.0601
Q12_12		Peru	8.16	8.49	7.16	7.32	9.68	0.0804
Q12_13		Australia	7.78	7.28	6.76	7.47	9.68	0.1980

3.3.0 Chicken

Respondents from the USA are significantly more interested in purchasing chicken originating from the USA, followed by Spain, Australia, and New Zealand (Figure 3). Chicken originating from Thailand and China scored the lowest in willingness to purchase at 3.87 and 3.61 respectively.

Figure 4.3. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Chicken from the USA and Other Countries



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that respondents from USA are significantly more interested in purchasing chicken from the USA compared to other countries.

Table 3.7. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Chicken from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	7.80 A	5.37 B	5.04 BCDEF	4.83 CDEF	4.37 G	4.70 FG	4.73 EFG	5.22 BCD	4.82 DEF	5.24 BC	5.14 BCDE	5.00 BCDEF	5.42 B
Females (N=360)	7.93 A	4.04 B	3.71 BCD	3.33 EFG	3.04 G	3.24 FG	3.31 EFG	3.76 BCD	3.35 EFG	3.57 DEF	3.71 BCD	3.63 CDE	3.96 BC
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	6.95 A	5.05 B	4.96 B	4.74 B	4.54 B	4.60 B	4.89 B	4.91 B	4.93 B	5.23 B	5.23 B	5.02 B	5.16 B
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	7.71 A	5.54 B	5.17 BCD	5.01 CDE	4.65 E	4.87 DE	4.96 CDE	5.26 BCD	4.86 DE	5.21 BCD	5.16 BCD	5.15 BCD	5.34 BC
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	8.03 A	4.30 B	3.92 BCD	3.41 DEF	3.05 F	3.41 DEF	3.34 EF	3.84 BCDE	3.59 CDE	3.82 BCDE	4.03 BC	3.91 BCD	4.19 B
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	8.34 A	3.16 BC	2.86 CD	2.45 DEF	2.04 F	2.32 EF	2.33 EF	3.21 BC	2.49 DEF	2.81 CD	2.82 CD	2.64 DE	3.46 B
Low Income (N=248)	7.53 A	3.97 B	3.77 BC	3.45 CD	3.08 D	3.40 CD	3.47 CD	3.72 BC	3.50 CD	3.63 BC	3.75 BC	3.66 BC	3.95 B
Medium Income (N=287)	8.07 A	4.55 B	4.05 CDEF	3.75 DEFG	3.33 H	3.64 FGH	3.61 GH	4.39 BC	3.73 EFGH	4.16 BCD	4.15 BCD	4.06 CDE	4.48 B
High Income (N=95)	8.16 A	6.46 BC	6.33 BCD	6.01 BCD	5.85 CD	5.78 D	6.03 BCD	6.11 BCD	5.98 BCD	6.39 BCD	6.33 BCD	6.17 BCD	6.56 B

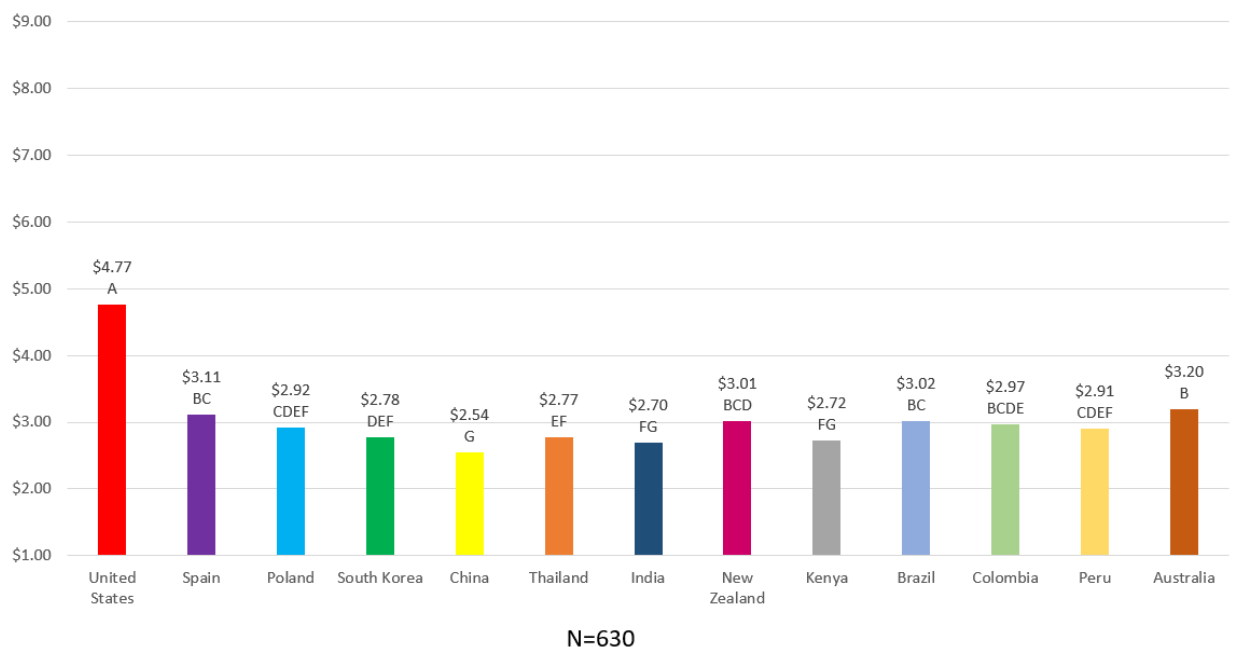
When analyzing the correlation of the purchase interest of chicken among respondents from the USA with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase interest for chicken across all countries except the USA, which has a low negative correlation. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while chicken from the USA scores higher compared to chicken from other countries within each quartile, respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scores similar or higher for purchase interest of chicken from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.8. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Interest in Chicken from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q14_1	How interested would you be to purchase chicken raised and processed in some of these countries if it were available?	United States	7.9	8.2	8.0	7.3	8.0	-0.0487
Q14_2		Spain	4.6	3.8	4.2	4.3	6.3	0.3231
Q14_3		Poland	4.3	3.3	3.9	4.1	6.0	0.3587
Q14_4		South Korea	4.0	3.0	3.4	3.8	5.8	0.3705
Q14_5		China	3.6	2.5	3.0	3.4	5.7	0.4163
Q14_6		Thailand	3.9	2.9	3.4	3.7	5.6	0.3558
Q14_7		India	3.9	2.8	3.4	3.9	5.7	0.3882
Q14_8		New Zealand	4.4	3.7	3.9	4.1	5.8	0.2721
Q14_9		Kenya	4.0	3.0	3.4	3.9	5.7	0.3447
Q14_10		Brazil	4.3	3.4	3.9	3.9	6.0	0.3397
Q14_11		Colombia	4.3	3.4	3.8	4.2	6.0	0.3249
Q14_12		Peru	4.2	3.3	3.7	4.1	5.9	0.3306
Q14_13		Australia	4.6	4.0	4.0	4.3	6.1	0.2647

When presented with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$3.00 per pound for chicken, respondents from the USA were willing to pay \$4.77 per pound of chicken originating from the USA, \$1.77 more than the hypothetical “current” price (Figure 4). The cost of chicken originating from the USA is at a significant advantage compared to all other countries.

Figure 5.4. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Chicken Raised and Processed in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$3.00 Per Pound



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total for the majority of data breaks, indicating that with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$3.00 per pound of chicken, respondents from the USA are willing to pay significantly more for a pound of chicken originating from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. These respondents indicate that compared to the cost they are willing to pay for a pound of chicken in the USA, they would be willing to pay a similar amount for all other countries except India and Kenya.

Table 3.9. USA Respondents’ Amount Willing to Pay for Chicken Raised and Processed in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$3.00 Per Pound by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	\$5.33 A	\$3.80 BC	\$3.62 BCDE	\$3.50 CDE	\$3.26 E	\$3.44 CDE	\$3.38 DE	\$3.77 BC	\$3.36 DE	\$3.80 BC	\$3.70 BCD	\$3.66 BCD	\$3.98 B
Females (N=360)	\$4.35 A	\$2.58 B	\$2.39 BC	\$2.24 CD	\$1.99 D	\$2.26 CD	\$2.19 CD	\$2.44 BC	\$2.23 CD	\$2.44 BC	\$2.43 BC	\$2.35 BC	\$2.61 B
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	\$4.80 A	\$4.05 AB	\$3.97 AB	\$4.00 AB	\$3.92 AB	\$4.15 AB	\$3.65 B	\$4.17 AB	\$3.84 B	\$4.13 AB	\$4.11 AB	\$4.11 AB	\$4.04 AB
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	\$5.43 A	\$3.83 B	\$3.63 BCD	\$3.52 BCD	\$3.25 D	\$3.46 BCD	\$3.50 BCD	\$3.63 BCD	\$3.43 CD	\$3.77 BC	\$3.68 BC	\$3.55 BCD	\$3.75 BC
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	\$4.65 A	\$2.84 BC	\$2.66 BCDE	\$2.41 DEF	\$2.13 F	\$2.42 CDEF	\$2.30 EF	\$2.71 BCDE	\$2.42 CDEF	\$2.73 BCD	\$2.79 BCD	\$2.76 BCD	\$2.99 B
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	\$3.74 A	\$1.77 CD	\$1.56 CDE	\$1.44 DEF	\$1.20 F	\$1.42 EF	\$1.35 EF	\$1.80 BC	\$1.37 EF	\$1.60 CDE	\$1.52 CDEF	\$1.51 CDEF	\$2.13 B
Low Income (N=248)	\$4.27 A	\$2.58 BCD	\$2.42 BCDE	\$2.29 CDE	\$2.14 E	\$2.27 CDE	\$2.31 CDE	\$2.48 BCD	\$2.26 DE	\$2.53 BCD	\$2.59 BC	\$2.46 BCDE	\$2.65 B
Medium Income (N=287)	\$4.72 A	\$3.00 BC	\$2.74 CDE	\$2.54 DEF	\$2.29 F	\$2.60 DEF	\$2.41 EF	\$2.94 BC	\$2.53 DEF	\$2.85 BCD	\$2.78 BCD	\$2.72 CDE	\$3.07 B
High Income (N=95)	\$6.24 A	\$4.79 B	\$4.76 B	\$4.83 B	\$4.33 B	\$4.58 B	\$4.58 B	\$4.61 B	\$4.48 B	\$4.81 B	\$4.56 B	\$4.65 B	\$4.99 B

When analyzing the correlation of the price respondents from the USA are willing to pay for a pound of chicken with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase value for a pound of chicken across all thirteen countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while chicken from the USA is valued higher compared to chicken from other countries within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) will pay a higher value for a pound of chicken from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

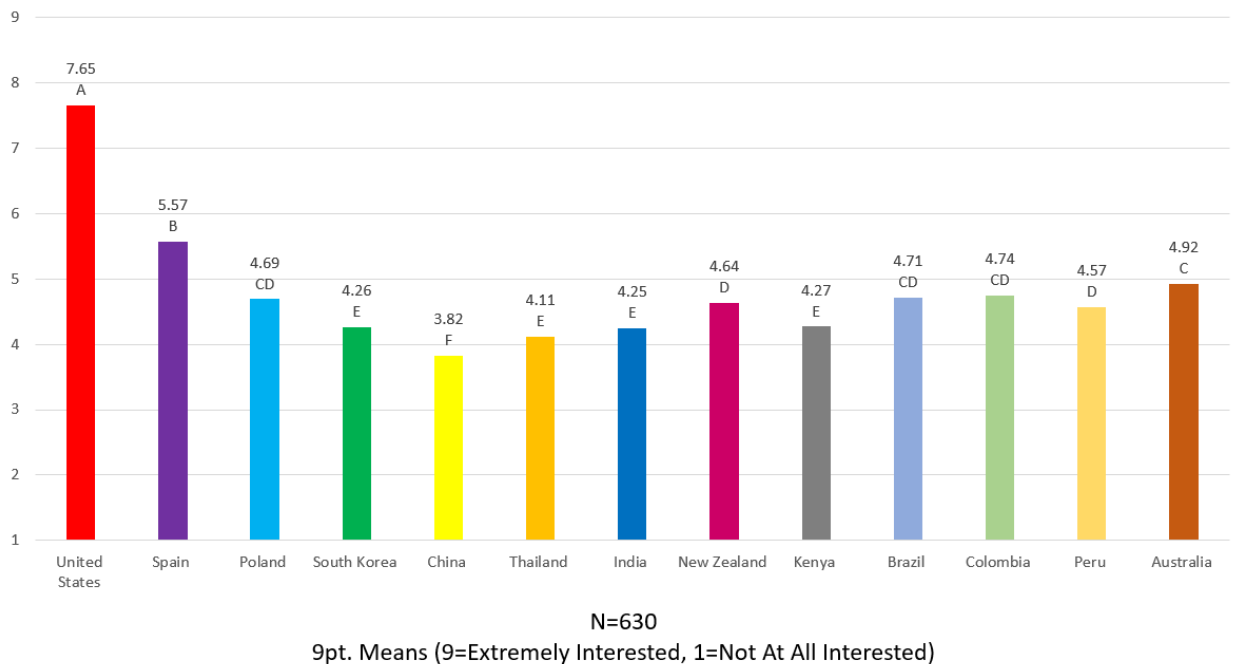
Table 3.10. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Value for a Pound of Chicken from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
Q15_1	Assume that the current average cost to buy chicken is \$3.00 per pound. How much would you be willing to pay for a pound of chicken that is raised and processed in these countries? Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.	United States	4.77	4.09	4.14	4.76	6.16	0.3191
Q15_2		Spain	3.11	2.18	2.46	2.98	4.88	0.3781
Q15_3		Poland	2.92	1.84	2.22	2.87	4.85	0.4223
Q15_4		South Korea	2.78	1.67	2.07	2.78	4.71	0.4262
Q15_5		China	2.54	1.33	1.85	2.50	4.57	0.4355
Q15_6		Thailand	2.77	1.74	2.00	2.85	4.58	0.4033
Q15_7		India	2.70	1.61	1.81	2.80	4.68	0.4386
Q15_8		New Zealand	3.01	2.19	2.26	2.92	4.75	0.3494
Q15_9		Kenya	2.72	1.73	1.95	2.61	4.68	0.4090
Q15_10		Brazil	3.02	1.92	2.39	3.03	4.84	0.3936
Q15_11		Colombia	2.97	2.02	2.23	2.88	4.85	0.3769
Q15_12		Peru	2.91	2.02	2.21	2.72	4.78	0.3685
Q15_13		Australia	3.20	2.34	2.33	3.08	5.12	0.3726

3.4.0 Cooking Oil

Respondents from the USA are significantly more interested in purchasing cooking oil originating from the USA, followed by Spain, being the only other country to score above a 5.0 on a 9-point scale (Figure 5). Cooking oil originating from China is at a significant disadvantage compared to all other countries, scoring the lowest in purchase interest with a 3.82.

Figure 6.5. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Cooking Oil from the USA and Other Countries



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that respondents from USA are significantly more interested in purchasing cooking oil from the USA compared to other countries.

Table 3.11. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Cooking Oil from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	7.66 A	5.97 B	5.32 CD	4.93 DEF	4.59 F	4.77 EF	4.94 DEF	5.23 CD	4.93 DEF	5.31 CD	5.29 CD	5.15 CDE	5.48 C
Females (N=360)	7.64 A	5.27 B	4.21 C	3.76 DE	3.24 F	3.61 EF	3.74 E	4.19 C	3.78 DE	4.25 C	4.33 C	4.14 CD	4.51 C
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	6.65 A	5.61 B	5.07 BC	5.11 BC	4.58 C	4.74 BC	4.79 BC	5.14 BC	5.21 BC	5.51 BC	5.26 BC	5.25 BC	5.54 B
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	7.44 A	6.06 B	5.44 C	5.11 CDE	4.80 E	4.98 DE	5.11 CDE	5.25 CD	4.98 DE	5.38 CD	5.41 CD	5.26 CD	5.48 C
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	7.91 A	5.40 B	4.44 CDE	3.90 EF	3.31 G	3.76 FG	4.05 DEF	4.46 CDE	4.03 DEF	4.56 CD	4.75 C	4.50 CD	4.79 C
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	8.12 A	4.88 B	3.47 CDE	2.86 FGH	2.34 H	2.71 GH	2.78 GH	3.56 CD	2.95 EFG	3.39 CDEF	3.39 CDEF	3.22 DEFG	3.86 C
Low Income (N=248)	7.35 A	5.28 B	4.25 CDE	3.90 DEFG	3.36 H	3.67 GH	3.77 FGH	4.25 CDE	3.88 EFG	4.33 CDE	4.35 CD	4.16 CDEF	4.48 C
Medium Income (N=287)	7.76 A	5.51 B	4.57 C	4.03 DEF	3.62 F	3.93 EF	4.07 DE	4.51 C	4.04 DE	4.54 C	4.55 C	4.39 CD	4.81 C
High Income (N=95)	8.11 A	6.51 B	6.19 BCD	5.92 BCD	5.62 D	5.79 CD	6.04 BCD	6.04 BCD	6.01 BCD	6.22 BCD	6.31 BCD	6.22 BCD	6.43 BC

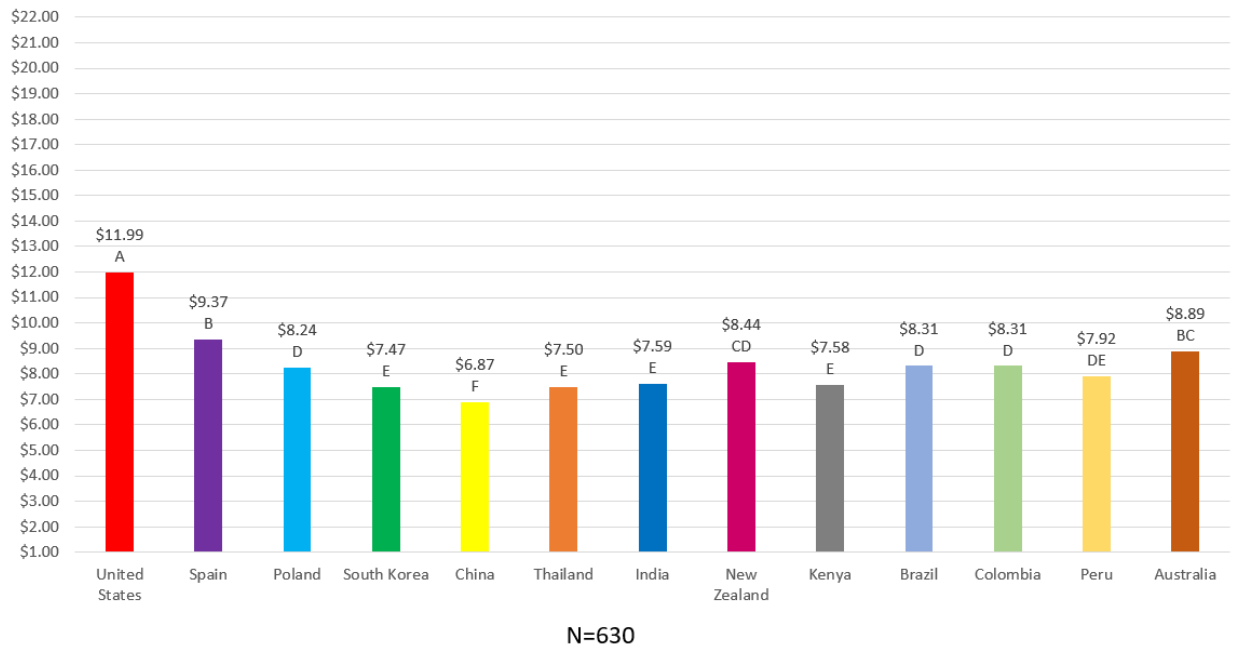
When analyzing the correlation of the purchase interest of cooking oil among respondents from the USA with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a low positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase interest for cooking oil across all countries except the USA, which has a low negative correlation. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while cooking oil from the USA scores higher compared to cooking oil from other countries within each quartile, respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scores similar or higher for purchase interest of cooking oil from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.12. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Interest in Cooking Oil from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q17_1	How interested would you be to purchase cooking oil processed and bottled in some of these countries if it were available?	United States	7.6	7.9	7.8	7.0	7.8	-0.0311
Q17_2		Spain	5.6	5.8	5.1	5.1	6.4	0.0933
Q17_3		Poland	4.7	4.1	4.3	4.4	6.0	0.2534
Q17_4		South Korea	4.3	3.8	3.5	4.2	5.7	0.2745
Q17_5		China	3.8	3.2	3.0	3.7	5.5	0.3033
Q17_6		Thailand	4.1	3.7	3.5	3.8	5.4	0.2402
Q17_7		India	4.3	3.8	3.5	4.1	5.8	0.2739
Q17_8		New Zealand	4.6	4.4	4.2	4.2	5.8	0.1960
Q17_9		Kenya	4.3	3.7	3.6	4.0	5.9	0.3018
Q17_10		Brazil	4.7	4.3	4.2	4.3	6.0	0.2172
Q17_11		Colombia	4.7	4.3	4.2	4.4	6.1	0.2321
Q17_12		Peru	4.6	4.2	4.0	4.3	5.8	0.2337
Q17_13		Australia	4.9	4.6	4.4	4.6	6.1	0.2112

When presented with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$11.00 per 1 liter bottle of cooking oil, respondents from the USA were willing to pay \$11.99 per 1 liter bottle of cooking oil originating from the United States, \$0.99 more than the average price (Figure 6). The cost of cooking oil originating from the USA is at a significant advantage compared to all other countries, being the only country to value above the hypothetical “current” cost. Cooking oil originating from China scored significantly the lowest, with a value of \$6.87.

Figure 7.6. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Cooking Oil Processed and Bottled in the USA and Other Countries, assuming "Current" Price is \$11.00 Per 1 Liter Bottle



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total for the majority of data breaks, indicating that with the hypothetical "current" cost of \$11.00 per 1 liter bottle of cooking oil, respondents from the USA are willing to pay significantly more for a liter of cooking oil originating from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. These respondents indicate that compared to the cost they are willing to pay for a liter of cooking oil in the USA, they would be willing to pay a similar amount for all other countries except South Korea, China, Thailand, and Peru.

Table 3.13. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Cooking Oil Processed and Bottled in the USA and Other Countries, assuming "Current" Price is \$11.00 Per 1 Liter Bottle by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	\$13.57 A	\$11.10 B	\$10.12 CDEF	\$9.35 FG	\$9.05 G	\$9.34 FG	\$9.56 DEFG	\$10.31 BCD	\$9.36 EFG	\$10.27 BCDE	\$10.20 BCDEF	\$9.58 DEFG	\$10.96 BC
Females (N=360)	\$10.80 A	\$8.07 B	\$6.82 CDE	\$6.06 F	\$5.23 G	\$6.11 EF	\$6.11 EF	\$7.05 C	\$6.25 DEF	\$6.83 CDE	\$6.88 CD	\$6.66 CDEF	\$7.34 BC
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	\$11.63 A	\$10.08 AB	\$9.67 AB	\$9.38 B	\$9.25 B	\$9.44 B	\$9.80 AB	\$10.37 AB	\$9.80 AB	\$9.95 AB	\$10.77 AB	\$9.30 B	\$11.13 AB
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	\$13.60 A	\$10.77 B	\$9.99 BCD	\$9.38 DE	\$8.91 E	\$9.23 DE	\$9.32 DE	\$10.06 BCD	\$9.32 DE	\$9.81 CDE	\$9.82 BCDE	\$9.60 CDE	\$10.34 BC
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	\$11.64 A	\$9.20 B	\$7.79 CDE	\$6.80 EF	\$6.02 F	\$6.85 EF	\$7.30 DE	\$8.11 BCD	\$7.37 DE	\$8.57 BC	\$8.37 BCD	\$7.92 CDE	\$8.82 BC
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	\$9.69 A	\$6.84 B	\$5.11 CDE	\$4.13 EFG	\$3.29 G	\$4.43 DEF	\$4.05 FG	\$5.27 CD	\$3.97 FG	\$4.85 CDEF	\$4.71 CDEF	\$4.48 DEF	\$5.64 C
Low Income (N=248)	\$10.01 A	\$8.00 B	\$6.92 CDEF	\$6.08 FG	\$5.41 G	\$6.13 EFG	\$6.31 DEF	\$7.00 CDE	\$6.27 DEFG	\$7.11 BCD	\$7.10 CD	\$6.46 DEF	\$7.43 BC
Medium Income (N=287)	\$12.13 A	\$9.30 B	\$7.94 CDE	\$7.03 FG	\$6.50 G	\$7.18 EFG	\$7.27 EFG	\$8.23 CD	\$7.39 DEF	\$8.00 CDE	\$7.94 CDE	\$7.75 DEF	\$8.76 BC
High Income (N=95)	\$16.72 A	\$13.15 B	\$12.57 B	\$12.45 B	\$11.81 B	\$12.03 B	\$11.88 B	\$12.86 B	\$11.58 B	\$12.36 B	\$12.56 B	\$12.22 B	\$13.13 B

When analyzing the correlation of the price respondents from the USA are willing to pay for a liter of cooking oil with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a low positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase value for a liter of cooking oil across all thirteen countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while cooking oil from the USA is valued higher compared to cooking oil from other countries within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) will pay a higher value for a liter of cooking oil from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

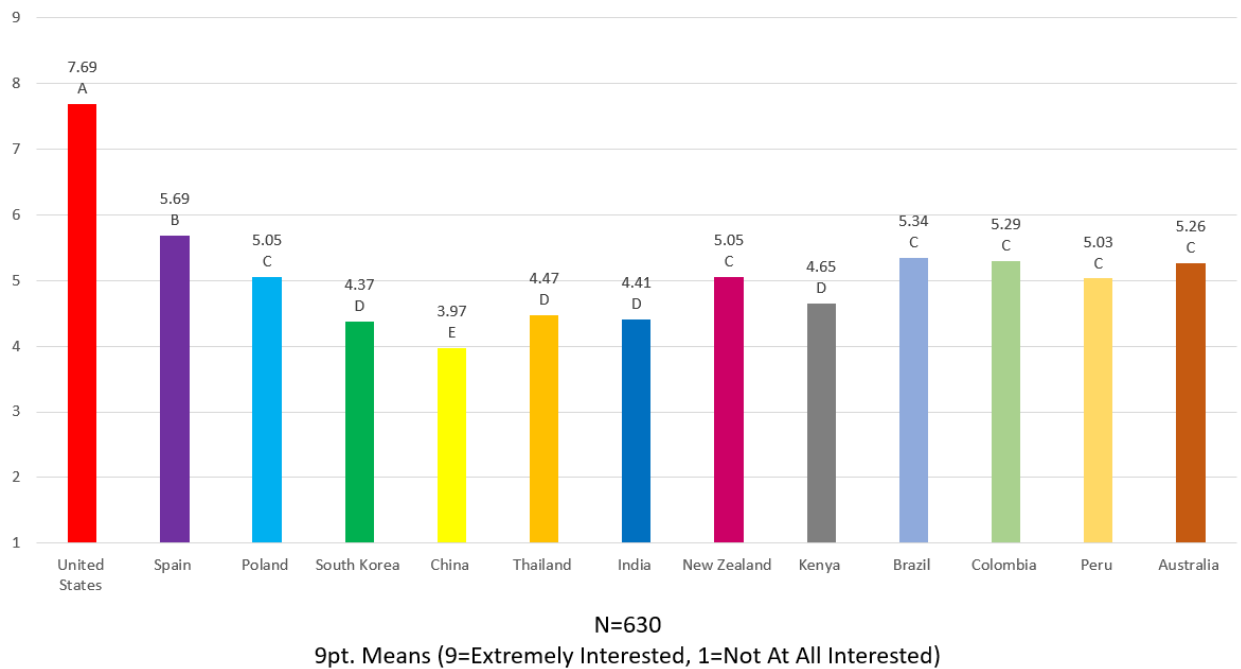
Table 3.14. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Value for a Liter of Cooking Oil from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q18_1	Assume that the current average cost to buy cooking oil is \$11.00 per 1 liter bottle. How much would you be willing to pay for a 1 liter bottle of cooking oil that is processed and bottled in these countries? Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.	United States	11.99	10.98	10.66	11.26	15.18	0.2599
Q18_2		Spain	9.37	8.69	7.91	8.55	12.42	0.2007
Q18_3		Poland	8.24	6.43	6.86	7.74	12.10	0.3120
Q18_4		South Korea	7.47	5.63	5.80	7.32	11.32	0.3260
Q18_5		China	6.87	4.77	4.83	6.85	11.24	0.3456
Q18_6		Thailand	7.50	5.95	6.00	7.27	10.94	0.2808
Q18_7		India	7.59	5.97	5.88	7.13	11.55	0.3002
Q18_8		New Zealand	8.44	7.21	6.88	7.62	12.21	0.2732
Q18_9		Kenya	7.58	5.92	5.82	7.31	11.45	0.3057
Q18_10		Brazil	8.31	6.76	7.06	7.58	11.99	0.2695
Q18_11		Colombia	8.31	6.94	6.84	7.60	12.00	0.2596
Q18_12		Peru	7.92	6.60	6.38	7.22	11.62	0.2686
Q18_13		Australia	8.89	7.73	7.13	8.04	12.83	0.2660

3.5.0 Chocolate

Respondents from the USA showed a significantly higher interest in purchasing chocolate from the USA compared to other countries, scoring a 7.69 on a 9-point scale (Figure 7). Spain scored the second highest with a 5.69, showing a significantly higher interest compared to all other countries, except the USA. China scored the lowest with a 3.97, being the only country to score below a 4.0.

Figure 8.7. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Chocolate from the USA and Other Countries



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that respondents from USA are significantly more interested in purchasing chocolate from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. Within this age group, respondents' interest in purchasing chocolate from the USA is parity for purchasing interest to chocolate originating from all other countries except Poland, China, and India.

Table 3.15. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Chocolate from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	7.60 A	6.06 B	5.51 CDE	5.10 E	4.61 F	5.14 E	5.17 DE	5.61 BCD	5.24 DE	5.90 BC	5.82 BC	5.60 CD	5.78 BC
Females (N=360)	7.76 A	5.42 B	4.70 C	3.83 EF	3.49 F	3.97 E	3.84 EF	4.64 C	4.21 DE	4.92 C	4.89 C	4.61 CD	4.87 C
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	6.63 A	5.70 AB	5.33 B	5.44 B	5.26 B	5.68 AB	5.26 B	5.81 AB	5.82 AB	5.79 AB	6.05 AB	5.74 AB	5.65 AB
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	7.56 A	6.25 B	5.74 CD	5.32 DEF	4.95 F	5.41 CDE	5.28 EF	5.71 CDE	5.32 DEF	5.82 BC	5.83 BC	5.67 CDE	5.81 BC
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	7.85 A	5.59 B	4.89 CD	3.86 EF	3.45 F	4.01 EF	4.12 E	4.89 CD	4.45 DE	5.47 BC	5.31 BC	4.98 BCD	5.13 BC
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	8.16 A	4.82 B	3.90 C	2.86 EF	2.31 F	2.85 EF	2.88 EF	3.81 CD	3.27 DE	4.21 C	4.05 C	3.73 CD	4.29 BC
Low Income (N=248)	7.41 A	5.30 B	4.71 CD	3.94 EF	3.59 F	4.10 E	3.94 EF	4.63 CD	4.30 DE	4.90 BC	4.84 BC	4.71 CD	4.82 BC
Medium Income (N=287)	7.80 A	5.67 B	4.91 C	4.17 DE	3.72 E	4.25 D	4.25 D	5.01 C	4.43 D	5.25 BC	5.25 BC	4.89 C	5.18 C
High Income (N=95)	8.08 A	6.79 B	6.37 BC	6.12 BC	5.73 C	6.09 BC	6.09 BC	6.28 BC	6.26 BC	6.76 B	6.55 B	6.31 BC	6.64 B

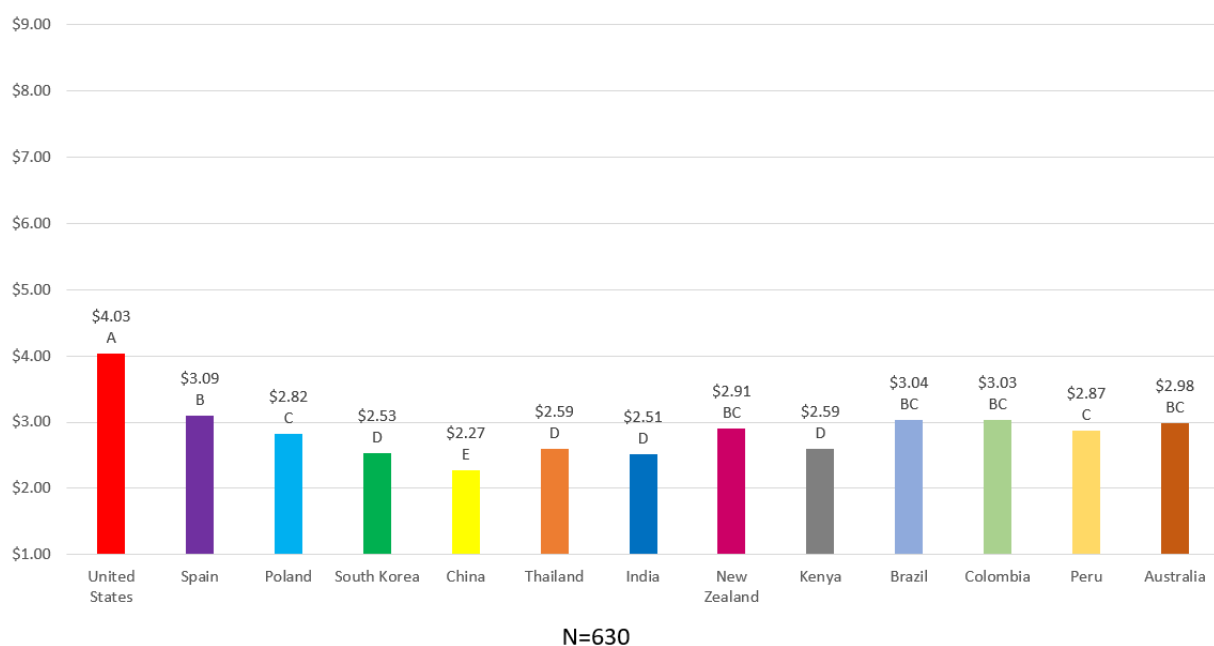
When analyzing the correlation of the purchase interest of chocolate among respondents from the USA with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a low positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase interest for chocolate across all countries except the USA, which has a low negative correlation. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while chocolate from the USA scores higher compared to chocolate from other countries within each quartile, respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scores similar or higher for purchase interest of chocolate from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.16. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Interest in Chocolate from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
		Base Size	630	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
Q20_1	How interested would you be to purchase chocolate made and packaged in some of these countries if it were available?	United States	7.7	7.8	7.8	7.3	7.8	-0.0109
Q20_2		Spain	5.7	6.0	5.4	5.0	6.3	0.0175
Q20_3		Poland	5.0	4.8	4.8	4.6	6.1	0.1601
Q20_4		South Korea	4.4	3.9	3.8	4.0	5.8	0.2301
Q20_5		China	4.0	3.3	3.3	3.8	5.6	0.2861
Q20_6		Thailand	4.5	4.0	3.8	4.1	6.0	0.2430
Q20_7		India	4.4	3.9	3.9	3.9	6.0	0.2426
Q20_8		New Zealand	5.1	4.9	4.7	4.5	6.2	0.1407
Q20_9		Kenya	4.7	4.3	4.1	4.3	6.0	0.1940
Q20_10		Brazil	5.3	5.3	4.9	4.8	6.4	0.1100
Q20_11		Colombia	5.3	5.4	4.8	4.6	6.4	0.0928
Q20_12		Peru	5.0	5.0	4.4	4.6	6.2	0.1299
Q20_13		Australia	5.3	5.2	4.8	4.7	6.4	0.1367

When presented with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$2.00 per 4-ounce bar of chocolate, respondents from the USA were willing to pay \$4.03 per 4-ounce bar of chocolate originating from the USA, \$2.03 more than the average price (Figure 8). The cost of chocolate originating from the USA is at a significant advantage compared to all other countries. Chocolate originating from China scored significantly the lowest, with a value of \$2.27.

Figure 9.8. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Chocolate Made and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$2.00 Per 4-Ounce Bar



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total for the majority of data breaks, indicating that with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$2.00 per 4-ounce bar of chocolate, respondents from the USA are willing to pay significantly more for a 4-ounce bar of chocolate originating from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. These respondents indicate that compared to the cost they are willing to pay for 4-ounces of chocolate in the USA, they would be willing to pay a similar amount for all other countries except Poland, Thailand, India, and Kenya.

