**Behavioural Consequences of Consumer Ethnic
Identification and Acculturation:
An Investigation in the Context of Targeted Online
Advertisements**

By

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Abstract

Previous studies indicate that consumers generally prefer advertisements that feature ethnically similar models. However, most of these studies are conducted using Hispanic or Black consumer samples in the context of outdated targeted marketing practices. Basing the theoretical foundation on Self-Identification Theory, the Theory of Planned Behaviour, and Distinctiveness Theory, this paper uses quantitative data collecting and data analysis techniques to explore various aspects of the effects of consumer ethnic identification and acculturation on product purchase intention in the context of Asian identifying consumers in New Zealand. This thesis further explored the impact of attitude toward targeted advertisements in the context of ethnic targeting towards Asian identifying consumers. The findings of this study suggest that the use of Asian models in ads may enhance purchase intention of advertised products among consumers who strongly identify as ethnically Asian, as well as among Asian identifying consumers who have not acculturated strongly to New Zealand culture. This study further found that, where consumers are aware of being personally targeted based on demographic information, consumer purchase intention regarding advertised products may be significantly positively influenced by their attitude towards the practice of targeted advertising itself. These results carry several implications, both practical and theoretical. Specifically, these results may suggest that marketing managers in countries with large (though still in the minority) Asian consumer populations may benefit greatly from engaging in targeted ethnic advertising towards this demographic. Furthermore, the integration of the three theories used into a novel conceptual model represents a potential use in future similar studies.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Introduction

For the modern online consumer, exposure to advertisements when shopping online, using social media, or otherwise just browsing the internet is a generally accepted reality. Whether in the form of displaying visual ads, search engine marketing, or targeted social ads, consumers who use the internet in any capacity are nearly guaranteed to encounter online advertisements. Compared to just two decades ago, there is an unprecedented amount of control advertisers have over the degree and manner in which consumers can be exposed to their ads. Thanks to the development of consumer profiles, advertisers can tailor what advertisements and products are shown online to any one individual based on a variety of factors, including purchase behaviour, personal interests, and demographic qualities such as age, gender, and ethnicity (Farahat & Bailey, 2012; Speicher et al., 2018). Demographic information can be acquired through a variety of means, but is most often attained through publicly accessible information voluntarily provided by individuals on social media or some other online platform requiring general, personal information (Tiago & Verissimo, 2014). Otherwise, social media sites may simply directly sell this information to advertising groups (Tucker, 2014). A significant percentage of consumers are aware to some degree that advertisements seen online are catered towards them in one way or another, though for many the exact details behind how this accuracy is attained is unclear (Tiago & Verissimo, 2014).

Regardless, it is generally understood by marketing researchers and advertisers alike that the more an advertisement caters to an individual's interests or the more an individual is able to identify with an advertisement, the more likely they are to engage with the advertised product or brand (Biehal, Stephens, & Curio, 1992; Eze & Lee, 2012; Kaushal & Kumar, 2016). The research context of this thesis is in regards to the use of ethnicity as a tool for online targeted advertising and the role that ethnically similar visual cues play in influencing consumer attitudes towards online advertisements. While most studies in the area of ethnic advertising focus on the use of traditional advertising mediums such as posters, magazines, or television commercials (Sierra, Hyman, & Torres, 2012; Xu & Chen, 2016), few have extended this research to include modern

advertising technology allowing for personalised, online targeting practices (Becerra & Korgaonkar, 2010; Gevorgyan & Manucharova, 2015). The use of ethnically similar visual cues in advertisements has been a common practice for decades, as existing literature on this topic suggests that where individuals are exposed to advertisements featuring ethnic visual cues that correspond to their own ethnic group, they further tend to develop positive attitudes and purchase intentions towards the advertised brand or product (Koslow, Shandasani, & Touchstone, 1994; Meyers & Morgan, 2013; Rößner, Kammerer, & Eisend, 2017).

1.2. Research Objective

An extensive literature review suggests that a research gap exists regarding the topic of targeted advertisements and ethnic advertising. Firstly, research regarding advertisements targeting ethnic groups has historically been limited to the United States market (Deshpande, Hoyer, & Donthu, 1986; Donthu & Cherian, 1994; Elias, Appiah, & Gong; 2011). In particular, the focus of these studies has been on Black and Hispanic consumers, with comparatively little research in the context of Asian consumers. This makes sense, as the African and Hispanic populations in the United States respectively make up 13.4% and 18.5% (United States Census Bureau, 2019) of the total U.S. population while Asians only make up 5.9% (United States Census Bureau, 2019), thus insight into these two groups is of more interest to advertising groups. In contrast, New Zealand's population is comparatively much more heavily made up of Asian immigrants and Asian identifying citizens, with an Asian population that has grown from 11.7% of the country's total population in 2013 to 15.1% in 2018 (Stats NZ, 2019) representing a significant current segment of the population. Furthermore, of the broad ethnic groups currently recognized to be living in New Zealand, it is expected that the Asian ethnic group will continue to be the fastest growing as far as 2038 (Stats NZ, 2017) in part due net migration contributing more to population growth than natural increase in recent years (Stats NZ, 2020). To that end, the Asian identifying population living in New Zealand is projected to even surpass the Māori population (currently New Zealand's largest ethnic group behind Europeans) (Stats NZ, 2017). In contrast to the United States, New Zealand's Hispanic and Black populations made up only 1.5% of the total population in 2018 (Stats NZ, 2019) and are expected to see comparably marginal future increases in population over the coming decades, limiting the applicability of existing literature to this market.

Additionally, of the existing literature, very little integrates the development of online targeted advertising methods now common in the modern advertising environment, including search engine and social media targeted marketing. Instead, many of these papers focus on the use of traditional advertising mediums such as television or paper-based adverts (Appiah & Liu, 2009; Grier & Deshpande, 2001; Sierra, Hyman, & Torres, 2008). Not only does the use of these advertising mediums not represent the more common digital forms that advertisements currently take, but it also does not allow for the inclusion of personally targeted advertisements into the research structure. Traditional targeting practices only allow for broad, demographic targeting, while modern online practices allow for personalised, individual targeting. Along with this shift in advertising practices has come a growing concern in the general public regarding the methods used to allow such targeting to exist. While the public is generally becoming more aware of the fact that personal data is being used to allow these practices to exist, the effects that this awareness may have on one's reception to these types of advertisements is little researched. As such, part of the goal of this paper will be to examine this relationship to see if one's awareness of being targeted has any significant effect on their willingness to engage with an advertisement.

Though the use of ethnic identity and acculturation as contributing factors to consumer decision making have been explored independently in previous studies, little research has examined the two constructs simultaneously in a marketing research context. Furthermore, where research examines these two constructs in such a context, it is largely within a United States market context with particular focus paid to Latin American and African consumers (Tsai & Li, 2012; Ueltschy & Krampf, 1997; Wamwara-Mbugua, Cornwell, & Boller, 2008). Considering the established relationship between the two constructs (Phinney, 2003), it is the goal of this paper to further build upon what research currently exists regarding their mutual influences on consumer behaviour.

Lastly, this thesis will attempt to develop a novel model integrating three social psychology theories: The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Social Identity Theory (SIT), and Distinctiveness Theory. Previous studies have independently developed models which link TPB and SIT (Fielding, Terry, Masser, & Hogg, 2008) and SIT and Distinctiveness Theory (Brewer, 1993). However, to the best knowledge of this researcher, no study has previously explicitly

integrated both TPB and Distinctiveness Theory, let alone integrate TPB, SIT, and Distinctiveness Theory in one model.

With these factors in mind, the broad objective of this thesis is to expand upon existing literature by 1) investigating the attitude of ethnic consumers towards targeted ethnic advertising in the context of Asian consumers and 2) investigating this attitude in the context of the Asian consumer's ethnicity being used as an online targeted advertisement tool. To that end, this thesis will aim to answer the following questions:

- 1) How does an individual's strength of ethnic identity influence their ethnic identification towards advertisements featuring ethnically similar visual cues?
- 2) How does an individual's level of acculturation influence their ethnic identification towards advertisements featuring ethnically similar visual cues?
- 3) What impact does an individual's degree of ethnic identification with an advertisement have on their attitude towards an advertisement?
- 4) What impact does an individual's degree of ethnic identification with an advertisement have on their attitude towards the practice of targeted advertising?
- 5) What impact does an individual's attitude towards an advertisement have on their purchase intention of an advertised product?
- 6) What impact does an individual's attitude towards the practice of targeted advertising have on their purchase intention of an advertised product?
- 7) What impact does an individual's degree of ethnic identification with an advertisement have on their purchase intention of an advertised product?
  - a) To what degree is this mediated by their attitude towards the advertisement?
  - b) To what degree is this mediated by their attitude towards targeted ads?