Table 3.17. USA Respondents’ Amount Willing to Pay for Chocolate Made and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$2.00 Per 4-Ounce Bar by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	\$4.69 A	\$3.73 B	\$3.50 BC	\$3.24 CD	\$2.95 D	\$3.23 CD	\$3.25 CD	\$3.53 BC	\$3.27 CD	\$3.64 B	\$3.65 B	\$3.57 BC	\$3.64 B
Females (N=360)	\$3.53 A	\$2.62 B	\$2.31 CD	\$1.99 EF	\$1.76 F	\$2.11 DE	\$1.96 EF	\$2.45 BC	\$2.08 DE	\$2.59 BC	\$2.57 BC	\$2.34 BCD	\$2.49 BC
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	\$4.31 A	\$3.37 AB	\$3.31 B	\$3.43 AB	\$3.34 AB	\$3.16 B	\$3.25 B	\$3.94 AB	\$3.19 B	\$3.45 AB	\$3.63 AB	\$3.56 AB	\$3.42 AB
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	\$4.77 A	\$3.89 B	\$3.56 BCDE	\$3.30 DEFG	\$2.95 G	\$3.42 CDEF	\$3.17 FG	\$3.63 BCDE	\$3.28 EFG	\$3.75 BC	\$3.66 BCD	\$3.53 BCDEF	\$3.61 BCDE
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	\$3.79 A	\$2.88 B	\$2.64 BCD	\$2.21 EF	\$2.01 F	\$2.29 DEF	\$2.43 CDE	\$2.60 BCDE	\$2.43 CDE	\$2.88 B	\$2.91 B	\$2.72 BC	\$2.91 B
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	\$2.87 A	\$1.83 B	\$1.53 BCD	\$1.18 DE	\$0.95 E	\$1.23 DE	\$1.18 DE	\$1.59 BC	\$1.34 CD	\$1.82 B	\$1.86 B	\$1.62 BC	\$1.80 B
Low Income (N=248)	\$3.36 A	\$2.64 B	\$2.32 BCD	\$2.05 CDE	\$1.76 E	\$2.14 CD	\$2.00 DE	\$2.49 B	\$2.15 CD	\$2.53 B	\$2.49 B	\$2.38 BC	\$2.54 B
Medium Income (N=287)	\$3.89 A	\$3.01 B	\$2.62 CDE	\$2.34 EF	\$2.12 F	\$2.36 EF	\$2.35 EF	\$2.70 BCD	\$2.44 DEF	\$2.98 B	\$2.99 B	\$2.79 BC	\$2.76 BCD
High Income (N=95)	\$6.19 A	\$4.53 BC	\$4.71 BC	\$4.34 BC	\$4.08 C	\$4.47 BC	\$4.34 BC	\$4.65 BC	\$4.18 BC	\$4.53 BC	\$4.58 BC	\$4.36 BC	\$4.81 B

When analyzing the correlation of the price respondents from the USA are willing to pay for a 4-ounce bar of chocolate with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase value for a 4-ounce bar of chocolate across all thirteen countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while chocolate from the USA is valued higher compared to chocolate from other countries within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) will pay a higher value for a 4-ounce bar of chocolate from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

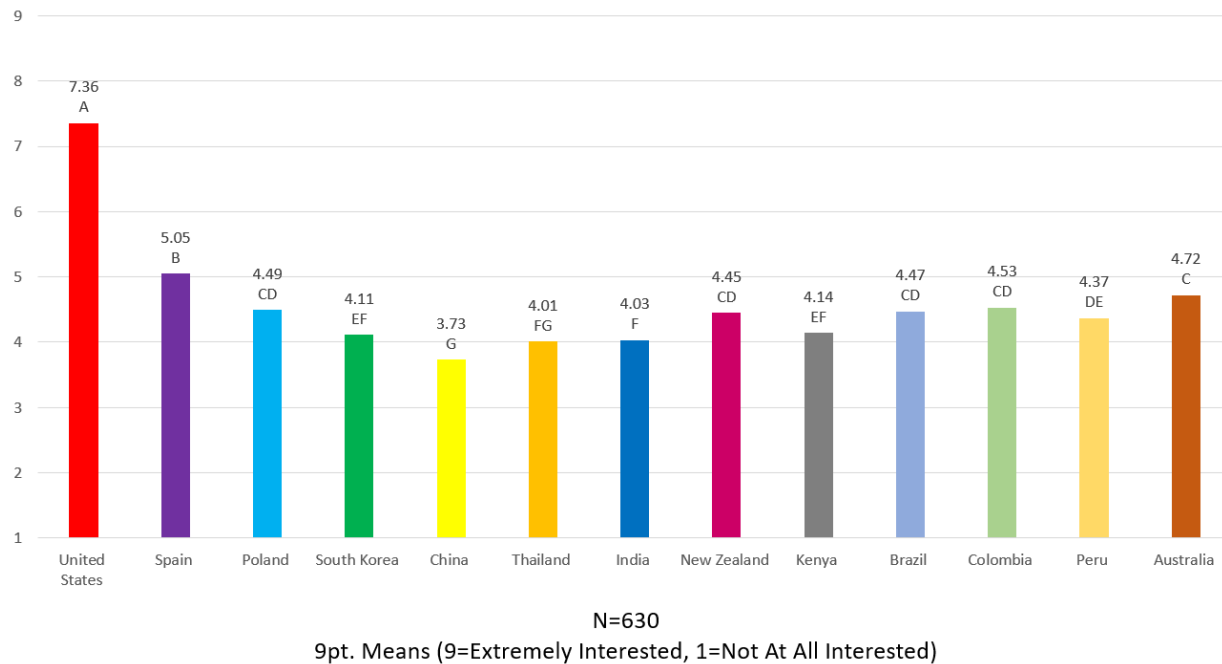
Table 3.18. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Value for a 4-Ounce Bar of Chocolate from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
			Sample	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q21_1	Assume that the current average cost to buy chocolate is \$2.00 per 4 ounce bar. How much would you be willing to pay for a 4 ounce bar of chocolate that is made and packaged in these countries? Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.	United States	4.03	3.14	3.37	4.01	5.66	0.3740
Q21_2		Spain	3.09	2.60	2.44	2.85	4.55	0.2704
Q21_3		Poland	2.82	1.89	2.19	2.75	4.52	0.3763
Q21_4		South Korea	2.53	1.64	1.81	2.53	4.21	0.3694
Q21_5		China	2.27	1.34	1.57	2.22	4.04	0.3924
Q21_6		Thailand	2.59	1.73	1.84	2.49	4.38	0.3822
Q21_7		India	2.51	1.66	1.81	2.31	4.36	0.3864
Q21_8		New Zealand	2.91	2.18	2.21	2.76	4.58	0.3387
Q21_9		Kenya	2.59	1.85	1.92	2.41	4.25	0.3350
Q21_10		Brazil	3.04	2.57	2.45	2.64	4.55	0.2572
Q21_11		Colombia	3.03	2.58	2.41	2.76	4.45	0.2518
Q21_12		Peru	2.87	2.30	2.15	2.62	4.47	0.2947
Q21_13		Australia	2.98	2.26	2.36	2.82	4.56	0.3224

3.6.0 Onions

Respondents from the USA showed a significantly higher interest in purchasing onions from the USA compared to other countries, scoring a 7.36 on a 9-point scale. Spain scored the second highest with a 5.05, showing a significantly higher interest compared to all other countries, except the USA. China scored the lowest with a 3.73, being the only country to score below a 4.0.

Figure 10.9. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Onions from the USA and Other Countries



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that respondents from USA are significantly more interested in purchasing onions from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. Within this age group, respondents' interest in purchasing onions from the USA is parity for purchasing interest to onions originating from Spain, New Zealand, Colombia, Peru, and Australia.

Table 3.19. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Onions from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	7.39 A	5.71 B	5.24 CDE	5.03 DE	4.59 F	4.88 EF	4.90 EF	5.19 CDE	5.02 DE	5.24 CDE	5.31 CD	5.20 CDE	5.52 BC
Females (N=360)	7.34 A	4.56 B	3.92 C	3.43 DEF	3.08 F	3.35 EF	3.39 DEF	3.89 C	3.48 DE	3.89 C	3.93 C	3.76 CD	4.12 C
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	5.91 A	5.19 AB	4.79 B	4.86 B	4.81 B	4.86 B	4.58 B	5.09 AB	4.88 B	4.88 B	5.18 AB	5.05 AB	5.40 AB
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	7.27 A	5.67 B	5.25 CD	5.00 CDE	4.63 E	4.86 DE	4.84 DE	5.13 CD	4.85 DE	5.15 CD	5.16 CD	5.03 CDE	5.38 BC
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	7.64 A	4.82 B	4.24 CDE	3.71 EFG	3.25 G	3.63 FG	3.86 DEF	4.13 CDEF	3.88 DEF	4.38 BCD	4.39 BCD	4.17 CDEF	4.49 BC
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	7.76 A	4.15 B	3.32 CD	2.71 EFG	2.25 G	2.59 FG	2.62 FG	3.35 CD	2.90 DEF	3.22 CDE	3.32 CD	3.20 CDE	3.56 C
Low Income (N=248)	7.05 A	4.52 B	3.96 CD	3.65 DEF	3.21 F	3.47 EF	3.48 EF	3.89 CDE	3.59 DEF	3.94 CD	4.02 CD	3.85 CDE	4.23 BC
Medium Income (N=287)	7.51 A	5.09 B	4.35 CD	3.88 EFG	3.50 G	3.79 FG	3.88 EFG	4.39 C	3.97 DEF	4.35 CD	4.43 C	4.25 CDE	4.63 C
High Income (N=95)	7.72 A	6.29 B	6.29 B	6.03 B	5.77 B	6.04 B	5.95 B	6.07 B	6.09 B	6.17 B	6.16 B	6.13 B	6.26 B

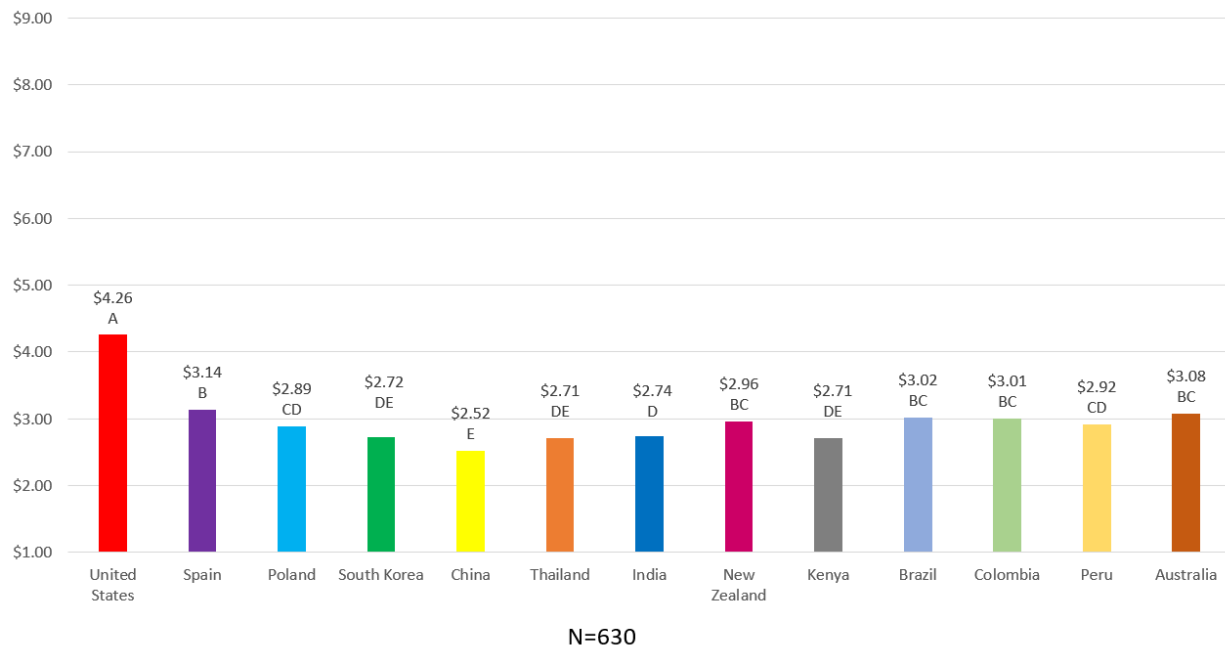
When analyzing the correlation of the purchase interest of onions among respondents from the USA with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase interest for onions across all countries except the USA, which has a low negative correlation. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while onions from the USA scores higher compared to onions from other countries within each quartile, respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scores similar or higher for purchase interest of onions from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.20. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Interest in Onions from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q23_1	How interested would you be to purchase onions grown and packaged in some of these countries if it were available?	United States	7.4	7.6	7.6	6.7	7.5	-0.0258
Q23_2		Spain	5.1	4.7	4.7	4.6	6.3	0.2007
Q23_3		Poland	4.5	3.7	4.0	4.3	6.0	0.3025
Q23_4		South Korea	4.1	3.2	3.6	4.1	5.7	0.3279
Q23_5		China	3.7	2.7	3.1	3.7	5.5	0.3540
Q23_6		Thailand	4.0	3.1	3.4	3.9	5.7	0.3377
Q23_7		India	4.0	3.2	3.5	3.8	5.7	0.3328
Q23_8		New Zealand	4.4	3.8	3.8	4.3	6.0	0.2866
Q23_9		Kenya	4.1	3.4	3.4	3.9	5.9	0.3224
Q23_10		Brazil	4.5	3.8	4.0	4.3	5.8	0.2653
Q23_11		Colombia	4.5	3.8	4.1	4.3	6.0	0.2746
Q23_12		Peru	4.4	3.7	3.8	4.1	6.0	0.2833
Q23_13		Australia	4.7	4.1	4.2	4.4	6.2	0.2720

When presented with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$3.00 per 4-pound bag of onions, respondents from the USA were willing to pay \$4.26 per 4-pound bag of onions originating from the USA, \$1.26 more than the hypothetical “current” price. The cost of onions originating from the USA is at a significant advantage compared to all other countries.

Figure 11.10. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Onions Grown and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$3.00 Per 4-Pound Bag



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total for the majority of data breaks, indicating that with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$3.00 per 4-pound bag of onions, respondents from the USA are willing to pay significantly more for a 4-pound bag of onions originating from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. These respondents indicate that compared to the cost they are willing to pay for a 4-pound bag of onions in the USA, they would be willing to pay a similar amount for Spain, Brazil, Colombia, and Australia.

Table 3.21. USA Respondents’ Amount Willing to Pay for Onions Grown and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$3.00 Per 4-Pound Bag by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	\$4.96 A	\$3.87 B	\$3.67 BCDE	\$3.53 CDE	\$3.35 E	\$3.49 DE	\$3.61 BCDE	\$3.72 BCD	\$3.52 CDE	\$3.84 BC	\$3.84 BC	\$3.67 BCDE	\$3.90 B
Females (N=360)	\$3.73 A	\$2.59 B	\$2.30 CDEF	\$2.11 EFG	\$1.90 G	\$2.13 DEFG	\$2.09 FG	\$2.39 BCD	\$2.11 EFG	\$2.41 BC	\$2.38 BCDE	\$2.35 BCDEF	\$2.46 BC
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	\$4.36 A	\$3.64 AB	\$3.33 B	\$3.46 B	\$3.53 B	\$3.52 B	\$3.36 B	\$3.48 B	\$3.35 B	\$3.60 AB	\$3.59 AB	\$3.49 B	\$3.69 AB
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	\$4.88 A	\$3.74 B	\$3.60 BC	\$3.49 BC	\$3.28 C	\$3.49 BC	\$3.48 BC	\$3.71 B	\$3.46 BC	\$3.75 B	\$3.74 B	\$3.66 B	\$3.82 B
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	\$4.19 A	\$3.03 B	\$2.73 BCDEF	\$2.44 EFG	\$2.23 G	\$2.41 FG	\$2.61 CDEFG	\$2.76 BCDEF	\$2.48 DEFG	\$2.94 BC	\$2.87 BCD	\$2.70 BCDEF	\$2.84 BCDE
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	\$3.21 A	\$2.00 B	\$1.66 CDE	\$1.37 DEF	\$1.14 F	\$1.36 DEF	\$1.35 EF	\$1.68 CD	\$1.41 DEF	\$1.65 CDE	\$1.67 CDE	\$1.64 CDE	\$1.81 BC
Low Income (N=248)	\$3.61 A	\$2.56 B	\$2.34 BCDE	\$2.19 DE	\$2.03 E	\$2.18 DE	\$2.25 BCDE	\$2.32 BCDE	\$2.21 CDE	\$2.53 BC	\$2.49 BCD	\$2.44 BCD	\$2.53 BC
Medium Income (N=287)	\$4.21 A	\$3.04 B	\$2.75 BCDE	\$2.53 EF	\$2.33 F	\$2.59 CDEF	\$2.55 DEF	\$2.90 B	\$2.56 DEF	\$2.88 BC	\$2.84 BCD	\$2.75 BCDE	\$2.95 B
High Income (N=95)	\$6.09 A	\$4.92 B	\$4.73 B	\$4.64 B	\$4.40 B	\$4.45 B	\$4.60 B	\$4.84 B	\$4.49 B	\$4.77 B	\$4.86 B	\$4.67 B	\$4.88 B

When analyzing the correlation of the price respondents from the USA are willing to pay for a 4-pound bag of onions with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase value for a 4-pound bag of onions across all thirteen countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while onions from the USA is valued higher compared to onions from other countries within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) will pay a higher value for a 4-pound bag of onions from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

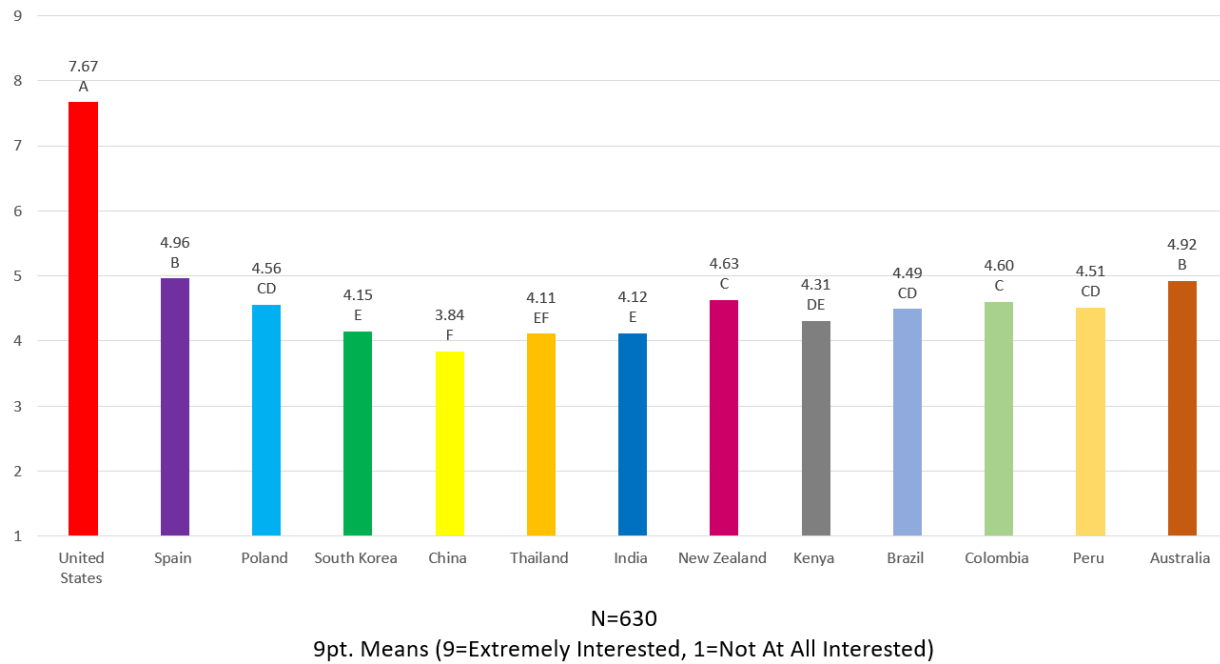
Table 3.22. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Value for a 4-Pound Bag of Onions from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q24_1	Assume that the current average cost to buy onions is \$3.00 per 4 pound bag. How much would you be willing to pay for a 4 pound bag of onions that is grown and packaged in these countries? Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.	United States	4.26	3.61	3.62	4.06	5.81	0.3468
Q24_2		Spain	3.14	2.43	2.48	3.00	4.71	0.3265
Q24_3		Poland	2.89	2.02	2.21	2.79	4.63	0.3707
Q24_4		South Korea	2.72	1.76	1.88	2.79	4.52	0.4003
Q24_5		China	2.52	1.50	1.65	2.56	4.49	0.4140
Q24_6		Thailand	2.71	1.74	1.91	2.83	4.47	0.3986
Q24_7		India	2.74	1.81	2.00	2.81	4.43	0.3734
Q24_8		New Zealand	2.96	2.18	2.20	2.81	4.73	0.3644
Q24_9		Kenya	2.71	1.91	1.98	2.63	4.41	0.3657
Q24_10		Brazil	3.02	2.27	2.26	2.87	4.78	0.3522
Q24_11		Colombia	3.01	2.25	2.29	2.90	4.66	0.3435
Q24_12		Peru	2.92	2.20	2.15	2.77	4.63	0.3492
Q24_13		Australia	3.08	2.36	2.36	2.94	4.73	0.3368

3.7.0 Apples

Respondents from the USA showed a significantly higher interest in purchasing apples from the USA compared to other countries, scoring a 7.67 on a 9-point scale. With the exception of the USA, Spain and Australia scored significantly higher compared to all other countries, scoring a 4.96 and 4.92 respectfully. China is at a significant disadvantage to all other countries, with the exception of Thailand which it is at parity, scoring the lowest with a 3.84, being the only country to score below a 4.0.

Figure 12.11. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Apples from the USA and Other Countries



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that respondents from USA are significantly more interested in purchasing apples from the USA compared to other countries.

Table 3.23. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Apples from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	7.56 A	5.73 B	5.43 BCD	5.00 EFG	4.67 G	4.81 FG	4.90 FG	5.35 BCDE	5.06 DEFG	5.22 CDEF	5.33 BCDE	5.22 CDEF	5.60 BC
Females (N=360)	7.76 A	4.38 B	3.91 CD	3.51 EF	3.22 F	3.58 DEF	3.54 EF	4.09 BC	3.75 CDE	3.95 C	4.04 BC	3.98 C	4.41 B
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	6.28 A	4.96 B	4.77 B	4.95 B	4.61 B	5.02 B	4.67 B	5.02 B	5.04 B	4.88 B	4.89 B	4.95 B	5.18 B
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	7.55 A	5.87 B	5.45 BCD	5.09 DE	4.88 E	5.03 DE	5.04 DE	5.38 CD	5.18 DE	5.26 DE	5.39 CD	5.42 CD	5.75 BC
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	7.97 A	4.62 B	4.20 BCDE	3.71 EFG	3.32 G	3.60 FG	3.81 DEFG	4.24 BCDE	4.01 CDEF	4.34 BCD	4.50 BC	4.23 BCDE	4.61 B
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	8.12 A	3.71 B	3.31 BCDE	2.66 FG	2.28 G	2.68 FG	2.64 FG	3.59 BCD	2.84 EF	3.18 DE	3.21 CDE	3.06 EF	3.68 BC
Low Income (N=248)	7.40 A	4.41 B	4.00 BCD	3.52 EF	3.26 F	3.51 EF	3.45 F	4.03 BCD	3.69 DEF	3.92 CDE	4.00 BCD	3.90 CDE	4.33 BC
Medium Income (N=287)	7.83 A	4.93 B	4.47 CDEF	4.07 FGH	3.66 H	4.01 GH	4.02 GH	4.70 BCD	4.19 EFG	4.41 DEFG	4.49 CDE	4.39 DEFG	4.86 BC
High Income (N=95)	7.92 A	6.46 BC	6.29 BC	6.02 BC	5.92 C	5.97 BC	6.18 BC	5.99 BC	6.29 BC	6.25 BC	6.46 BC	6.47 BC	6.62 B

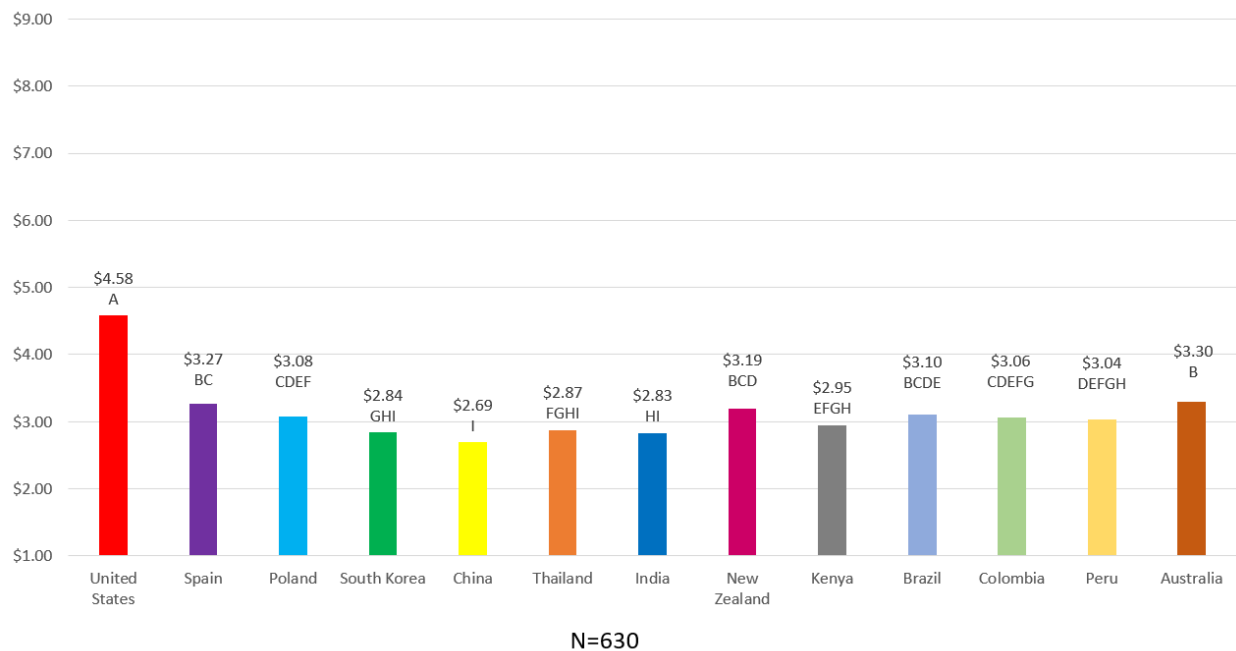
When analyzing the correlation of the purchase interest of apples among respondents from the USA with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase interest for apples across all countries except the USA, which has a low negative correlation. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while apples from the USA scores higher compared to apples from other countries within each quartile, respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scores similar or higher for purchase interest of apples from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.24. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Apples from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q26_1	How interested would you be to purchase apples grown and packaged in some of these countries if it were available?	United States	7.7	8.0	7.8	7.2	7.7	-0.0370
Q26_2		Spain	5.0	4.5	4.6	4.6	6.3	0.2341
Q26_3		Poland	4.6	3.9	3.9	4.4	6.1	0.2917
Q26_4		South Korea	4.1	3.4	3.5	4.0	5.8	0.3227
Q26_5		China	3.8	2.9	3.1	3.7	5.8	0.3573
Q26_6		Thailand	4.1	3.2	3.4	4.1	5.8	0.3310
Q26_7		India	4.1	3.2	3.4	4.0	6.0	0.3496
Q26_8		New Zealand	4.6	4.2	4.0	4.3	6.1	0.2382
Q26_9		Kenya	4.3	3.5	3.6	4.1	6.2	0.3353
Q26_10		Brazil	4.5	3.9	3.9	4.2	6.1	0.2721
Q26_11		Colombia	4.6	3.8	4.0	4.4	6.2	0.3013
Q26_12		Peru	4.5	3.7	3.8	4.4	6.2	0.3018
Q26_13		Australia	4.9	4.3	4.2	4.7	6.5	0.2749

When presented with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$3.50 per 3-pound bag of apples, respondents from the USA were willing to pay \$4.58 per 3-pound bag of apples originating from the USA, \$1.08 more than the hypothetical “current” price. The cost of apples originating from the USA is at a significant advantage compared to all other countries.

Figure 13.12. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Apples Grown and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$3.50 Per 3-Pound Bag



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total for the majority of data breaks, indicating that with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$3.50 per 3-pound bag of apples, respondents from the USA are willing to pay significantly more for a 3-pound bag of apples originating from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. These respondents indicate that compared to the cost they are willing to pay for a 3-pound bag of apples in the USA, they would be willing to pay a similar amount for Spain, New Zealand, and Australia.

Table 3.25. USA Respondents’ Amount Willing to Pay for Apples Grown and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$3.50 Per 3-Pound Bag by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	\$5.13 A	\$4.05 B	\$3.90 BCD	\$3.55 EF	\$3.41 F	\$3.63 DEF	\$3.60 DEF	\$3.99 BC	\$3.68 CDEF	\$3.87 BCDE	\$3.80 BCDE	\$3.82 BCDE	\$4.04 B
Females (N=360)	\$4.16 A	\$2.68 BC	\$2.46 BCDE	\$2.31 DEF	\$2.15 F	\$2.30 EF	\$2.25 EF	\$2.59 BCD	\$2.41 CDEF	\$2.53 BCDE	\$2.50 BCDE	\$2.45 CDE	\$2.74 B
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	\$4.72 A	\$3.95 AB	\$3.60 B	\$3.73 B	\$3.60 B	\$3.84 B	\$3.50 B	\$3.93 AB	\$3.61 B	\$3.57 B	\$3.54 B	\$3.63 B	\$4.01 AB
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	\$5.14 A	\$4.00 B	\$3.83 BC	\$3.65 BC	\$3.50 C	\$3.64 C	\$3.63 C	\$3.86 BC	\$3.74 BC	\$3.86 BC	\$3.76 BC	\$3.83 BC	\$4.01 B
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	\$4.47 A	\$3.05 B	\$2.85 BCDE	\$2.47 EF	\$2.30 F	\$2.56 CDEF	\$2.54 DEF	\$2.96 BCD	\$2.76 BCDE	\$2.97 BC	\$2.96 BC	\$2.75 BCDE	\$3.03 B
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	\$3.67 A	\$1.97 BC	\$1.81 BCD	\$1.47 EF	\$1.32 F	\$1.50 DEF	\$1.47 EF	\$1.99 BC	\$1.53 DEF	\$1.76 BCDE	\$1.76 BCDE	\$1.74 CDE	\$2.06 B
Low Income (N=248)	\$4.02 A	\$2.74 BC	\$2.60 BCD	\$2.29 DE	\$2.24 E	\$2.41 CDE	\$2.34 DE	\$2.60 BCD	\$2.47 BCDE	\$2.58 BCD	\$2.58 BCD	\$2.49 BCDE	\$2.79 B
Medium Income (N=287)	\$4.49 A	\$3.13 B	\$2.94 BCDE	\$2.61 FG	\$2.50 G	\$2.66 DEFG	\$2.64 EFG	\$3.12 B	\$2.76 CDEFG	\$2.98 BC	\$2.96 BCD	\$2.91 BCDEF	\$3.13 B
High Income (N=95)	\$6.30 A	\$5.08 BC	\$4.74 BC	\$4.95 BC	\$4.42 C	\$4.71 BC	\$4.65 BC	\$4.92 BC	\$4.81 BC	\$4.86 BC	\$4.57 BC	\$4.85 BC	\$5.12 B

When analyzing the correlation of the price respondents from the USA are willing to pay for a 3-pound bag of apples with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase value for a 3-pound bag of apples across all thirteen countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while apples from the USA is valued higher compared to apples from other countries within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and

69) will pay a higher value for a 3-pound bag of apples from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

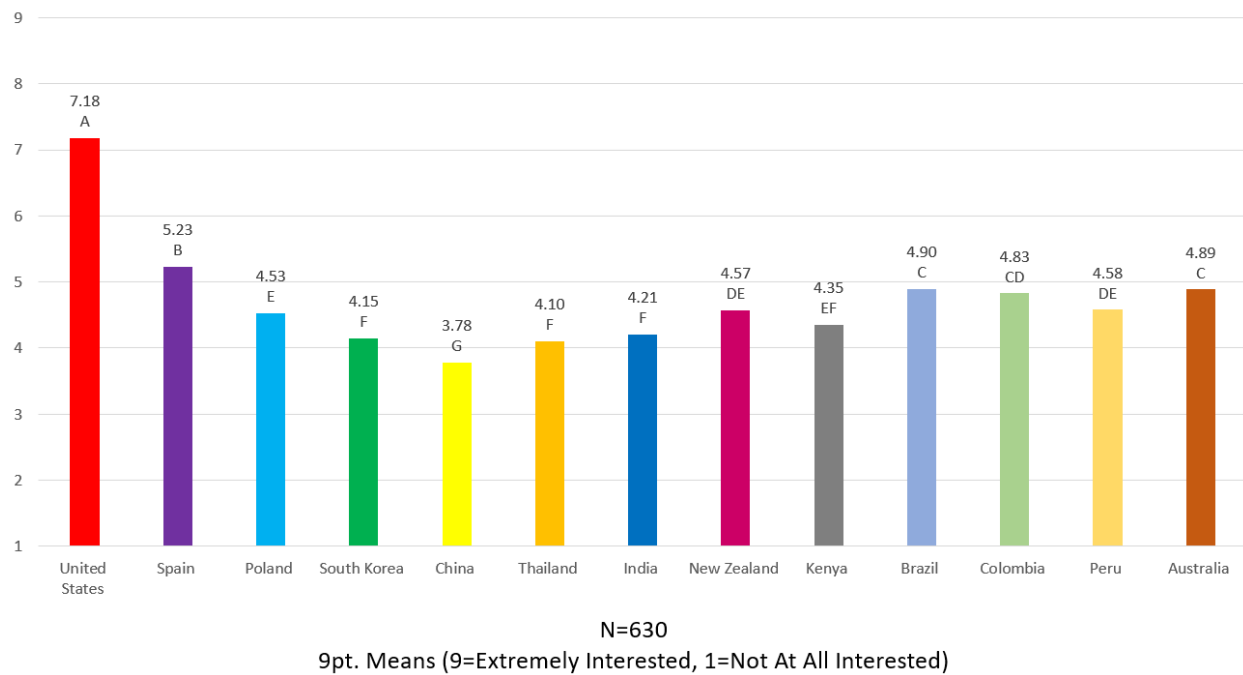
Table 3.26. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Value for a 3-Pound Bag of Apples from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q27_1	Assume that the current average cost to buy apples is \$3.50 per 3 pound bag. How much would you be willing to pay for a 3 pound bag of apples that is grown and packaged in these countries? Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.	United States	4.58	3.94	4.10	4.40	5.95	0.3398
Q27_2		Spain	3.27	2.65	2.64	3.13	4.72	0.2988
Q27_3		Poland	3.08	2.25	2.42	3.05	4.68	0.3455
Q27_4		South Korea	2.84	1.99	2.04	2.87	4.54	0.3692
Q27_5		China	2.69	1.72	1.83	2.74	4.55	0.3890
Q27_6		Thailand	2.87	2.03	2.12	2.95	4.47	0.3598
Q27_7		India	2.83	1.98	2.12	2.71	4.58	0.3692
Q27_8		New Zealand	3.19	2.57	2.51	2.96	4.79	0.3050
Q27_9		Kenya	2.95	2.08	2.16	2.92	4.74	0.3751
Q27_10		Brazil	3.10	2.43	2.40	3.01	4.64	0.3162
Q27_11		Colombia	3.06	2.47	2.28	2.93	4.61	0.3038
Q27_12		Peru	3.04	2.27	2.33	2.92	4.70	0.3529
Q27_13		Australia	3.30	2.69	2.52	3.14	4.91	0.3152

3.8.0 Almonds

Respondents from the USA showed a significantly higher interest in purchasing almonds from the USA compared to other countries, scoring a 7.18 on a 9-point scale. With the exception of the USA, Spain scored significantly higher compared to all other countries, scoring a 5.23 respectfully, being the only other country to score above a 5.0. China is at a significant disadvantage compared to all other countries, scoring the lowest with a 3.78, being the only country to score below a 4.0.

Figure 14.13. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Almonds from the USA and Other Countries



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that respondents from USA are significantly more interested in purchasing almonds from the USA compared to other countries.

Table 3.27. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Almonds from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	7.41 A	5.97 B	5.29 CDE	5.06 DEF	4.65 F	4.96 EF	5.01 EF	5.31 CDE	5.17 DE	5.48 CD	5.46 CD	5.27 CDE	5.61 BC
Females (N=360)	7.01 A	4.69 B	3.96 EFG	3.46 HI	3.12 I	3.46 HI	3.62 GH	4.01 DEFG	3.74 FGH	4.46 BC	4.35 BCDE	4.07 CDEF	4.36 BCD
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	6.33 A	5.07 B	4.58 B	4.72 B	4.32 B	4.68 B	4.75 B	4.68 B	5.02 B	4.96 B	4.79 B	4.54 B	4.86 B
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	7.00 A	5.91 B	5.39 CD	5.13 DE	4.86 E	5.01 DE	5.04 DE	5.29 CD	5.06 DE	5.32 CD	5.38 CD	5.31 CD	5.59 BC
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	7.46 A	5.01 B	4.30 CDE	3.66 FG	3.14 G	3.80 EF	4.01 DEF	4.52 BCD	4.25 CDEF	5.04 B	4.82 BC	4.54 BCD	4.66 BC
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	7.53 A	4.34 B	3.24 EF	2.71 FGH	2.33 H	2.62 GH	2.80 EFGH	3.33 DE	2.99 EFG	3.99 B	3.89 BCD	3.38 CDE	3.94 BC
Low Income (N=248)	6.59 A	4.54 B	3.84 DE	3.49 EF	3.16 F	3.51 EF	3.60 EF	3.81 E	3.78 E	4.31 BC	4.29 BCD	3.96 CDE	4.34 BC
Medium Income (N=287)	7.47 A	5.38 B	4.53 CD	4.09 EF	3.67 F	3.97 EF	4.16 DE	4.71 C	4.27 DE	4.93 C	4.81 C	4.59 CD	4.87 C
High Income (N=95)	7.87 A	6.60 B	6.33 BC	6.02 BC	5.72 C	6.05 BC	5.98 BC	6.12 BC	6.09 BC	6.31 BC	6.27 BC	6.18 BC	6.42 B

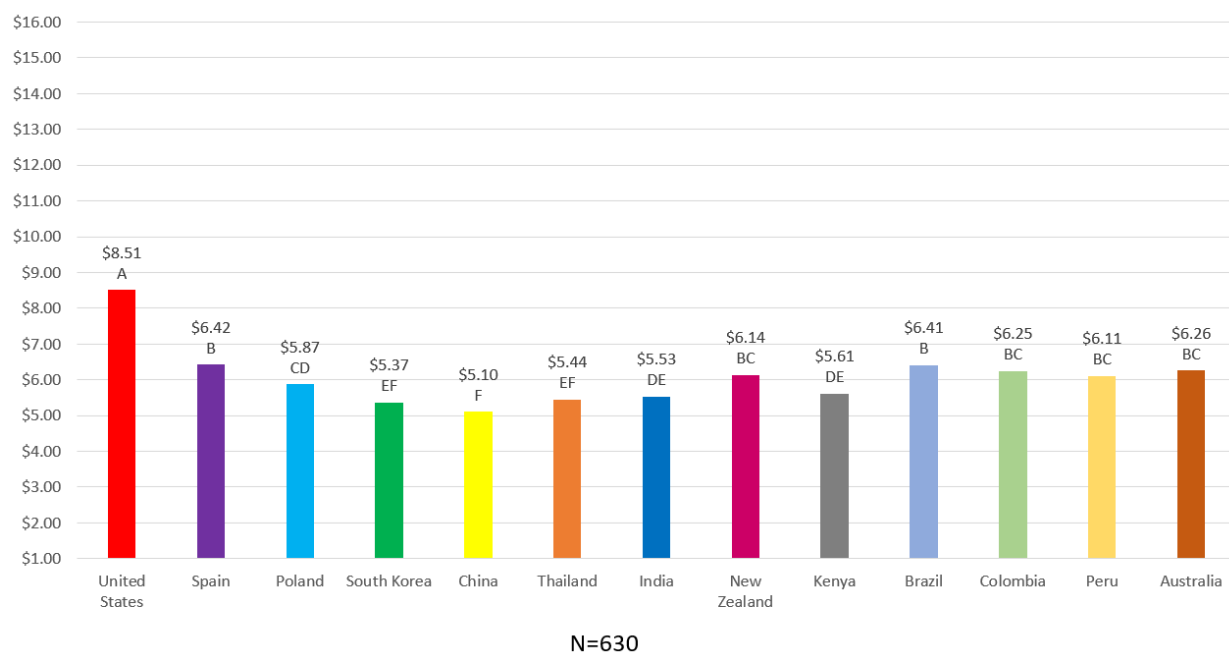
When analyzing the correlation of the purchase interest of almonds among respondents from the USA with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a low positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase interest for almonds across all 13 countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while almonds from the USA scores higher compared to almonds from other countries within each quartile, respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scores similar or higher for purchase interest of almonds from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.28. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Interest in Almonds from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q29_1	How interested would you be to purchase almonds grown and packaged in some of these countries if it were available?	United States	7.2	7.3	7.3	6.7	7.5	0.0221
Q29_2		Spain	5.2	5.0	5.1	4.5	6.4	0.1492
Q29_3		Poland	4.5	3.9	4.1	4.2	6.0	0.2754
Q29_4		South Korea	4.1	3.4	3.5	4.0	5.8	0.3048
Q29_5		China	3.8	2.9	3.1	3.5	5.7	0.3289
Q29_6		Thailand	4.1	3.4	3.5	3.8	5.8	0.3059
Q29_7		India	4.2	3.4	3.8	4.0	5.8	0.3070
Q29_8		New Zealand	4.6	4.1	4.1	4.2	5.9	0.2177
Q29_9		Kenya	4.4	3.7	3.6	4.1	6.1	0.2799
Q29_10		Brazil	4.9	4.7	4.3	4.6	6.0	0.1653
Q29_11		Colombia	4.8	4.4	4.4	4.5	6.1	0.2088
Q29_12		Peru	4.6	4.3	3.8	4.3	5.9	0.2119
Q29_13		Australia	4.9	4.5	4.4	4.6	6.2	0.2076

When presented with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$7.50 per 1-pound bag of almonds, respondents from the USA were willing to pay \$8.51 per 1-pound bag of almonds originating from the USA, \$1.01 more than the hypothetical “current” price. The cost of almonds originating from the United States USA is at a significant advantage compared to all other countries.

Figure 15.14. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Almonds Grown and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$7.50 Per 1-Pound Bag



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total for the majority of data breaks, indicating that with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$7.50 per 1-pound bag of almonds, respondents from the USA are willing to pay significantly more for a 1-pound bag of almonds originating from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. These respondents indicate that compared to the cost they are willing to pay for a 1-pound bag of almonds in the USA, they would be willing to pay a similar amount for Peru.

Table 3.29. USA Respondents’ Amount Willing to Pay for Almonds Grown and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$7.50 Per 1-Pound Bag by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	\$9.82 A	\$7.73 B	\$7.31 BCDE	\$6.66 F	\$6.57 F	\$6.75 EF	\$6.88 DEF	\$7.39 BCD	\$6.98 CDEF	\$7.57 BC	\$7.64 B	\$7.38 BCD	\$7.71 B
Females (N=360)	\$7.52 A	\$5.43 B	\$4.79 CD	\$4.40 DE	\$3.99 E	\$4.46 DE	\$4.52 DE	\$5.20 BC	\$4.57 D	\$5.55 B	\$5.21 BC	\$5.15 BC	\$5.17 BC
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	\$9.28 A	\$6.88 BC	\$7.17 BC	\$7.09 BC	\$6.31 C	\$7.23 BC	\$7.20 BC	\$7.47 BC	\$6.93 BC	\$7.49 BC	\$7.51 BC	\$7.97 AB	\$6.93 BC
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	\$9.28 A	\$7.35 B	\$7.02 BCD	\$6.46 D	\$6.64 CD	\$6.61 CD	\$6.62 CD	\$7.23 BC	\$6.63 CD	\$7.02 BCD	\$7.22 BC	\$7.04 BCD	\$7.22 BC
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	\$8.38 A	\$6.25 BC	\$5.65 CD	\$5.15 DE	\$4.48 E	\$5.17 DE	\$5.56 CD	\$5.93 CD	\$5.67 CD	\$6.81 B	\$6.24 BC	\$6.10 BC	\$6.34 BC
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	\$7.02 A	\$4.81 B	\$3.64 DEF	\$3.05 FG	\$2.59 G	\$3.03 FG	\$2.99 FG	\$3.97 CD	\$3.28 EF	\$4.57 BC	\$4.13 BCD	\$3.81 DE	\$4.27 BCD
Low Income (N=248)	\$7.13 A	\$5.43 BC	\$4.83 CDEFG	\$4.50 GH	\$4.18 H	\$4.64 FGH	\$4.77 DEFGH	\$5.06 CDEFG	\$4.70 EFGH	\$5.70 B	\$5.38 BCD	\$5.30 BCDE	\$5.23 BCDEF
Medium Income (N=287)	\$8.62 A	\$6.35 B	\$5.65 CD	\$5.17 DE	\$4.74 E	\$5.04 E	\$5.27 DE	\$6.02 BC	\$5.27 DE	\$6.22 BC	\$6.02 BC	\$5.74 CD	\$6.14 BC
High Income (N=95)	\$11.77 A	\$9.22 B	\$9.28 B	\$8.21 B	\$8.59 B	\$8.76 B	\$8.30 B	\$9.32 B	\$8.99 B	\$8.85 B	\$9.21 B	\$9.32 B	\$9.33 B

When analyzing the correlation of the price respondents from the USA are willing to pay for a 1-pound bag of almonds with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a low positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase value for a 1-pound bag of almonds across all thirteen countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while almonds from the USA is valued higher compared to almonds from other countries within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) will pay a higher value for a 1-pound bag of almonds from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

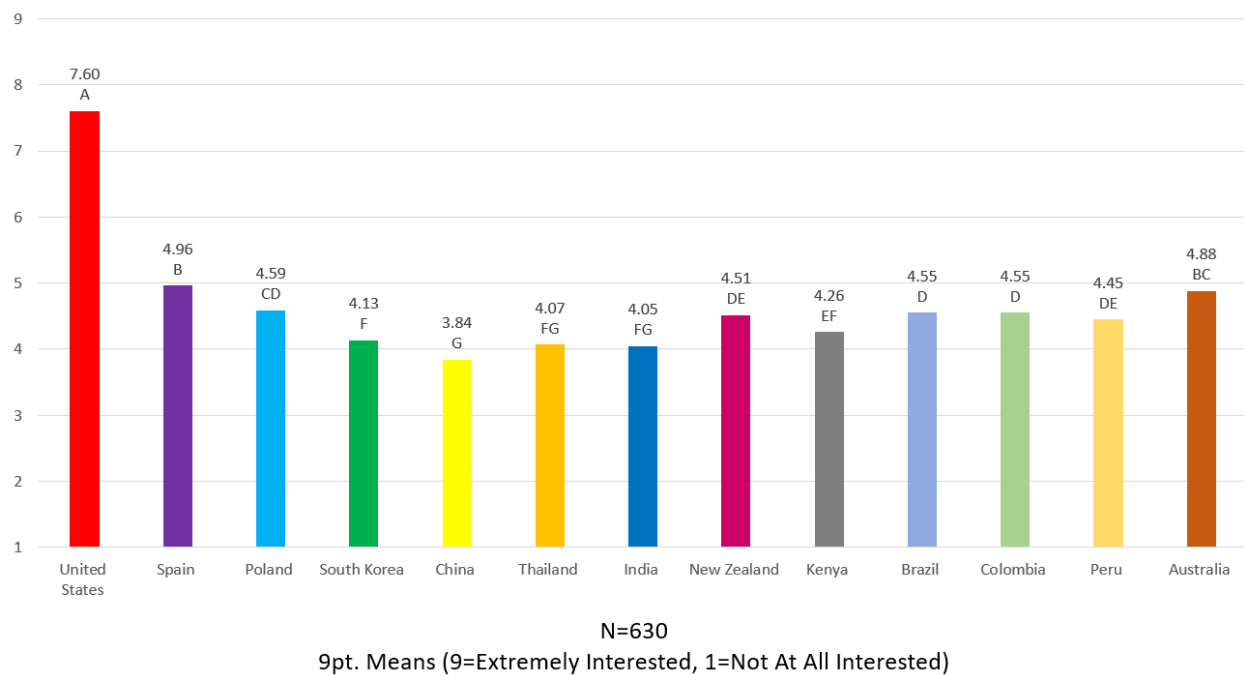
Table 3.30. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Value for a 1-Pound Bag of Almonds from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q30_1	Assume that the current average cost to buy almonds is \$7.50 per 1 pound bag. How much would you be willing to pay for a 1 pound bag of almonds that is grown and packaged in these countries? Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.	United States	8.51	7.42	7.74	8.01	10.97	0.3051
Q30_2		Spain	6.42	5.82	5.68	5.74	8.50	0.1991
Q30_3		Poland	5.87	4.47	4.75	5.50	8.93	0.3405
Q30_4		South Korea	5.37	3.99	4.15	5.18	8.28	0.3240
Q30_5		China	5.10	3.21	3.60	5.36	8.40	0.3906
Q30_6		Thailand	5.44	3.97	4.13	5.35	8.47	0.3552
Q30_7		India	5.53	4.25	4.44	5.26	8.30	0.3135
Q30_8		New Zealand	6.14	5.24	4.93	5.73	8.77	0.2693
Q30_9		Kenya	5.61	4.52	4.29	5.29	8.44	0.2956
Q30_10		Brazil	6.41	6.11	5.15	5.68	8.80	0.1932
Q30_11		Colombia	6.25	5.51	5.00	5.84	8.75	0.2406
Q30_12		Peru	6.11	5.33	4.63	5.69	8.88	0.2683
Q30_13		Australia	6.26	5.36	5.28	6.00	8.51	0.2378

3.9.0 Chocolate Chip Cookies

Respondents from the USA showed a significantly higher interest in purchasing chocolate chip cookies from the USA compared to other countries, scoring a 7.60 on a 9-point scale. With the exception of the USA, Spain and Australia scored significantly higher compared to all other countries, with the exception of Australia being at parity with Poland, scoring a 4.96 and 4.88 respectively. China is at a significant disadvantage compared to a majority of other countries, scoring the lowest with a 3.84, being the only country to score below a 4.0.

Figure 16.15. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Chocolate Chip Cookies from the USA and Other Countries



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that respondents from USA are significantly more interested in purchasing chocolate chip cookies from the USA compared to other countries.

Table 3.31. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Chocolate Chip Cookies from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	7.61 A	5.71 B	5.37 BCD	4.99 DEF	4.71 F	4.86 EF	4.86 EF	5.17 CDE	5.04 DEF	5.20 CDE	5.21 CDE	5.10 CDEF	5.52 BC
Females (N=360)	7.59 A	4.40 B	4.01 CD	3.49 EF	3.19 F	3.48 EF	3.44 EF	4.02 BCD	3.66 DE	4.06 BC	4.06 BC	3.96 CD	4.40 B
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	6.89 A	5.56 B	5.46 B	5.30 B	4.89 B	5.12 B	4.86 B	5.25 B	4.93 B	4.96 B	5.25 B	4.91 B	5.19 B
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	7.47 A	5.78 B	5.42 BCD	5.14 DE	4.89 E	5.09 DE	5.03 DE	5.36 BCD	5.11 DE	5.24 CDE	5.28 CDE	5.31 CDE	5.65 BC
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	7.71 A	4.82 B	4.31 BC	3.61 EF	3.35 F	3.61 EF	3.67 DEF	4.22 CD	4.06 CDE	4.52 BC	4.41 BC	4.21 CD	4.59 BC
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	7.99 A	3.47 BC	3.13 CD	2.48 EF	2.12 F	2.40 EF	2.44 EF	3.08 CD	2.73 DE	3.22 BCD	3.19 CD	3.03 CD	3.73 B
Low Income (N=248)	7.21 A	4.42 B	4.10 BC	3.65 CDE	3.38 E	3.54 DE	3.42 DE	4.01 BC	3.66 CDE	4.02 BC	4.05 BC	3.86 CD	4.35 B
Medium Income (N=287)	7.80 A	4.89 B	4.47 BCD	3.98 EFG	3.56 G	3.87 FG	3.95 FG	4.41 CD	4.15 DEF	4.44 CD	4.44 CD	4.40 CDE	4.81 BC
High Income (N=95)	8.03 A	6.63 B	6.24 BC	5.86 C	5.87 C	6.07 BC	6.00 BC	6.14 BC	6.15 BC	6.26 BC	6.22 BC	6.13 BC	6.49 BC

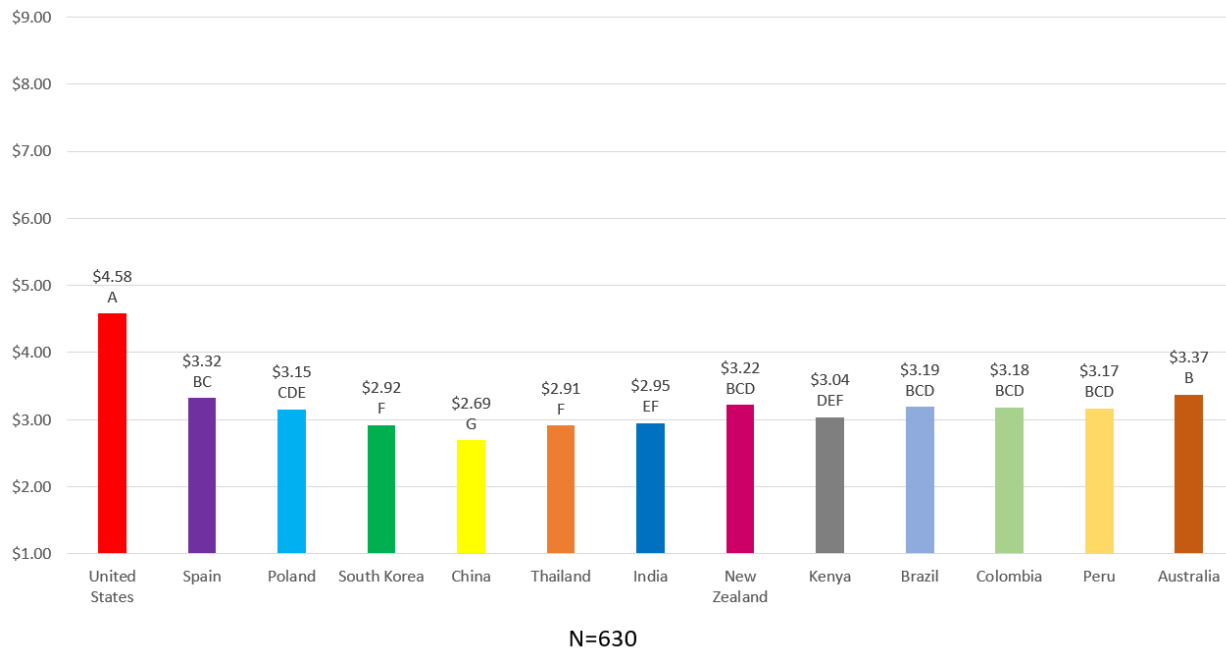
When analyzing the correlation of the purchase interest of chocolate chip cookies among respondents from the USA with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a low positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase interest for chocolate chip cookies across all countries except for the USA which has a low negative correlation. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while chocolate chip cookies from the USA scores higher compared to chocolate chip cookies from other countries within each quartile, respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scores similar or higher for purchase interest of chocolate chip cookies from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.32. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Chocolate Chip Cookies from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q32_1	How interested would you be to purchase chocolate chip cookies made and packaged in some of these countries if it were available?	United States	7.6	8.1	7.7	6.8	7.8	-0.0737
Q32_2		Spain	5.0	4.4	4.7	4.6	6.3	0.2193
Q32_3		Poland	4.6	4.0	4.2	4.3	6.0	0.2451
Q32_4		South Korea	4.1	3.5	3.5	3.9	5.7	0.2719
Q32_5		China	3.8	3.0	3.1	3.7	5.7	0.3363
Q32_6		Thailand	4.1	3.3	3.4	3.8	5.9	0.3172
Q32_7		India	4.0	3.3	3.5	3.7	5.8	0.3069
Q32_8		New Zealand	4.5	4.3	4.0	4.0	5.8	0.1786
Q32_9		Kenya	4.3	3.6	3.6	3.9	6.0	0.2916
Q32_10		Brazil	4.5	3.9	4.1	4.2	6.0	0.2703
Q32_11		Colombia	4.6	4.0	4.2	4.1	5.9	0.2316
Q32_12		Peru	4.4	3.9	3.9	4.2	5.9	0.2494
Q32_13		Australia	4.9	4.3	4.6	4.5	6.1	0.2263

When presented with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$3.50 per 18-ounce box of chocolate chip cookies, respondents from the USA were willing to pay \$4.58 per 18- ounce box of chocolate chip cookies originating from the USA, \$1.08 more than the hypothetical “current” price. The cost of chocolate chip cookies originating from the USA is at a significant advantage compared to all other countries.

Figure 17.16. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Chocolate Chip Cookies Made and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming "Current" Price is \$3.50 Per 18-Ounce Box



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total for the majority of data breaks, indicating that with the hypothetical "current" cost of \$3.50 per 18-ounce box of chocolate chip cookies, respondents from the USA are willing to pay significantly more for a 18-ounce box of chocolate chip cookies originating from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. These respondents indicate that compared to the cost they are willing to pay for a 18-ounce box of chocolate chip cookies in the USA, they would be willing to pay a similar amount for all other countries except China, India, and Brazil.

Table 3.33. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Chocolate Chip Cookies Made and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming "Current" Price is \$3.50 Per 18-Ounce Box by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	\$5.23 A	\$4.17 BC	\$3.99 BCD	\$3.74 DE	\$3.55 E	\$3.69 DE	\$3.78 DE	\$4.00 BCD	\$3.87 CDE	\$3.93 BCD	\$3.96 BCD	\$3.93 BCD	\$4.23 B
Females (N=360)	\$4.09 A	\$2.69 BC	\$2.52 BCDE	\$2.31 EF	\$2.04 F	\$2.32 DEF	\$2.33 DEF	\$2.63 BC	\$2.42 CDE	\$2.63 BC	\$2.59 BCDE	\$2.60 BCD	\$2.72 B
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	\$4.71 A	\$4.08 AB	\$4.02 AB	\$4.06 AB	\$3.74 B	\$3.91 AB	\$3.79 B	\$4.07 AB	\$4.22 AB	\$3.69 B	\$3.89 AB	\$4.38 AB	\$4.37 AB
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	\$5.12 A	\$3.98 B	\$3.86 BC	\$3.66 BC	\$3.51 C	\$3.66 BC	\$3.73 BC	\$3.94 B	\$3.73 BC	\$3.91 B	\$3.87 B	\$3.85 BC	\$4.01 B
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	\$4.46 A	\$3.34 B	\$3.06 BCD	\$2.75 DE	\$2.44 E	\$2.75 DE	\$2.88 CD	\$3.09 BCD	\$2.92 BCD	\$3.17 BCD	\$3.19 BC	\$3.05 BCD	\$3.30 BC
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	\$3.71 A	\$1.88 B	\$1.69 BCD	\$1.40 DEF	\$1.13 F	\$1.40 DEF	\$1.34 EF	\$1.78 BC	\$1.54 CDE	\$1.77 BC	\$1.71 BCD	\$1.66 BCDE	\$1.97 B
Low Income (N=248)	\$3.96 A	\$2.80 B	\$2.65 BCD	\$2.51 BCDE	\$2.21 E	\$2.43 DE	\$2.45 CDE	\$2.76 BC	\$2.69 BCD	\$2.65 BCD	\$2.73 BCD	\$2.80 B	\$2.83 B
Medium Income (N=287)	\$4.55 A	\$3.21 B	\$2.97 BCDE	\$2.69 EF	\$2.52 F	\$2.71 EF	\$2.75 DEF	\$3.02 BCD	\$2.78 CDEF	\$3.09 BC	\$2.99 BCDE	\$2.96 BCDE	\$3.25 B
High Income (N=95)	\$6.27 A	\$5.02 BC	\$5.01 BC	\$4.70 BC	\$4.49 C	\$4.78 BC	\$4.83 BC	\$5.00 BC	\$4.76 BC	\$4.90 BC	\$4.94 BC	\$4.75 BC	\$5.15 B

When analyzing the correlation of the price respondents from the USA are willing to pay for a 18-ounce box of chocolate chip cookies with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase value for a 18-ounce box of chocolate chip cookies across all thirteen countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while chocolate chip cookies from the USA is valued higher compared to chocolate chip cookies from other countries within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) will pay a higher value for a 18-ounce box of chocolate chip cookies from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

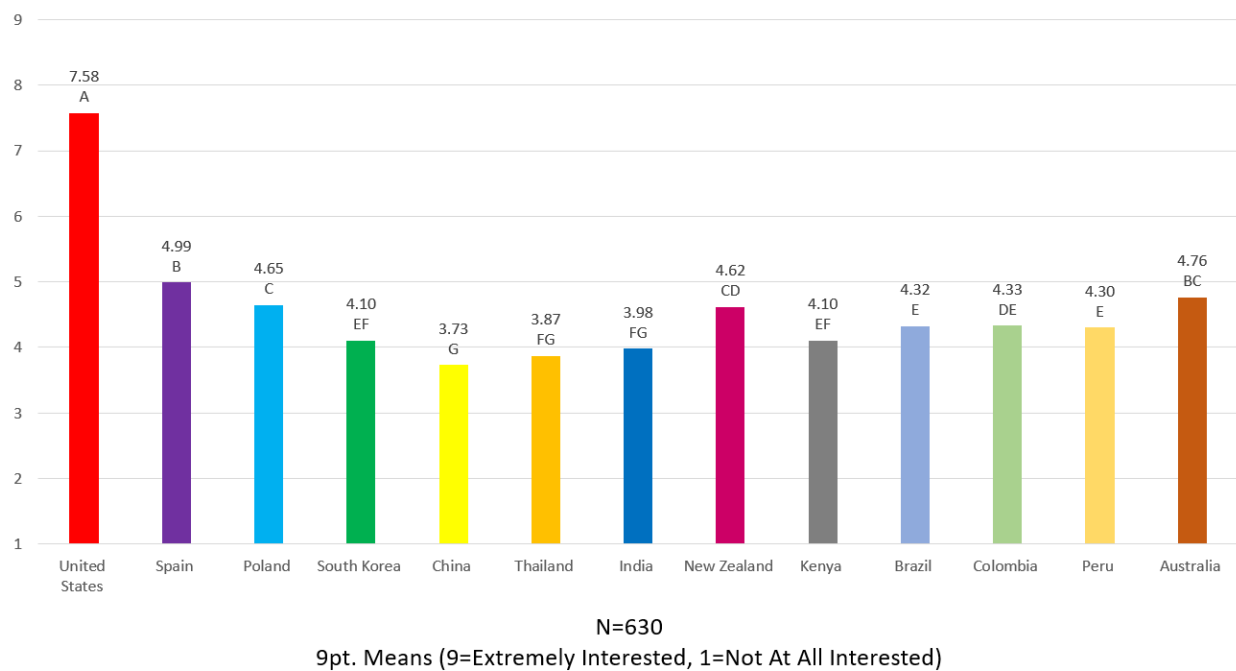
Table 3.34. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Value for a 18-Ounce Box of Chocolate Chip Cookies from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q33_1	Assume that the current average cost to buy chocolate chip cookies is \$3.50 per 18 ounce box. How much would you be willing to pay for a 18 ounce box of chocolate chip cookies that is made and packaged in these countries? Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.	United States	4.58	4.01	4.10	4.36	5.90	0.3102
Q33_2		Spain	3.32	2.57	2.79	3.06	4.93	0.3157
Q33_3		Poland	3.15	2.22	2.49	3.02	4.96	0.3805
Q33_4		South Korea	2.92	2.18	2.13	2.79	4.67	0.3464
Q33_5		China	2.69	1.72	1.94	2.73	4.47	0.3842
Q33_6		Thailand	2.91	2.07	2.18	2.84	4.64	0.3600
Q33_7		India	2.95	2.03	2.27	2.73	4.85	0.3863
Q33_8		New Zealand	3.22	2.61	2.42	3.06	4.84	0.3157
Q33_9		Kenya	3.04	2.25	2.40	2.79	4.82	0.3446
Q33_10		Brazil	3.19	2.42	2.63	2.95	4.83	0.3260
Q33_11		Colombia	3.18	2.48	2.54	3.03	4.74	0.3121
Q33_12		Peru	3.17	2.43	2.46	2.94	4.91	0.3362
Q33_13		Australia	3.37	2.70	2.78	3.07	5.00	0.3021

3.10.0 Cheddar Cheese

Respondents from the USA showed a significantly higher interest in purchasing cheddar cheese from the USA compared to other countries, scoring a 7.58 on a 9-point scale. With the exception of the USA, Spain and Australia scored significantly higher compared to all other countries, with the exception of Australia being at parity with Poland and New Zealand, scoring a 4.99 and 4.76 respectfully. China is at a significant disadvantage compared to a majority of other countries, scoring the lowest with a 3.73.

Figure 18.17. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Cheddar Cheese from the USA and Other Countries



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that respondents from USA are significantly more interested in purchasing cheddar cheese from the USA compared to other countries.

Table 3.35. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Cheddar Cheese from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	7.59 A	5.63 B	5.35 BC	5.00 CD	4.51 E	4.61 DE	4.59 DE	5.30 BC	4.77 DE	4.97 CD	4.93 CDE	4.97 CD	5.47 B
Females (N=360)	7.57 A	4.51 B	4.12 CD	3.43 FGH	3.14 H	3.32 GH	3.52 EFG	4.11 CD	3.59 EFG	3.84 DE	3.88 CDE	3.79 DEF	4.23 BC
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	6.46 A	5.18 B	4.79 B	4.91 B	4.46 B	4.74 B	4.35 B	4.82 B	4.68 B	4.67 B	4.60 B	5.00 B	4.77 B
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	7.44 A	5.70 B	5.43 BCD	5.15 CDE	4.83 E	4.86 E	5.03 DE	5.30 BCD	5.05 CDE	5.11 CDE	5.12 CDE	5.13 CDE	5.46 BC
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	7.75 A	4.78 B	4.45 BC	3.60 DE	3.21 E	3.42 E	3.60 DE	4.41 BC	3.72 DE	4.18 CD	4.17 CD	4.08 CD	4.65 BC
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	8.06 A	3.90 B	3.44 BCD	2.49 EFG	2.08 G	2.28 FG	2.40 FG	3.58 BC	2.61 EFG	2.97 DE	3.03 CDE	2.81 EF	3.67 B
Low Income (N=248)	7.22 A	4.47 B	4.06 BCD	3.44 EF	3.09 F	3.29 EF	3.33 EF	3.98 CD	3.46 EF	3.67 DE	3.75 CDE	3.73 CDE	4.17 BC
Medium Income (N=287)	7.76 A	4.99 B	4.59 BCD	4.03 EF	3.63 F	3.67 F	3.88 EF	4.66 BC	3.99 EF	4.29 CDE	4.29 CDE	4.21 DE	4.74 B
High Income (N=95)	7.95 A	6.36 B	6.34 B	6.04 B	5.68 B	5.99 B	5.95 B	6.17 B	6.07 B	6.13 B	5.99 B	6.03 B	6.37 B

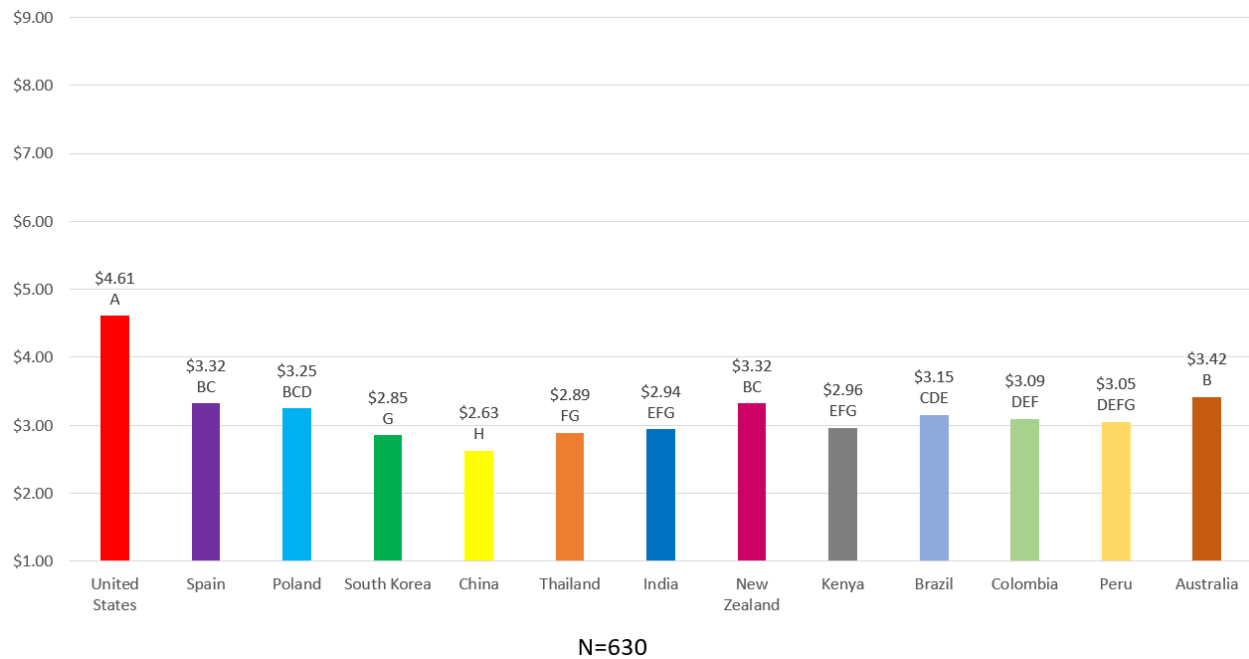
When analyzing the correlation of the purchase interest of cheddar cheese among respondents from the USA with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase interest for cheddar cheese across all countries except for the USA which has a low negative correlation. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while cheddar cheese from the USA scores higher compared to cheddar cheese from other countries within each quartile, respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scores similar or higher for purchase interest of cheddar cheese from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.36. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Interest in Cheddar Cheese from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q35_1	How interested would you be to purchase cheddar cheese processed and packaged in some of these countries if it were available?	United States	7.6	8.1	7.7	6.6	7.9	-0.0820
Q35_2		Spain	5.0	4.7	4.5	4.5	6.3	0.1921
Q35_3		Poland	4.6	4.3	4.1	4.2	6.1	0.2208
Q35_4		South Korea	4.1	3.3	3.4	3.9	5.9	0.3279
Q35_5		China	3.7	2.8	3.0	3.5	5.7	0.3669
Q35_6		Thailand	3.9	2.9	3.2	3.6	5.9	0.3626
Q35_7		India	4.0	3.1	3.3	3.8	5.8	0.3460
Q35_8		New Zealand	4.6	4.4	4.1	4.0	6.0	0.2011
Q35_9		Kenya	4.1	3.3	3.4	3.9	5.8	0.3144
Q35_10		Brazil	4.3	3.7	3.8	4.0	5.9	0.2693
Q35_11		Colombia	4.3	3.5	3.8	4.2	5.9	0.3090
Q35_12		Peru	4.3	3.6	3.7	4.1	5.9	0.2827
Q35_13		Australia	4.8	4.3	4.2	4.4	6.2	0.2304

When presented with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$3.50 per pound of cheddar cheese, respondents from the USA were willing to pay \$4.61 per pound of cheddar cheese originating from the USA, \$1.11 more than the hypothetical “current” price. The cost of cheddar cheese originating from the USA is at a significant advantage compared to all other countries.

Figure 19.18. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Cheddar Cheese Processed and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$3.50 Per Pound



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total for the majority of data breaks, indicating that with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$3.50 per pound of cheddar cheese, respondents from the USA are willing to pay significantly more for a pound of cheddar cheese originating from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. These respondents indicate that compared to the cost they are willing to pay for a pound of cheddar cheese in the USA, they would be willing to pay a similar amount for all other countries except Thailand.

Table 3.37. USA Respondents’ Amount Willing to Pay for Cheddar Cheese Processed and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming “Current” Price is \$3.50 Per Pound by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	\$5.26 A	\$3.96 BCDE	\$4.02 BCD	\$3.62 EF	\$3.47 F	\$3.66 DEF	\$3.65 EF	\$4.06 BC	\$3.62 EF	\$3.83 BCDE	\$3.81 BCDEF	\$3.76 CDEF	\$4.14 B
Females (N=360)	\$4.13 A	\$2.84 BC	\$2.67 BCDE	\$2.28 FG	\$2.00 G	\$2.31 F	\$2.41 EF	\$2.77 BCD	\$2.47 EF	\$2.65 BCDE	\$2.55 CDEF	\$2.52 DEF	\$2.89 B
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	\$4.53 A	\$4.03 AB	\$3.89 AB	\$3.78 AB	\$3.83 AB	\$3.71 B	\$3.87 AB	\$4.23 AB	\$3.97 AB	\$4.01 AB	\$3.98 AB	\$3.89 AB	\$4.28 AB
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	\$5.11 A	\$3.93 B	\$3.94 B	\$3.64 BC	\$3.45 C	\$3.63 BC	\$3.65 BC	\$3.88 B	\$3.66 BC	\$3.83 B	\$3.69 BC	\$3.72 BC	\$3.95 B
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	\$4.50 A	\$3.19 BC	\$3.18 BC	\$2.60 EF	\$2.25 F	\$2.72 DE	\$2.81 CDE	\$3.21 BC	\$2.83 CDE	\$3.03 BCDE	\$3.06 BCD	\$2.97 BCDE	\$3.32 B
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	\$3.91 A	\$2.12 BC	\$1.87 CD	\$1.40 FG	\$1.14 G	\$1.48 EFG	\$1.50 EFG	\$2.13 BC	\$1.51 DEF	\$1.80 CDE	\$1.77 CDEF	\$1.66 DEF	\$2.28 B
Low Income (N=248)	\$3.98 A	\$2.96 B	\$2.85 BCD	\$2.39 EF	\$2.24 F	\$2.35 EF	\$2.50 EF	\$2.89 BC	\$2.54 DEF	\$2.67 BCDE	\$2.68 BCDE	\$2.57 CDEF	\$2.92 BC
Medium Income (N=287)	\$4.64 A	\$3.17 BC	\$3.03 BCD	\$2.67 EF	\$2.37 F	\$2.77 DE	\$2.74 DE	\$3.14 BC	\$2.76 DE	\$3.00 BCD	\$2.93 CDE	\$2.88 CDE	\$3.31 B
High Income (N=95)	\$6.21 A	\$4.72 B	\$4.94 B	\$4.62 B	\$4.39 B	\$4.67 B	\$4.67 B	\$4.96 B	\$4.66 B	\$4.90 B	\$4.66 B	\$4.81 B	\$5.07 B

When analyzing the correlation of the price respondents from the USA are willing to pay for a pound of cheddar cheese with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase value for a pound of cheddar cheese across all thirteen countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while cheddar cheese from the USA is valued higher compared to cheddar cheese from other countries within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism

scores between 49 and 69) will pay a higher value for a pound of cheddar cheese from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

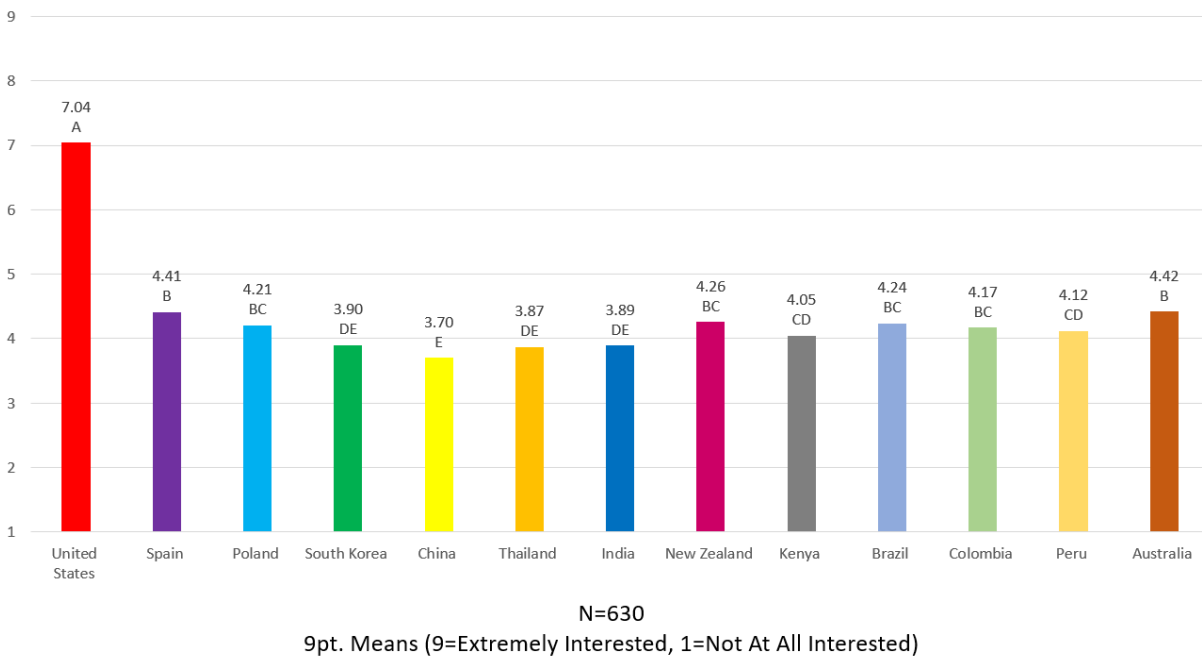
Table 3.38. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Value for a Pound of Cheddar Cheese from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q36_1	Assume that the current average cost to buy cheddar cheese is \$3.50 per pound. How much would you be willing to pay for a pound of cheddar cheese that is processed and packaged in these countries? Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.	United States	4.61	4.19	4.05	4.32	5.95	0.2836
Q36_2		Spain	3.32	2.77	2.73	3.06	4.78	0.2767
Q36_3		Poland	3.25	2.44	2.57	3.11	4.95	0.3555
Q36_4		South Korea	2.85	1.93	2.09	2.84	4.64	0.3872
Q36_5		China	2.63	1.54	1.76	2.71	4.61	0.4284
Q36_6		Thailand	2.89	1.84	2.03	3.02	4.77	0.4107
Q36_7		India	2.94	1.87	2.09	2.90	5.00	0.4290
Q36_8		New Zealand	3.32	2.71	2.60	3.14	4.89	0.2982
Q36_9		Kenya	2.96	2.00	2.09	2.99	4.87	0.3969
Q36_10		Brazil	3.15	2.23	2.40	3.00	5.09	0.3815
Q36_11		Colombia	3.09	2.17	2.40	2.91	4.99	0.3768
Q36_12		Peru	3.05	2.15	2.25	3.04	4.84	0.3760
Q36_13		Australia	3.42	2.80	2.71	3.15	5.08	0.2976

3.11.0 Pre-Popped Popcorn

Respondents from the USA showed a significantly higher interest in purchasing pre-popped popcorn from the USA compared to other countries, scoring a 7.04 on a 9-point scale. All other countries vary in interest in purchasing, scoring similarly to one another.