1.3. Thesis Structure

The structure of this research will proceed as follows. Chapter 2 will provide an extensive overview of the theoretical frameworks and existing research used in this thesis relating to targeted marketing and ethnicity, including a literature review of those papers found to be most relevant and helpful to this research. Following this, Chapter 3 will focus on an overview of the hypotheses and their justifications. Chapter 4 will then discuss the research methodology used, the reasons for the choices made, and the results of the methods used. Chapter 5 will be focused on a discussion

of the findings of the research, as well as both the theoretical and managerial the implications of these findings. Lastly, the thesis will close with Chapter 6, which will discuss the limitations of this research, possible directions future research may take, and a conclusion summarizing the key points and contributions of the study.

Chapter 2

Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

2.1. Introduction

The following section provides a theoretical foundation for the most relevant topics employed in this research, namely: The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Social Identity Theory, Distinctiveness Theory, Targeted Advertising, Ethnic Identification, and Acculturation. These theories (i.e., TPB, Social Identity Theory, and Distinctiveness Theory) serve as the underpinning theories for the conceptual framework in the present study. While these topics may apply to several disciplines, for the purpose of this research they will be explored largely in the context of consumer psychology and marketing. This review will identify what is already known about these topics while highlighting areas that have yet to be fully expanded upon. As well, this section will include summarizations of key literature regarding the constructs of Targeted Advertising (Table 2.1), Ethnic Identification, (Table 2.2), and Acculturation (Table 2.3) and their use in previous studies.

2.2. Theory of Planned Behaviour

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) is an updated model of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), both developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1977), meant to provide insight into the cause of behaviours in which people lack volitional control, which the previous TRA model lacked. Prior to the development of the TPB model, Fishbein and Ajzen's TRA model's largest criticism stemmed from its apparent over-reliance on individual attitude and belief in subjective norms as determinants of behaviour (Ajzen, 1991, 2015). In response to these criticisms, Ajzen added perceived behavioural control as a moderator of the influence of attitude and subjective norms on behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 2020). Due to later empirical research tending to find direct relationships between perceived behavioural control and behaviour intention, most empirical applications of the model treat perceived behavioural control as a direct determinant (Ajzen, 2020). Since then, the TPB model has maintained a dominant position as one of the most prevalent theoretical approaches for guiding research on human behaviour across multiple disciplines (Ajzen, 2011).

A primary factor in the theory is an individual's intention to perform a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). According to the theory, behavioural intentions reflecting three dimensions, behavioural beliefs, subjective norms, and perceived control over behaviour, can be used as fairly accurate predictors of future behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Doll & Ajzen, 1992). Behavioural beliefs refer to "the degree to which a person holds a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of a behaviour in question" (Doll & Ajzen, 1992, p.755). Generally speaking, the more easily one can access behavioural beliefs in their memory, the more readily they are able to form positive or negative attitudes towards a particular behaviour. In the context of consumer behaviour studies, such behaviour can be in regard to product purchases, attitude towards advertisements, engagement with a brand, etc.

Subjective norm refers to the degree to which an individual perceives those in which the individual places a significant amount of respect to think they should/should not perform the behaviour in question (Doll & Ajzen, 1992). Such individuals can range from close family members or friends, in which people tend to naturally place a great deal of respect towards their opinions, to celebrities or otherwise noteworthy figures with whom an individual might have no social connection, but otherwise respect their opinions nonetheless. In a consumer behaviour context, we see companies exploit this to their advantage through the use of celebrities or other public figures in advertisements, as a means of appealing to a consumer's perceived subjective norm and thus influencing their future consumption behaviour. Perceived behavioural control refers to the perceived presence of factors that may influence an individual's ability to perform a certain behaviour (Doll & Ajzen, 1992). In reality, their ability to engage in a behaviour goes only so far as their actual control over the behaviour allows. In most applications of TPB, however, identification of all variables that influence one's actual ability to engage in a behaviour is greatly difficult if not impossible (Ajzen, 2002). Therefore, researchers tend to defer to perceived behavioural control as a proxy measurement for actual situational control, under the assumption that an individual's perception of control reflects reality relatively accurately (Ajzen, 2002). Generally speaking, where an individual perceives themselves to have more control over their ability to perform a behaviour, the more likely they are to develop an intention to engage in that behaviour (Ajzen, 2015). In a consumer behaviour context, this principle can be simplified to whether or not certain products are available. Regarding green product consumption, for instance, previous studies have suggested that where consumers consider themselves in a financial position

to afford green product as well as having green product available for purchase, their intention to engage in green product purchasing behaviour was positively influenced (Paul, Modi, & Patel, 2016; Pickett-Baker & Ozaki, 2008).

Both models (TPB and TRA) assume that one's intention can be used as a representation of motivation factors that influence one's behaviour. One's intention is an indication of how hard they are willing to try and perform an action, how much effort they are willing to put into seeing a behaviour be performed (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, generally, the stronger one's intention is to perform a behaviour, the more likely that behaviour will be performed (Ajzen, 1991). In the context of consumer behaviour, TPB informs us that, subject to these variables, a consumer's intention to purchase an advertised product or otherwise engage with a brand is likely to result in them doing so. This model, however, is only relevant if the behaviour in question is under volitional control, i.e., an individual may choose whether or not to perform a behaviour. This makes the Theory of Planned Behaviour more suitable to marketing research, as the discipline is expressly concerned with engaging in a consumer's decision-making process where a choice (i.e., whether or not to purchase a product) must be made under volitional control.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour has been used in consumer behaviour research for decades, having been used in studies of risky credit behaviour (Xiao, Tang, Serido, & Shim, 2011), body dysmorphia and food product consumption (Pickett, Ginsburg, Mendez, Lim, Blankenship, Foster, & Sheffield, 2012), participation in brand communities (Shih, Hu, & Farn, 2010), and online purchasing behaviour (Hsu, Wang, & Wen, 2006). The results of these studies have consistently indicated support for the theory as a predictor of consumer behaviour. The theory is no less relevant in the age of digital marketing, having been extended into research on in-app purchases and social media brand interactions (Cheung & To, 2017; Chu, Chen, & Sung, 2016). The results of these studies further confirm the applicability of the model to consumer behaviour, regardless of the marketplace or mode of consumption.

Based on TPB, behavioural intention (in this study, purchase intention) can be predicted by an individual's attitude towards the advertised product. In the context of online advertisements, users who view ads with a positive attitude will be more likely to engage with the ad and thus purchase the advertised product (Cheung & To, 2017). Conversely users who view ads with a

negative attitude will be less likely to engage with the advertisement and thus less likely to purchase the advertised product (Cheung & To, 2017).

2.3. Targeted Advertising

In the process of attempting to better appeal to certain demographics, advertising groups may engage in a marketing practice known broadly as “targeted advertising”; the practice of showing certain advertisements to certain groups or individuals based on their specific traits (Farahat & Bailey, 2012; Johnson, 2013). In the context of online targeted advertisements, these traits can be segmented into two broad categories of data: behavioural and demographic data. Behavioural data refers to any information involving individual consumption behaviour, website visitation history, engagement with previous advertisements, among other practices (Chen & Stallaert, 2014). Such data allows for the practice of “Behavioural Targeting”, an internet-based targeting practice which uses online behavioural data to create a user profile that prioritizes showing an individual advertisement with which (based on their behavioural data) they would be most likely to engage (Chen & Stallaert, 2014; Wu, Yan, Liu, Yan, Chen, & Chen, 2009). For example, if a consumer were spending a significant amount of time searching air travel tickets, targeting systems used by advertisers may use this information to identify that this individual is potentially currently more receptive to advertisements related to air travel, such as those regarding ticket prices or travel destinations. Furthermore, as a result of placing data on a consumer’s hard-drive (i.e., cookies) firms are able to collect data about a consumer’s behavioural patterns from both their personal computers and mobile devices (Wu et al., 2009). From this, advertisers may also show advertisements on websites to which consumers have never previously visited or are otherwise unrelated to one another (i.e., showing travel advertisements on both travel websites and social media sites).

Demographic data, on the other hand, refers to information involving one’s age, gender, and ethnicity among other variables (Chen & Stallaert, 2014). Prior to relatively recent advancements in internet advertising, use of demographic data was the primary method by which consumers were exposed to targeted advertisements (Boerman, Kruikmeier, & Zuiderveen Borgesius, 2017). At that time, demographic targeting was used in a comparably broader marketing tactic, as outside of mail-based advertising it was essentially impossible to expose

individual consumers to particular targeting advertisements (Beales, 2010). As a result, demographic-based advertising methods relied on exposure to large population groups in an effort to appeal to particular demographics within those groups (Beales, 2010).