Figure 20.19. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Pre-Popped Popcorn from the USA and Other Countries



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total, indicating that respondents from USA are significantly more interested in purchasing pre-popped popcorn from the USA compared to other countries.

Table 3.39. USA Respondents' Interest in Purchasing Pre-Popped Popcorn from the USA and Other Countries by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	7.30 A	5.19 B	4.98 BC	4.76 CD	4.57 D	4.71 CD	4.73 CD	5.02 BC	4.87 BCD	5.02 BC	4.95 BCD	4.89 BCD	5.19 B
Females (N=360)	6.85 A	3.84 B	3.64 BC	3.26 DE	3.04 E	3.24 DE	3.26 DE	3.69 BC	3.44 CD	3.66 BC	3.59 BCD	3.54 BCD	3.85 B
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	6.21 A	4.96 B	4.88 B	4.53 B	4.81 B	4.72 B	4.47 B	4.95 B	4.72 B	4.68 B	4.54 B	4.63 B	4.91 B
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	7.12 A	5.24 B	5.13 BC	4.85 BCD	4.67 D	4.76 CD	4.78 CD	5.05 BCD	4.93 BCD	5.02 BCD	4.94 BCD	4.94 BCD	5.21 B
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	7.07 A	4.07 BCD	3.71 BCDE	3.50 EF	3.10 F	3.52 DEF	3.58 CDEF	3.95 BCDE	3.70 BCDE	4.15 B	4.16 B	3.94 BCDE	4.11 BC
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	7.19 A	3.14 BC	2.89 BCDE	2.44 EFG	2.19 G	2.37 FG	2.44 EFG	2.94 BCD	2.64 DEFG	2.84 BCDEF	2.72 BCDEF	2.69 CDEF	3.19 B
Low Income (N=248)	6.47 A	3.85 B	3.62 BC	3.29 CD	3.08 D	3.30 CD	3.24 CD	3.60 BC	3.46 BCD	3.65 BC	3.59 BC	3.52 BC	3.87 B
Medium Income (N=287)	7.30 A	4.30 B	4.10 BCD	3.77 DEF	3.56 F	3.64 EF	3.78 DEF	4.20 BC	3.87 CDEF	4.06 BCD	4.06 BCD	3.98 BCDE	4.32 B
High Income (N=95)	7.76 A	6.25 B	6.12 B	5.88 B	5.72 B	6.03 B	5.89 B	6.14 B	6.13 B	6.33 B	6.04 B	6.12 B	6.17 B

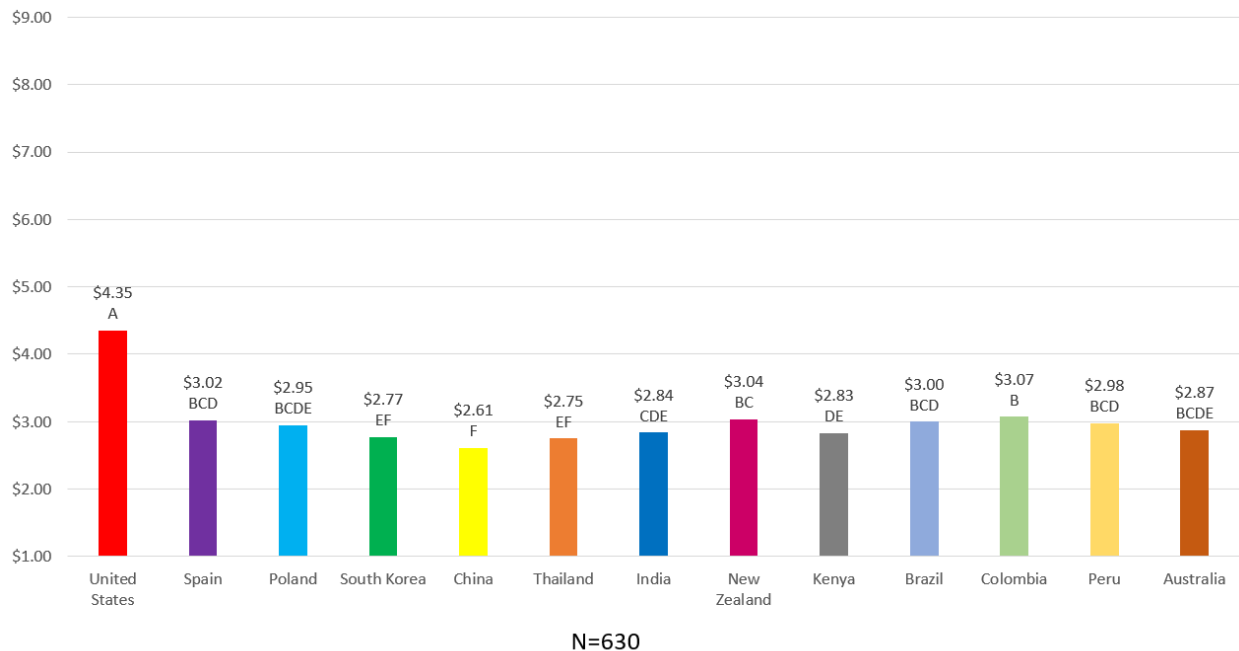
When analyzing the correlation of the purchase interest of pre-popped popcorn among respondents from the USA with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase interest for pre-popped popcorn across all countries except for the USA which has a low positive correlation. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while pre-popped popcorn from the USA scores higher compared to pre-popped popcorn from other countries within each quartile, respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) scores similar or higher for purchase interest of pre-popped popcorn from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.40. USA Respondents' Correlation of Purchase Interest in Pre-Popped Popcorn from the USA and Other Countries with Ethnocentrism Scores

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q38_1	How interested would you be to purchase pre-popped popcorn made and packaged in some of these countries if it were available?	United States	7.0	7.2	7.0	6.4	7.6	0.0508
Q38_2		Spain	4.4	3.7	4.0	4.2	5.9	0.2668
Q38_3		Poland	4.2	3.4	3.7	4.0	5.8	0.3051
Q38_4		South Korea	3.9	3.0	3.2	3.8	5.7	0.3405
Q38_5		China	3.7	2.7	3.0	3.6	5.6	0.3639
Q38_6		Thailand	3.9	2.9	3.2	3.7	5.7	0.3503
Q38_7		India	3.9	2.9	3.3	3.8	5.7	0.3565
Q38_8		New Zealand	4.3	3.5	3.7	4.0	5.8	0.2823
Q38_9		Kenya	4.1	3.1	3.4	4.1	5.8	0.3404
Q38_10		Brazil	4.2	3.3	3.7	4.2	5.8	0.3093
Q38_11		Colombia	4.2	3.3	3.7	4.1	5.7	0.3111
Q38_12		Peru	4.1	3.2	3.5	4.0	5.9	0.3233
Q38_13		Australia	4.4	3.6	4.0	4.3	6.0	0.2925

When presented with the hypothetical “current” cost of \$3.50 per 7-ounce bag of pre-popped popcorn, respondents from the USA were willing to pay \$4.35 per 7-ounce bag of pre-popped popcorn originating from the USA, \$0.85 more than the hypothetical “current” price. The cost of pre-popped popcorn originating from the USA is at a significant advantage compared to all other countries.

Figure 21.20. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Pre-Popped Popcorn Made and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming "Current" Price is \$3.50 Per 7-Ounce Bag



When analyzing the data by gender, age, and income level, results are similar to data by total for the majority of data breaks, indicating that with the hypothetical "current" cost of \$3.50 per 7-ounce bag of pre-popped popcorn, respondents from the USA are willing to pay significantly more for a 7-ounce bag of pre-popped popcorn originating from the USA compared to other countries. The one exception to this is respondents who are from the USA that are between the ages of 22 to 30. These respondents indicate that compared to the cost they are willing to pay for a 7-ounce bag of pre-popped popcorn in the USA, they would be willing to pay a similar amount for New Zealand, Kenya, Brazil, Colombia, and Peru.

Table 3.41. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Pre-Popped Popcorn Made and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming "Current" Price is \$3.50 Per 7-Ounce Bag by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Males (N=270)	\$5.09 A	\$3.82 B	\$3.78 B	\$3.52 BC	\$3.43 C	\$3.56 BC	\$3.63 BC	\$3.82 B	\$3.60 BC	\$3.75 B	\$3.83 B	\$3.78 B	\$3.53 BC
Females (N=360)	\$3.79 A	\$2.41 BCD	\$2.33 BCD	\$2.21 CDE	\$1.99 E	\$2.15 DE	\$2.25 BCDE	\$2.46 BC	\$2.26 BCD	\$2.44 BC	\$2.50 B	\$2.37 BCD	\$2.37 BCD
Ages 22 to 30 (N=57)	\$4.70 A	\$3.91 BC	\$3.74 BC	\$3.89 BC	\$3.80 BC	\$3.82 BC	\$3.64 BC	\$4.02 ABC	\$3.99 ABC	\$4.00 ABC	\$4.13 ABC	\$4.23 AB	\$3.46 C
Ages 31 to 45 (N=266)	\$4.94 A	\$3.68 BC	\$3.68 BC	\$3.47 C	\$3.40 C	\$3.44 C	\$3.64 BC	\$3.70 BC	\$3.48 C	\$3.60 BC	\$3.84 B	\$3.65 BC	\$3.42 C
Ages 46 to 60 (N=153)	\$4.28 A	\$2.92 BC	\$2.88 BC	\$2.62 CD	\$2.27 D	\$2.59 CD	\$2.66 CD	\$2.96 BC	\$2.77 BC	\$3.12 B	\$2.92 BC	\$2.83 BC	\$2.83 BC
Ages 61 to 81 (N=154)	\$3.26 A	\$1.63 BCD	\$1.47 BCDE	\$1.29 EF	\$1.14 F	\$1.33 DEF	\$1.35 CDEF	\$1.63 BC	\$1.35 CDEF	\$1.48 BCDE	\$1.50 BCDE	\$1.49 BCDE	\$1.73 B
Low Income (N=248)	\$3.63 A	\$2.53 BCD	\$2.49 BCD	\$2.25 DE	\$2.14 E	\$2.33 CDE	\$2.38 BCDE	\$2.56 BC	\$2.41 BCDE	\$2.55 BC	\$2.64 B	\$2.51 BCD	\$2.41 BCDE
Medium Income (N=287)	\$4.34 A	\$2.82 B	\$2.73 BC	\$2.62 BCD	\$2.40 D	\$2.51 CD	\$2.60 BCD	\$2.87 B	\$2.58 BCD	\$2.79 BC	\$2.80 BC	\$2.74 BC	\$2.69 BCD
High Income (N=95)	\$6.22 A	\$4.88 B	\$4.83 B	\$4.59 B	\$4.45 B	\$4.59 B	\$4.79 B	\$4.84 B	\$4.70 B	\$4.82 B	\$5.01 B	\$4.91 B	\$4.60 B

When analyzing the correlation of the price respondents from the USA are willing to pay for a 7-ounce bag of pre-popped popcorn with their ethnocentrism scores, data indicates that there is a high positive correlation with ethnocentrism of purchase value for a 7-ounce bag of pre-popped popcorn across all thirteen countries. Additionally, when analyzing the data for each quartile, results reveal that while pre-popped popcorn from the USA is valued higher compared to pre-popped popcorn from other countries within each quartile, the respondents from quartile 4 (those with high ethnocentrism scores between 49 and 69) will pay a higher value for a 7-ounce bag of pre-popped popcorn from all countries compared to the other quartiles of respondents with lower ethnocentrism scores.

Table 3.42. USA Respondents' Amount Willing to Pay for Pre-Popped Popcorn Made and Packaged in the USA and Other Countries, assuming "Current" Price is \$3.50 Per 7-Ounce Bag by Gender, Age, & Income Level

Var	Variable Description	Questionnaire sub-items	Total Sample	Ethnocentricity Quartiles				Correlation with Ethnocentrism Score
				Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	
		<i>Base Size</i>	630	164	158	155	153	
Q39_1	Assume that the current average cost to buy pre-popped popcorn is \$3.50 per 7 ounce bag. How much would you be willing to pay for a 7 ounce bag of pre-popped popcorn that is made and packaged in these countries? Please slide the scale bar to the dollar and cent amount you would be willing to pay.	United States	4.35	3.64	3.70	4.11	6.01	0.3367
Q39_2		Spain	3.02	1.99	2.49	2.96	4.72	0.3613
Q39_3		Poland	2.95	1.82	2.30	2.93	4.86	0.4047
Q39_4		South Korea	2.77	1.68	2.10	2.87	4.53	0.4043
Q39_5		China	2.61	1.37	1.85	2.80	4.51	0.4346
Q39_6		Thailand	2.75	1.65	2.06	2.80	4.59	0.3999
Q39_7		India	2.84	1.59	2.16	2.90	4.83	0.4391
Q39_8		New Zealand	3.04	1.96	2.49	3.02	4.81	0.3892
Q39_9		Kenya	2.83	1.73	2.13	2.90	4.68	0.4040
Q39_10		Brazil	3.00	1.95	2.40	2.94	4.83	0.3820
Q39_11		Colombia	3.07	1.92	2.42	3.10	4.94	0.4026
Q39_12		Peru	2.98	1.87	2.32	3.00	4.82	0.4000
Q39_13		Australia	2.87	1.98	2.19	2.86	4.53	0.3513

4.0.0 Discussion

Within this research, the coffee category is the only occurrence where the United States did not receive a significantly higher value. This may be the result of the impression respondents have with coffee. Latin America is known for its quality of coffee, with South America being the fastest growing market and with Colombia and Brazil being some of the leading producers. According to a National Coffee Drinking Trends (NCDT) study by the National Coffee Association (NCA), 85% of consumers from the USA recognizes Colombia as a coffee producing country, making it the most widely recognized coffee origin. This was followed by Brazil, which was recognized by 67% of consumers from the USA as a coffee producing country. This same study also found that 96% of consumers from the USA viewed Colombian Coffee as good or excellent (NCA, 2014). Coffee from Latin America has a unique flavor which is affected by many factors including altitude, soil type, climate, and methods of harvesting. An example of this is with Juan Valdez Colombian Coffee. The campaign for Juan Valdez Coffee started in 1959 by the National Federation of Coffee Growers of Colombia (FNC). During this time Colombian coffee was facing competition from other countries that were producing coffee and the FNC set out to "humanize" the coffee industry. The result of that humanization was the character Juan Valdez who became a symbol of the hardworking Colombian coffee farmer offering a coffee made with authenticity and tradition. The campaign's message was "100% Columbian coffee, the richest coffee in the world" and it has been reported that after the

campaign's launch, around 60% of US consumers claimed they would be willing to pay more for Colombian coffee (Maneglia, 2001).

When analyzing the correlation of purchase interest and purchase value with ethnocentrism scores for each product category, results may seem counter intuitive, such as the 4th quartile consisting of respondents with higher ethnocentrism, rating all the foreign countries within each product category with higher purchase interest and values compared to the other quartiles with lower ethnocentrism scores. While initially thought that there be more extreme differences or ratings compared to products from the USA vs all other countries, there are several contributions why this could be the case.

Although consumer ethnocentrism is typically associated with a preference for domestic products and a rejection of foreign alternatives, this relationship is not always straightforward. Consumers with high ethnocentrism generally believe it is inappropriate or even unpatriotic to purchase foreign-made goods, and they often evaluate such products less favorably (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Erdogan and Uzkuur (2010) confirmed this tendency in their study of Turkish consumers, finding that stronger ethnocentric attitudes correlated with more negative evaluations of foreign products. Similarly, Watson and Wright (2000) observed that highly ethnocentric consumers in New Zealand exhibited more favorable attitudes toward local goods. However, the authors also noted that this effect weakened when culturally similar foreign products were introduced, or when domestic alternatives were lacking. This suggests that ethnocentric bias may be attenuated under specific circumstances, particularly when consumer needs are not met by local options.

Further research highlights several mediating and moderating factors that help explain why a consumer with high ethnocentrism might nonetheless report similar purchase interest scores for both domestic and foreign products. One such factor is the perception of "globalness" or brand prestige: even ethnocentric consumers may prefer foreign brands if they are perceived as globally respected or of superior quality. Nguyen, Nguyen, and Barrett (2019) found that perceived brand "globalness" positively influenced purchase intention in Vietnam, especially when foreign brands were associated with higher prestige or quality. Additionally, pragmatic

concerns, such as the unavailability or low quality of domestic alternatives, can override ethnocentric preferences (Watson & Wright, 2000). Demographic variables also play a role: higher education, income, and exposure to foreign media or cultures tend to weaken the effect of ethnocentrism on consumer behavior (Erdogan & Uzokurt, 2010). These findings indicate that high ethnocentrism does not always translate into markedly different purchase interest across national boundaries, particularly when contextual or product-specific factors moderate the influence of nationalist consumer attitudes.

Similarly, it is possible for respondents with low ethnocentrism, those who are generally open to foreign products and cultures, to still exhibit significant differences in purchase interest between domestic and foreign goods. This phenomenon can be explained through several non-ethnocentric mechanisms. One key factor is product familiarity and knowledge. Consumers tend to favor what they know, not necessarily due to national loyalty, but because unfamiliar products increase perceived risk and uncertainty. For example, García-Gallego and Chamorro-Mera (2016) found that even low-ethnocentric consumers show preference for domestic products when they are more familiar with local brands or product standards. Similarly, Sun, Teo, and Tan (2017) demonstrated that prior knowledge significantly reduces the intention–behavior gap when consumers evaluate foreign versus domestic products, suggesting that unfamiliarity can dampen purchase interest regardless of cultural bias.

Another major factor is perceived quality and practical considerations, which often mediate consumer preferences beyond ethnocentric tendencies. Local products may have stronger brand reputations, better marketing localization, or greater availability, all of which influence consumer decisions. Nalchi Kashi (2013) showed that foreign products must offer significantly higher emotional or functional value to overcome the default preference for local brands, especially in the Indian market. Tjiptono and Sumarwan (2022), studying Indonesian consumers, found that even low-ethnocentric individuals responded more favorably to local products when those products were perceived as higher in quality or were marketed more effectively. In addition, logistical factors such as price, after-sales service, and delivery options often favor domestic products, independent of consumer attitudes. Nguyen and Nguyen (2020), for instance, reported that imported powdered milk faced lower purchase intention due to higher

perceived cost and risk—even though cultural preference played a minimal role. Together, these studies highlight how non-ethnocentric drivers—such as familiarity, product cues, and convenience—can create substantial differences in purchase interest between domestic and foreign goods.

Summarizing why respondents with low or high ethnocentrism scores may rate interest or price values to products from foreign countries that may seem counterintuitive to the status quo (low ethnocentrism scoring higher for foreign products and high ethnocentrism scoring lower in foreign products) may rationalize holistically how each product category performed in this research. With the exception of coffee, that exhibit a relationship between country of origin and quality, all other products may be perceived more as commodities. So those with low ethnocentrism may not score high on these other product categories from other countries as the products or global or general that it may not be significant if it comes from another country, if it is readily available within the USA. For respondents with high ethnocentrism, rationale could be similar but there perspective could be that it is a common product, that they don't really mind where it comes from. This acuminates to the total respondent sample showing more favor to all product categories except for coffee, coming from the USA, as they can be a standard, global commodity and it just may easier to get it within their respected country.

5.0.0 Limitations

A limitation to consider for this research may be the timing of when this data was collected and the global events taking place. Data collection took place and was completed during the summer of 2021. At this point in time, COVID-19, which began in Wuhan, Hubei Province, China in December 2019, had existed for over a year and vaccination was taking place (Zu et al. E15, 2020). While progress to fight against COVID-19 were increasing, concerns such as the delta variant, first identified in India in late 2020, still existed and citizens of the United States were still taking steps for their own health and safety. Did this global health crisis instill a sense of avoidance for products from China, India, and possibly other countries? China overall scored the lowest in product interest and value among the 10 product categories presented. Although there is distrust of Chinese made products in the USA (Cheng, 2020), it is possible that the pandemic heightened concerns about Chinese and products from other countries.

Future research also could benefit from further development of demographic criteria as well as survey flow. Gender-specific options beyond male & female options were not included for this research as well as specific gender quotas and age range quotas were not in place and it is recommended they be included in future research. Using age and gender quotas when capturing ethnocentrism data enhances sample representativeness, controls for confounding demographic variables, and allows for statistically robust subgroup comparisons.

Groves et al. (2009) emphasize that demographic quotas improve the validity and generalizability of survey research by ensuring balanced representation across key population segments. Dovidio et al. (2010) highlight that understanding attitudes like ethnocentrism requires accounting for demographic variability, as age and gender can significantly influence intergroup perceptions and biases. In terms of survey flow, we realized after the survey was completed that the product categories within the survey were not rotated nor were the countries within each product category rotated. Thus, every respondent saw the same 10 product categories in the same order, as well as the same 13 countries in the same order within each product category. Although no actual products were tasted, a balanced rotation in surveys is important to minimize question fatigue and reduce order and carryover effects, which can bias responses and compromise data quality. Rotating question or response order helps maintain respondent engagement and supports the validity of attitudinal measures (Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski 2000).

6.0.0 Conclusions

This research suggests that respondents from the United States have ethnocentric tendencies related to products and their country of origin as evidenced by the higher willingness to purchase and purchase price for products originating from the United States. Additionally, there also is evidence to suggest that there are degrees of ethnocentric tendencies towards specific countries. For instance, respondents from the United States seem to have greater interest and put higher value to products that originate from Europe and Australia and New Zealand. In contrast, they put lower interest and value to products originating from China, India, and other Asian countries. The relationship between ethnocentrism and purchase interest and purchase value for products originating from the USA and other countries is more complex than initially thought to be. Respondents with low ethnocentrism can still prefer products originating from the USA, while respondents with high ethnocentrism could be willing to purchase products from

other countries, the context of the product and product category, such as quality, recognition, price, and ease of accessibility, as well as demographics such as age, gender, and income, are all viable reasons to sway one's core beliefs to prioritize their purchase habit.

Chapter 4 - 13 Country Analysis

1.0.0 Introduction

Consumer ethnocentrism has garnered significant attention in international marketing due to its strong influence on purchasing behavior across cultural boundaries. It is defined as the tendency of consumers to prefer products from their own country over foreign alternatives, shaping consumer preferences and market dynamics globally (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). As globalization accelerates, understanding the cultural and psychological underpinnings of consumer choices becomes increasingly vital, positioning ethnocentrism as a critical focus in global marketing research (Cleveland et al., 2009).

Originally conceptualized in sociology, ethnocentrism was introduced by Sumner (1906) to describe an individual's inclination to interpret the world through the lens of their own culture. In the marketing context, this concept has evolved into "consumer ethnocentrism," where consumers demonstrate loyalty to domestic products and express negative attitudes toward foreign ones. These behaviors are typically driven by factors such as national pride, economic protectionism, and cultural identity (Sharma et al., 1995). Shimp and Sharma's (1987) model of consumer ethnocentrism, particularly their development of the CETSCALE measurement tool, remains a foundational framework in analyzing consumer attitudes toward foreign goods.

In an increasingly interconnected world, consumer ethnocentrism presents both opportunities and challenges for multinational firms. Ethnocentric consumers often display a strong preference for local brands, creating resistance to foreign alternatives (Steenkamp et al., 2003). For instance, in the U.S., consumers have historically favored domestic brands such as Coca-Cola and Ford over foreign competitors, reflecting deep-rooted national loyalty (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002). Similarly, the rise of strong local brands in markets like India and China has been partially attributed to ethnocentric consumer behavior (Papatla et al., 2011).

Nationalistic sentiments have also been identified as a key driver of ethnocentric behavior. Research in Greece, for example, reveals a strong preference among consumers for locally produced goods over foreign alternatives, driven by a desire to support national industry (Theodoridis & Chatzipanagiotou, 2009). This pattern is not confined to developed economies. In emerging markets such as Pakistan, ethnocentrism continues to shape buying behavior, with consumers showing clear biases toward domestic products (Khan & Hasnu, 2018). Similarly,

Chinese consumers demonstrate high levels of ethnocentrism, favoring local brands despite widespread access to global products (Liu et al., 2017).

A substantial body of empirical research highlights the real-world implications of consumer ethnocentrism. For example, Watson et al. (2002) found that Australian consumers exhibit stronger ethnocentric tendencies than their New Zealand counterparts, with local products receiving higher preference in Australia. Similar patterns have been observed within the European Union; despite close geographic and economic ties, Belgian consumers were found to be more ethnocentric than Dutch consumers, indicating that even minor cultural differences can influence market behavior (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

In the United States, strong consumer preference for domestic products persists across various sectors, notably in automobiles and consumer electronics (Sharma et al., 1995). Political and societal developments can further intensify these tendencies. During the 2016 U.S. presidential election, nationalist rhetoric such as "America First" encouraged consumers to align their purchasing behavior with patriotic ideologies, strengthening domestic brand loyalty (Klein et al., 2020). Chryssochoidis et al. (2007) support the idea that consumer behavior is often shaped by broader ideological and nationalistic influences, beyond simple product evaluation.

Recent global crises have also played a role in amplifying consumer ethnocentrism. A study by Malar et al. (2021) found that the COVID-19 pandemic significantly increased consumer preference for local businesses, as people became more aware of economic vulnerabilities and global supply chain disruptions. This suggests that situational and contextual variables—such as public health crises or economic instability—can heighten ethnocentric attitudes, adding a dynamic dimension to this traditionally culture-based concept.

Quantitative data further underscores the significance of consumer ethnocentrism in global markets. According to a 2020 Nielsen survey, 56% of global consumers expressed willingness to pay a premium for locally produced products, illustrating the widespread influence of domestic loyalty on purchasing decisions (Nielsen, 2020). This finding reflects a clear shift in consumer priorities toward national identity and economic solidarity.

The implications of these behaviors for international marketing strategy are substantial. Melnyk et al. (2018) found that ethnocentric consumers are less likely to purchase foreign-made goods, even when those goods offer superior quality or competitive pricing. Such findings highlight the necessity for global brands to adapt their marketing approaches to reflect local

preferences and cultural values. Tailoring brand narratives to resonate with ethnocentric consumers may be essential for successful market entry and sustained brand loyalty in protectionist or nationalistic environments.

The sensory attributes are important to the success or failure of a product, especially those that are consumed, such as food and beverages. On the surface level this makes sense, if a consumer does not like the taste of the product, they would not initially purchase it or purchase it again. With a product appealing to the senses, other factors play a part to the success of a product, such as effective branding and marketing. With an impactful branding and marketing strategy, a product that is just as good as the competition can gain the competitive advantage. One factor that can work towards this competitive advantage is foreign branding and country of origin.

An example of this is bottle water. According to Statista (2023), 15.9 billion gallons of bottled water were sold in the United States in 2022 (Riddler, 2023). Over the last 10 years, the country's bottle water sales volume has almost doubled, with 8.76 billion gallons sold in 2010, increasing considerably with each consecutive year. Statista (2023) went on to explain that aside from increased sales of bottled water each year, so did per capita consumption within the United States, reaching a total of almost 47 gallons per person in 2021. According to Morning Consult (2023), every 3 in 4 consumers from the United States (72%) say that they prefer bottled water, with the remaining consumers (28%) prefer tap.

According to Martin Roll (2018), branding is crucial in the bottled water industry because many consumers believe all water tastes the same, making product differentiation difficult. Successful brands, like Fiji Water, stand out by telling compelling, credible stories rather than focusing on taste. Fiji Water's strong brand narrative centers on its origin in an untouched Fijian ecosystem, far from pollution, and its naturally filtered water. This unique story, along with the positive image of Fiji as a pristine, unspoiled nation, plays a key role in its popularity—evident in its top favorability rating among bottled water brands (Roll, 2018).

When a brand has a compelling and credible story, its product is more likely to succeed internationally. Conversely, a negative narrative can discourage consumers from purchasing products from certain countries. Consumers' perceptions of both their own country and others can significantly influence whether a product from abroad succeeds or fails in the global market.

One way that positive storytelling helps is by aligning country-of-origin with desirable attributes, which enhances brand positioning. Research has shown that when consumers associate a brand's country of origin with quality or innovation, it acts as a heuristic for trust and reliability, making them more likely to buy the product (Bennett & Bodey, 2008). This was confirmed in a study on perceived brand positioning, which demonstrated that favorable country associations can reduce perceived risk and enhance the product's appeal (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2014).

Sustainability and ethical narratives are also increasingly influential. According to Grebitus, Yue, and Bruhn (2015), consumers prefer products from countries perceived as environmentally conscious, and this positive perception directly affects their willingness to pay a premium for food and related goods. This demonstrates that storytelling that emphasizes ecological responsibility and ethical sourcing can drive international competitiveness for products from countries with such reputations.

Furthermore, a recent meta-analysis by Jin, Choi, and Arnold (2023) found that a favorable country-of-origin image correlates positively with consumer brand evaluations, trust, and purchase intentions. The researchers concluded that brand managers can strategically leverage positive national stories to build brand equity, especially when those stories resonate with shared consumer values like quality, tradition, and ethical practices.

Conversely, negative narratives associated with a country can significantly hinder international product success. A study by Jiménez and San Martín (2022) found that Spanish consumers were less willing to purchase Chinese apparel when they had higher awareness of labor and environmental concerns in China. The researchers highlighted that negative country stories—especially those that become mainstream knowledge—can damage brand trust, regardless of the actual product quality.

The impact of geopolitical and health-related crises has also been documented. In a study examining perceptions of COVID-19 vaccines in Vietnam, researchers found that Indian vaccines were less trusted during the second wave of COVID-19 in India, due to the country's overwhelmed healthcare system and widely reported crisis conditions (Nguyen et al., 2022). This illustrates how global news and media narratives about a country can shape perceptions of unrelated products from that origin.

Similarly, Prendergast and Chuen (2021) explored how media influence and perceived risk—driven by awareness of environmental or political issues in a country—can damage the perceived safety and desirability of its exports. When consumers associate a country with poor regulatory standards, conflict, or corruption, they are more likely to view its products as risky, even if those perceptions are only loosely based on fact.

The research suggests that neither positive nor negative country-of-origin narratives are fixed or inevitable. Strategic brand storytelling—combined with transparency and alignment with consumer values—can help firms mitigate negative perceptions and capitalize on favorable ones. For instance, in countries with mixed reputations, brands may emphasize values like sustainability, craftsmanship, or innovation to create a positive identity distinct from national stereotypes (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2014).

Moreover, congruence between product type and country stereotype is critical. When consumers perceive a mismatch—such as high-tech products from a country not associated with innovation—the product may face increased skepticism (Bennett & Bodey, 2008). However, when the product fits expected national strengths, positive storytelling can significantly enhance credibility and differentiation in the global market.

In summary, compelling storytelling supported by credible country-of-origin associations can elevate a brand's international prospects. Conversely, negative perceptions rooted in environmental, political, or social narratives can suppress consumer trust and reduce willingness to buy. As academic research shows, managing the country image—through branding, media engagement, and ethical business practices—has become an essential part of global brand strategy.

The purpose of this research was to compare five products with respondents from 13 different countries to examine purchase intent and price expectations of those five products originating or produced in those 13 countries.

2.0.0 Product Selection Process

Five different food and beverage products were selected for consumers in all countries to evaluate: coffee, chicken, cooking oil, chocolate, and onions. The products were determined in consultation with collaborators in each country and were selected because they were commonly used by consumers in each country. All products were evaluated conceptually, rather than actually being served/sampled.

3.0.0 Materials and Methods

3.1.0 Survey

Respondents were first provided an informed consent statement and, if they agreed to participate, they then completed a short demographic questionnaire. Once respondents completed and qualified based on the demographic criteria, respondents continued to the “Consumer Interest in Purchasing Products made In-Country vs. Imported Products” survey which contained the various different product category sections. Prior to the launch of the research, a soft launch was conducted with 50+ respondents from each country to ensure that the survey questionnaires were collecting data as intended. The soft launch data was examined for any missing or inaccurate data and identified any corrections that needed to be made before the survey was officially launched for final data collection. Any data from respondents that were incomplete or where there were partial responses were removed from the final data for each country and replaced with surveys from additional respondents.

3.2.0 Respondents and Recruitment

This research was fielded during the summer of 2021. Respondents were required to be born between the years 1943 to 2003, making them 18 to 80 years old representing 4 common age groups; Boomers (ages 60 to 80), Gen X (ages 45 to 59), Millennials (ages 31 to 44), and Gen Z (ages 18 to 30). Additionally, respondents had to be the primary grocery shopper/food purchaser for the household, had to live in the country of the survey for a minimum of 10 years and had to agree to provide their best answers and complete the survey in its entirety. Respondents whose age was outside the age criteria, were not the primary grocery shopper, or were unwilling to provide their best answers or complete the survey in its entirety were thanked and the survey was

ended. At the end of the survey respondents were asked if they were born and lived their entire life in the respected country. After confirmed these questions, they took the survey in.

Table 4.1. Demographic Distribution of Collected Respondent Data from Each Country Survey

Demographic	United States	Spain	Poland	South Korea	China	Thailand	India	New Zealand	Kenya	Brazil	Colombia	Peru	Australia
Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size	Sample Size
Total Sample Size	630	629	630	630	630	627	630	630	630	630	630	623	630
Males	270 (43%)	300 (48%)	208 (33%)	294 (47%)	292 (46%)	298 (48)	366 (58%)	230 (37%)	336 (53%)	287 (46%)	280 (44%)	214 (34%)	287 (46%)
Females	360 (57%)	329 (52%)	422 (67%)	336 (53%)	338 (54%)	329 (52%)	264 (42%)	398 (63%)	294 (47%)	343 (54%)	350 (56%)	409 (66%)	343 (54%)
Other That Is Not Specified	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	2 (<0%)	NA	NA	0 (0%)	NA	NA
Age Group 1 (1995 to 2003)	57 (10%)	89 (14%)	88 (14%)	73 (12%)	114 (18%)	112 (18%)	186 (30%)	36 (6%)	234 (37%)	148 (23%)	106 (17%)	184 (30%)	66 (10%)
Age Group 2 (1980 to 1994)	266 (42%)	268 (43%)	274 (43%)	252 (40%)	391 (62%)	351 (56%)	367 (58%)	219 (34%)	353 (56%)	338 (54%)	328 (52%)	328 (52%)	176 (28%)
Age Group 3 (1965 to 1979)	153 (24%)	206 (33%)	186 (30%)	227 (36%)	102 (16%)	146 (23%)	69 (11%)	176 (28%)	41 (7%)	121 (19%)	156 (25%)	101 (16%)	162 (26%)
Age Group 4 (1944 to 1964)	154 (24%)	66 (10%)	82 (13%)	78 (12%)	23 (4%)	18 (3%)	8 (1%)	199 (32%)	2 (<0%)	23 (4%)	40 (6%)	10 (2%)	226 (36%)
Low Income	248 (40%)	144 (23%)	136 (22%)	189 (30%)	58 (9%)	79 (13%)	68 (11%)	274 (44%)	172 (27%)	418 (66%)	103 (16%)	104 (17%)	288 (46%)
Middle Income	287 (45%)	402 (64%)	422 (67%)	358 (57%)	432 (69%)	452 (72%)	291 (46%)	318 (50%)	379 (60%)	149 (24%)	434 (69%)	396 (64%)	293 (47%)
High Income	95 (15%)	83 (13%)	72 (11%)	83 (13%)	140 (22%)	96 (15%)	271 (43%)	38 (6%)	79 (13%)	63 (10%)	93 (15%)	123 (19%)	49 (7%)
Born & Lived Entire Life In Country They Took Survey In	602 (96%)	565 (90%)	614 (97%)	605 (96%)	628 (99%)	620 (99%)	625 (99%)	418 (66%)	600 (95%)	610 (97%)	579 (92%)	523 (84%)	462 (73%)

3.3.0 Data Analysis

We segmented the consumers based on their purchase interest for products sourced from different countries. The segmentation is intended to reveal, if they exist, groups of consumers who have similar interest in purchasing products from the same countries. The segmentation procedure will generally assign consumers to the same group if they have similar patterns in the set of countries from which they have high and low interest in purchasing their products.

Several segmentation analyses were done, differing in the specific product data used for analysis and on the method used to group the consumers. Two clustering methods were employed: Hierarchical Clustering and K-Means Clustering. Since the purpose of the analysis is to create consumer clusters based on patterns of purchase interest for products from different countries and since there are 13 countries from which the products can be sourced, we believe that the interesting solutions will have at most 13 segments, nevertheless we examined clustering solutions with up to 26 consumer segments. The final number of clusters was determined through an exploratory approach rather than formal statistical criteria such as the elbow or silhouette methods. Given the study's comparative and descriptive objectives, a five-cluster solution was selected to achieve a balanced distribution across the dataset—providing sufficient differentiation among countries without over-fragmenting the sample. This structure allowed for meaningful interpretation of cross-country patterns while maintaining analytical clarity.

For each clustering method, Hierarchical or K-Means, we performed seven different clustering analyses using different product purchase interest variables as the segmentation variables. The first five analyses were based on purchase interest for the five products that were included in the questionnaires across all countries in the survey, i.e. Coffee, Chicken, Cooking Oil, Chocolate, and Onions. In each of these analyses, purchase interest for a specific product, e.g. Coffee, was considered, and respondents were grouped together based on whether they had similar patterns of purchase interest for coffee from different source countries. Each of these analyses on the individual products were based on the 13 variables describing purchase interest in a specific product from the 13 source countries.

A sixth analysis was performed based on the average purchase interest for any of the five common products when sourced from different countries. That is, for each respondent and for each product's "source country", we averaged the purchase interest scores for the five common products (Coffee, Chicken, Cooking Oil, Chocolate, and Onions) and interpreted this average as the respondents "Generalized Purchase Interest" (GPI) in products from that country. Thus, all respondents had a GPI for each of the 13 countries and those 13 variables obtained in this manner for each respondent were the input for the sixth analysis.

The final analysis used all 65 purchase interest variables as input (five products times 13 source countries). It was expected that, in addition to clusters driven by similarity of interest in products sourced from the same countries, the clusters could also reveal groups of individuals with low or high purchase interest in specific products, regardless of their country of origin.

As mentioned earlier, for each of these analyses we examined solutions with up to 26 clusters. Prior to running each of the analyses we standardized the data by centering the variables for each respondent. That is, we computed, separately for each respondent, the mean of the variables to be used as input in the analysis, and then we subtracted that mean from each of the variables. The purpose of this standardization was to remove effects caused by the respondents' use of a portion of the scale. Some respondents may tend to use the upper end of the scale for all their answers, while others may use the lower end. This leads usually to a situation where the clusters tend to reflect groups of consumers that use different portions of the scale, masking any patterns of response that may reveal preference for products from specific countries. We initially ran the analyses without this pre-treatment of the data and confirmed that segments tended to

reveal overall use of the scale, with little differentiation between the products' countries of origin.

Table 4.2. Identifier For Each Cluster Analysis

Cluster Analysis Identifier	Cluster Analysis
A	Purchase Interest for Coffee
B	Purchase Interest for Chicken
C	Purchase Interest for Cooking Oil
D	Purchase Interest for Chocolate
E	Purchase Interest for Onions
F	Average Purchase Interest Scores
G	Purchase Interest for All Five Common Products

3.0.0 Results and Discussion

3.1.0 Overview

Results from the research consisting of the combined total of respondents across all 13 countries suggest differences in consumer segments. Cluster analysis consisting of the combined total of respondents across all 13 countries, based on Purchase Interest for each product, suggest that patterns exist in scoring behavior between countries. For instance, some respondents from New Zealand and Australia show similar patterns across all 5 product categories when it comes to Purchase Interest. Other relations are between countries such as Spain and Poland as well as Colombia and Peru, which may suggest some, but certainly not full, “continental” similarities. Those similarities may be caused by geographic, sociographic, or other similarities. Those relationships become further evident when analyzing each product category based on mean scores consisting of each country. This analysis consisting of each country, based on the purchase interest for each product that was asked for all consumers, reveal that there does exist patterns in scoring between counties. These relationships indicate that respondents from some countries may have low consumer ethnocentrism towards specific countries while having higher consumer ethnocentrism towards others. For instance, research shows that while respondents from Thailand and India score products from their country higher, they rate other countries similar, on average. In contrast, with the exception of coffee, respondents from New Zealand and Australia consistently score their respective country the highest, followed by the other nearby country. While relationships between specific countries do exist, with the exception of coffee,

respondents do score higher on average the product originating from their respective country. The following sections go into further details on the results for the five product categories that all 13 countries were shown.

3.2.0 Cluster Analysis of Total Database of All 13 Countries

3.2.1 Purchase Intent for Coffee

Performing a cluster analysis consisting of the combined total of respondents across all 13 countries (Cluster Analysis A), based on Purchase Interest for Coffee, suggests relationships at a 5-cluster group solution (Table 4.3). It is obvious from this analysis that consumers within a country are not homogeneous in their purchase preferences for the country of origin of coffee. Each country has consumers that fall within each of the five clusters. However, some similarities are noted. The majority of respondents from Thailand and India were assigned to the same cluster, cluster 1, in the 5-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference for purchasing coffee from the 13 countries. Most respondents assigned to cluster 2 in the 5-cluster solution are from Australia, New Zealand, and South Korea, revealing that they too have similarities in their preferences for purchasing coffee from the 13 countries. Cluster 3 consists of consumers primarily from Peru, Brazil, Kenya, China and South Korea, with a smaller portion of consumers from Poland and Spain. Cluster 4 is dominated by consumers from Colombia and Peru. Finally, the majority of consumers in cluster 5 in the 5-cluster solution proceed from Australia, New Zealand, and Spain.

Table 4.3. The percentage of consumers in each country who grouped within each cluster for Purchase Interest for Coffee

Purchase Interest for Coffee		Total	5-Cluster Solution				
			1 of 5	2 of 5	3 of 5	4 of 5	5 of 5
		8,179	3,165	793	2,629	966	626
Number (Proportion) of respondents from each Country assigned to each Cluster	United States	630	49%	10%	20%	15%	5%
	Spain	629	29%	5%	35%	14%	17%
	Poland	630	43%	8%	33%	7%	9%
	South Korea	630	30%	19%	40%	3%	8%
	China	630	48%	1%	47%	3%	1%
	Thailand	627	79%	2%	16%	1%	3%
	India	630	74%	11%	13%	1%	1%
	New Zealand	630	28%	23%	26%	4%	19%
	Kenya	630	30%	7%	52%	0%	11%
	Brazil	630	35%	4%	47%	13%	2%
	Colombia	630	13%	2%	25%	56%	4%
	Peru	623	19%	1%	45%	32%	3%
	Australia	630	27%	33%	18%	5%	17%

The colors represent percentages of consumers from light green=lowest percentages to dark green=highest percentage

Consumers in Thailand and India often exhibit similar purchasing preferences due to rising incomes, expanding middle classes, and shared cultural dynamics. In Thailand, shoppers are increasingly loyal to brands and less swayed by promotions, reflecting a trend toward aspirational consumption (Consultancy Asia, 2018). Indian consumers show a comparable shift, associating global brands with quality and social status as their purchasing power grows (GfK, 2015). Furthermore, both cultures emphasize collectivist values, where buying behavior is influenced by family, tradition, and societal expectations (Paul and Mas, 2018). These commonalities, along with increased digital exposure, help align consumer behavior across both nations.

Consumers in Australia, New Zealand, and South Korea show similar purchasing preferences driven by shifting values, rising costs, and lifestyle trends. In Australia, a growing focus on sustainability influences purchasing, with 81% of consumers valuing eco-conscious brands (BBC Study, 2022). New Zealanders show a parallel trend, with many switching brands due to price concerns and placing high importance on brand trust (EY, 2025). Meanwhile, South Korean consumers emphasize status-driven consumption, especially in luxury goods and

education, reflecting cultural priorities around identity and upward mobility (Lee et al. 2025). Across all three countries, modern consumers are balancing value, trust, and lifestyle alignment, leading to increasingly convergent behaviors.

Consumers in Peru, Brazil, Kenya, China, and South Korea share several purchasing-preference patterns because of rising digital adoption, growing middle classes, and concerns about trust and brand origin. In Latin America, Peru and Brazil are seeing rapid e-commerce growth, with consumers drawn to promotions, fast delivery, and marketplaces—Peru led Latin America in e-commerce expansion, followed by Brazil (The Rio Times, 2022). Brazilian consumers also show price sensitivity and look for coupons or discounts before completing purchases (E-Commerce Update, 2024). In Kenya, surveys find low consumer ethnocentrism—Kenyan consumers tend to prefer foreign-made products and regard imported goods as status symbols rather than strictly favor local products (Kiriri, 2019). In China, cross-border e-commerce is strong: a large share of Chinese online shoppers expect to increase purchases of foreign or premium brands, especially via platforms that facilitate such transactions (Pattern, 2022). And in South Korea, research comparing China and South Korea in cross-border e-commerce shows that while Chinese customers respond strongly to functionality and information guidance, South Korean consumers are more influenced by socialization and peer comparison in such platforms (Telematics and Informatics, 2024).

Consumers in Colombia and Peru are showing similar purchasing-preference patterns driven by growth in e-commerce, digital payments, and trust in online platforms. In Peru, e-commerce growth and development led Latin America with an 87% growth rate, aided by increased use of digital tools and platforms like MercadoPago and PayU that together handled over 60% of transactions (The Rio Times, 2022). In Colombia, more than half of internet users now make weekly online purchases, with free shipping, fast delivery, and discounts being major motivators (IceCat, 2023). Trust also plays a big role for Colombian young adults, who link online purchase decisions to security, transaction history, and post-purchase service (Linero Bocanegra and Botero Cardona, 2020).

Consumers in Australia, New Zealand, and Spain show comparable purchasing behaviors influenced by growing environmental awareness, economic pressures, and a demand for trustworthy brands. In Australia, a 2023 Deloitte report highlights consumers' increasing preference for sustainable products and brands demonstrating ethical practices, with 70% willing

to pay more for sustainability (Deloitte, 2023). In New Zealand, research by Nielsen reveals that 66% of consumers actively seek out eco-friendly products, but price remains a critical factor, especially amid inflation concerns (Nielsen, 2024). In Spain, shoppers similarly prioritize sustainability and transparency, favoring brands with clear ethical commitments while also responding strongly to promotional offers during economic downturns (Kantar, 2023). Together, these markets reflect a blend of eco-consciousness, cost sensitivity, and brand loyalty shaping modern purchasing preferences.

3.2.2 Purchase Intent for Chicken

Performing a cluster analysis consisting of the combined total of respondents across all 13 countries (Cluster Analysis B), based on Purchase Interest for Chicken, suggests relationships at a 5-cluster group solution (Table 4.4). It is obvious from this analysis that consumers within a country are not homogeneous in their purchase preferences for the country of origin of chicken. Each country has consumers that fall within each of the five clusters. However, some similarities are noted. The majority of respondents from China, Thailand, and India and a smaller group from Brazil were grouped into cluster 1 in the 5-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference for chicken from the 13 countries. Additionally, the majority of respondents from New Zealand and Australia were assigned to the same cluster, cluster 2, in the 5-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference for chicken from the 13 countries. Cluster 3 consists of consumers primarily from the United States and South Korea, with a smaller portion of consumers from Brazil. Cluster 4 is dominated by consumers from Spain and Poland. Finally, the majority of consumers in cluster 5 in the 5-cluster solution proceed from Kenya, Colombia, and Peru.

Table 4.4. The percentage of consumers in each country who grouped within each cluster for Purchase Interest for Chicken

Purchase Interest for Chicken		Total	5-Cluster Solution				
			1 of 5	2 of 5	3 of 5	4 of 5	5 of 5
		8,179	3,619	936	944	972	1,708
Number (Proportion) of respondents from each Country assigned to each Cluster	United States	630	37%	1%	44%	8%	11%
	Spain	629	26%	5%	2%	62%	5%
	Poland	630	30%	3%	1%	59%	7%
	South Korea	630	30%	2%	57%	4%	7%
	China	630	92%	0%	1%	4%	2%
	Thailand	627	92%	1%	1%	3%	4%
	India	630	75%	0%	3%	3%	19%
	New Zealand	630	26%	68%	1%	0%	5%
	Kenya	630	34%	1%	2%	4%	59%
	Brazil	630	47%	0%	33%	2%	17%
	Colombia	630	23%	1%	1%	2%	73%
	Peru	623	37%	1%	1%	1%	60%
	Australia	630	24%	65%	3%	2%	5%

The colors represent percentages of consumers from light green=lowest percentages to dark green=highest percentage

Consumers in China, Thailand, India, and Brazil often make purchasing decisions in similar ways because they are going through comparable social and economic changes. Rapid income growth, expanding cities, and the spread of large supermarkets mean that more people are able to move beyond basic food needs and begin focusing on quality, safety, and brand reputation. Research using the Theory of Planned Behavior shows that attitudes, social expectations, and a sense of control all strongly influence food choices, and these factors appear across many different cultures (Ajzen, 1991). Studies in Brazil also confirm that these same drivers shape decisions around food, pointing to similar consumer mindsets across these fast-growing markets (Dorce et al., 2021).

Chicken provides a good example of these shared behaviors. Because it is affordable, versatile, and familiar, chicken is often the first meat people buy more of as their incomes rise. In 2024, China consumed 14.83 million metric tons of chicken, Brazil 10.105 million, and Thailand 2.34 million, while their domestic production levels were just as high (USDA Foreign Agricultural Service, 2024). India, though historically a lower consumer of meat overall, produced nearly 5 million metric tons of broiler chicken in 2022/23 and continues to grow as incomes increase (USDA FAS New Delhi, 2024; OECD-FAO, 2024). Beyond price, research

shows that trust, family expectations, and convenience play an important role in chicken purchases. For example, studies in China highlight how time pressure and social norms guide choices toward familiar chicken products (Zheng et al., 2024). Taken together, these findings suggest that while cuisines differ widely, consumers in these countries converge in how they evaluate and purchase chicken: focusing on trust, affordability, and convenience.

Consumers in Australia and New Zealand tend to make food choices in similar ways because both countries share comparable social and economic conditions. People in these markets generally have high incomes, strong trust in food safety systems, and easy access to supermarkets and modern retail. This means that rather than worrying about whether food is available, shoppers focus more on *how* it is produced—paying close attention to labels, animal welfare claims, and environmental impact. Surveys by Food Standards Australia New Zealand show that shoppers in both countries read food labels carefully and value the reassurance of strong food regulations (Consumer Insights Tracker, 2023). Research also shows that New Zealand consumers are willing to pay extra for meat products that carry safety and sustainability guarantees, reflecting the importance of trust and quality in their buying habits (Realini et al., 2023).

Chicken offers a clear example of these shared behaviors. In Australia, chicken has become the most popular meat, with people eating about 50 kilograms per person each year and households serving it several times a week (Australian Chicken Meat Federation / RSPCA, 2024). In New Zealand, chicken also plays a central role in everyday meals, and studies show that while people still value price and taste, they increasingly care about whether chicken is farmed responsibly (Realini et al., 2023). Similar findings from Australian studies show that consumers weigh environmental impact and animal welfare alongside price and quality when deciding which chicken products to buy (de Araújo et al., 2022). Together, these trends suggest that chicken is a staple protein in both countries, but what guides purchase decisions are the signals of safety, responsibility, and trust attached to the product.

Consumers in the United States, South Korea, and Brazil often make food choices in surprisingly similar ways, even though their cultural settings are very different. In all three countries, people pay close attention to health, food safety, and the reputation of the products they buy. In developed markets like the U.S. and South Korea, shoppers are especially focused on how food is produced—looking for labels that signal safety, quality, or animal welfare. In

Brazil, where incomes have been rising steadily, these concerns are also becoming central to purchase decisions. Research grounded in the Theory of Planned Behavior shows that attitudes, social expectations, and a sense of control strongly influence food choices, a pattern observed across multiple markets (Ajzen, 1991). Studies in Latin America further confirm that Brazilian consumers respond to these same behavioral drivers, highlighting how these patterns apply globally (Dorce et al., 2021).

Chicken provides a clear example of this overlap. In the United States, chicken is the most widely consumed meat, with total annual consumption reaching about 21.19 million metric tons (Aviagen, 2024). South Korea, though smaller in scale, is projected to consume roughly 1.08 million metric tons in 2025 (USDA FAS Seoul, 2024). Brazil combines both strong domestic demand and high production, with consumption expected at 10.1 million metric tons and production at 15.35 million metric tons in 2025 (USDA FAS Brasilia, 2025). Because chicken is affordable, versatile, and trusted, consumers in all three countries rely on similar cues—such as brand reputation, labeling, and safety standards—when deciding what to buy. This makes their purchasing behavior converge, even across very different cultural and economic contexts.

Consumers in Spain and Poland often make food purchasing choices that emphasize trust, product transparency, and health, even though their cultures and markets differ. In both countries, consumers increasingly demand credible information about how meat is produced—such as welfare claims, sustainability, and origin labels. In Spain, studies show that while meat is still widely eaten, concerns about health, environmental impact, and animal welfare are becoming key modifiers of consumption decisions (Font i Furnols & Guerrero, 2022). In Poland, consumer attitudes toward street food reflect strong emphasis on hygiene, quality, and safety, indicating that at least for ready meals or convenience purchases, the same sets of signals matter (Wiatrowski et al., 2021).

Chicken is a prominent example of these shared decision factors. In Spain, about 80 % of poultry meat is chicken; in 2019, Spain produced ~1.7 million tons of poultry, with consumption and production roughly balanced and exports only around 15 % of output (USDA Spain Poultry Sector Update, 2020). The industry is shifting toward added-value products (ready-to-cook or processed chicken) in response to consumer demand. In Poland, poultry production and consumption have grown strongly since entrance into the EU, making Poland one of the leading

poultry producers in the EU (Trajer & Mieczkowski, 2018). Trends in Poland show that poultry has gained share versus red meat as it is seen as more affordable and efficient, and that infrastructural modernization has enabled scale and safety improvements (Trajer & Mieczkowski, 2018). Together, these patterns suggest that—even in European contexts—consumers converge in how they evaluate chicken products, relying heavily on safety, trust signals, and value rather than simply on availability.

Consumers in Kenya, Colombia, and Peru often make food purchasing decisions based on a mix of price sensitivity, trust in safety, and product cues, shaped by transitional economies and evolving retail systems. In Kenya, for example, nutrition is the top priority among food values, while environmental impact ranks lowest—showing a focus on immediate needs over long-term concerns (Femi-Oladunni et al., 2023). In Peru, studies show that consumers are willing to pay premiums for meat certified as safe, confirming that food safety is a growing trust cue in their purchase decisions (Ebata et al., 2025). In Colombia, research highlights how the spread of supermarkets and formal retail channels shifts buying habits toward value differentiation and label-based choices (Rodriguez-Lozada et al., 2020).

Chicken provides a clear lens into these shared behaviors. In Kenya, about 50 million chickens are slaughtered annually, and more than 92 % of the population reports frequent chicken consumption, making it one of the most important protein sources (Uragroconsult/FAO, 2023). In Colombia, domestic chicken consumption is estimated at about 2,025 thousand metric tons (IndexMundi, 2023). In Peru, the figure is close behind at roughly 1,955 thousand metric tons (IndexMundi, 2023). Moreover, Peruvian consumers increasingly factor in safety and certification when buying chicken, reflecting the same willingness to pay premiums noted in broader meat studies (Ebata et al., 2025). Taken together, these examples show that even in developing or transitional markets, consumers converge in treating chicken as a staple protein while relying on signals of safety, trust, and value to guide their choices.

3.2.3 Purchase Intent for Cooking Oil

Performing a cluster analysis consisting of the combined total of respondents across all 13 countries (Cluster Analysis C), based on Purchase Interest for Cooking Oil, suggests relationships at a 5-cluster group solution (Table 4.5). Majority of respondents from India, Kenya, and Brazil were assigned to the same cluster, cluster 1 in the 5-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference for cooking oil from the 13 countries. Additionally, majority of respondents from New Zealand and Australia were assigned to the same cluster, cluster 2 in the 5-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference for cooking oil from the 13 countries. Cluster 3 consists of consumers primarily from the United States, South Korea, China, and Thailand. Cluster 4 is dominated by consumers from Colombia with a smaller portion of consumers from Peru. Finally, the majority of consumers in cluster 5 in the 5-cluster solution proceed from Spain, with a smaller portion of consumers from Poland.

Table 4.5. The percentage of consumers in each country who grouped within each cluster for Purchase Interest for Cooking Oil

Purchase Interest for Cooking Oil		Total	5-Cluster Solution				
			1 of 5	2 of 5	3 of 5	4 of 5	5 of 5
		8,179	4,082	782	1,830	800	685
Number (Proportion) of respondents from each Country assigned to each Cluster	United States	630	43%	1%	43%	9%	4%
	Spain	629	28%	3%	9%	3%	56%
	Poland	630	42%	2%	13%	5%	39%
	South Korea	630	33%	3%	62%	1%	2%
	China	630	44%	1%	54%	1%	0%
	Thailand	627	47%	1%	51%	1%	1%
	India	630	88%	2%	9%	1%	0%
	New Zealand	630	37%	47%	12%	4%	0%
	Kenya	630	80%	3%	13%	3%	0%
	Brazil	630	79%	0%	10%	10%	1%
	Colombia	630	42%	1%	4%	50%	3%
	Peru	623	56%	0%	7%	36%	1%
	Australia	630	31%	58%	6%	4%	1%

The colors represent percentages of consumers from light green=lowest percentages to dark green=highest percentage

Consumers in India, Kenya, and Brazil show overlapping behaviors in their choice of cooking oils because all three markets are shaped by rising incomes, urbanization, and stronger awareness of health and food safety. Once staple availability is assured, households shift their attention to signals of trust, affordability, and health attributes, which aligns with the Theory of Planned Behavior: attitudes toward oil quality, social norms around family expectations, and perceived control over choice shape what is purchased (Ajzen, 1991). Across these countries, consumers rely heavily on labels, price cues, and brand reputation when differentiating oils.

Market data highlight how these similarities play out. India is the world's largest importer of vegetable oils, with demand reaching about 25 million tons in 2024; domestic production covers less than half, leaving roughly 60 % to be met by imports (IMARC, 2025; Business Standard, 2025). Kenya, also a net importer, depends primarily on palm oil, which dominates the market despite consumer health concerns (Tuei, 2023). Brazil represents a growing and diversifying market, valued at USD 6.92 billion in 2024, with consumer studies noting mixed attitudes toward palm oil due to health and perception issues (Market Research Future, 2024; Bispo et al., 2024). Despite these structural differences, buyers in all three countries converge in how they evaluate oils: focusing on safety, health cues, and brand trust as deciding factors.

Consumers in Australia and New Zealand show purchasing behaviors in the edible oil market that mirror the patterns observed with chicken: once basic availability is assured, attention shifts to credence attributes such as safety, sustainability, and health. Prior studies indicate that shoppers in both countries place strong trust in regulatory systems and actively seek labeling information to guide their choices (Consumer Insights Tracker, 2023). This means that oils, like chicken, are evaluated less on baseline access and more on perceived responsibility and quality of production.

Market evidence reflects this pattern. In Australia, canola oil dominates domestic production, and its strong reputation for heart health has supported sustained consumer demand (Australian Oilseeds Federation, 2024). In New Zealand, olive oil has gained a premium niche, while canola and imported vegetable oils fulfill staple demand, with sustainability and origin certifications shaping consumer preferences (Nielsen, 2024). Thus, much as in their meat choices, Australian and New Zealand consumers converge in their cooking oil purchases around signals of health, safety, and responsible production, reinforcing a broader pattern of trust-driven food decision making.

Consumers in the U.S., South Korea, China, and Thailand display convergence in cooking oil purchasing patterns because once basic availability is established, decision criteria shift toward health attributes, safety, and brand/institutional trust. Given stable supply in these markets, consumers' attitudes, norms, and perceived control guide choices among many similar oils (Ajzen, 1991). This means people pay close attention to labels (e.g. "non-GMO," "cold-pressed," "low saturated fat"), origin claims, and brand reputation. In more developed markets like the U.S. and South Korea, regulatory confidence reinforces reliance on official labeling; in China and Thailand, rapid modernization and regulatory reforms intensify the role of certification and traceability in consumer judgment.

Market and trade data illustrate how these dynamics play out. In the U.S., soybean oil dominates edible oil use, with the country among the largest producers, exporters, and consumers of vegetable oils globally (AOCS, USA). In South Korea, the edible oil market heavily depends on imports, with palm oil, soybean oil, and rapeseed being key substitutes (USDA, Korea Vegetable Oil Market Overview, 2024) (USDA, 2024). China has dramatically increased per capita vegetable oil consumption over recent decades and is a major importer of soybean, palm, and rapeseed oils (AOCS, China's evolving edible oils industry) (AOCS, China). In Thailand, local vegetable oil production (e.g. palm, soybean) is significant and supports both domestic consumption and food processing sectors (Vegetable Oil Market applications Thailand) (LinkedIn/industry). Across these markets, despite differences in dominant oil types, consumers converge in evaluating oils via health claims, brand trust, and safety credibility.

Consumers in Colombia and Peru show analogous behaviors when choosing cooking oils: once basic access is met, decision drivers shift toward trust, health claims, brand reputation, and price. In both countries, oils are everyday staples, so small differentiators like label claims ("0 trans fat," "certified," "blend quality") and branding carry disproportionate weight. The Theory of Planned Behavior (attitudes, social norms, perceived control) provides a useful lens: consumers ask, "Is this safe? Do others like it? Can I trust this brand?"

Market evidence supports this convergence. In Peru, palm oil remains the most consumed cooking oil, representing about 50 % of the market share in 2024, with total category sales of roughly US \$770 million (USDA FAS Peru, 2025). (USDA FAS Peru, 2025) Many oils are distributed through traditional channels, and formulations often use blends to optimize cost (USDA FAS Peru, 2025). (USDA FAS Peru, 2025) In Colombia, edible oils (including fats)

constituted about USD 7,233.7 million in market revenue in 2022, with projections to grow toward USD 13,297.5 million by 2030 (Grand View Research, 2022). Palm oil production is significant in Colombia: by 2023, the country produced ~2 million tons of palm oil and has rapidly expanded yields in recent decades (BBVA Research, 2025). (BBVA Research, 2025) Because of the growth in domestic supply and biodiesel blending demands, some portion of oil consumption is diverted to non-food uses, tightening supply for edible uses (Ofi Magazine, 2025). (Ofi Magazine, 2025)

Together, these patterns show that despite national differences, Colombian and Peruvian consumers converge in how they evaluate cooking oils. The baseline commodity nature of the product means that brands compete via trust, health positioning, and perceived value rather than scarcity. Over time, the strength of these cues may even allow premium or certified oils to gain in share—especially in more urban, health-conscious consumer segments.

In Spain and Poland, consumers often shift from basic availability concerns to credence attributes—such as health, purity, and brand trust—when choosing cooking oil. In Spain, where olive oil has long carried symbolic and cultural weight, rising prices and supply constraints are pushing households to reexamine longstanding preferences. For example, in the first half of 2024 Spaniards bought 179 million liters of sunflower oil versus 107 million liters of olive oil, signaling a practical shift toward cost-effective alternatives (Reuters, 2024). Spain’s per capita consumption of olive oil stands at roughly 14.2 liters annually—well above global averages, showing just how integral it is to dietary habit (World Population Review).

Poland, by contrast, does not have the same traditional association with olive oil, but its edible oil market is becoming more differentiated. The edible oil market in Poland is forecasted to adapt toward more premium, organic, and minimally processed oils (Lucintel, 2025). Consumers increasingly demand transparency around sourcing and health properties. Despite Poland’s reliance on imports or regional oil types (sunflower, rapeseed, etc.), the shift toward “better” oils mirrors patterns seen in Spain—even though the baseline types differ. In both countries, cooking oil is a staple, but what distinguishes consumer choice is the signal the oil carries: healthiness, purity, brand reputation, and trust in regulatory claims.

3.2.4 Purchase Intent for Chocolate

Performing a cluster analysis consisting of the combined total of respondents across all 13 countries (Cluster Analysis D), based on Purchase Interest for Chocolate, suggests relationships at a 5-cluster group solution (Table 4.6). Majority of respondents from Peru, India, China, and Thailand were assigned to the same cluster, cluster 1 in the 5-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference for chocolate from the 13 countries. Additionally, smaller portion of respondents from Poland, Kenya, Brazil, and Australia were assigned to the same cluster, cluster 2 in the 5-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference for chocolate from the 13 countries. Cluster 3 is dominated by consumers from New Zealand with a smaller portion of consumers from Australia. Cluster 4 is dominated by consumers from South Korea, Thailand, Spain, the United States, and China. Finally, the majority of consumers in cluster 5 in the 5-cluster solution proceed from Colombia.

Table 4.6. The percentage of consumers in each country who grouped within each cluster for Purchase Interest for Chocolate

Purchase Interest for Chocolate		Total	5-Cluster Solution				
			1 of 5	2 of 5	3 of 5	4 of 5	5 of 5
		8,179	4,200	1,298	323	1,306	1,052
Number (Proportion) of respondents from each Country assigned to each Cluster	United States	630	48%	11%	1%	26%	15%
	Spain	629	53%	6%	0%	28%	12%
	Poland	630	48%	29%	0%	13%	10%
	South Korea	630	41%	12%	0%	41%	6%
	China	630	67%	4%	0%	25%	3%
	Thailand	627	57%	7%	1%	31%	4%
	India	630	68%	21%	0%	9%	2%
	New Zealand	630	36%	12%	31%	5%	17%
	Kenya	630	50%	33%	0%	10%	6%
	Brazil	630	50%	28%	0%	9%	13%
	Colombia	630	47%	3%	1%	3%	46%
	Peru	623	73%	4%	0%	3%	20%
	Australia	630	30%	34%	17%	6%	13%

The colors represent percentages of consumers from light green=lowest percentages to dark green=highest percentage

Consumers in Peru, India, China, and Thailand tend to converge in how they view chocolate: though consumption is lower in many of these markets relative to Western countries, rising incomes, urbanization, and shifting snack preferences push them to treat chocolate not just as a treat but as an occasional everyday indulgence. Once basic affordability is available, the decision shifts to factors like taste, brand reputation, packaging, perceived health or premium cues (e.g. “dark chocolate,” bean origin), and social signaling. The Theory of Planned Behavior (attitudes, norms, perceived control) helps explain this: even in markets new to chocolate, people ask “Do I like the taste? Do others approve? Can I afford it?”

Market evidence illustrates both growth and divergence. China’s chocolate market was valued at US\$ 3.65 billion in 2023, with expectations to grow toward US\$ 4.76 billion by 2030 (China-Briefing, 2024). In India and Thailand, the Asia Pacific chocolate sector is expanding rapidly due to younger consumers adopting chocolate snacking more frequently (MarketDataForecast, 2025). In Peru, while comprehensive chocolate-specific data are harder to find, the broader confectionery and cocoa import trends point to growing middle-class demand for branded and premium chocolate. (Markets & Markets, 2025) Meanwhile, consumers in Thailand emphasize aroma and taste above all else when selecting chocolate (Kadence, 2024). (Kadence, 2024) Across these markets, despite differences in scale and maturity, consumers increasingly converge on taste, brand trust, and premium cues as linchpins in chocolate purchase decisions.

Consumers in Poland, Kenya, Brazil, and Australia demonstrate similar purchasing behaviors for chocolate once basic access is secured. Across these diverse markets, chocolate is viewed less as a staple and more as an indulgence or gift, so the decision criteria revolve around taste, brand trust, packaging, and social signaling. The Theory of Planned Behavior helps explain this pattern: attitudes toward quality and health, norms around gifting or prestige, and perceived affordability guide decisions across these countries (Ajzen, 1991). In emerging markets like Kenya, where chocolate is newer to mass consumption, packaging and brand reputation are particularly important for building trust.

Market data highlight both contrasts and convergences. Poland has one of Europe’s highest per capita chocolate consumption levels at about 5.7 kg per year (ErndSnacks, 2023). Brazil’s chocolate confectionery sector is expanding rapidly, with retail projections showing strong growth as premium and flavor-innovative chocolates gain popularity (Euromonitor, 2025).

Australia's per capita consumption is similarly high at roughly 4.9 kg annually, with demand growing for premium, organic, and health-positioned varieties (ErndSnacks, 2023). Kenya's chocolate market is smaller but growing as middle-income consumers shift from informal sweets to branded products, and reports suggest strong responsiveness to global brands and trusted labels (Mordor Intelligence, 2024). Despite differences in maturity and volume, consumers across these markets converge in relying on cues of brand reputation, perceived healthiness, and premium positioning to guide chocolate purchases.

Australia and New Zealand once again appear together as a pair in the chocolate category, reinforcing the recurring pattern seen in other food segments. As with chicken and cooking oils, consumers in both markets display strong trust in regulation and rely on labeling, sustainability cues, and premium positioning when making purchase decisions. Chocolate consumption is high in both countries: Australians consume roughly 4.9 kg per person annually, while New Zealanders average around 4.3 kg, placing both well above global averages (ErndSnacks, 2023). These figures highlight that chocolate, like other staple indulgence categories, is evaluated primarily through signals of brand reputation, ethical sourcing, and health positioning rather than access, reflecting a consistent convergence in consumer behavior.

In South Korea, Thailand, Spain, the United States, and China, consumers display strikingly similar criteria when selecting chocolate: once basic access is met, decisions pivot toward brand reputation, flavor profile, ethical or health cues (e.g. "dark," "single-origin," "fair trade"), and packaging appeal. Even across these culturally distinct markets, the Theory of Planned Behavior helps explain the similarities: attitudes (taste, health), subjective norms (social gifting, prestige), and perceived control (price sensitivity, availability) all play comparable roles. In East Asia (China, Korea, Thailand), rising incomes and modernization have turned chocolate into a lifestyle good rather than just a treat, heightening the role of premium cues.

Looking at market consumption helps ground these parallels. In the U.S., per capita chocolate consumption is about 4.4 kg/year (ErndSnacks, 2023). (ErndSnacks, 2023) Spain, known for strong confectionery culture, also exhibits high per capita levels (~4.3–4.5 kg) (ErndSnacks, 2023). (ErndSnacks, 2023) In Australia and New Zealand earlier we noted their levels (~4.9, 5.0 kg) for chocolate, which situates Spain and the U.S. in a similar band. China remains much lower (around 0.1 kg per capita in recent data) but is rapidly growing as chocolate becomes mainstream (ErndSnacks, 2023). (ErndSnacks, 2023) Thailand and South Korea fall

somewhere in between, with middle-income consumers increasingly adopting chocolate in snacking and gifting categories. Across all five, the convergence lies not in absolute volume but in how consumers emphasize quality cues, brand differentiation, and ethical/health signaling in making their chocolate purchase decisions.

Colombia presents a distinctive case within the chocolate category compared to the other countries we have examined. While many of the previously discussed markets evaluate chocolate primarily as a consumed good—with decisions driven by brand reputation, packaging, and health cues—Colombia’s role as a major cocoa producer complicates consumer behavior. Domestic consumption of chocolate remains relatively modest, with per capita intake estimated at around 1.2 kg annually, well below European or North American averages (ErndSnacks, 2023). Instead, Colombia’s consumer market is shaped by the coexistence of mass-market imported brands and locally produced artisanal chocolate that emphasizes bean origin and national pride (ICCO, 2024).

This dual identity—producer of high-quality cocoa yet relatively low consumer of chocolate—creates behaviors that diverge from the convergence seen elsewhere. For many Colombian consumers, chocolate is more closely linked to cultural and economic identity (supporting local farmers, premium origin labels like “single-estate Colombian cacao”) than to everyday snacking or gifting norms. Thus, while countries like the U.S., Spain, or South Korea emphasize indulgence, prestige, or premiumization, Colombia emphasizes local authenticity, sustainability, and producer recognition as differentiating factors. This highlights that the Colombian chocolate market reflects not just consumer taste preferences but also the symbolic value of being a cocoa origin country.

3.2.5 Purchase Intent for Onions

Performing a cluster analysis consisting of the combined total of respondents across all 13 countries (Cluster Analysis E), based on Purchase Interest for Onions, suggests relationships at a 5-cluster group solution (Table 4.7). Majority of respondents from China, Thailand, Kenya, Brazil, and India were assigned to the same cluster, cluster 1 in the 5-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference for onions from the 13 countries. Additionally, majority of respondents from New Zealand and Australia were assigned to the same cluster, cluster 2 in the 5-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference for onions from the 13 countries. Cluster 3 is dominated by consumers from Poland. Cluster 4 consists of consumers primarily from Colombia and Peru. Finally, the majority of consumers in cluster 5 in the 5-cluster solution proceed from Spain, South Korea, and The United States.