Currently, through the use of information provided by social media sites, advertisers are able to precisely target consumers through both the accuracy of information they collect and the directness by which consumers can be reached. In particular, Facebook has provided a service by which advertisers may select audiences based on specific attributes (age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, education level, etc.). More recently, Facebook has allowed advertisers to target exactly which users to whom they wish to show advertisements by specifying demographic attributes unique to that particular user (Speicher et al., 2018). Facebook allows for 15 distinct demographic variables to be used, from which advertisers need only upload a file listing those variables of which they are interested; Facebook then determines what members of their user base fit within these variables, quickly developing a customer audience to which the advertisers may directly show their advertisements (Lee, Hosanagar, & Nair, 2018; Speicher et al., 2018).

Even when attributes such as race and gender are not immediately available (such as a social media site user purposely not providing such information), it is possible to predict them with a fair amount of accuracy through other attributes (Mislove et al., 2011). Tang, Ross, Saxena, & Chen's (2011) paper found that, through the use of a person's name, the gender of a person can be inferred with 96.3% accuracy while covering over 95% of users. Similarly, using a machine learning approach, Wong, Zaian, Davis, & Yasui (2020) found that ethnicity can be predicted with a reasonable degree of accuracy (median 87%) across multiple ethnicities using only name and location data. Outside of information provided from social media, some groups with access to voter information may aggregate this data to infer attributes such as ethnicity and gender, with accurate reports 91% of the time (Ansolabehere & Hersh, 2011). As such, even where consumers intend to provide as little personal information as reasonably possible, modern technology allows for advertising groups to make inferences about missing information with a significant degree of accuracy.

In addition, users that perceive themselves as being targeted based on certain traits may in turn perceive those traits as more important to their self-image, adjusting their attitude towards

advertisements that support that identity (Summers, Smith, & Reczek, 2016). A user that perceives themselves as being targeted by ads for environmentally-friendly products may assume that they are being targeted because they are thought to be environmentally-friendly, thus reinforcing their self-identity as environmentally-friendly and positively influencing their attitude towards those kinds of ads (Summers et al., 2016). The same may be said for ads featuring ethnic visual cues, reinforcing an ethnic self-identity of a consumer and positively affecting their attitude to an advertised product.

As shown in Table 2.1, studies from the previous two decades have begun to examine more closely the factors that determine audience attitude towards targeted advertisements, as the technology allowing companies to engage in the marketing tactic becomes more widely available. In general, a significant portion of online users tend to develop negative attitudes towards ads seen on websites they visit, indicating both a preference that they not wish to see ads on a website as well as a desire to avoid a website in the future should they see ads on it (Johnson, 2013; McCoy, Everard, Polak, & Galletta, 2007). These negative attitudes may be reduced depending on the personal relevance users perceive in the advertisements (Campbell & Wright, 2008).

Though users tend to react more positively to ads that are more personally relevant (Campbell & Wright, 2008), the manner in which these advertisements attain their relevance can be problematic for some. Just recently, Facebook came under intense scrutiny regarding their use of an attribute referred to as “ethnic affinity” (Angwin & Parris Jr., 2016). The intention of this attribute being to represent an individual’s interest in content relating to different ethnic communities (Angwin & Parris Jr., 2016). As a result of user distaste of the practice and a civil lawsuit, Facebook agreed to limit the content advertised using this metric to advertisements that do not involve housing, employment, or financial services, as well as renaming the metric as “multicultural affinity” (Speicher et al., 2018).

Advertisers have engaged in targeted marketing behaviour using personally identifiable information to develop consumer profiles that allow for an increasingly personalised advertisement experience (Tucker, 2014; Van Doorn & Hoekstra, 2013). Other studies have thus looked specifically at user perception of this targeting and have found significant privacy concerns (See Table 2.1). Turow, King, Hoofnagle, Bleakley, & Hennessy’s (2009) study of 1,000 US internet-

using adults found that 68% “definitely would not” allow advertisers to track them online, with this figure being supported by McDonald & Cranor’s (2010) study, in which American respondents heavily leaned towards negative attitudes regarding targeted online advertising, with 46% of respondents considering such a practice to be “creepy”. This negative attitude can be shared between cultural groups as well, as Wang, Xia, & Huang’s (2016) study found a significant portion of both Chinese and American consumers developed negative attitudes towards online targeted advertising, the most common reason being a general sense of “privacy violation”.

Table 2.1. *Summary of Key Targeted Advertising Literature*

Authors	Research Question	Overall Theory	n; Subjects	Stimuli	Data Collected	Analysis Methods	Findings
Plane, Redmiles, & Mazurek (2017)	To what extent do online consumers consider advertising practices discriminatory and to what extent d they find these practices problematic?	No Framework Used	191	Written hypothetical scenarios in which specific ethnic groups are targeted for advertising.	Scenario Believability; Scenario Ethics; Scenario Acceptability	Logistic Regression	A significant percentage of respondents found the scenarios presented as moderately to very concerning, particularly where discrimination took place as a result of explicit demographic targeting.
Summers, Smith, Reczek (2016)	To what extent does behavioural targeted influence consumer self-identity?	Self-Perception Theory; Distinctiveness Theory	Study 1: 188 Study 2: 197 Study 3: 178 Study 4: 269	Simulated Shopping Task	Recognition of Implied Social Label; Self-Perception	ANOVA; Regression Model	Labels which consumers perceive to be accurate tend to reinforce self-perception. Labels the consumers perceive to be inaccurate are less likely to prompt adjustments.
Campbell & Wright (2008)	To what extent do relevance and interactivity influence consumer attitudes towards online advertisements?	Mere Exposure Theory; Propinquity Effect;	Study 1: 97 Study 2: 118	Fictitious website featuring one of four advertisements of differing personal relevance and interactivity	Perceived Personal Relevance; Perceived Interactivity; Attitude Towards Advertisement	SEM	Personal relevance and interactivity tended to significantly positively influence online consumer attitudes towards online advertisements.

Authors	Research Question	Overall Theory	n; Subjects	Stimuli	Data Collected	Analysis Methods	Findings
Ur, Leon, Cranor, Shay, & Wang (2012)	What are online consumers' attitudes towards online behavioural targeting advertising?	No Framework Used	48	Informational Video covering the topic of Online Behavioural Targeting	Impressions of Online Advertising; Interpreting Targeting Icons; Beliefs Regarding Tailored Ads; Reactions to Tailored Ads	Semi-Structured Interview Analysis	Participants tended to have strong concerns about data collection. General attitudes towards behavioural targeted advertising were complex.
Johnson & Grier (2011)	In what ways can advertisers appeal to ethnic/cultural minority consumers without alienating ethnic/cultural majority consumers?	Distinctiveness Theory	109	Photographic advertisements for fictitious pen brand, containing models of differing ethnicities.	Attitude towards advertisements; Felt Targeted-ness; Ad Schemata Congruence; Perceived Similarity with Sources	ANOVA	Numeric cultural distinctiveness influenced attitude towards ethnically similar advertisements.

2.4. Social Identity Theory

The basis for Social Identity theory was originally developed at Bristol University by Henri Tajfel in the 1970's, who would continue to develop the theory with colleague John Turner (Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The theory was developed as a method for explaining social categorisation and inter group conflict as consequences of cognitive processes impacted by people's beliefs about themselves and the social context in which they and their groups exist (Hogg, 2016). Since its creation, the theory has been adapted to use in a variety of fields concerned with the behaviour of individuals as they relate to groups and has been especially prevalent in marketing literature as a means for understanding consumer behaviour. Integral to Social Identity Theory is the notion of the "extended-self" or that an individual is not only composed of a core "internal-self", but also an aggregate "external-self" (Belk, 1988). While an individual may harbour internal ideas, opinions, or otherwise unique characteristics that shape who they are as a person, they are equally moulded by outside stimuli, such as personal connections, possessions, and group influences (Belk, 1988). In its current form, Social Identity Theory proposes that groups to which an individual belongs are a great source of pride and self-esteem, giving a sense of personal identity and belonging in the social world. These groups allow individuals to categorise the world as in-groups (us) and out-groups (them). Consequently, while individuals may technically belong to many groups simultaneously, this does not necessarily result in an individual's self-image being influenced by these groups. Rather, Social Identity Theory proposes that individuals will strive to boost their self-image by maintaining positive comparisons between their in-group(s) and other (out) groups (Hogg, 2007; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Though typically these groups tend to be composed of friends, family, or other social connections, there is no limitation to what one may consider a "group" to which one ascribes importance. As a result, individuals may consider themselves members of groups based on a variety of criteria, such as personal ideals, broad background characteristics, or product consumption habits. This last category has been the subject of particular scrutiny by marketing researchers, as one may also consider themselves a member of a group with whom they have never formally made contact, such as an individual who considers themselves a member of an ethnicity despite living overseas and having very little (or no) contact with other members of that ethnicity outside of direct family (Zeugner-Roth, Zabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015).