Table 4.7. The percentage of consumers in each country who grouped within each cluster for Purchase Interest for Onions

Purchase Interest for Onions		Total	5-Cluster Solution				
			1 of 5	2 of 5	3 of 5	4 of 5	5 of 5
		8,179	4,142	943	453	778	1,863
Number (Proportion) of respondents from each Country assigned to each Cluster	United States	630	44%	2%	1%	2%	51%
	Spain	629	34%	2%	3%	1%	59%
	Poland	630	32%	1%	57%	1%	9%
	South Korea	630	39%	5%	1%	1%	55%
	China	630	91%	2%	0%	1%	6%
	Thailand	627	84%	6%	1%	1%	8%
	India	630	64%	4%	2%	2%	28%
	New Zealand	630	25%	66%	1%	0%	9%
	Kenya	630	75%	2%	2%	1%	20%
	Brazil	630	74%	1%	1%	5%	18%
	Colombia	630	29%	0%	1%	57%	13%
	Peru	623	39%	1%	1%	51%	8%
	Australia	630	27%	59%	1%	1%	12%

The colors represent percentages of consumers from light green=lowest percentages to dark green=highest percentage

Consumers in China, Thailand, Kenya, Brazil, and India demonstrate converging behaviors when purchasing onions, a staple ingredient across their cuisines. Because onions are low-involvement goods, the decision process is driven less by brand and more by price, freshness, visible quality (size, pungency, shelf life), and trust in the point of sale. The Theory of Planned Behavior provides a useful lens: attitudes toward onion quality, social norms about preferred varieties or formats, and perceived control through price and convenience shape the decision. Increasingly, in urban settings, consumers are also attentive to packaging innovations such as pre-peeled or pre-sorted onions that save time and reinforce perceptions of hygiene.

Production and trade figures highlight the scale and structure of these markets. India leads globally with about 37.1 million metric tons of onion production in 2022, while China follows closely with approximately 24–25 million tons, making both dominant in supply (World Population Review, 2025). India also exported more than 2.5 billion kilograms of onions in 2023, while China exported nearly 1.2 billion kilograms, underscoring their role as global suppliers (WITS, 2023). By contrast, Thailand, Kenya, and Brazil produce lower volumes and often rely on seasonal imports to stabilize domestic supply. Yet across all five countries, the purchase decision at the consumer level consistently emphasizes freshness, affordability, and perceived quality cues, showing how staple vegetables like onions encourage convergent behaviors despite differences in market scale.

Australia and New Zealand once again form a natural pair, this time in the onion category. As with chicken, cooking oils, and chocolate, consumers in both markets demonstrate a consistent pattern of relying on trust in regulation, product labeling, and perceived quality signals rather than concerns about access. Onions are widely available in both countries, with domestic production sufficient not only for local consumption but also for exports, particularly from New Zealand, which is a notable supplier to Asian markets (FAO, 2024). Consumers in both countries increasingly pay attention to onion size, variety, and sustainability certifications, echoing the emphasis on ethical and health-oriented cues observed in other food categories.

In practice, onions are evaluated by Australian and New Zealand households less as a scarce commodity and more as a trusted staple differentiated by quality attributes. Much like their behavior with chicken and cooking oils, shoppers in these markets show a willingness to pay premiums for freshness, convenience (such as pre-packaged options), and sustainability claims. This continued pattern reinforces that across categories, consumers in Australia and New

Zealand converge in how they translate trust, quality assurance, and ethical considerations into purchase decisions.

Poland represents a distinct case within the onion category, differing from the multi-country dynamics observed in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. Unlike markets where onions are primarily evaluated through access and affordability, Poland's consumers operate within the context of European Union standards, high food safety regulation, and strong domestic agricultural policy. Poland consistently ranks among Europe's top onion producers, with annual production averaging around 600,000–700,000 metric tons (FAO, 2024). Domestic supply is generally stable, supplemented when necessary, by intra-EU trade, which ensures consistent quality and price stability for consumers.

As a result, Polish consumers are less focused on availability and more attentive to quality attributes such as variety, storage life, and presentation, often tied to supermarket standards and EU labeling schemes. This contrasts with the behavior in countries like India or Kenya, where affordability and seasonal supply swings dominate purchase decisions. In Poland, onions are a trusted, regulated staple, integrated into traditional cuisine but mediated through modern retail structures. This makes Poland's consumer behavior distinctive: it reflects the influence of institutional trust and EU-wide market integration, rather than the price- and access-driven heuristics seen in emerging markets.

Consumers in Colombia and Peru share converging patterns in how they approach onions, shaped by their reliance on local markets and a mix of traditional and modern retail channels. In both countries, onions are a central component of national cuisines—ranging from Peru's *cebolla roja* in *salsa criolla*, a red onion and lime-based side dish often paired with ceviche (Cook Eat Live Love, 2023), to Colombia's use of scallions and bulb onions in *hogao*, a traditional tomato-onion sauce used as a base for many meals (Wikipedia, 2024). Purchase decisions revolve around freshness, visual quality, price, and trust in the point of sale, whether in supermarkets or open-air markets. The Theory of Planned Behavior again provides a framework: attitudes toward pungency and freshness, social norms tied to culinary traditions, and perceived affordability all guide decisions. Consumers in both markets are also responsive to fluctuations in supply, adjusting preferences when weather or trade shocks impact availability.

Production and trade figures illustrate structural similarities. Peru produced roughly 580,000 metric tons of onions in 2022, with exports surpassing 400,000 tons, largely to the United States and Europe (FAO, 2024). Colombia’s production is lower, averaging about 250,000–300,000 tons annually, but onions remain one of its most widely cultivated vegetables (FAO, 2024). Despite differences in scale, both countries balance domestic consumption with export markets, which can create temporary price volatility at home. For consumers, however, the behavioral convergence is clear: onions are evaluated through quality, price stability, and trust in vendors, making them staples with consistent decision drivers across both nations.

Consumers in Spain, South Korea, and the United States demonstrate both diversity and convergence in their purchasing behaviors toward onions. In all three countries, onions are foundational to national cuisines—Spain integrates them into *sofrito* bases for stews and paellas (The Spruce Eats, 2023), Korea uses green onions (*pa*) extensively in soups and side dishes like *pajeon* (green onion pancake) and *pa-kimchi* (Korean green onion kimchi) (Maangchi, 2024), and the U.S. incorporates onions across a wide range of regional dishes, from caramelized onions in French onion soup to Tex-Mex preparations such as fajitas and salsas (Serious Eats, 2024). Across these contexts, purchase decisions emphasize freshness, size, and convenience (such as pre-chopped or bagged onions in supermarkets), with brand playing a secondary role. The Theory of Planned Behavior helps frame these similarities: consumers’ attitudes focus on onion flavor and freshness, norms connect to culinary traditions, and perceived behavioral control reflects availability in modern retail.

Production data highlight scale and availability differences. The United States is one of the world’s largest onion producers, with output exceeding 3 million metric tons annually (USDA, 2024). Spain contributes significantly within Europe, producing around 1.5 million metric tons, with exports to other EU markets (FAO, 2024). South Korea produces far less—about 1.3 million tons annually—and often imports to stabilize prices during shortages (KREI, 2023). Yet at the consumer level, the convergence is striking: whether onions are abundant (U.S., Spain) or periodically scarce (South Korea), shoppers consistently prioritize quality, freshness, and convenience packaging, showing how even in different production contexts, consumer behaviors align when it comes to this essential staple.

3.2.6 Average Purchase Interest Scores

Taking the responses that a respondent gave for the five common products and averaging those five scores separately for each country, we performed a cluster analysis consisting of the combined total of respondents across all 13 countries (Cluster Analysis F), based on the average of Purchase Interest scores (Table 8). This cluster analysis suggests relationships at a 6-cluster group solution. Majority of respondents from New Zealand and Australia were assigned to the same cluster, cluster 1 in the 6-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference based on the average purchase interest from the 13 countries. Cluster 2 is dominated from consumers from China and Thailand with a small portion of consumers from India, Brazil, and South Korea. Cluster 3 consists primarily of consumers from the United States and South Korea, with a smaller portion of consumers from Brazil. Cluster 4 is dominated by consumers from Colombia and Peru. Cluster 5 is dominated by consumers from Spain. Finally, cluster 6 is primarily of consumers from Kenya and Poland with a smaller portion of consumers from India.

Table 4.8. The percentage of consumers in each country who grouped within each cluster for Average Purchase Interest Scores consisting of the 5 common products combined

Average Purchase Interest Scores		Total	6-Cluster Solution					
			1 of 6	2 of 6	3 of 6	4 of 6	5 of 6	6 of 6
		8,179	876	3,479	1,078	1,089	365	1,292
Number (Proportion) of respondents from each Country assigned to each Cluster	United States	630	2%	37%	50%	6%	0%	5%
	Spain	629	0%	27%	4%	4%	57%	8%
	Poland	630	0%	27%	8%	3%	0%	62%
	South Korea	630	1%	45%	50%	1%	0%	4%
	China	630	1%	95%	3%	0%	0%	1%
	Thailand	627	0%	95%	3%	0%	0%	2%
	India	630	0%	58%	1%	0%	0%	40%
	New Zealand	630	66%	27%	3%	1%	0%	3%
	Kenya	630	1%	24%	3%	4%	0%	68%
	Brazil	630	1%	48%	39%	7%	0%	4%
	Colombia	630	1%	15%	2%	80%	0%	3%
	Peru	623	0%	31%	2%	65%	0%	2%
	Australia	630	65%	24%	4%	2%	0%	5%

Consumers in New Zealand and Australia display purchasing behaviors characterized by a balance between value consciousness and strong ethical preferences, particularly regarding sustainability and product provenance. Both markets consistently show high levels of trust in domestic brands and emphasize transparency in production practices, reflecting mature consumer awareness and well-developed regulatory standards. In Australia, over 80 percent of consumers report that environmental responsibility adds value to a brand (BBC Study, 2022). This aligns with research showing that sustainability and welfare considerations frequently guide Australian purchasing choices (Deloitte, 2023). In New Zealand, similar priorities are evident, where consumers increasingly base their decisions on trust, quality, and ethical brand alignment (Nielsen, 2024). These findings are further supported by evidence that post-pandemic spending in New Zealand continues to prioritize sustainable and responsible consumption patterns (EY, 2025).

Consumers across China and Thailand, with partial alignment from India, Brazil, and South Korea, tend to exhibit dynamic purchasing behaviors shaped by rapid economic development, expanding digital access, and a growing middle class. Convenience, affordability, and innovation play central roles, reflecting markets where online shopping and mobile payment adoption are among the highest globally. In China, cross-border e-commerce participation has surged, with nearly two-thirds of online shoppers expecting to spend more on imported goods (Pattern, 2022). Similarly, rising incomes in Thailand have contributed to an increase in premium product consumption and modern retail engagement (Consultancy Asia, 2018). Broader regional studies emphasize that emerging middle-class consumers in Asia and Latin America demonstrate increasing brand experimentation and openness to global products while maintaining sensitivity to price and perceived value (GfK, 2015; E Commerce Update, 2024).

Consumers in the United States and South Korea, with smaller similarities observed in Brazil, demonstrate purchasing behaviors shaped by advanced retail ecosystems and high exposure to global brands. In both markets, digital integration and brand reputation strongly influence decision-making, reflecting mature economies where consumers prioritize convenience, innovation, and social responsibility. In the United States, consumer preference for locally made products remains strong, with nearly 70 percent willing to pay more for domestically produced goods (Coates, 2020). South Korean consumers similarly exhibit strong engagement with online retail platforms, where lifestyle data and personalization technologies

increasingly shape purchasing intent (Lee et al., 2025). Meanwhile, Brazilian consumers reflect a hybrid pattern, embracing e-commerce discount incentives and mobile purchasing trends (E Commerce Update, 2024). Together, these markets represent digitally advanced yet value-conscious consumers whose purchasing patterns balance global aspiration with local trust.

Consumers in Colombia and Peru display purchasing behaviors grounded in local tradition and social connectedness, while also adapting to rapid digital and economic modernization. Both markets show growing comfort with online purchasing, particularly for food and household items, yet remain guided by trust, familiarity, and product authenticity. In Colombia, more than half of internet users make weekly online purchases, reflecting expanding digital access and consumer confidence in e-commerce (IceCat, 2023). In Peru, economic growth and the rise of urban middle-class consumers have fueled the development of modern retail channels, making it one of Latin America's fastest-growing e-commerce markets (The Rio Times, 2022). These patterns suggest a hybrid model of consumption—rooted in community values yet increasingly shaped by digital convenience and exposure to global products.

Spain stands out from other markets due to the strong influence of tradition, regional identity, and sustainability consciousness in shaping consumer purchasing behavior. Spanish consumers tend to value authenticity, local sourcing, and quality assurance—attributes often linked to national pride and cultural heritage. Recent consumer trend reports note that Spanish buyers increasingly integrate environmental considerations and ethical consumption into everyday purchasing, with sustainability now a mainstream expectation rather than a niche concern (Kantar, 2023). Moreover, Spanish consumers balance this ethical focus with a practical approach to value, showing loyalty to trusted domestic brands that align with Mediterranean lifestyle patterns (Font i Furnols and Guerrero, 2022). Together, these factors distinguish Spain as a mature market where cultural continuity coexists with modern sustainability-driven consumption.

Consumers in Kenya and Poland, with partial similarity to India, exhibit purchasing behaviors shaped by pragmatic decision-making, increasing digital adoption, and strong sensitivity to price and product accessibility. Both Kenya and Poland have experienced growth in modern retail formats and e-commerce, yet local traditions and trust in domestic goods remain central to consumer choices. In Kenya, local ethnocentrism continues to influence preference for nationally produced goods, driven by perceptions of patriotism and quality assurance (Kiriri,

2019). Polish consumers demonstrate comparable tendencies, favoring familiar domestic products while gradually incorporating online retail into routine purchasing patterns (Wiatrowski et al., 2021). Similarly, in India, price awareness and the perceived reliability of local brands continue to play a decisive role in shaping consumer purchasing intent (Papatla, Jain, and Hoyer, 2011). Collectively, this cluster reflects a transitional consumer profile balancing traditional loyalty with emerging digital consumption habits.

3.2.7 Purchase Interest for All Five Common Products

Taking into consideration all 65 Purchase Intent variables (5 common products x 13 countries of origin), and running segmentations based on these 65 variables, we performed a cluster analysis consisting of the combined total of respondents across all 13 countries (Cluster Analysis G), based on Purchase Interest for all five common products (Table 9). This cluster analysis suggests relationships at a 5-cluster group solution. Majority of respondents from New Zealand and Australia were assigned to the same cluster, cluster 1 in the 5-cluster solution suggesting that they have similar patterns of preference based on the purchase interest for all 5 common products from the 13 countries. Cluster 2 is dominated from consumers from China, Thailand, and India. Cluster 3 consists of primarily consumers from South Korea, Kenya, the United States, and Brazil. Cluster 4 is dominated by consumers from Colombia and Peru, Finally, cluster 5 is primarily of consumers from South Korea and Poland.

Table 4.9. The percentage of consumers in each country who grouped within each cluster for all Purchase Interest Variables consisting of the 5 common products combined

Purchase Interest for All Five Common Products		Total	5-Cluster Solution				
			1 of 5	2 of 5	3 of 5	4 of 5	5 of 5
		8,179	836	2,821	2,905	820	797
Number (Proportion) of respondents from each Country assigned to each Cluster	United States	630	1%	36%	54%	1%	8%
	Spain	629	1%	20%	34%	1%	43%
	Poland	630	1%	22%	28%	1%	48%
	South Korea	630	1%	24%	73%	0%	1%
	China	630	0%	83%	15%	0%	2%
	Thailand	627	0%	67%	30%	0%	2%
	India	630	0%	63%	34%	1%	2%
	New Zealand	630	62%	16%	19%	0%	3%
	Kenya	630	1%	25%	70%	0%	3%
	Brazil	630	0%	37%	54%	2%	6%
	Colombia	630	0%	16%	19%	64%	1%
	Peru	623	0%	20%	18%	60%	2%
	Australia	630	64%	18%	14%	0%	4%

Consumers in Australia and New Zealand continue to reflect purchasing behaviors consistent with prior observations, emphasizing sustainability, ethical sourcing, and trust in domestic brands. Their buying patterns reveal a sustained alignment between environmental awareness and value-driven decision-making. In Australia, over 80 percent of consumers report that sustainability commitments increase a brand’s perceived value (BBC Study, 2022). This emphasis on environmental responsibility reflects a broader pattern of ethical and socially conscious consumption (Deloitte, 2023). In New Zealand, consumer decisions remain grounded in trust and long-term brand relationships, particularly among those who associate sustainable practices with product quality and reliability (Nielsen, 2024).

Consumers in China, Thailand, and India exhibit purchasing behaviors driven by economic growth, digital transformation, and increasing access to global products. In China, online and cross-border shopping continues to expand, with two-thirds of consumers expecting to increase spending on imported goods (Pattern, 2022). In Thailand, rising household incomes have led to greater interest in premium and convenience-oriented products, reflecting a shift toward modern consumption patterns (Consultancy Asia, 2018). In India, expanding digital infrastructure and the rapid adoption of e-commerce platforms have supported greater product diversification and competitive pricing across urban and semi-urban markets (USDA FAS New

Delhi, 2024). Collectively, these markets demonstrate the purchasing power and adaptability of emerging middle-class consumers who increasingly balance affordability with aspirations for quality and innovation.

Consumers in South Korea, Kenya, the United States, and Brazil share purchasing behaviors influenced by digital integration, cultural adaptation, and evolving brand perceptions. In South Korea, technology adoption and data-driven personalization strongly shape shopping patterns, as consumers increasingly expect efficiency and customization from digital platforms (Lee et al., 2025). In Kenya, expanding mobile commerce continues to redefine accessibility and affordability, particularly among younger urban consumers (Femi-Oladunni et al., 2023). In the United States, brand reputation and country-of-origin cues remain key drivers of purchase intent, with most consumers willing to pay a premium for domestically produced goods (Coates, 2020). In Brazil, e-commerce activity remains robust, with discounts and convenience being primary motivators for online shopping (E Commerce Update, 2024). Together, these markets illustrate how technological connectivity and cultural context jointly influence consumer engagement across both developed and emerging economies.

Consumers in Colombia and Peru continue to display purchasing behaviors shaped by local trust, tradition, and a growing embrace of digital commerce. In Colombia, e-commerce participation remains strong, with over half of internet users making online purchases weekly, reflecting a shift toward digital convenience and consumer confidence (IceCat, 2023). In Peru, modern retail expansion and increased access to digital platforms have made the country one of Latin America's most dynamic e-commerce markets (The Rio Times, 2022). Both countries demonstrate a hybrid consumption model in which loyalty to familiar local brands coexists with growing interest in imported and premium products (Linero Bocanegra and Botero Cardona, 2020). These evolving behaviors reflect economies balancing cultural continuity with global retail integration.

Consumers in Spain and Poland reveal purchasing behaviors that blend cultural tradition with increasing attention to sustainability and product quality. In Spain, ethical consumption and environmental awareness continue to shape household spending, reflecting a mature market where sustainability is a mainstream expectation (Kantar, 2023). Polish consumers, while sharing an appreciation for quality and familiarity, tend to focus more heavily on price sensitivity and trusted domestic products, particularly within food and household categories (Wiatrowski et al.,

2021). Comparative analyses indicate that both markets are integrating digital purchasing habits at a steady pace, though cultural heritage and regional preferences continue to guide brand loyalty (Trajer and Mieczkowski, 2018). Together, these tendencies highlight how European consumers balance tradition and practicality while gradually aligning with broader sustainability-driven consumption patterns.

3.2.8 Mean Purchase Interest for Coffee by Respondents in 13 Countries

When analyzing Purchase Interest for Coffee consisting of all 13 countries, certain relationships are suggested. Brazil and Colombia rise to the top as the highest average mean scores across the 13 countries, while China falls to the bottom, with an average mean score of 4.22 out of a 9-point hedonic score. While a majority of the 13 countries score purchase interest for coffee within their respected country the highest, some countries such as Spain, Poland, and South Korea score Brazil and Colombia higher. Among the 13 countries, Thailand and India score purchase intent for coffee across the 13 countries very similar, while other countries vary in scoring, usually in favor towards their own, respected country.

Table 4.10. Mean Purchase Interest for Coffee by respondents in 13 countries for Coffee Grown/Processed in each of those 13 countries

		Total	Respondent's Country												
			US	ES	PL	KR	CN	TH	IN	NZ	KE	BR	CO	PE	AU
Country where Coffee is grown and processed*		8,179	630	629	630	630	630	627	630	630	630	630	630	623	630
	United States	5.65	7.33	4.83	5.77	5.83	5.71	6.90	6.91	4.22	5.83	5.89	4.38	5.11	4.71
	Spain	5.57	5.77	6.96	6.14	5.33	5.58	6.36	6.31	4.56	5.30	5.77	4.31	5.04	4.95
	Poland	4.90	4.95	4.28	6.09	4.86	5.19	6.10	6.15	3.87	4.83	5.03	3.77	4.34	4.20
	South Korea	4.71	4.60	3.92	5.03	6.40	4.72	6.19	5.97	3.68	4.46	4.65	3.53	4.25	3.84
	China	4.22	4.00	3.75	4.55	3.17	6.95	5.83	5.02	3.02	3.97	4.25	3.32	4.06	2.97
	Thailand	4.85	4.66	4.41	5.35	4.40	5.45	7.79	6.08	3.78	4.81	4.67	3.79	4.18	3.72
	India	4.90	4.80	4.82	5.95	4.30	4.57	5.67	7.79	3.93	4.86	4.67	4.03	4.28	4.01
	New Zealand	5.47	5.22	4.76	5.94	5.32	5.84	6.61	6.53	6.72	5.07	4.93	4.03	4.45	5.68
	Kenya	5.48	5.15	5.32	6.22	6.09	5.30	6.04	6.13	5.42	8.23	4.44	3.68	3.93	5.31
	Brazil	6.44	6.17	6.36	7.25	6.36	6.23	7.02	6.46	6.06	6.45	7.95	5.78	5.65	6.00
	Colombia	6.50	6.48	7.06	7.18	6.62	5.84	6.33	6.24	5.99	5.48	5.79	8.61	7.06	5.77
	Peru	5.86	5.79	5.72	6.86	5.62	5.60	6.10	6.11	5.43	5.11	5.28	5.31	7.98	5.32
	Australia	5.65	5.56	4.70	6.16	5.44	5.71	6.60	6.76	5.30	5.43	5.42	4.38	4.62	7.31

*Countries & Abbreviations: US (United States)/ES (Spain)/PL (Poland)/KR (South Korea)/CH (China)/TH (Thailand)/IN (India)/ NZ (New Zealand)/ KE (Kenya)/ BR (Brazil)/ CO (Colombia)/ PE (PERU)/ AU (Australia)

3.2.9 Mean Purchase Interest for Chicken by Respondents in 13 Countries

When analyzing Purchase Interest for Chicken consisting of all 13 countries, certain relationships are suggested. The United States, Spain, New Zealand, and Australia rise to the top as the highest average mean scores across the 13 countries, while China and India fall to the bottom, with an average mean score of 3.68 and 3.85 out of a 9-point hedonic score respectfully. Each of the 13 countries score purchase intent for chicken within their respected country the highest. Among the 13 countries, Thailand and India score purchase intent for chicken across the 13 countries very similar, while other countries vary in scoring, usually in favor towards their own, respected country. A relationship between New Zealand and Australia is present, with each country scoring their respected country significantly higher, followed by the other country, with all other countries scoring notably lower.

Table 4.11. Mean Purchase Interest for Chicken by respondents in 13 countries for Chicken Raised/Processed in each of those 13 countries

		Total	Respondent's Country												
			US	ES	PL	KR	CN	TH	IN	NZ	KE	BR	CO	PE	AU
Country where Chicken is raised and processed*		8,179	630	629	630	630	630	627	630	630	630	630	630	623	630
	United States	4.93	7.87	3.93	3.84	5.29	5.16	6.26	6.52	2.89	4.87	5.32	4.46	4.21	3.46
	Spain	4.78	4.61	7.69	4.07	4.82	5.17	5.80	6.10	2.83	4.55	5.06	4.21	4.04	3.17
	Poland	4.54	4.28	4.06	7.55	4.60	4.90	5.70	5.96	2.68	4.41	4.54	3.68	3.60	3.03
	South Korea	4.21	3.97	3.46	3.40	7.29	4.90	5.77	5.78	2.56	3.99	4.09	3.13	3.50	2.84
	China	3.68	3.61	3.14	3.06	3.08	7.33	5.24	5.00	2.17	3.24	3.62	2.77	3.22	2.38
	Thailand	4.06	3.87	3.29	3.26	3.98	5.15	7.78	5.78	2.45	4.22	3.92	3.07	3.34	2.61
	India	3.85	3.92	3.32	3.29	3.75	4.21	4.96	7.26	2.31	4.31	3.82	3.01	3.24	2.62
	New Zealand	4.97	4.38	3.91	3.78	5.32	5.73	6.17	6.39	7.77	4.70	4.36	3.67	3.76	4.65
	Kenya	4.17	3.98	3.53	3.32	4.05	4.74	5.11	5.92	2.56	7.92	3.90	3.18	3.28	2.73
	Brazil	4.60	4.29	3.67	3.48	4.34	5.02	5.38	6.12	2.63	5.40	7.63	4.64	4.41	2.77
	Colombia	4.58	4.32	3.64	3.40	4.22	5.04	5.22	6.02	2.53	4.80	4.73	8.15	4.66	2.77
	Peru	4.51	4.22	3.65	3.40	4.17	4.94	5.13	5.97	2.52	4.67	4.64	5.15	7.46	2.70
	Australia	5.20	4.58	4.03	3.85	5.60	5.56	6.21	6.58	4.84	5.17	4.89	4.16	4.12	7.97

*Countries & Abbreviations: US (United States)/ES (Spain)/PL (Poland)/KR (South Korea)/CH (China)/TH (Thailand)/IN (India)/ NZ (New Zealand)/ KE (Kenya)/ BR (Brazil)/ CO (Colombia)/ PE (PERU)/ AU (Australia)

3.2.10 Mean Purchase Interest for Cooking Oil by Respondents in 13 Countries

When analyzing Purchase Interest for Cooking Oil consisting of all 13 countries, certain relationships are suggested. The United States, Spain, New Zealand, and Australia rise to the top as the highest average mean scores across the 13 countries, while China falls to the bottom, with an average mean score of 4.04 out of a 9-point hedonic score. Each of the 13 countries score purchase intent for cooking oil within their respected country the highest. Among the 13 countries, Thailand and India score purchase intent for cooking oil across the 13 countries very

similar, while other countries vary in scoring, usually in favor towards their own, respected country. A relationship between New Zealand and Australia is present, with each country scoring their respected country significantly higher, followed by the other country. Additionally, respondents from New Zealand and Australia score more favorably for cooking oil originating from Spain compared to all other countries.

Table 4.12. Mean Purchase Interest for Cooking Oil by respondents in 13 countries for Cooking Oil Processed/Bottled in each of those 13 countries

		Total	Respondent's Country												
			US	ES	PL	KR	CN	TH	IN	NZ	KE	BR	CO	PE	AU
		8,179	630	629	630	630	630	627	630	630	630	630	630	623	630
Country where Cooking Oil is processed and bottled*	United States	5.36	7.65	3.72	4.61	5.48	5.26	6.63	6.67	4.01	6.02	5.49	5.23	4.89	4.02
	Spain	5.59	5.57	7.76	5.53	5.30	5.45	6.10	6.34	4.83	5.50	5.38	5.48	4.78	4.68
	Poland	4.84	4.69	3.73	7.29	4.80	5.12	5.96	6.09	3.54	5.16	4.79	4.20	4.06	3.50
	South Korea	4.53	4.26	3.33	4.11	6.91	4.89	6.03	5.95	3.34	4.67	4.54	3.73	3.91	3.22
	China	4.04	3.82	3.18	3.65	3.15	7.22	5.48	5.13	2.82	4.13	4.20	3.34	3.81	2.63
	Thailand	4.37	4.11	3.27	3.96	3.91	5.11	7.54	5.99	3.28	4.80	4.36	3.59	3.76	3.12
	India	4.27	4.25	3.26	4.02	3.80	4.30	5.23	7.43	3.16	4.99	4.32	3.66	3.80	3.23
	New Zealand	5.17	4.64	3.66	4.48	5.28	5.67	6.26	6.40	7.42	5.31	4.67	4.07	4.21	5.15
	Kenya	4.40	4.27	3.33	4.03	4.00	4.76	5.35	6.05	3.53	7.16	4.20	3.60	3.65	3.28
	Brazil	4.94	4.71	3.61	4.55	4.23	5.01	5.74	6.27	3.75	5.57	7.35	4.96	4.96	3.53
	Colombia	4.89	4.74	3.56	4.33	4.21	5.00	5.47	6.24	3.67	5.09	4.96	7.80	5.05	3.44
	Peru	4.77	4.57	3.50	4.26	4.05	4.92	5.45	6.08	3.61	4.90	4.85	5.28	7.16	3.42
	Australia	5.45	4.92	3.77	4.67	5.40	5.51	6.49	6.77	5.86	5.63	5.08	4.60	4.45	7.68

*Countries & Abbreviations: US (United States)/ES (Spain)/PL (Poland)/KR (South Korea)/CH (China)/TH (Thailand)/IN (India)/ NZ (New Zealand)/ KE (Kenya)/ BR (Brazil)/ CO (Colombia)/ PE (PERU)/ AU (Australia)

3.2.11 Mean Purchase Interest for Chocolate by Respondents in 13 Countries

When analyzing Purchase Interest for Chocolate consisting of all 13 countries, certain relationships are suggested. The United States, Spain, and Australia rise to the top as the highest average mean scores across the 13 countries, followed by New Zealand, Brazil, and Colombia. China, Thailand, and India fall to the bottom, with an average mean score of 4.12, 4.49, and 4.38 respectfully out of a 9-point hedonic score. While a majority of the 13 countries score purchase intent for chocolate within their respected country the highest, in some instances, such as for South Korea, Thailand, and Kenya, the United States scores similarly or higher compared to the respected country. Among the 13 countries, Thailand and India score purchase intent for chocolate across the 13 countries very similar, while other countries vary in scoring, usually in favor towards their own, respected country. A relationship between New Zealand and Australia is present, with each country scoring their respected country significantly higher, followed by the other country.

Table 4.13. Mean Purchase Interest for Chocolate by respondents in 13 countries for Chocolate Made/Packaged in each of those 13 countries

		Total	Respondent's Country												
			US	ES	PL	KR	CN	TH	IN	NZ	KE	BR	CO	PE	AU
Country where Chocolate is made and packaged*		8,179	630	629	630	630	630	627	630	630	630	630	630	623	630
	United States	6.09	7.69	4.75	5.67	6.47	5.98	7.38	7.08	4.43	6.77	6.63	5.85	5.71	4.74
	Spain	5.77	5.69	7.13	5.87	5.63	5.70	6.65	6.59	4.26	6.15	6.30	5.46	5.40	4.21
	Poland	5.28	5.05	4.39	7.24	5.30	5.28	6.52	6.40	3.82	5.65	5.78	4.69	4.62	3.86
	South Korea	4.72	4.37	3.77	4.53	6.37	5.11	6.30	6.13	3.27	5.04	5.00	3.92	4.23	3.35
	China	4.12	3.97	3.53	3.93	3.05	6.62	5.48	5.14	2.78	4.33	4.52	3.55	3.97	2.72
	Thailand	4.49	4.47	3.69	4.33	3.94	5.02	6.90	6.13	3.11	4.91	4.83	3.85	4.08	3.10
	India	4.38	4.41	3.84	4.52	3.74	4.28	5.15	7.26	2.98	4.91	4.71	3.89	4.17	3.10
	New Zealand	5.60	5.05	4.29	5.07	5.45	5.71	6.87	6.79	7.64	5.59	5.35	4.46	4.91	5.61
	Kenya	4.79	4.65	4.37	4.90	4.53	4.99	5.54	6.14	4.12	6.64	4.68	3.85	3.99	3.82
	Brazil	5.57	5.34	5.09	5.80	4.76	5.34	6.06	6.40	4.61	5.83	7.51	5.65	5.64	4.31
	Colombia	5.53	5.29	5.29	5.44	4.79	5.20	5.77	6.33	4.48	5.36	5.53	8.07	6.19	4.13
	Peru	5.25	5.03	4.83	5.25	4.48	5.11	5.59	6.25	4.22	5.15	5.32	5.49	7.60	3.93
	Australia	5.85	5.26	4.56	5.49	5.59	5.76	6.95	7.02	5.88	6.08	5.90	4.89	4.96	7.63

*Countries & Abbreviations: US (United States)/ES (Spain)/PL (Poland)/KR (South Korea)/CH (China)/TH (Thailand)/IN (India)/ NZ (New Zealand)/ KE (Kenya)/ BR (Brazil)/ CO (Colombia)/ PE (PERU)/ AU (Australia)

3.2.12 Mean Purchase Interest for Onions by Respondents in 13 Countries

When analyzing Purchase Interest for Onions consisting of all 13 countries, certain relationships are suggested. The United States, Spain, New Zealand, and Australia rise to the top as the highest average mean scores across the 13 countries. China falls to the bottom, with an average mean score of 3.92 out of a 9-point hedonic score. All 13 countries score purchase intent for onions within their respected country noticeably higher. Among the 13 countries, Thailand and India score purchase intent for onions across the 13 countries very similar, while other countries vary in scoring, usually in favor towards their own, respected country. A relationship between New Zealand and Australia is present, with each country scoring their respected country significantly higher, followed by the other country.

Table 4.14. Mean Purchase Interest for Onions by respondents in 13 countries for Onions Grown/Packaged in each of those 13 countries

		Total	Respondent's Country												
			US	ES	PL	KR	CN	TH	IN	NZ	KE	BR	CO	PE	AU
Country where Onions are grown and packaged*		8,179	630	629	630	630	630	627	630	630	630	630	630	623	630
	United States	4.74	7.36	3.71	3.82	4.85	4.99	6.03	6.32	3.18	4.98	5.05	3.96	3.96	3.40
	Spain	4.84	5.05	7.49	4.33	4.61	5.01	5.78	6.11	3.23	5.00	5.07	4.06	3.90	3.26
	Poland	4.56	4.49	3.85	7.53	4.43	4.88	5.70	5.97	2.83	4.73	4.72	3.56	3.58	3.05
	South Korea	4.28	4.11	3.39	3.52	7.05	4.75	5.88	5.77	2.71	4.47	4.38	3.24	3.54	2.78
	China	3.92	3.73	3.29	3.29	3.18	6.99	5.59	5.15	2.39	4.04	4.14	3.14	3.55	2.46
	Thailand	4.18	4.01	3.46	3.42	3.77	4.92	7.44	5.92	2.67	4.72	4.40	3.32	3.53	2.74
	India	4.12	4.03	3.39	3.43	3.59	4.39	5.53	7.45	2.62	4.88	4.43	3.38	3.60	2.76
	New Zealand	4.87	4.45	3.66	3.70	4.76	5.24	6.05	6.42	7.59	4.98	4.62	3.58	3.80	4.40
	Kenya	4.28	4.14	3.49	3.53	4.00	4.72	5.36	6.07	2.87	7.37	4.34	3.35	3.48	2.86
	Brazil	4.63	4.47	3.70	3.83	4.09	4.85	5.55	6.17	2.99	5.48	7.12	4.53	4.45	2.94
	Colombia	4.69	4.53	3.67	3.70	4.06	4.87	5.42	6.17	2.94	5.05	4.96	7.96	4.68	2.95
	Peru	4.62	4.37	3.70	3.74	4.02	4.80	5.38	6.02	2.92	4.94	4.91	5.11	7.34	2.90
	Australia	5.11	4.72	3.83	3.92	4.96	5.21	6.14	6.57	5.11	5.19	5.03	4.03	4.10	7.56

*Countries & Abbreviations: US (United States)/ES (Spain)/PL (Poland)/KR (South Korea)/CH (China)/TH (Thailand)/IN (India)/ NZ (New Zealand)/ KE (Kenya)/ BR (Brazil)/ CO (Colombia)/ PE (PERU)/ AU (Australia)

4.0 Limitations

Future research could benefit from further development of demographic criteria as well as survey flow. Gender-specific questions were not included for this research as well as specific gender quotas and age range quotas were not in place, and it is recommended they be included in future research. Additionally, the ten product categories within each countries respected survey were not rotated nor were the countries within each product category rotated. Every respondent saw the same 10 product categories in the same order as well the same 13 countries in the same order within each product category. While no actual products were tasted, a balanced rotation would be encouraged for future research in order to avoid the potential of question fatigue so each product and country receives the same attention to detail based on position.

Another limitation to consider for this research may be the timing as to when this data was collected and the global events taking place. Data collection took place and was completed during the summer of 2021. At this point in time, COVID-19 had existed for over a year and vaccination was taking place. While progress to fight against COVID-19 were increasing, concerns such as the delta variant, first identified in India in late 2020, still existed and countries were still taking steps for their own health and safety. At the onset of the Covid-19 pandemic in December 2019, which originated in China, as well as other key events such as the Delta variant, first identified in India, did this global health crisis instill a sense of avoidance for products from China and possibly other countries? China overall scored the lowest in product interest and

among the 5 product categories presented. Might it be said that these low scores are the result of the global pandemic in the thoughts of respondents from each country, or the result of unbiased opinions? It could be beneficial to execute future research, during a time of no global pandemics, to see if results may vary.