Tajfel's original definition of social identity referred to it as an individual's knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership" (Tajfel, 1974, p.292). These groups, regardless of size or criteria on which they are based, allow their members to share an identity that provides a concrete structure on which they may base their behaviour, beliefs, and sense of self (Hogg, 2016). While this theory focused on intergroup behaviour at first, being called the *social identity theory of intergroup relations* (Tajfel, Turner, Austin, & Worchel, 1979), the theory saw a shift in the early 1980's towards self-categorisation of the individual (Abrams & Hogg, 2010). The theory has continued to develop over decades, self-enhancement was once considered the main driving force behind in-group self-identification, positing that individual sought out to construct their own identity around that of a group because they perceived some personal benefit over others (Hogg, 2016). However, Leary & Baumeister's (2000) study highlighted the relevance of groups that support social stability without explicit self-enhancement. Building on this, Hogg's (2007) paper suggested that self-identity from groups was sought out as a means to reduce self-concept uncertainty and epistemic vagueness. Currently, there is still a lack of consensus on the motivations behind and underlying factors at play in determining an individual's social identity construction. However, there exists a large body of evidence suggesting the relevance of motivations involving epistemic equilibrium, self-esteem, belonging, and control (Vignoles, Regalia, Manzi, Gollledge, & Scabani, 2006).

In the context of marketing and consumer research, Belk (1988) suggests that before we are able to properly understand consumer behaviour, it is necessary to understand the importance and meaning consumers ascribe to their possessions. Part of this understanding stems from acknowledging that, whether consciously or unconsciously, people consider their possessions as an extension of themselves. The view that one's purchases and possessions act as an extension of one's self has existed in marketing literature for quite some time (Belk, 1988), however in the past two decades there has been a broader application of social identity theory to marketing research, particularly in the context of applying the extension of a consumer's self to encompass not only the products they consume but from whom they purchase these product (Batacharya & Sen, 2003; Lam, Ahearne, Hu, & Schillewaert, 2010).

As this research is primarily concerned with ethnic identification and acculturation and their relationship with consumer behaviour, we will look at the most closely associated aspect of

SIT to these subjects, namely the construct of “Ethno-Centrism”. According to the broad definition, ethno-centrism refers to “the view of things in which one’s own group is the centre of everything, and all others are scaled and referenced to it” (Hammond & Axelrod, 2006). In line with the basic premise of SIT, an individual’s ethnic/cultural group may be thought of as their “In-Group” and all others as “Out-Groups”. As applied to consumer research (referred to as “Consumer Ethno-Centrism”) the effects of one’s association with their in-group take on certain effects, such as influencing one’s consumption behaviour to be limited to only those products are brands that are explicitly associated with their ethnic or cultural group (Verlegh, 2007). This motivation most often appears to be caused by a desire to support in-group businesses or industries, protect their domestic economy (applicable to non-immigrant consumers), or otherwise avoid supporting out-group businesses that may harm members of their in-group (Verlegh, 2007). Primarily, research regarding consumer ethnocentrism has been applied to understanding consumer product choices where country-of-origin is to be considered (Shimp, 1984; Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Supphellen & Rittenburg, 2001). Meaning understanding the impact that identification with one’s ethnicity or nationality (In-Group) had on one’s consumption of products originating from a country representing this In-Group. For example, a New Zealander who strongly associates themselves with the country of New Zealand preferring products made and/or supplied by New Zealand businesses or an Asian identifying consumer preferring product broadly supplied by identifiably Asian businesses (Rezvani et al., 2012).

From this phenomenon of preference for products of a particular ethnic or cultural background, it becomes easy to extrapolate that product advertised to appeal to this preference may influence consumer decision making. Social identity theory suggests that individuals who consider themselves a member of a group will identify with that group, consider themselves representative of the group, and model their behaviour after the group norm. For advertisements to trigger identity affiliation, they must therefore fit the expectations one has for their in-group members (Maldonado & Muehling, 2006). Such expectations being met allow an individual to perceive their tastes and preferences to be similar to that of the model. This is because where a viewer perceives there to be an explicit similarity between themselves and the model, they will also assume implicit similarities in other characteristics, allowing for greater identification. For minority consumers, the most striking visual similarity between themselves and an advertised

model would be a shared ethnicity. As such, viewers responding more favourably to ads featuring ethnically similar models can be explained by their in-group bias.

2.5. Ethnic Identity

The theoretical roots of Ethnic Identity as a concept can be traced to the works of Erikson (1959; 1968) and Marcia (1966), whose writings were primarily concerned with self-identity and all factors that may affect its development. Using their research as a basis, other researchers in the 70's and 80's (Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1983; Isajiw, Colalillo, & Makabe, 1981) began to develop their own frameworks for understanding the formation of self-identities among ethnic minority youths. At its onset, these researchers were primarily concerned with the development of ethnic identity among single minority groups, rather than minority groups as a whole. In an effort to address this gap in research, in 1993 Phinney developed a model for ethnic identity development that was based on and congruent with Erikson's (1968) and Marcia's (1966) previous research (Ong, Fuller-Rowell, & Phinney, 2010). While previous papers were primarily concerned with attitudes towards ethnicity and the content of ethnic identity, i.e., the actual behaviour and practices of those who identify with an ethnic group, Phinney's (1993) research was focused on the process of ethnic identity formation (Ong, Rowell, & Phinney, 2010). More specifically, "the way in which individuals comes to understand the implications of their ethnicity and make decisions about its role in their lives, regardless of the extent of ethnic involvement" (Phinney, 1993, p. 64).

The definition of ethnic identity can vary depending on the theory or framework employed by a researcher or scholar in attempting to condense an essentially broad conceptual construct. This lack of a commonly used definition can be considered a significant contributor to the overall confusion surrounding this topic. For the purpose of this thesis, I will assume ethnic identity can be considered an aspect of one's social identity, though focused specifically within the context of their sense and degree of belonging to an ethnic group. As such, ethnic identity should be thought of as a self-designated category, rather than a category into which one can be assigned by others (Harrison, Thomas, & Cross, 2015). Affiliation to a particular ethnic group can be influenced by racial, natal, symbolic, and cultural factors (Cheung, 1993). Racial factors being the use of physical characteristics to base in-group similarity; natal factors referring to one's birthplace or "homeland" of themselves, their parents, or close relatives; symbolic factors refer to factors that represent or

best exemplify a particular ethnic group, including holidays, clothing, symbols, food, etc; cultural factors refer to potential shared cultural values and norms, such as the degree to which one adheres to a collectivist or individualist attitude in regards to their affiliation with others (Cheung, 1993).

Ethnic identity should also not be considered a fixed categorisation, but rather a dynamic of one's self identity and one's ethnic background. While development of an ethnic identity usually starts at adolescence, the process is considered to occur over a long period of time as an individual accumulates experience and knowledge, as well as a greater understanding of an ethnic group(s) (Phinney, 1990; Phinney & Ong, 2007). Over their lives, individuals can be expected to move through various stages of determining their ethnic identity, starting with diffusion (lack of identity), to either foreclosure (commitment without exploration) or moratorium (period of exploration), and finally to ethnic achievement, representing a firm commitment to an ethnic identity caused by a clear understanding of one's ethnic background (Marcia, 1980). The pace at which individuals experience these general steps varies from person to person, as such the degree and manner in which one engages with their ethnic identity can be dramatically different between two people who might be expected to share similar ethnic identities.

The prevalence of ethnic identity as a means by which to segment consumer populations has led to the development of an entire branch of marketing literature on the subject, known as "Ethnic Marketing". Many studies have explored the prevalence of ethnic identification in minority consumer behaviour as a determinant of how ethnic consumers react to certain advertisements and products (See Table 2.2.). Of these studies, several have concluded that advertisements that feature ethnically similar models or ethnically resonant visual cues are more likely to elicit positive attitudes from targeted minority groups, who feel the advertisement or product is more appropriate for themselves than non-targeted products (Appiah, 2001; Lee et al., 2013; Sierra et al., 2012). Furthermore, where ethnic minority consumers feel strong attachment to their ethnic group, they react more positively to advertisements and products targeted at them (Appiah, 2001; Butt & Run, 2012). Advertisements that clearly depict members of an ethnicity or are otherwise clearly intended for ethnically similar consumers stimulate most effectively those consumers that strongly identify with their ethnic group, translating into stronger purchase intention than their weaker identifying counter-parts (Appiah, 2001; Elias Appiah, & Gong, 2011).

Furthermore, Stayman & Deshpande (1989) argue in their paper that individuals are not necessarily limited to any one given ethnic identity at a single point in their lives but may in fact have multiple ethnic identities that are situationally determined. They argue that, for a given situation, whichever ethnic identity is most salient, an individual will most likely identify with that ethnicity and describe themselves using characteristics that most fit with that social category (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Stayman & Deshpande, 1989). As such, without proper consideration of the factors influencing identity development, it is possible for marketers to mis-classify consumers into ethnic groups with whom an individual may have previously identified, but has since moved on (Fournier, 1998). For example, an immigrant consumer can at one moment identify most strongly with their ethnic heritage (particularly when around others that share that same heritage), and then at another moment identify most strongly with their host nation culture (Licsandru & Cui, 2019). Forehand & Deshpande (2001) argue that for the purposes of ethnic marketing, it is possible to manipulate one's ethnic identification through the use of ethnic visual and verbal cues embedded in advertisements referring to this practice as "directing self-categorisation and increasing ethnic self-awareness" (p.336). The results being that situational ethnic identities of targeted consumers become elicited, targeted consumers become more sensitive to ethnically related information, and thus more willing to engage with the advertised product(s) (Forehand & Deshpande, 2001; Licsandru & Cui, 2019; Peñaloza, 2017).

Table 2.2. Summary of Key Ethnicity and Advertising Literature

Authors	Research Question	Overall Theory(s)	Ethnicity	n; Subjects	Stimuli	Data Collected	Analysis Methods	Findings
Sierra, Hyman, & Torres (2009)	How does the strength of a consumer's ethnic identification influence their ability to ethnically identify with advertisements featuring ethnic models	Social Identity Theory	European, Latin American, & African	207	Three advertisements featuring a Latin American, African, and European model with an advertised product (a shoe) + two actor-and-ethnic-cue-devoid filler ads for ice cream and detergent.	Strength of Ethnic Identification; Ethnic Identification towards Advertisement; Attitude towards Advertisement; Attitude towards Brand; Purchase Intention. Collected through Likert scale responses.	ANOVA; Independent Sample t-Tests; SEM	Strength of ethnic identification had a positive effect on respondent ethnic identification with advertisements. Ethnic identification with an advertisement had a positive direct and indirect effect on purchase intentions.
Donthu & Cherian (1994)	How does the strength of consumer ethnic identification influence retail shopping behavior?	No Framework Used	Latin American	240	None – Administered Questionnaire	Strength of Ethnic Identification; Service-Related Behavior; Product-Related Behavior	ANOVA	Strength of Ethnic Identification had a significant positive effect on consumer behavior related to Service and Product consumption.
Grier & Deshpande (2001)	Does social and numeric status of South African	Distinctiveness Theory	Africans & Europeans	176	Identical advertisements for children's	Ethnic Identification,	ANOVA, Univariate Regression,	Ethnicity is more salient for numeric

	consumers affect ad effectiveness?				clothes and diet soda, featuring African and European models.	Perception of Relative Social Status, Advertising Response	Simple Regression, Two-Regression Path Analysis	minorities. Ethnic minority consumers tended to display more positive attitudes towards brands advertising using ethnically similar models.
Lee, Liu, & Lee (2013)	How do differing levels of ethnic identification influence Asian consumer reception of value advocacy advertising?	Ethnic Scheme Theory; Attribution Theory	Asian	122	Four advertisements Two Asian oriented Two European oriented	Ethnic Identification, Perceived Altruism, Purchase Intention	ANOVA Independent t-Test	Asian Americans perceive advocacy sponsoring through own ethnic schema. When this sponsoring is congruent with their schema, they are more likely to engage with the advertised product.
Appiah & Liu (2009)	How do Asian and European consumers differ in their psychological responses to advertisements featuring varying levels of ethnic-specific cultural cues?	Distinctiveness Theory	Asian & European	191	Full photographic advertisements for soymilk and computers, using fictitious brands. Two featuring a European model. Two featuring an Asian model.	Attitude towards ads, Perceived Similarity, Purchase Intention, Identification with Advertisement, Personal Relevance	ANOVA	Results suggest targeting ethnic consumers using advertisements featuring ethnically similar visual cues significantly positively influences purchase intention

Elias, Appiah, & Gong (2011)	Examine the relationship between ethnic identity and same or different race-sources on black consumer attitudes.	Social Identity Theory	African	115	Two images of a Black male and a European male used as product presenters for an interactive e-commerce website featuring 12 different products	Identification with Product Presenter, Homophily with Product Presenter, Social Presence, Attitude towards Website. Ethnic Identity	SEM	Results suggest that as African consumer ethnic identity increases, consumer attitudes will be more positive if the product presenter is African, but will be more negative if the presenter is European

2.6. Distinctiveness Theory

For the purpose of understanding the difference in effectiveness of ethnically targeted advertisements for ethnic minority consumers versus ethnic majority consumers, I will be making use of McGuire's (1984) Distinctiveness Theory. Distinctiveness theory proposes that where an individual views a framework as complex as their self-identity, they will attempt to notice characteristics that are most distinctive and allow the greatest ability to differentiate themselves from others, rather than in terms that they have in common with the majority (Appiah & Liu, 2009; McGuire, 1984). Essentially, people prefer to think of themselves in ways that make them unique. The methods by which people may differentiate themselves is essentially limitless, though some of the most common might be by gender, age, income as demographic differentiators (Jensen, 1998), product consumption preferences (Eren-Erdogmus, Lak, & Cicek, 2016), or any number of personally held beliefs or identifications (Leonardelli, Pickett, & Brewer). Among these methods of developing personal distinctiveness, ethnicity may be included. Therefore, distinctiveness theory can be useful for understanding how ethnic cues and visuals impact an ethnic minority's attitude towards ads targeting them, as a significant visual characteristic between one's self and a character or model in an advertisement is ethnicity (Torres & Briggs, 2007; Zuniga, 2016). Such as in Torres and Briggs' (2005) study, in which they found that for low involvement products, the use of Hispanic identifiers in advertisements increased the desirability of advertised products for Hispanic consumers. The results of this study are consistent with other studies on spokesperson ethnicity, finding that minorities respond more favourably to "one of their own" than members of the majority ethnic group respond to a spokesperson of their own ethnicity (Whittler, 1989). Furthermore, Deshpande and Stayman's (1994) study suggested that ethnic minority consumers viewed targeted advertising as more trustworthy when it was aimed at themselves, as opposed to ethnic majority consumers. This finding has been corroborated by more recent studies, indicating that where consumers feel themselves ethnically distinct, they are more likely to react positively to ethnically targeted ads (Forehand, Deshpande, & Reed, 2002; Lau & Lee, 2018).

Consumer behaviour studies using distinctiveness theory suggest that targeted advertisements are most effective when the targeted group is the numeric minority and the advertisements are adjusted to appeal to them based on this minority status (Grier & Deshpande, 2001). In an ethnically homogenous society, it would be unlikely that any single person would

consider their ethnicity to be a particularly important aspect of their identity, compared to in an ethnically diverse society, where one's own ethnicity is likely to be a salient, physical characteristic that may immediately set one apart from others (McGuire et al., 1978). Where one's ethnic group is a minority, one's ethnicity is further likely to be a salient characteristic, rather than if one's ethnic group was a majority, due to the relative scarcity of individuals sharing such a trait (McGuire et al., 1978; Warren, 2014). The results of these studies find that consumer distinctiveness results in heightened sensitivity to targeting activities, more identification and trust with sources they view as similar, and increased favourability towards the advertised brand and product (Aaker, Brumbaugh, & Grier, 2000; Forehand & Deshpande, 2001; Heiser, Sierra, & Torres, 2008).

2.7. Acculturation

The classical definition of acculturation refers to the psychological phenomenon as “the result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous, first-hand contact with subsequent changes in the original culture patterns of either or both groups” (Redfield, Linton, & Herskovits, 1936). At its inception, this definition was adequate in providing a basic understanding of what acculturation was and how it came about, but has since fallen into disuse, owing to several misassumptions present in its wording.