5.0 Conclusions

There is evidence to suggest that respondents from different countries can have ethnocentric tendencies related to a products country of origin, intentionally or not. The degree to which a country can have ethnocentric tendencies towards other countries can vary. For instance, respondents from Thailand and India may favor products originating from their respected country, though rate other countries similarly and less severe/extreme as other countries might, like the United States. In contrast to respondents from Thailand and India, other countries may have ethnocentric tendencies towards a majority of other countries with the exception of a specific few. New Zealand and Australia appear to have a relationship amongst one another, showing that respondents from each country rate similar to one another as well as typically rate each product the highest for their respected country followed by the other.

Further research will explore how respondents from each country, as a whole, rate on their generalized ethnocentrism. These additional pieces of research can contribute to the understanding is a country in general is ethnocentric or not.

Chapter 5 - Ethnocentrism, Consumer Ethnocentrism, and the GENE Scale

1.0.0 Introduction

Ethnocentrism is the attitude or belief that one's own nation, culture, or country is superior to others. Often linked to patriotism, which is pride in one's country, ethnocentrism is more accurately tied to nationalism, the excessive pride in one's country that makes a person believe that other countries are inherently inferior, by comparison. Neulip and McCroskey (1997) noted that ethnocentric groups perceive themselves as "virtuous and superior, see their own standards of value as universal and intrinsically true, and their customs as original and centrally human. On the contrary, outgroups are seen as contemptible, immoral, inferior, and weak."

According to Bizumic (2014), it is widely believed that American social scientist, William G. Sumner, is the one credited for coining the concept of ethnocentrism in 1906, within his book *Folkways*. In *Folkways*, Sumner (1906) introduced three fundamental concepts: ethnocentrism, ingroup, and outgroup. Shimp and Sharma (1987) explain when creating the concept of consumer ethnocentrism that the term ethnocentrism represents the idea that a person views themselves and those similar to them as the center of the universe and therefore more superior than those that are and act differently. The term ingroup represents groups in which an individual identifies with. The term outgroup represents those considered as antithetical to the ingroup(s).

The term ethnocentrism is used more in social and psychological terms as the act of judging another culture and believing that one's own culture, values, and standards are more superior (the ingroup) to those that are different (the outgroup). While the original concept of ethnocentrism has helped to understand an individual's viewpoint or feelings, it is limited to understanding an individual's behavior or actions. This idea of understanding ethnocentric behavior and actions was recognized through the development and creation of the term Consumer Ethnocentrism and the CETSCALES by Shimp and Sharma.

According to Shimp and Sharma (1987) the term consumer ethnocentrism represents the belief one has about the appropriateness of purchasing products made in foreign countries, which would be the outgroup. From the perspective of a consumer who is ethnocentric, purchasing products not made in their own country is wrong because, in their minds, it takes the jobs and

money away from people in their own country, which effects their economy as well as patriotism overall. Shimp and Sharma (1987) further explains that consumer ethnocentrism gives the individual a sense of identity and a feeling of acceptance. For the purposes of the researcher, consumer ethnocentrism helps us to better understand what purchase behaviors are acceptable or unacceptable to any given “ingroup”. The CETSCALE was originally developed to help researchers measure consumer’s ethnocentric tendencies related to purchasing foreign- versus American-made products. Today, the CETSCALE can be used to describe the ethnocentric tendencies of any country.

The research done by Shimp and Sharma pioneered further research to be done to understand ethnocentric tendencies. In 1997, Neuliep and McCroskey executed research to develop a quantifiable scale system to score one’s ethnocentric tendencies. This research resulted in the validity and development of the Generalized Ethnocentrism Scale, also known as the GENE scale. Ethnocentrism may be evidenced in the expectation that every countryman should practice the same religion, share the same values, and speak the native language of one’s country; it may also be evidenced in economic terms when one only purchases domestic products and shuns imported goods: this is consumer ethnocentrism.

Jiménez and San Martín (2010) explored the relationship among consumer ethnocentrism, consumer nationalism, and consumer animosity and found that ethnocentrism has evolved beyond the political arena into cultural, social, and economic areas. When nationalism is promoted for political goals to strengthen national identity and promote national causes, economic preferences can become potent by-products. For example, if a country produces a consumer product that is closely aligned to its national identity, it may become “patriotic” to purchase that product rather than similar products that are imported from other countries. Shunning imported products can be seen as a demonstration of one’s pride in one’s native land.

“Zeitgeist,” as defined by Dinnie (2020), is a spirit or mood that defines a period of history. Zeitgeist occurs during periods when music, sports, or international events seize popular attention. This happened during World War I, when American restaurants changed their menu offering from “Sauerkraut” to “Liberty Cabbage” and saloons removed pretzels from their menus because the tide of public opinion had shifted against Germany; during World War II, American consumers shunned Japanese, German, and Italian products in similar fashion. Economic blockades, embargoes, and tariffs are examples of political measures designed to damage the

economies of countries that have fallen out of favor or are actively viewed as enemies; this is an example of governmental removal of some nations' consumer goods that would otherwise be available for domestic consumption. "Buy American" and "NOFORN" bumper stickers and slogans are examples of pro-American and anti-importation advertising campaigns designed to stimulate both the American economy and American nationalism. Mittal (2017) noted that awareness of national bias led US-based Tiffany & Co. to de-emphasize its strong presence in China since 2008 and Russia since 2013 to American buyers; this move was designed to avoid negative perceptions of doing business with countries that have high degrees of ethnocentric animosity.

Beyond patriotic fervor, consumers can also hold strong beliefs about domestic superior quality vs. imported inferiority. In America, perceptions of Mexican labor as technically inferior, less educated, and less professional led American consumers to have generally unfavorable views toward Mexican electronic components, appliances, and televisions after American companies shifted their production facilities to Mexico in order to capitalize on lower wages paid to Mexican workers. Mittal (2017) noted that a 1998 study examining the consumer effects of the North American Free Trade Agreement revealed that American consumers attributed higher quality confidence to a television built in America than the same television built in Mexico. Japanese automakers studied American purchasing behavior and deduced that their companies' market share in the U.S. would improve dramatically if their automobiles could be produced in America. Consequently, Toyota and Honda both opened factories in America and hired American union labor. Japan followed suit and opened Subaru factories in America; all three companies increased market share, capitalizing on American consumers' belief that American-made cars were superior to cars built in Asia. Their advertising campaigns stress that their vehicles are manufactured in America by American automakers to capitalize on the ethnocentric belief that American workers build superior products.

Stereotypes are an integral element in ethnocentrism. Kinder and Kam (2009) studied American ethnocentrism on issues ranging from the global war on terror, sanctity of marriage, and humanitarianism, finding that Americans believe that "made in America" is a sign of superiority around the globe. Verlegh (1999) studied the relationship between stereotypes and consumer perception of imported goods' quality and found that stereotypes can include people, products, and even landscapes. Germans were stereotyped as excellent engineers who built the

highest-quality automobiles and appliances; French were top-quality producers of wine, gourmet food, and "savoir-vivre;" Italians were known for gold jewelry, food, and leather; and Japanese were precise and efficient producers of high-tech electronics.

To counter these stereotypical views that domestic products are “good” and foreign goods are “bad,” organizations like the United Nations and UNESCO have urged people from all nations to become better educated so their social, cultural, and religious behaviors can be guided by a higher understanding of people around the world. In our current global economy, consumer taste can swing in preferences from pizza to sushi, quiche to curry, and Cajun to Korean. The plurality of choices makes it more important than ever for producers to have a clear understanding of their position in the marketplace.

Indeed, a key component in consumer ethnocentrism is positioning. Kotler and Keller (2006) describe positioning as creating a distinctive image in the minds of target markets. Dinnie (2022) describes the elements of successful positioning as clarity, competitiveness, consistency, and credibility and further states that establishing points of deference as one of the most important elements in market positioning. Examples include using ingredient quality, production excellence, awards and other quality recognition, and lifestyle association with one nation’s products over those of others. National ideals, cultural touchpoints, and associative stereotypes are also important elements in positioning.

Food has become an important part of nation branding and consumerism. Countries like Italy, with its widespread reputation for excellent cuisine, and France, with its international renown for wine, have more positive consumer ethnocentric positioning than countries like Ireland, whose historic international stereotyped perceptions about domestic food and drink are more negative. In 2010, Ireland began an ambitious campaign called “Food Brand Ireland” to create a more positive image of its food production and improve its domestic food market share. Researchers found that the traditional image of Ireland – that is associated with the color green – could be turned into a positive positioning for food. According to Dinnie (2020), Ireland began promoting green grass-fed beef and green agricultural acreage that was not tainted by pollution or heavy industry, and created a new “Origin Green” brand that drove targeted awareness from zero to 67% in Europe by the end of 2020. This growth has helped Irish food producers improve their prospects for success in the international competitive food arena.

Bizumic, Duckitt, Popadic, Dru, and Krauss (2009) explored ethnocentrism to determine whether it stemmed from positive ethnic perception of the ingroup or negative attitudes toward the outgroup. Subsequently, Bizumic and Duckitt (2012) further studied the characteristics of ethnocentrism in an effort to clarify the term's definition and application and found that ethnocentrism is able to exist in ethnic groups and manifest itself without any predominant outgroup negativity, warlike aggressiveness, or chauvinism. Unfortunately, when war and aggression create negative perceptions of certain countries, like Iraq, Iran, Russia, Palestine, Israel, Syria, Darfur, and others, consumers are also inclined to avoid traveling to those countries and consuming their products. The products are perceived to be tainted by the actions of nations.

Nearly seventy years ago, Allport (1954) hypothesized that contact among divergent groups can lead to the reduction of prejudice, racism, and animosity. Jiménez and San Martín (2010) point out that understanding and trust can be a mitigating factor in consumer behavior, as well. Well-established brands and products equated with quality will often ease consumer animosity and create opportunities for consumption. Pratono and Arli (2020) stated that the concept of "global citizenship" can mitigate the negative consequences of nationalist stereotypes. Today, when people of any nation see themselves as belonging to a global society as well as a nation-state, they become less likely to perceive economic and social behavior as "us" vs. "them," even when entrenched political animosities exist. Global consumer culture can replace consumer ethnocentrism when reliable information is disseminated among all participants in the global marketplace.

In the early decades of globalization, some countries emerged as ambassadors for cross-cultural consumerism: they reduced or abolished protective tariffs, eased importation restrictions, standardized currencies, and opened borders that had been previously closed. Unfortunately, aggression between nations like Russia and Ukraine and Palestine and Israel remind us of traditional Cold War-era alliances and animosities that have created a resurgence of nationalism and the economic consequences it brings.

For example, for nearly four months in 1999, NATO nations, led by the United States, bombed Belgrade after Yugoslav troops committed genocide against Albanians. Shortly after, Fernández-Ferrín, Pilar, Bande, Belén, Klein, and Río (2015) began gathering information in the homes of Belgrade residents to learn about residents' feelings regarding consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity. They found strong consumer preference and animosity, which led to

the recommendation that importers be aware that country-of-origin labeling would influence the success or failure of importation. This contrasts with earlier beliefs in businesses that something that succeeds here will succeed elsewhere.

Josiassen, Assaf, and Karpen (2011) conducted studies on consumer ethnocentrism in Australia and found that income, age, and gender influence consumer preferences. They also found that, as competition among brands increases, companies become increasingly focused on “locking in” their domestic consumers as their core market. This suggests that domestic producers are aware of and catering to domestic consumerism. Additionally, Josiassen, Assaf, and Karpen (2011) noted the connection between national identity and economic nationalism; in areas where local or regional products contribute to a sense of pride or identity, consumers are more likely to consume those products rather than imported alternatives. Interestingly, those authors also believe that this ethnocentric consumerism reflects positive preference rather than negativity toward other countries.

The consequence of failed trust in a government is animosity, whether political, social, or economic. Often arising from a particular event, animosity is a general emotion of hostility, manifested in mistrust and negation of everything that consumers deem as the representative of a certain country (Jiménez and Martín, 2014). Ethnocentrism is a factor to be considered when producers and suppliers attempt to expand their markets into new countries. Knowing the presence or lack of bias toward or against a country of origin can have a significant impact on the overall success or failure of the products’ reception. Recognizing the presence of ethnocentrism and planning appropriate research can greatly assist marketers’ campaigns in today’s multinational, multicultural economy.

The Generalized Ethnocentrism (GENE) Scale was designed in 1997 to measure ingroup, outgroup, and intergroup associations and beliefs. Noting that Grant (1992) showed a connection between ethnocentrism and perceived threats to social identity and resources, Neulip and McCroskey (1997) created a series of questions asking respondents to comment about their nation (ingroup) and others (outgroup). The GENE Scale was developed because the authors felt the California Ethnocentrism Scale of 1950 was obsolete because it only reflected the views of Caucasian respondents. A number of 396 students attending a private, urban midwestern college were asked to respond to questions on a 5-point scale. During testing, the authors reworded

questions to decrease negativity and improve clarity, deleted several questions that did not load, and added other questions to improve loading.

In the GENE Scale, it is significant that the words “the United States in the CETSCALE were replaced by “my country.” Neupli and McCroskey (1997) noted that, to balance two questions that included the word “poor” (“The United States is a poor example of how to run a country” and “The United States is a poor role model for other countries,” the GENE Scale included “My country should be the role model of the world.” In addition, Neulip and McCroskey (1997) added questions that explored respondents’ views toward multiculturalism: “People in my country could learn a lot from people in other countries,” “I’m not interested in the values and cultures of other countries,” “People from other countries act strange and unusual when they come into my country,” and “People should respect the values of customs of other countries.”

The authors found that, unlike previous instruments used to measure ethnocentrism, the GENE scale was predictive of cross-cultural contact (30%) and cross-country contact over 40%), accounting for over 30 percent, percentages that the authors found to be valid. They noted that the greater and more frequently people from other cultures come in contact with one another, the more ethnocentrism increases. In the past, that cross-cultural contact often came during military conflicts and struggles for power, so it is not surprising that past contact created negative views toward members of outgroups. They cited Schlesinger (1993) who asserted that inter-group hostility is one of the “most instinctive of human drives.”

While research has been done to collectively understand a groups general ethnocentric tendency, the purpose of this chapter is to understand a country’s generalized ethnocentric tendencies, using a revised version of the GENE scale consisting of 22 items developed by Neuliep and McCroskey in 2002.

2.0 Materials and Methods

2.1.0 Survey

Respondents first completed a short demographic questionnaire. Once respondents successfully completed and qualified with the demographic criteria, respondents would continue onwards to the “Consumer Interest in Purchasing Products made In-Country vs. Imported Products” survey which contained 10 different product category sections (Appendix 1). Once this survey was completed, respondents completed a Generalized Ethnocentrism survey (Appendix 2). Prior to the launch of the full survey, a soft launch was conducted with 50+ respondents from the United States to ensure that the survey questionnaires were soliciting data as intended. The soft-launch data was examined for any missing or inaccurate data and identified any corrections that needed to be made before the survey was officially launched for final data collection. Any incomplete or partially responded questionnaires were removed from the final data for each country.

2.2.0 Respondents and Recruitment

Consumers from four age groups; Boomers (ages 60 to 80), Gen X (ages 45 to 59), Millennials (ages 31 to 44), and Gen Z (ages 18 to 30) were set to represent generation Z, Millennials, generation X, and baby boomers, respectively. Respondents that did not meet this age criteria were excluded. Additionally, respondents had to be the primary grocery shopper/food purchaser for the household. Respondents who did not meet this criterion or were unwilling to provide their best answers and complete the survey in its entirety were eliminated from the survey. The majority of respondents from each country were born and lived their entire life in their respected country.

2.3.0 Data Analysis

Tukey's ratings of significances are represented by Common Lettering at the 95% confidence level with boxes as a McNemar function and was used to identify significant differences among the 13 countries for each GENE scale statement as well as the combined average of ethnocentric tendency. To accurately score a country's generalized ethnocentric tendencies, adjustment to the data needed to be made. First, statements 4, 7, and 9 in the GENE scale needed to be recoded to inverse the scores with the following format: 1=5, 2=4, 3=3, 4=2, and 5=1. Second, statements 3, 6, 12, 15, 16, 17, and 19 from the GENE scale needed to be omitted. This was used to determine a generalized ethnocentric score for each country and understand if certain countries score/behave similarly.

3.0 Results and Discussion

3.1.0 Overview

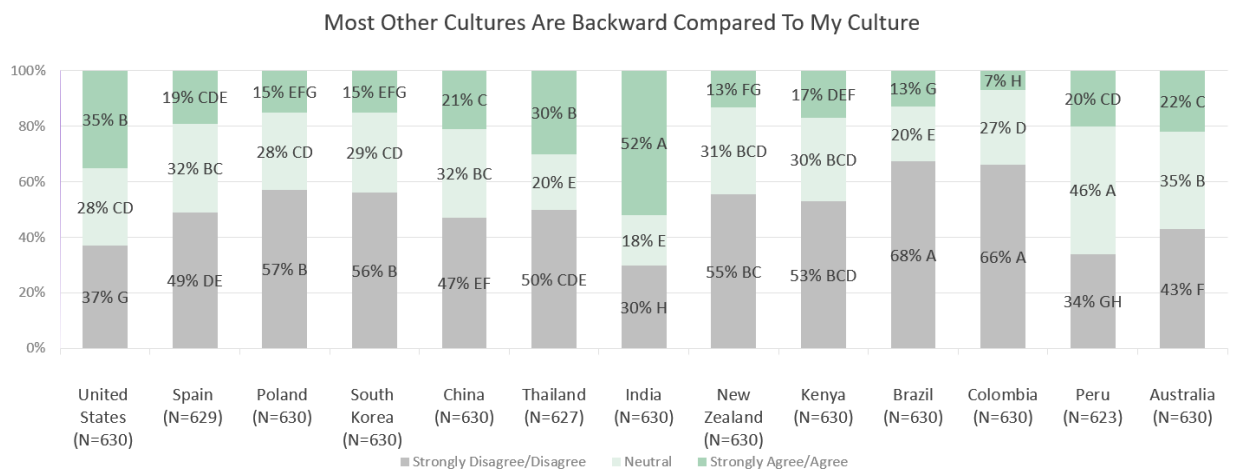
Results from the research done with respondents from all thirteen countries that participated in this research indicate that there are consistent patterns for specific countries. When analyzing each of the 22 statements presented to respondents, those from India consistently rise to the top for the negative statements as being significantly more ethnocentric to the majority of other countries. Following India, countries originating in the Asia continent, specifically, Thailand and China rise towards the top as being significantly more ethnocentric compared to the remaining ten countries. This pattern is consistent when analyzing each country's overall ethnocentric scores.

Additionally, when analyzing each positive statement, the majority of respondents from each country tend to agree with the respected statement.

3.1.1 Statement One: Most Other Cultures Are Backward Compared to My Culture

When presented with the statement “most other cultures are backward compared to my culture”, over 50% of respondents from India agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to respondents from other countries. With the exception of India, respondents from the United States and Thailand score a significantly higher top 2-box score compared all other countries, with 30% or more agreeing with this statement. A majority of countries have around 50% or more of the respondents from their respected country disagree with this statement. Respondents from Brazil and Colombia score significantly higher bottom 2-box scores compared to respondents from all other countries for disagreeing with this statement. Almost half of the respondents from Peru are neutral with this statement, a significantly higher middle box score compared to other countries.

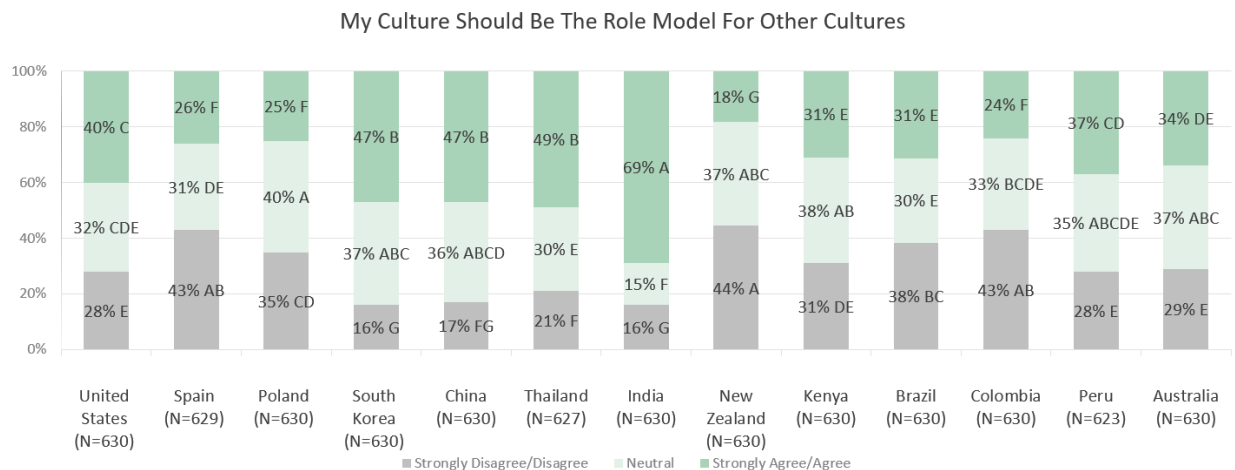
Figure 22.1. Statement One Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.2 Statement Two: My Culture Should Be The Role Model For Other Cultures

When presented with the statement “my culture should be the role model for other cultures”, respondents from countries located on the continent of Asia score significantly higher compared to other countries for top 2-box agreement scores. Specifically, respondents from India score significantly higher than all other countries, with almost 70% of respondents agreeing with this statement, followed by Thailand, China, and South Korea, with around half of the respondents agreeing with this statement. Respondents from the remaining nine countries are divided on their opinions of this statement, being more dispersed on top 2-box, middle box, and bottom 2-box scores. New Zealand, Spain, Colombia, and Brazil rise to the top 4 countries to have significantly higher bottom 2-box scores compared to other countries for disagreeing with this statement.

Figure 23.2. Statement Two Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country

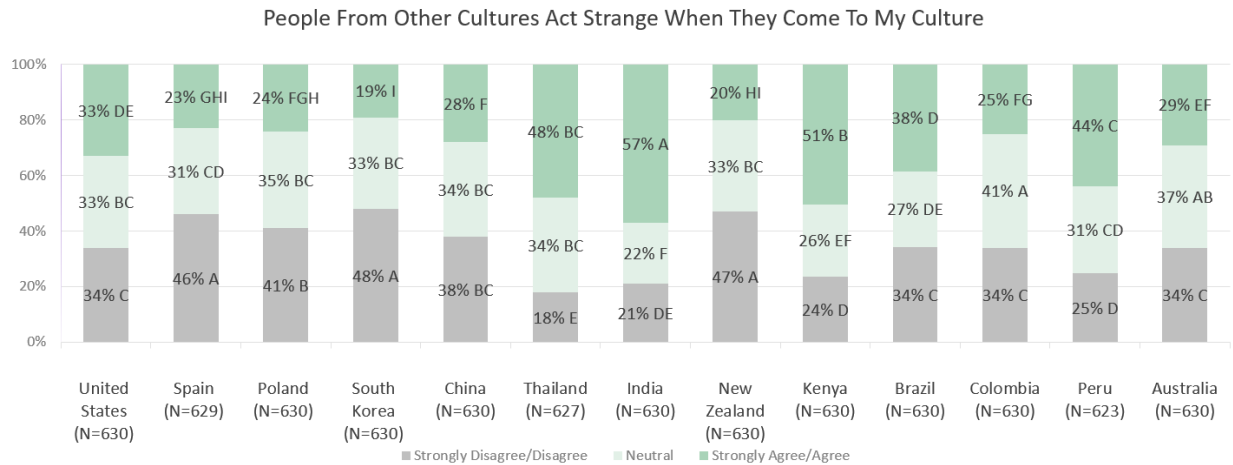


3.1.3 Statement Three: People From Other Cultures Act Strange When They Come To My Culture

When presented with the statement “people from other cultures act strange when they come to my culture”, over 57% of respondents from India agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to respondents from other countries. With the exception of India, respondents from Kenya, Thailand and Peru score significantly higher top 2-box scores compared all other countries, with 44% or more agreeing with this statement. Almost

half of the respondents from South Korea, New Zealand, and Spain disagree with this statement, receiving significantly higher bottom 2-box scores compared to all other countries.

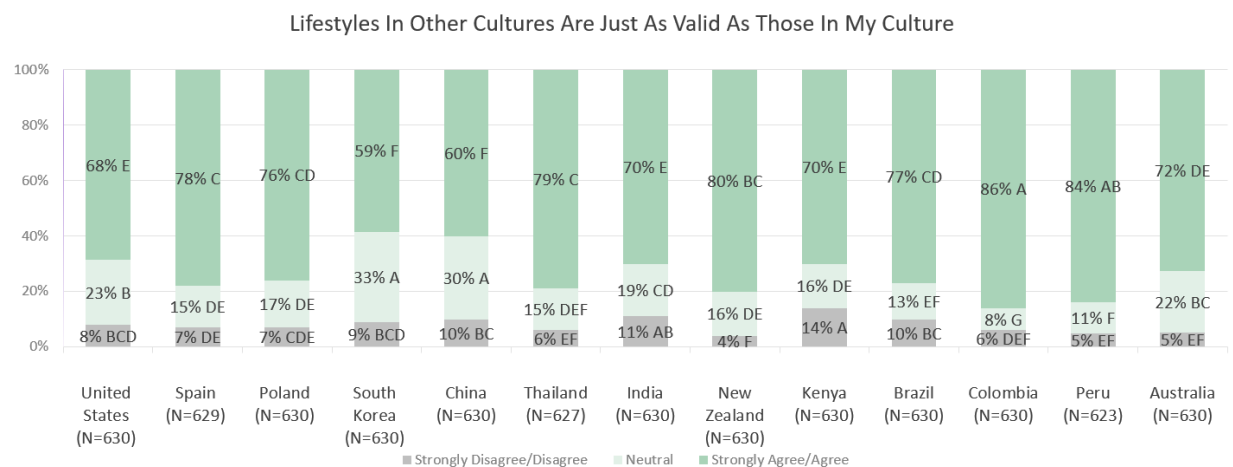
Figure 24.3. Statement Three Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.4 Statement Four: Lifestyles In Other Cultures Are Just As Valid As Those In My Culture

When presented with the statement “lifestyles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture”, ~60% or more respondents from each country agree with this statement. A third of the respondents from South Korea and China are neutral with this statement, a significantly higher middle box score compared to other countries.

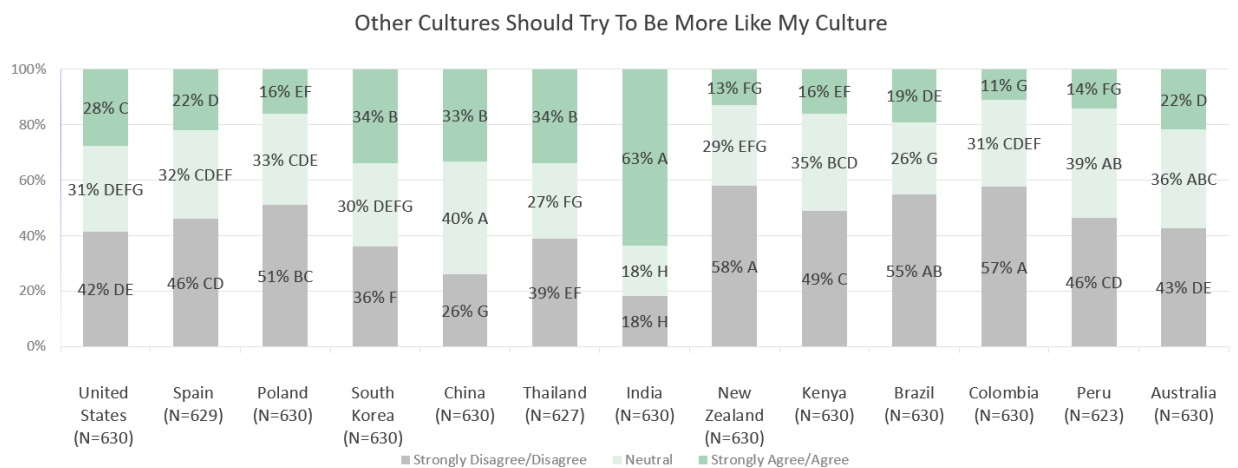
Figure 25.4. Statement Four Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.5 Statement Five: Other Cultures Should Try To Be More Like My Culture

When presented with the statement “other cultures should try to be more like my culture”, respondents from countries located on the continent of Asia score significantly higher compared to other countries for top 2-box agreement scores. Specifically, respondents from India score significantly higher than all other countries, with 63% of respondents agreeing with this statement, followed by Thailand, South Korea, and China, with a third of the respondents agreeing with this statement. For the remaining nine countries, 42% or more respondents disagree with this statement.

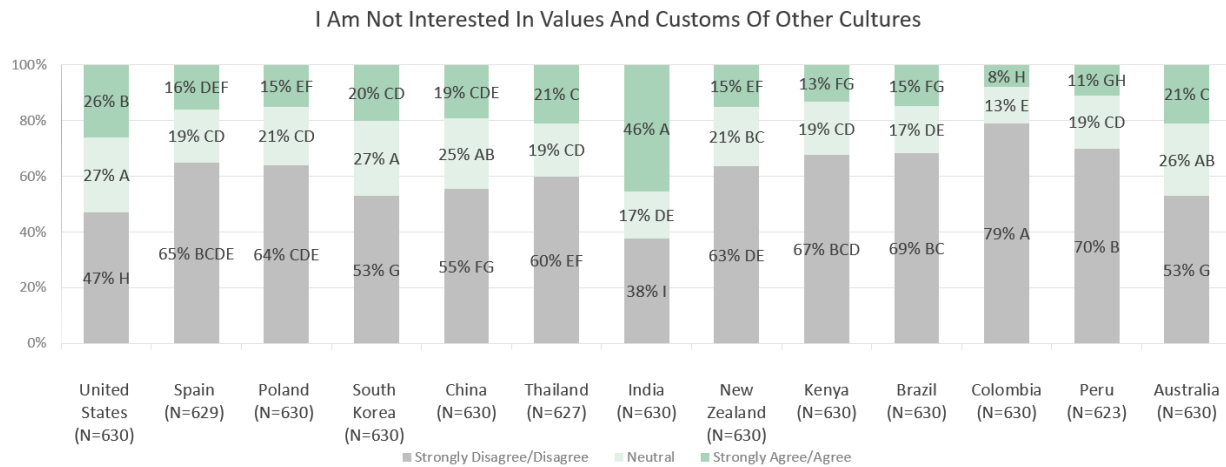
Figure 26.5. Statement Five Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.6 Statement Six: I Am Not Interested In Values And Customs Of Other Cultures

When presented with the statement “I am not interested in values and customs of other cultures”, 46% of respondents from India agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to respondents from other countries. For the remaining twelve countries, 47% or more respondents from each country disagree with this statement.

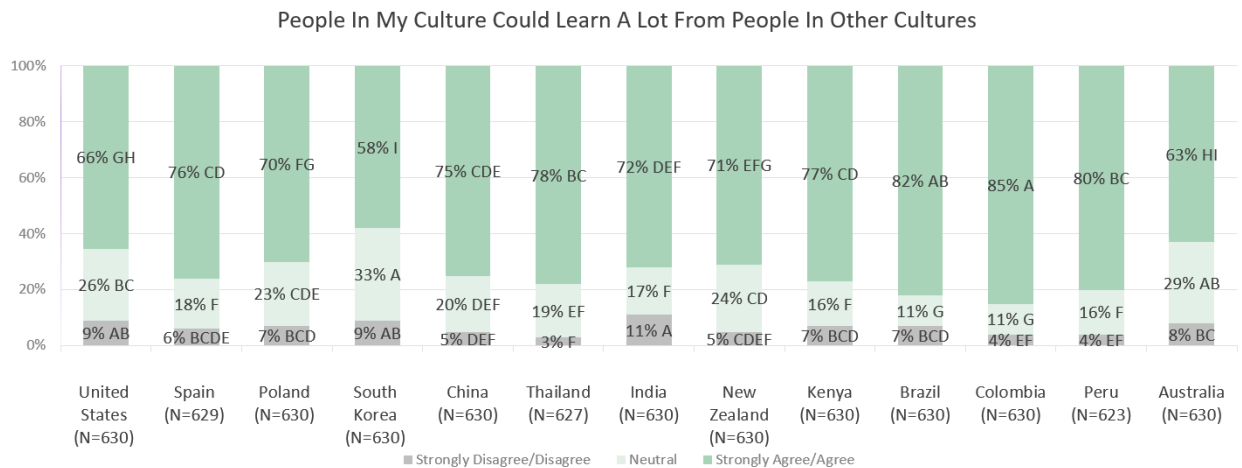
Figure 27.6. Statement Six Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.7 Statement Seven: People In My Culture Could Learn A Lot From People In Other Cultures

When presented with the statement “people in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures”, ~60% or more respondents from each country agree with this statement.

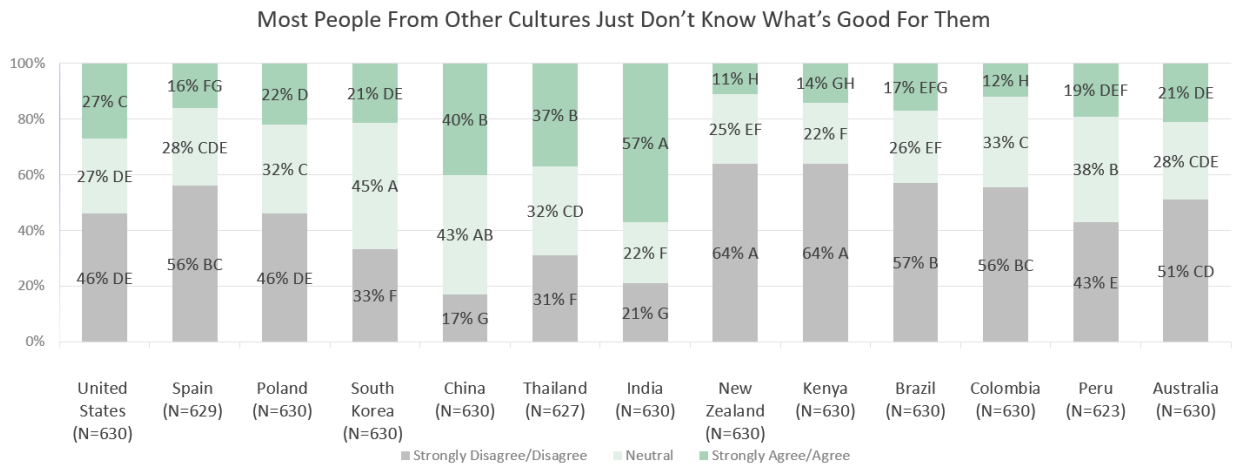
Figure 28.7. Statement Seven Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.8 Statement Eight: Most People From Other Cultures Just Don't Know What's Good For Them

When presented with the statement “most people from other cultures just don’t know what’s good for them”, 57% of respondents from India agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to respondents from other countries. With the exception of India, roughly 40% of respondents from China and Thailand agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to the remaining ten countries. For the remaining ten countries, 43% or more respondents from each country disagree with this statement. Roughly 40% of respondents from South Korea, China, and Peru are neutral to this statement, significantly high middle box scores compared to other countries.

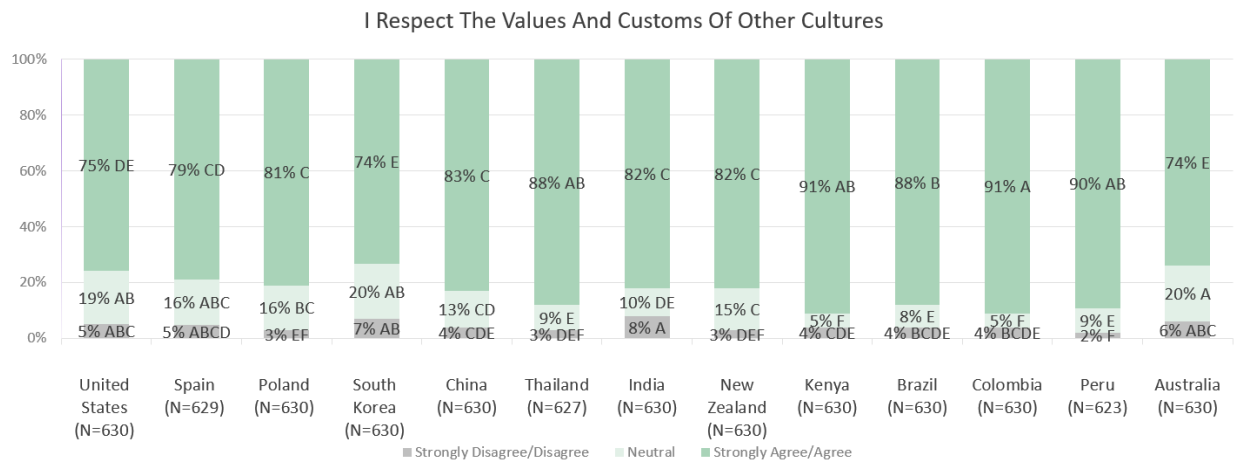
Figure 29.8. Statement Eight Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.9 Statement Nine: I Respect The Values And Customs Of Other Cultures

When presented with the statement “I respect the values and customs of others cultures”, ~75% or more respondents from each country agree with this statement.