While the importance of consistent contact between groups of individuals of different cultures has remained consistent in acculturation literature, Redfield et al.'s (1936) definition implies that this contact occurs where both groups are in equal positions. While acculturation was originally portrayed as a neutral phenomenon, in that it has the potential to equally affect all groups involved, more recent studies have found that in practice acculturation tends to occur between groups of differing power, and thus more strongly in one group than others (Berry, 1990). Rather than all cultural groups being in possession of equal resources, individuals can be classified as members of the “dominant” group or a “minority” group. Regarding immigrants living in Western societies, the dominant group is almost always composed of members of the mainstream, native population, who tend to exist in a more powerful position than their immigrating counterparts (Berry, 2008). Considering this power difference, a majority of acculturation research concerns itself with changes that affect minority groups, who are expected to become more like the dominant

culture group in any environment. Among the most relevant examples to this study being Tsai & Li's (2012) study regarding the moderating effects of acculturation levels on Latin American identifying consumers responses to different advertising strategies, as well as Chai & Dibbs (2014) paper regarding the influence of acculturation on interpersonal trust among Chinese consumers in New Zealand.

Currently, acculturation literature proposes two models, depending on whether one wishes to view acculturation as a unidimensional or bidimensional process.

2.7.1 Unidimensional Approach

The unidimensional approach to viewing acculturation assumes that acculturation occurs on a scale, wherein an individual may either be highly acculturated, slightly or non-acculturated, or somewhere in between. It further assumes that the process of acculturating on this scale occurs along a single continuum over the course of time (Ryder, Alden, Paulhus, 2000). Highly acculturated individuals would be those that identify exclusively or almost exclusively with the dominant culture, while slightly or non-acculturated individuals identify similarly with their ethnic/minority culture (Ryder et al., 2000). In the case of high acculturation, the unidimensional model assumes that this is necessarily accompanied by "the disappearance of the ethnic group as a separate entity and the evaporation of its distinctive traits" (Gordon, 1964, p. 81). Inversely, then, non-acculturation would require the complete refusal of dominant culture and embrace of the distinctive traits of their ethnic culture. Though early research assumed that acculturating individuals would orient themselves either to one group or the other, in a sense choosing between them; this view was the basis for assessing the acculturation of an individual on a single dimension, ranging from maintaining the heritage culture through to adopting the new culture (e.g., Gordon, 1964).

2.7.2 Bidimensional Approach

An alternative view was proposed by Berry (2005) in the 1980's, who argued that there are two dimensions along which individuals orient themselves. In this bidimensional view, it is proposed that those experiencing acculturation hold attitudes towards two fundamental aspects of acculturation: cultural maintenance and intercultural contact. Among immigrants, acculturation

attitudes are based on the intersection of these two issues: to what extent do immigrants or other non-dominant groups wish to have contact with (or avoid) others outside their group; and to what extent do they wish to maintain (or give up) their cultural attributes? When examined among the population at large (e.g., the dominant or national group), views about how immigrants and other non-dominant ethnocultural groups should acculturate have been termed acculturation expectations (Berry, 2005).

For members of the non-dominant ethnocultural group, the main question is “how shall we deal with these two issues?” while for the larger national society the question is “how should they (e.g., immigrants and ethnocultural groups) deal with them?” (Berry, 2001). These two issues define an intercultural contact space within which individuals occupy a preferred attitudinal position. When individuals do not wish to maintain their cultural heritage and seek daily participation with other cultures in the larger society, the assimilation attitude is defined. In contrast, when ethnocultural group members place a value on holding on to their original culture, and at the same time wish to avoid interaction with others, then the separation alternative is defined. When there is an interest in both maintaining one’s original culture and interacting with other groups, integration is the attitude; here, individuals maintain a degree of cultural integrity, while at the same time they seek to participate as an integral part of the larger society. Finally, when there is little possibility or interest in cultural maintenance (often for reasons of enforced cultural loss), and little interest in having relations with other groups (often for reasons of discrimination) then marginalisation is defined.

While acculturation is most commonly observed in the context of immigrants existing within a culturally distant host environment, the phenomenon can be observed in situations independent of immigration. African-Americans, despite a long and complicated history within the United States, occupy ethnic subcategories and utilize acculturation strategies. Similarly, ethnic groups that exist removed from immigration by time or circumstances can be found within the borders of many countries. For example, Asian/New Zealand consumers born from immigrant parents while in New Zealand may identify with their Asian heritage. While they themselves are not immigrants, they will likely engage in acculturation strategies to better integrate into New Zealand’s cultural environment.

Consumer acculturation is a subcategory of the overall acculturation process (Penazola, 1989). Whereas acculturation as a whole is a more general phenomenon, consumer acculturation can be seen as a more specific socialization process in which an acculturating consumer learns the behaviours, attitudes, and values of a culture that is different from their own and then applies this information to their own consumption process (Lueck & Wilson, 2011; Penazola, 1989). The body of international business research contains numerous studies regarding differences in consumption behaviour between nations (Brass, 1991; Clements, Wu, & Zhang, 2006; Seale Jr. & Regmi, 2006). While these studies provide ample evidence of difference between nations, they also provide evidence that immigrants or individuals that identify with an ethnic minority group likely also engage in consumption behaviour that is different from the local norm. As shown in Table 2.3, acculturation has consistently been found to significantly influence consumption behaviour among immigrant consumers. Also shown in Table 2.3, while consumer acculturation has been the subject of multiple studies in the past, it shares similar limitations to existing studies regarding consumer ethnic identification, in that most studies regarding the phenomenon tend to focus on Latin American consumers in Western markets rather than alternative ethnic groups (such as East/South-East Asian).

Table 2.3. Summary of Key Literature on Acculturation and Advertising

Authors	Research Question	Underlying Theory	Ethnicity	n; Subjects	Stimuli	Key Variables	Analysis Methods	Main Findings
Tsai & Li (2012)	What are the moderating effects of acculturation modes (Assimilation, Integration, and Separation) on Latin American consumer responses to three advertising strategies (European targeted, Bicultural, and Latin American targeted)?	No Framework Used	Latin American	155	Six half-page magazine ads. Two European targeted, two Latin American targeted, and two Bicultural targeted. Three ads featured digital cameras as products. Three ads featured hot dogs as products. All brands were fictitious.	Acculturation Level; Attitude towards Advertisement	ANCOVA	Significant interaction effects were detected between acculturation modes, advertisement targeting strategies, and attitude towards advertisements.
Vijaygopal & Dibb (2012)	How does acculturation affect brand preferences of Indian consumers in the United Kingdom?	No Framework Used	British Indian	40	None – Administered Questionnaire	Acculturation Level; Attitude towards brands	Focus Groups and In-Depth 2-Person Interviews (Dyad)	Participants displaying differing acculturation strategies similarly displayed differing opinions on brand preferences.
Ueltschy & Krampf (1997)	What is the relationship between the level of acculturation	No Framework Used	Latin American	501	Randomly assigned advertisement booklet	Acculturation Level; Attitude towards Advertisement;	2x2 between subjects factorial	Significant differences in advertisement preferences were

Authors	Research Question	Underlying Theory	Ethnicity	n; Subjects	Stimuli	Key Variables	Analysis Methods	Main Findings
	of Latin American consumers and their language and model preference in print advertisements?				containing one advertisement for each of four products. Each advertisement portrayed either a Latin American or European model in either Spanish or English.	Advertisement Recall; Language Proficiency	design. Randomly assigned advertising booklets containing four print ads.	found between high and low acculturated Hispanic consumers. Language use significantly influenced advertisement recollection.
Penaloza (1994)	What is the impact of acculturation on consumption experiences of Mexican immigrants living in America?	No Framework Used	Latin American	23	None – Qualitative Techniques Used. Participants engaged in interviews with researcher	Consumption Patterns; Acculturation Levels	Interviews	Acculturation differs based on resources and personal background. Respondents from urban background adjusted to consumption culture better than those from rural background. Contact with native citizens tended to result in greater consumption culture adjustment.

Authors	Research Question	Underlying Theory	Ethnicity	n; Subjects	Stimuli	Key Variables	Analysis Methods	Main Findings
Chai & Dibb (2014)	How does consumer acculturation in ethnically Asian people influence interpersonal trust?	Adaptive Control Thought (ACT) Theory; Consumer Socialization Theory	Asian	368	None – Administered Questionnaire	Cognitive Trust; Affective Trust; Service Provider Commitment; Interpersonal Commitment; Acculturation Level	SEM; Multigroup Analysis Techniques	Higher acculturation levels positively moderated relationship between cognitive trust and SPC.

2.8. Research Framework and Hypotheses

The following section will provide a more in-depth explanation behind the hypotheses used in this research and the theoretical framework supporting the development of these hypotheses. The end of this section will include a conceptual model detailing the relationships between the discussed variables, as well as providing a visualisation of the proposed hypotheses.

As this thesis aims to investigate the relationships between multiple variables, I have developed our own research framework to better guide our research and better visualise claims of causal inference. This framework (presented in Figure 2.1) outlines the proposed relationship between the relevant variables used in this thesis, represented by our hypotheses. Further, the model shows the corresponding theories used to support the proposed relationships.

Figure 2.1. *Conceptual Framework*

2.8.1. Strength of Ethnic Identification and Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements.

Strength of Ethnic Identification (SEI) refers to the degree to which one associates their self-identity with their ethnic group (Donthu & Cherian, 1994). Several studies have found connections between SEI and certain consumer behaviour (Appiah, 2001; Donthu & Cherian, 1994; Green, 1999). For instance, between ethnic groups, Hispanic-American consumers tend to display greater brand loyalty than Caucasian-American consumers. Between Hispanic-American consumers, however, Deshpande, Hoyer, & Donthu's (1986) paper found that Hispanic-American consumers that had stronger ethnic identification were more brand loyal than Hispanic-Americans with weaker ethnic identification. Research regarding ethnic identification is not limited to Hispanic-Americans, as multiple studies have found similar influences of strength of ethnic identity within African and Asian minority groups (Butt & Run, 2012; Elias, Appiah, & Gong, 2011) within the context of consumer research. It should be noted, however, that these papers tend to be written in the context of minority ethnic identity in American respondents, which may skew results.

Ethnic Identification towards an advertisement refers to the degree to which one perceives an advertisement to represent their ethnic group and therefore themselves (Sierra, Hyman, & Torres, 2009). An Asian consumer may be less likely to ethnically identify with an advertisement featuring a Caucasian model than with an advertisement portraying an Asian model. Where individuals possess a strong identification to their ethnicity, they are more likely to associate more strongly with advertisements that incorporate ethnically identifying visual cues, such as symbols, models, or imagery (Lau & Lee, 2018). Black-American consumers with stronger ethnic identification also tended to identify more strongly with ads featuring Black characters than those with weaker ethnic identities (Appiah, 2001). This therefore suggests that where individuals possess stronger ethnic identities, their capacity to identify with advertisements featuring ethnic cues similar to their own increases. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₁: Strength of Ethnic Identification will have a positive effect on Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements among Asian identifying consumers.

2.8.2. Acculturation Level and Ethnic Identification towards Advertisement

Ethnic Identification towards an Advertisement has been previously shown to be positively influenced by one's Strength of Ethnic Identity (Donthu & Cherian, 1994; Lee, Liu & Lee, 2013; Sierra, Hyman, & Torres, 2009). Multiple studies have found that, for non-ethnic majority respondents, multiple psychological factors influenced by Ethnic Identity may also be influenced by one's level of acculturation, such as psychological well-being (Berry & Hou, 2016; Li, Wang, & Xiao, 2019; Mähönen & Jasinskaja-Lahti, 2013), stress (Balidemaj & Small, 2018; Roysircar-Sodowsky & Maestas, 2000), and one's intent to seek psychological assistance (Cheng, Kwan, & Sevig, 2013; Li, Marbley, Bradley, & Wan, 2016). As well, several studies have found evidence supporting acculturation as a significant influencer of consumer behaviour, such as with which businesses ethnic consumers are most willing to engage (Chai & Dibb, 2014), their decision-making process as a consumer (Quester, Karunaratna, & Chong, 2001), and consumer intention to purchase luxury vs non-luxury products (Wang, Joy, Belk, & Sherry, 2019). Furthermore, multiple papers have found evidence suggesting that consumer acculturation level may act as a significant influencer of consumer intent to purchase ethnically associated brands against host nation associated brands (Lichy & Pon, 2013; Rizwan, Hassan, & Kalsoom, 2017; Vijaygopal & Dibb, 2013). Vijaygopal & Dibbs's (2013) paper found that ethnic consumers who displayed the acculturative traits of being *separated* (high Asian cultural identification, low Western cultural identification) displayed stronger purchase intentions towards ethnic brands than host nation brands, whereas *assimilated* (low Asian cultural identification, high Western cultural identification) consumers tended to prefer host nation brands, and *integrated* (equally high Asian and Western cultural identification) consumers displayed equal preference towards both host nation and ethnic brands. For the purposes of this research, this study will be adopting the uni-dimensional approach to measuring acculturation, in which acculturating individuals may be lowly acculturated (Separated), bi-cultural (Integrated), or highly acculturated (Assimilated) (Berry, 1997).

As shown by the aforementioned research, acculturation has been consistently demonstrated to influence both variables relating to one's ethnic identity as well as one's behaviour regarding product consumption. Therefore, it is expected that respondent ethnic identification towards an advertisement, a variable both linked to strength of ethnic identification and consumer

behaviour, will be significantly influenced by their level of acculturation. The following hypothesis is formulated:

H₂: Acculturation level will significantly negatively influence Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements among Asian identifying consumers.

2.8.3. Ethnic Identification towards Advertisement and Attitude towards Advertisement

Building on Appiah's (2001) study, Elias, Appiah, & Gong (2011) found that African Americans in the United States preferred a product offered on a website if the presenter was also African American, rather than Caucasian. The strength of this preference increased with the degree to which the respondents identified as African American. A conclusion to be drawn from these papers is that ethnic minorities with stronger ethnic identities tend to be more receptive to the use of cues in advertising (language, symbols, characters, etc) that they feel represent their own ethnic group. A possible explanation of this behaviour may be that ethnic minority consumers perceive their ethnicity to be an integral part of their social identity, a concept explored in Social Identity Theory.

The basis of Social Identity Theory (SIT) is that one's social identity is their sense of who they are based on their group memberships (Stets & Burke, 2000). These groups might be one's family, school, sports team, and others. For the purpose of this research, I will be considering SIT in the context of one's ethnicity as a defining group. Based on this theory, a consumer's identification with an ethnic group allows the consumer to differentiate themselves from others, considering that which reflects their social-group as "within" their group and that which doesn't as "outside" their group. Consistent with this theory, when a consumer feels they are being targeted based on their membership with their group (ethnicity), they should develop positive feelings towards the advertising method and advertised brand.

In targeting consumers of a particular ethnicity, advertisers may benefit from using models of similar apparent ethnicity to positively influence the attitude of targeted consumers towards the advertisement and thus increase purchase intention. Therefore, the following hypothesis is put forward:

H₃: Ethnic Identification towards Ad will positively affect Attitude towards Ads among Asian identifying consumers.

2.8.4. Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements and Attitude towards Targeted Advertisements

If the use of ethnically similar visual cues may positively influence the attitudes of ethnic consumers towards an advertised product, then the same may be held true for advertising methods, particularly targeted advertising. Previous research indicates that consumers perceive targeted advertising more positively where they consider the advertising method to be of value to them, such as filtering out inappropriate advertisements (Johnson, 2013). As the use of ethnic targeted advertising filters out advertisements featuring visual cues that do not represent the targeted consumer, the targeted consumer should develop more positive attitudes towards the advertising method.

Furthermore, previous studies indicate that consumers that display increased assumptions or knowledge of being targeted by ads influence their attitudes towards that advertising (Aaker, Brumbaugh, & Grier, 2000; Johnson & Grier, 2011). Given that research regarding attitudes towards advertisements indicates a positive relationship between ethnic identification, ethnic visual cues in ads, and attitude towards ads, the influence on attitude towards advertising method in this case is expected to be positive. Hence, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H₄: Ethnic Identification towards Ad will positively affect Attitude towards Targeted Advertising among Asian identifying consumers.

2.8.5. Ethnic Identification towards Advertisement and Purchase Intention

Consistent with the previous assumptions regarding attitude towards advertisement and advertising method, consumers that develop positive attitudes in either area will react more positively towards advertised products, increasing their purchase intention. Thus, it is hypothesized that:

H₅: Ethnic Identification towards Ad will positively affect Purchase Intention among Asian identifying consumers.

2.8.6. Attitude towards Advertisement and Purchase Intention

In marketing, “Attitude” refers to an individual’s internal evaluation of an object (such as a branded product), or a behaviour (purchasing a specific product or brand) and has been an important concept to the discipline since the 1960’s. Attitude can be defined as a relatively enduring evaluation of a person, object, issue, or action (Bizer, Barden, & Petty, 2006; Solomon, 2018). As an enduring and stable construct, attitudes can be useful for determining the predisposition of a consumer to act in a certain way (Ajzen, 2002; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977).

Attitude towards an advertisement can be defined as a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during an exposure situation (Biehal, Stephens, & Curlo, 1992; Mackenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986). As a consumer is exposed to an advertisement, the influence of their attitude towards it can be seen in the terms used to describe it (being positive or negative) (Hartmann & Apaolaza-Ibáñez, 2012; Jung, Kim, & Kim, 2014). Many previous studies have considered attitude towards advertisements to be main input of purchase intention (Biehal, Stephens, & Curio, 1992; Edell & Burke, 1987; Hartmann & Apaolaza-Ibáñez, 2012). Supporting this, the Theory of Planned Behaviour would suggest that where perceived subject norms and behavioural control are unchanged, a change in attitude of a consumer towards an advertisement would proportionately influence purchase intention and thus the action of purchase (Arvola et al., 2008; Kim & James, 2016).