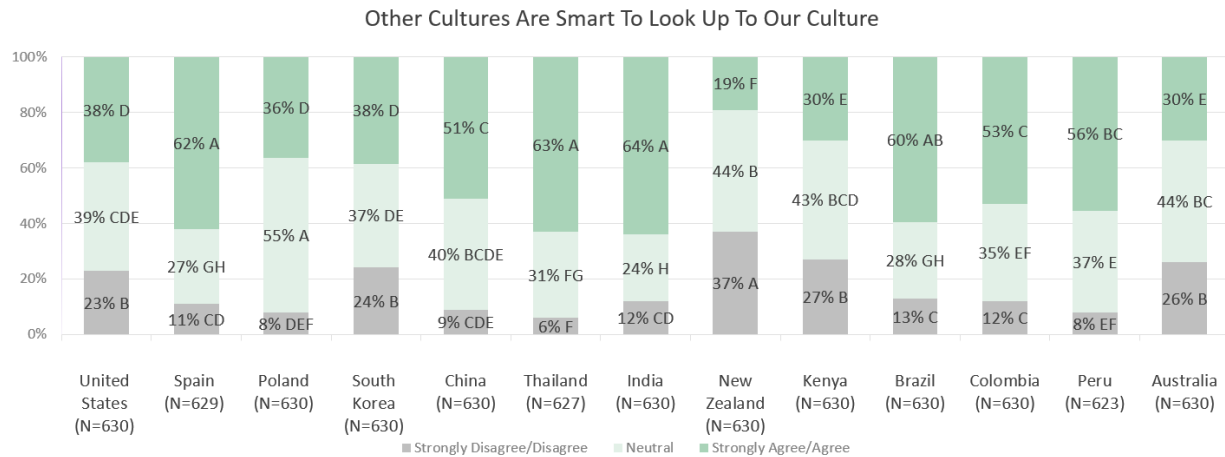
Figure 30.9. Statement Nine Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.10 Statement Ten: Other Cultures Are Smart To Look Up To Our Culture

When presented with the statement “other cultures are smart to look up to our culture”, over half of the respondents from Spain, China, Thailand, India, Brazil, Colombia, and Peru agree with this statement, having significantly higher scores for top 2-box agreement compared to the other six countries. In Contrast a quarter of respondents from the United States, South Korea, New Zealand, Kenya, and Australia, disagree with this statement, having significantly higher scores for bottom 2-box agreement compared to the other seven countries. 55% of respondents from Poland are neutral on this statement, receiving a significantly higher middle box score compared to all other countries.

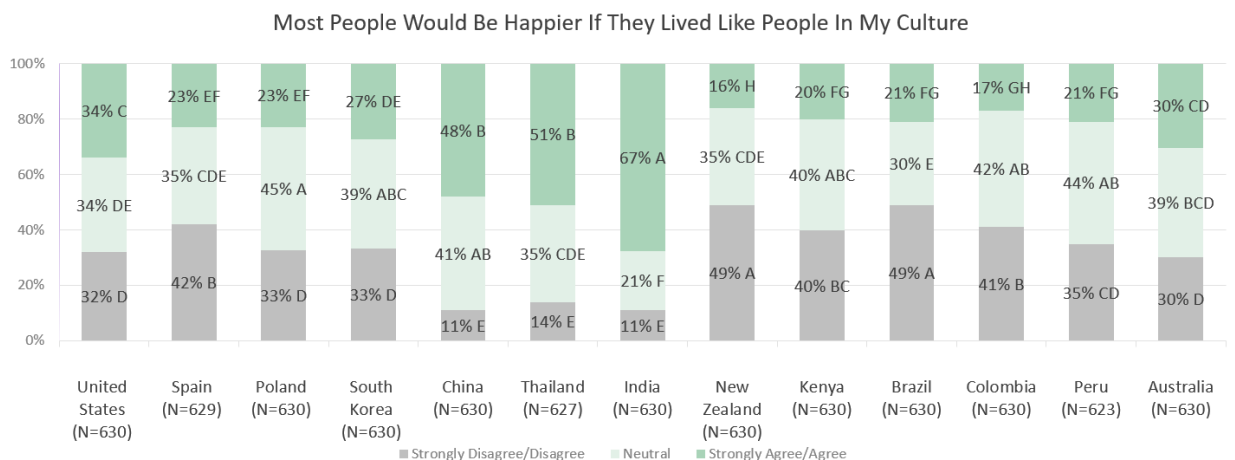
Figure 31.10. Statement Ten Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.11 Statement Eleven: Most People Would Be Happier If They Lived Like People In My Culture

When presented with the statement “most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture”, 67% of respondents from India agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to respondents from other countries. With the Exception of India, roughly 50% of respondents from Thailand and China agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to the remaining ten countries. For the remaining ten countries, one-third or more respondents from each country disagree with this statement.

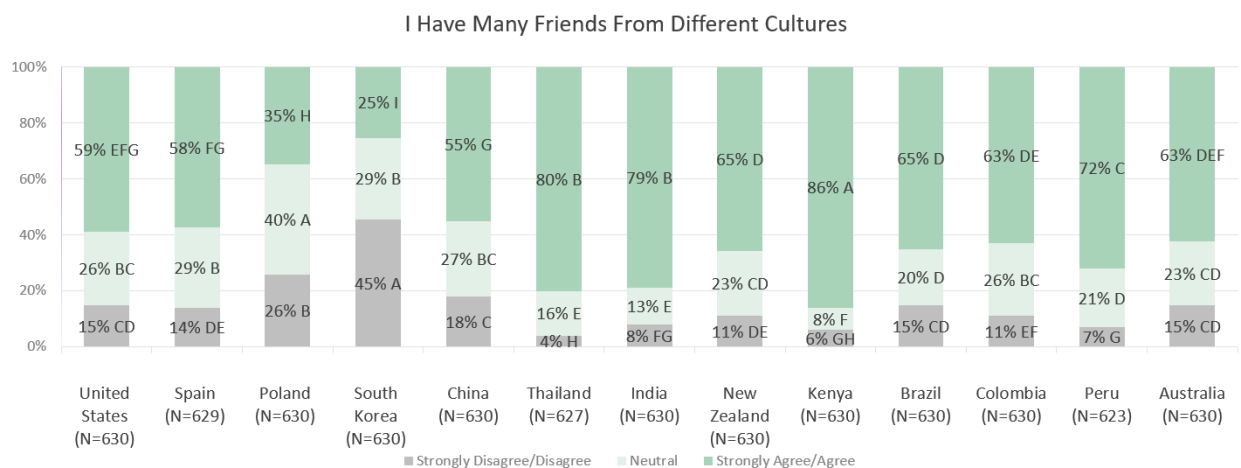
Figure 32.11. Statement Eleven Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.12 Statement Twelve: I Have Many Friends From Different Cultures

When presented with the statement “I have many friends from different cultures”, All countries except Poland and South Korea have more than half of the respondents agree with this statement. In contrast, 45% of respondents from South Korea disagree with this statement, a significantly higher bottom 2-box score compared to all other countries. 40% of respondents from Poland are neutral with this statement, a significantly higher middle box score compared to all other countries.

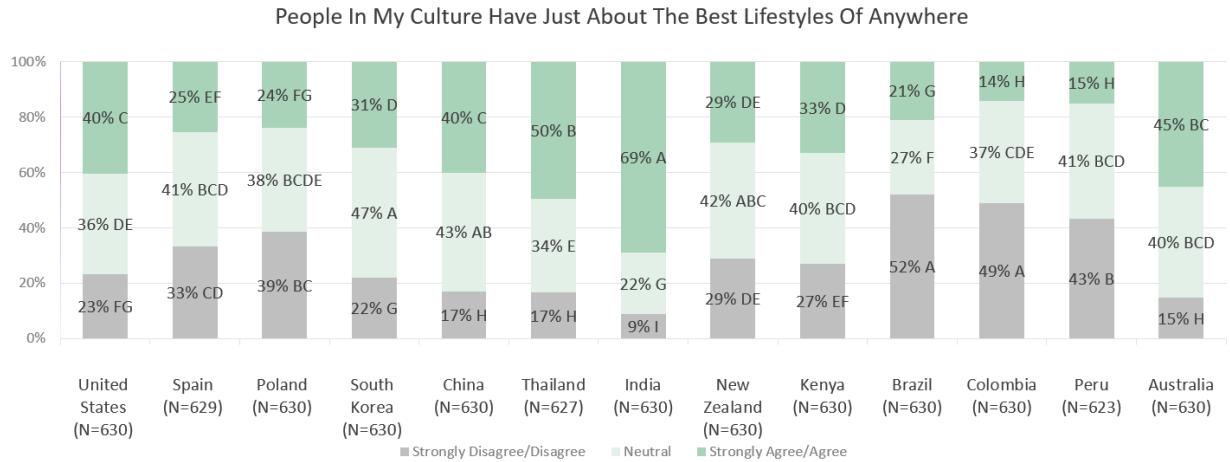
Figure 33.12. Statement Twelve Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.13 Statement Thirteen: People In My Culture Have Just About The Best Lifestyles Of Anywhere

When presented with the statement “people in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere”, 69% of respondents from India agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to all other countries. With the exception of India, between 40% to 50% of respondents from the United States, China, Thailand, and Australia agree with this statement, a significantly high top 2-box score compared to the remaining eight countries. A majority of respondents from Brazil and Colombia significantly disagree with disagree with this statement compared to all other countries.

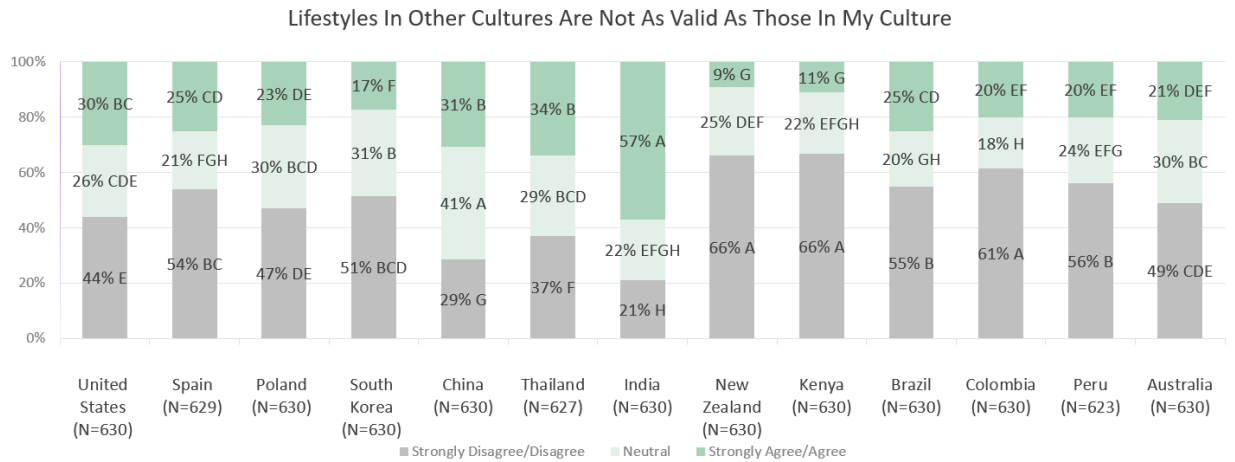
Figure 34.13. Statement Thirteen Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.14 Statement Fourteen: Lifestyles In Other Cultures Are Not As Valid As Those In My Culture

When presented with the statement “lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture”, 57% of respondents from India agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to respondents from other countries. With the Exception of India, ~30% of respondents from the United States, China, and Thailand agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to the remaining nine countries. For the remaining nine countries, as well as the United States, over 44% of respondents from each country disagree agree with this statement, a significantly higher bottom 2-box scored when compared to China, Thailand, and India. 41% of respondents from China are neutral with this statement, a significantly higher middle box score compared to all other countries.

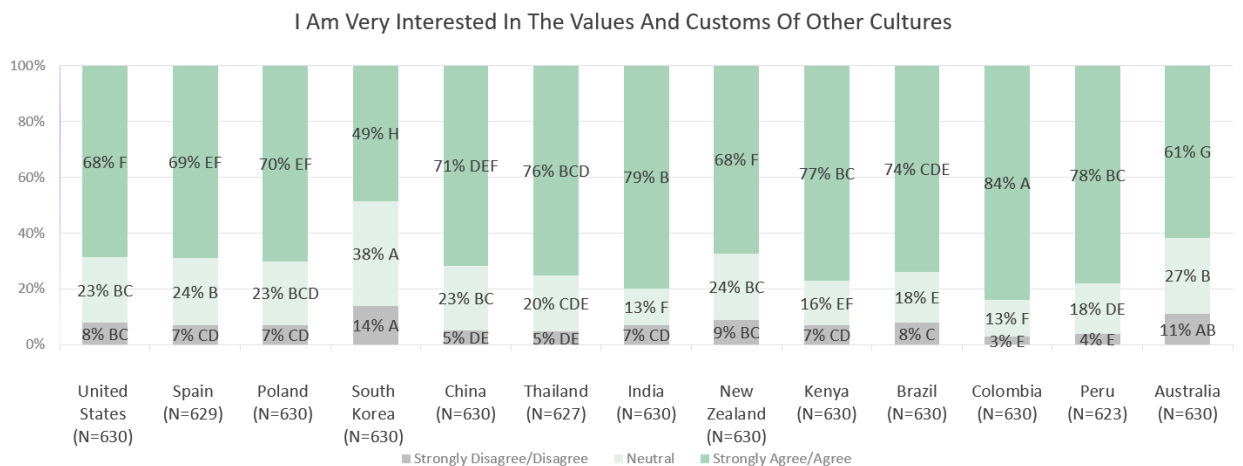
Figure 35.14. Statement Fourteen Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.15 Statement Fifteen: I Am Very Interested In The Values And Customs Of Other Cultures

With the exception of South Korea, when presented with the statement “I am very interested in the values and customs of other cultures”, 61% or more respondents from each country agree with this statement. 49% of respondents from South Korea agree with this statement, with the remaining 51% being neutral or disagree, significantly higher middle and bottom 2-box compared to all countries (except for Australia bottom 2-box).

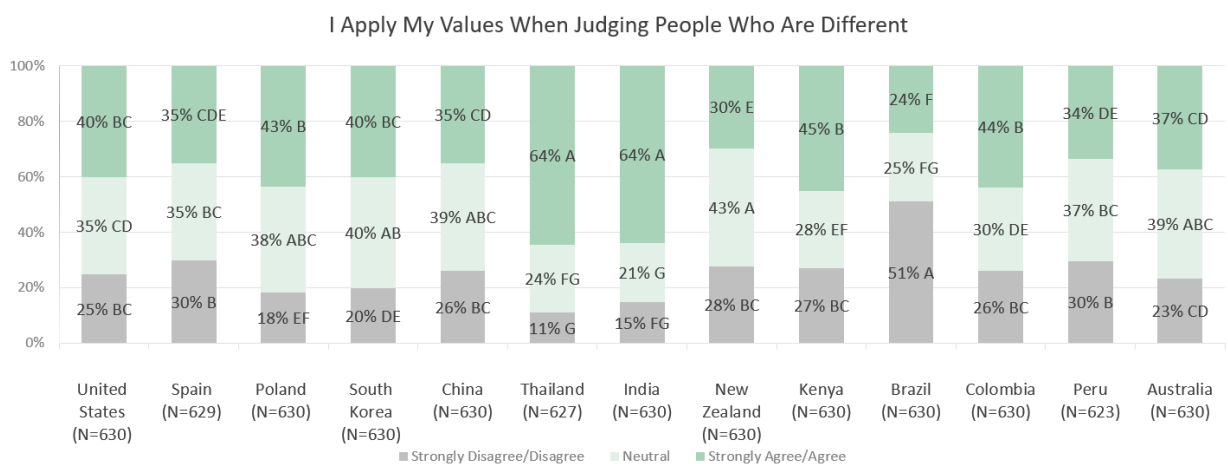
Figure 36.15. Statement Fifteen Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.16 Statement Sixteen: I Apply My Values When Judging People Who Are Different

When presented with the statement “I apply my values when judging people who are different”, 64% of respondents from Thailand and India agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to respondents from other countries. In contrast, 51% of respondents from Brazil disagree with this statement, a significantly higher bottom 2-box score compared to all other countries. Respondents from the remaining 10 countries are evenly distributed in opinion.

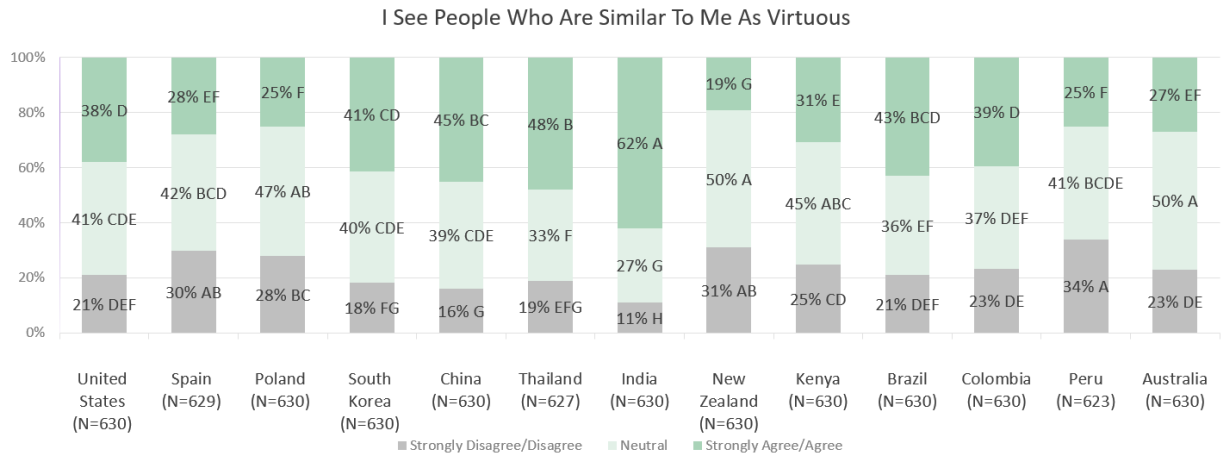
Figure 37.16. Statement Sixteen Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.17 Statement Seventeen: I See People Who Are Similar To Me As Virtuous

When presented with the statement “I see people who are similar to me as virtuous”, 62% of respondents from India agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to all countries. All other countries have a majority of respondents being neutral or disagree with this statement.

Figure 38.17. Statement Seventeen Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.18 Statement Eighteen: I Do Not Cooperate With People Who Are Different

When presented with the statement “I do not cooperate with people who are different”, 46% of respondents from India agree with the statement, a significantly higher top-2 box score compared to all other countries. Following those from India, 30% of respondents from Thailand agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to the remaining 11 countries. With the exception of India, over 50% of respondents from each remaining country disagree with this statement.

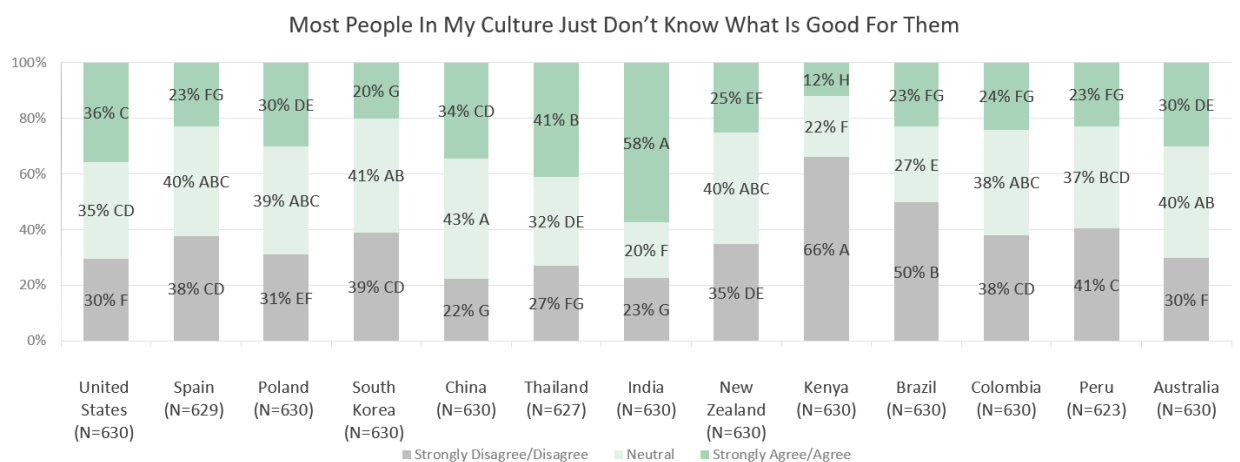
Figure 39.18. Statement Eighteen Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.19 Statement Nineteen: Most People In My Culture Just Don't Know What Is Good For Them

When presented with the statement “most people in my culture just don’t know what is good for them”, 58% of respondents from India agree with the statement, a significantly higher top-2 box score compared to all other countries. Following India, 41% of respondents from Thailand agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to the remaining 11 countries. 66% of respondents from Kenya disagree with this statement, a significantly higher bottom 2-box score compared to all other countries. Following Kenya, 50% of respondents from Brazil disagree with this statement, a significantly higher bottom 2-box scored compared to the remaining 11 countries.

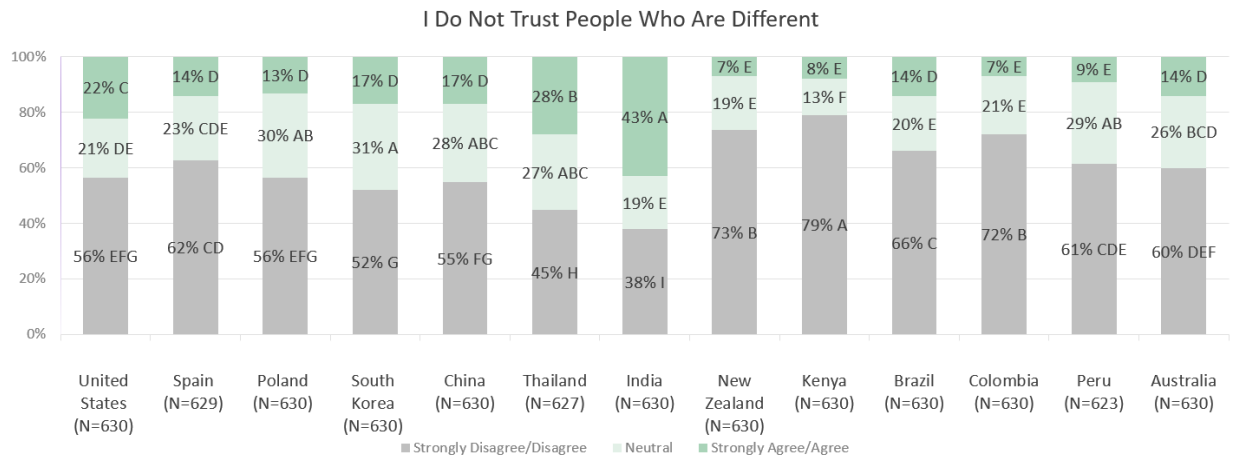
Figure 40.19. Statement Nineteen Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.20 Statement Twenty: I Do Not Trust People Who Are Different

When presented with the statement “I do not trust people who are different”, 43% of respondents from India agree with the statement, a significantly higher top-2 box score compared to all other countries. Following India, 28% of respondents from Thailand agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to the remaining 11 countries. For all other countries, a majority of respondents are neutral or disagree with this statement.

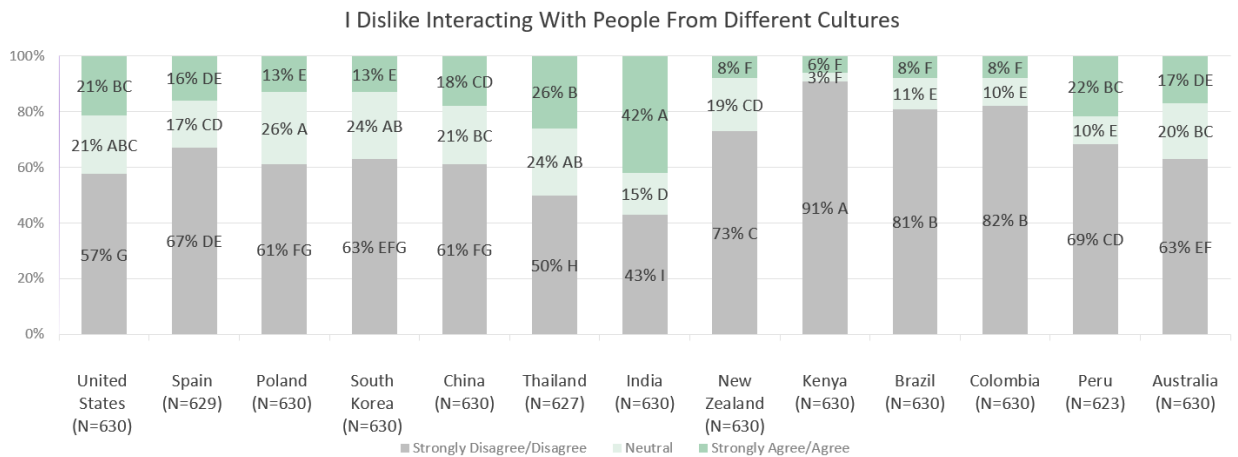
Figure 41.20. Statement Twenty Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.21 Statement Twenty-One: I Dislike Interacting With People From Different Cultures

When presented with the statement “I dislike interacting with people from different cultures”, 42% of respondents from India agree with the statement, a significantly higher top-2 box score compared to all other countries. For all other countries, a majority of respondents are neutral or disagree with this statement.

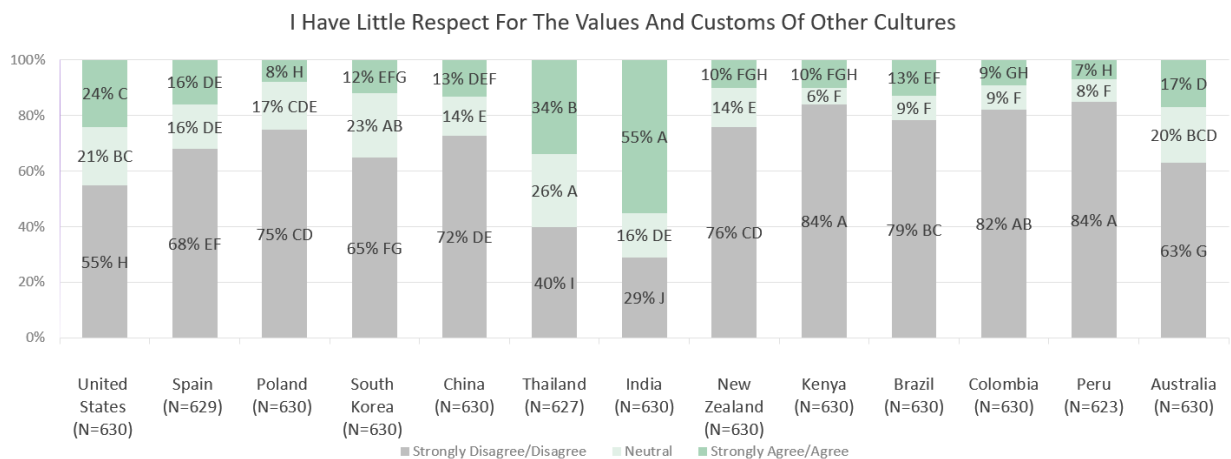
Figure 42.21. Statement Twenty-One Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.22 Statement Twenty-Two: I Have Little Respect For The Values And Customs Of Other Cultures

When presented with the statement “I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures”, 55% of respondents from India agree with the statement, a significantly higher top-2 box score compared to all other countries. Following India, 34% of respondents from Thailand agree with this statement, a significantly higher top 2-box score compared to the remaining 11 countries. For all other countries, over 50% of respondents disagree with this statement.

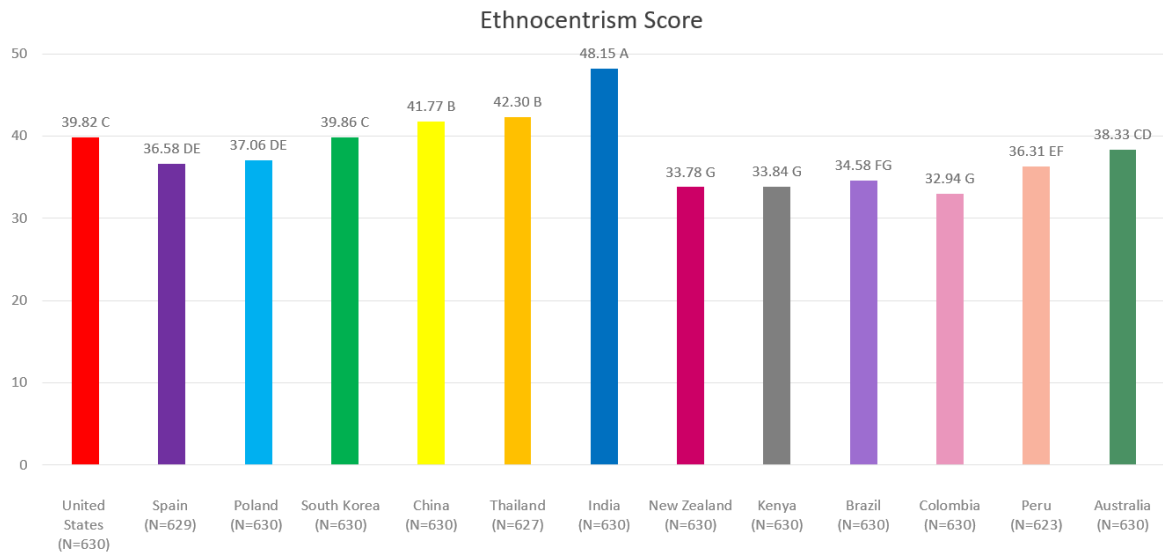
Figure 43.22. Statement Twenty-Two Agree/Disagree Scores Per Country



3.1.23 General Ethnocentrism Score Per Country

Composite ethnocentrism scores reveal that India is significantly more ethnocentric than the other countries that participated in this research, scoring a 48.15, a significantly higher score compared to all other countries. Following India, Thailand and China rise to the second and third ethnocentric countries compared to the remaining ten countries, scoring a 42.30 and 41.77 respectively. Results for South Korea, the United States, and Australia indicate these countries have high ethnocentric tendencies compared to other countries, scoring above a 37.0. In contrast, results for New Zealand, Kenya, Brazil, and Colombia indicate lower ethnocentric tendencies compared to all other countries.

Figure 44.23. Average General Ethnocentrism Score Per Country



4.0.0 Discussion

The analysis of the GENE scale results revealed clear cross-country variations in ethnocentric tendencies, with India demonstrating consistently higher scores on all negative ethnocentrism statements compared to other participating nations. Respondents from Thailand and China followed closely behind, while South Korea exhibited moderate but inconsistent ethnocentric patterns. These findings suggest that cultural, historical, and socio-economic factors play a significant role in shaping consumer ethnocentrism across Asian societies. Prior research has established that collectivist and culturally tight societies tend to exhibit stronger ethnocentric dispositions due to social norms emphasizing loyalty and in-group protection (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). This tendency is reinforced in economies where local identity and national pride remain deeply connected to consumer decision-making (Watson and Wright, 2000).

In the case of India, high ethnocentric scores align with prior findings suggesting that emerging markets with strong national identity and post-colonial histories tend to valorize domestic consumption as a reflection of cultural pride (Papatla et al., 2011). The combination of economic nationalism and a rapidly growing middle class fosters sentiments that prioritize local industries and resist perceived cultural encroachment by foreign goods (Khan and Hasnu, 2018). Indian consumers often associate local purchasing with both moral and economic responsibility, reflecting broader social movements toward *swadeshi* values that encourage self-reliance and domestic consumption (Banerjee and Chiu, 2021). Such orientations are further reinforced by

marketing campaigns emphasizing national self-sufficiency, which amplify consumer guilt or moral obligation when choosing imported products (Sharma et al., 1995).

Thailand and China also demonstrated high ethnocentric tendencies, consistent with research linking collectivism, national pride, and ethnocentrism in East and Southeast Asia (Liu et al., 2017). In China, the perception of domestic products has evolved alongside narratives of national rejuvenation and global competitiveness, strengthening consumer attachment to locally produced brands (Jiménez and San Martín, 2022). These patterns often emerge in markets that have undergone rapid modernization while retaining collectivist cultural values that encourage conformity and loyalty to in-group norms (Melnik et al., 2018). Thai consumers similarly exhibit a balance of openness to global influences and a strong undercurrent of cultural preservation, with purchasing behavior influenced by the desire to support domestic producers (Klein et al., 2020). Moreover, both nations' state narratives reinforce patriotic consumption through strategic media and economic policies designed to position local products as symbols of national progress (Prendergast and Chuen, 2021).

South Korea's case diverges in important ways from these regional patterns. While Korean consumers occasionally express high ethnocentrism scores, their responses are often moderated by the nation's global brand integration and its aspirational orientation toward global competitiveness (Steenkamp et al., 2003). South Korean society places significant emphasis on innovation, quality, and international recognition, which tends to increase receptivity toward global brands viewed as technologically or symbolically superior (Nguyen et al., 2019). In contrast to India or China, ethnocentrism in South Korea may be more situational, surfacing primarily when national identity or cultural sovereignty is perceived as threatened (Malar et al., 2021). This dynamic tension between globalization and national pride may explain the country's mixed results, with consumers navigating dual loyalties—to Korean innovation and to global prestige (Lee et al., 2025).

An additional interpretive layer involves the consideration of response style bias—specifically, whether respondents from certain cultures tend to use the upper end of rating scales more frequently. Cultural response patterns have been documented across numerous studies, with collectivist societies like India often displaying higher acquiescence or extremity bias due to communication norms emphasizing certainty and commitment (Harzing, 2006). This tendency may partially explain India's higher overall GENE scores, even for positive statements,

suggesting that cultural expression styles may amplify numerical differences beyond pure attitudinal distinctions (Tourangeau et al., 2000). Still, the convergence of high ethnocentric scores across both negatively and positively framed statements supports the argument that these are not merely measurement artifacts but reflect genuine consumer orientation toward national preference (Ajzen, 1991).

Taken together, these findings contribute to an expanded understanding of consumer ethnocentrism in emerging and transitional economies. Countries with strong collective identity, national pride, and active state involvement in shaping consumer narratives—such as India, China, and Thailand—tend to exhibit enduring patterns of ethnocentric preference. Meanwhile, countries like South Korea, though culturally proximate, demonstrate more ambivalent patterns reflecting their integration into the global economy and exposure to hybridized cultural values. Understanding these differences is essential for international marketers and policymakers seeking to navigate global consumer landscapes without overlooking the enduring pull of national identity in shaping economic behavior (Paul and Mas, 2018).

Across Brazil, Colombia, and Peru, ethnocentric tendencies are plausibly shaped by strong nation-branding narratives and historically salient local identities that privilege domestic products when symbolic value and communal identity are noticeable. This interpretation aligns with classic accounts of ethnocentrism as preference for the in-group's norms and goods (Sumner, 1906). It is also consistent with consumer ethnocentrism theory and measurement evidence that link national identity to purchase preference for local over foreign offerings (Shimp and Sharma, 1987).

At the same time, Latin American consumer cultures have periodically mobilized “consumer nationalism,” especially during periods of economic volatility or perceived external pressure, which can elevate ethnocentric judgments in market domains. Empirical and conceptual work shows that consumer nationalism and ethnocentrism co-vary, shaping marketplace choices when identity is salient (Castello and Mihelj, 2017). Related research documents how economic or political shocks can increase consumer animosity and amplify ethnocentric responses toward foreign sources, thereby tilting evaluations toward domestic alternatives (Fernández-Ferrín et al., 2015).

Yet, these tendencies are not absolute; trust, perceived quality, and brand familiarity can attenuate ethnocentric preferences and normalize cross-border purchasing. Evidence indicates that country-of-origin, ethnocentrism, and animosity jointly affect trust, with trust mediating willingness to consider foreign products (Jiménez and San Martín, 2010). Broader cross-cultural work further suggests that cultural identity interacts with market openness and brand globalness, such that cosmopolitan segments within Latin America may privilege performance or value over origin when trade integration and global brand salience are high (Cleveland, Laroche, and Papadopoulos, 2009). Meta-level research on nationalistic and ethnocentric attitudes also supports the view that macro-identity cues can heighten ethnocentric scoring, while pragmatic considerations (price/quality/availability) moderate those effects in actual choice (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris, 2020).

For Australia and New Zealand, prior evidence suggests a generally moderate ethnocentric profile: consumers express pride in local production and a preference for domestic options when quality is comparable, but they are also highly pragmatic and open to foreign products when those offer superior value or innovation. Foundational work in the region shows that consumer ethnocentrism predicts attitudes toward domestic versus foreign products, but the magnitude is context-dependent and often lower than in more protectionist settings (Watson, Hall, and McCauley, 2002). Related cross-national findings indicate that ethnocentrism reliably shapes stated evaluations, while actual purchasing can still pivot on price, availability, and performance cues (Watson and Wright, 2000).

This moderation is consistent with high market openness, strong import penetration, and mature retail environments in both countries, where quality signaling (including safety and sustainability) competes with origin effects in driving choice. Theory and evidence on ethnocentrism emphasize that in liberal, trade-exposed markets, identity-based preferences coexist with utilitarian trade-offs, leading to mid-range ethnocentrism scores and flexible behavior at the point of purchase (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Complementary work on how nationalistic/ethnocentric attitudes filter into consumer decision-making further supports a model in which identity cues raise the baseline for local preference while structural market factors and brand credibility moderate the expression of ethnocentrism in practice (Klein, Ettenson, and Morris, 2020).

5.0.0 Conclusions

There is evidence to suggest that respondents from specific countries have general ethnocentric tendencies towards other countries and cultures, while still having a positive viewpoint or mutual respect towards these other countries. For instance, while respondents from India do consistently score significantly higher for ethnocentric tendencies for the majority of negative statements shown, and scoring significantly higher than all other countries for a general ethnocentric score, they still scored high and similar to all other countries for the positive statements.

This may suggest that while respondents from a country may not have direct animosity towards others or products originating from other countries, there may be a preference or comfort toward a culture or products that are familiar. This research can contribute to the understanding of how a specific culture perceives other cultures and can help develop strategies to introduce messages or products originating from other countries.

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