Where consumers have existing exposure to a particular brand, their attitude toward any one advertisement featuring that brand will be influenced by their previous experience (Kempf & Smith, 1998). Therefore, the effect of attitude towards an advertisement on purchase intention is greatest when a consumer is dealing with an unfamiliar brand or product without a brand attached. Supporting this, Homer’s (1990) and Phelps & Hoy’s (1996) studies found a significant positive relationship between a consumer’s attitude towards an ad and their purchase intention for the advertised product. Based on this discussion, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H₆: Attitude towards Advertisements will have a positive influence on consumer purchase intention among Asian identifying consumers.

2.8.7. Attitude towards Targeted Advertisements and Purchase Intention

Targeted online advertisements use consumer data in a way that is relatively novel, compared to existing forms of advertising, in that it inherently makes use of personalised consumer data profiles to deliver relevant advertisements to individual consumers. Consumer attitudes of this targeting method can be divisive. On one hand, consumers can recognise the benefits of this advertising method, noting that products advertised in this manner tend to be more relevant and appealing than products advertised using broader methods (Zhang, Guerrero, Wheatley, & Lee, 2010). However, there is also a lack of trust from some consumer groups, creating negative attitudes that reduce their willingness to buy brands shown in targeted ads (Bleier & Eisenbeiss, 2015; Zhang et al., 2010). This behaviour can be explained using the Theory of Reasoned Action and by extension the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) is a social psychology model whose primary purpose is to understand an individual's voluntary behaviour by understanding the underlying motivation to perform an action (Ajzen, 2002; Lee, Ham, & Kim, 2013). This theory provides a theoretical foundation for the linkage between consumer attitude towards online targeted advertisements and their willingness to buy advertised brands. When applied to the context of targeted online ads, the theory suggests that online users' beliefs or motives regarding targeted online advertising will affect their positive or negative attitudes towards this advertising method. Positive attitudes may lead to strong intentions for the received advertisement, which in turn lead to positive involvement with the advertised brand (i.e., a greater willingness to buy). Alternatively, negative attitudes lead to weaker intentions, in turn resulting in a consumer being less likely to engage with brands using this advertising method.

This theory is supported by existing studies regarding older forms of advertising, such as television and printed advertisements, finding that where consumers perceive these advertising methods as containing likeable attributes their intention to purchase advertised brands increased (Fam & Waller, 2006; Jozsa, Insch, & Krisjanous, 2010). Regarding targeted online advertisements, Samat, Acquisti, & Babcock's (2017) paper supports this theory to a degree, finding that where respondents hold negative attitudes toward online targeted advertisements, they displayed weaker intentions to engage with the advertised brand. Where respondents held positive

attitudes of targeted advertising, though, there was no discernible impact on their intention to engage with the advertised brand.

One particular variable to consider in the context of this research regarding ethnic minority consumers is consumer distinctiveness, referring to the numeric rarity of a particular group of individuals amongst a consumer population as a whole (Aaker, Brumbaugh, & Grier, 2000; McGuire, 1984;). According to Distinctiveness Theory, personal traits that an individual perceives to make themselves “distinctive” will be more salient with themselves, as these distinctive traits will be considered more central to their self-concept (Aaker, Brumbaugh, & Grier, 2000; McGuire, 1984). Therefore, individuals who consider themselves members of distinct or otherwise numerically rare groups (such as ethnic minority groups) tend to be highly aware of these characteristics and more willing to incorporate them into their self-concept than those not associated with such a group. Such a phenomenon has been documented in many studies, in which traits such as name (Dion, 1983), birthplace (McGuire & Padawer-Singer, 1976), and gender (Cota & Dion, 1986) were found to be of significant importance to respondents in contexts where such traits placed them in minority groups. Of particular importance to this thesis, previous studies have also applied distinctiveness theory to the context of ethnic minorities, as in Deshpande & Stayman’s (1994) or Leonard, Mehra, & Katerberg’s (2008) papers applying distinctiveness theory to the effects of ethnic minority membership on advertising effectiveness and social network development respectively. In both papers, results suggested that, as predicted by distinctiveness theory, subjects tended to identify most strongly with those that reflected their ethnic minority membership.

In a consumer behaviour context, distinctiveness influences the responses of targeted groups to targeted advertisements (Forehand & Deshpande, 1999; Grier & Brumbaugh 2004). Deshpande & Stayman’s (1994) study, along with Torres & Briggs’ (2007) study, found that the status of being an “ethnic minority” in a population significantly influenced the salience of one’s ethnicity, as well as the effectiveness of targeted advertisements based on one’s ethnicity. Specifically, ethnic minority consumers tended to react more positively towards ethnically targeted advertisements than non-ethnic minority consumers (Deshpande & Stayman, 1994; Torres & Briggs, 2007).

The use of targeted marketing is based on the premise that a stronger affinity for a brand will be developed when a target is specifically being catered to by the marketing effort (Meyers & Morgan, 2013). Thus, based on the previously discussed literature, I expect a positive relationship between a consumer's views on targeted advertisements and their willingness to purchase an advertised product. As such, the following hypothesis is formulated:

H7: Attitude towards Targeted Ads will positively influence Purchase Intention among Asian consumers.

2.8.8. The Mediating Role of Attitude towards Advertisement and Attitude towards Targeted Advertisements

For a mediating relationship to exist between a mediator, a predictor variable and a dependent variable, certain qualifications must be met. First, there must be a correlation between a predictor variable and a dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). H₄ predicts that EI_{ad} (our predictor variable) will have a direct effect on PI (our dependent variable) among Asian identifying consumers. Second, there must be a relationship between the predictor variable and the mediator(s) (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In H₂ and H₃, I predict that EI_{ad} will have a direct effect on A_{ad} and AT_{ad}. Lastly, there must be a relationship between the moderator(s) and the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In H₅ and H₆, I predict that A_{ad} and AT_{ad} will each have a direct effect on PI. With this in mind and these qualifications predicted to be met, I further predict that EI_{ad} will have an indirect effect on PI via A_{ad} and AT_{ad}. Based on this, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H8: The effect of Ethnic Identification towards Ad on Purchase Intention will be mediated by Attitude towards Ad.

H9: The effect of Ethnic Identification towards Ad on Purchase Intention will be mediated by Attitude towards Targeted Ads.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1. Introduction

The following section will consist of an overview of the data collection methods used in this research, the outcome of these methods, and the study's design procedure. Within these subsections, justifications for our chosen actions will be provided. A more succinct description of the variables being measured will be provided, including the method by which the variable is measured within our data collection, as well as the source of the measurement scales.

3.2. Research Context

This study was performed to research the impact of using ethnically similar models and ethnic targeted advertising practices on purchase intention in the context of Asian identifying consumers living in New Zealand. This study uses two primary variables as of the influence of ethnic identification with an advertisement on purchase intention, namely Strength of Ethnic Identification and Acculturation level. Early studies regarding ethnicity in advertising predominantly focused on Hispanic and Black consumers in North America, while relatively few involve Asian consumers (Pires & Stanton, 2005, 2015; Stayman & Deshpande, 1989). Fewer still involve consumers in non-North American, Western market contexts. Where research is conducted outside of North America, such as in Australia, it has lacked depth regarding information related to Asian consumer behaviour (Pires & Stanton, 2015; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2009). Therefore, this thesis aimed to collect responses from consumers that fit within both of these under-represented criteria of Asian identifying consumers who live within non-US Western markets.

3.3. Research Method

This research adopted a quantitative approach to data collection and analysis, using an online survey powered by Qualtrics software. The choice to use quantitative analysis stemmed from multiple reasons. Most significantly being the comparable ease of applying standard measurements of validity and reliability to measurement methods and results, access to a relatively

large pool of potential respondents, and the speed at which collected data can be interpreted using quantitative analysis software. Furthermore, procedures from which those used in this study are adapted tend to have been done using quantitative approaches. Those these procedures could have been adjusted to fit a qualitative approach, using them in their intended approach seemed most prudent.

The survey went through multiple drafts, using a small pre-testing group of 4 individuals who identified as East/South-east Asians to determine what aspects of the survey might be unclear to potential respondents. After two of these pre-testing phases, the final version of the survey was developed, adapted from the specific procedures used by both Sierra, Hyman, & Torres (2012) and Xu & Chen (2016). Following approval from the Pipitea Human Ethics subcommittee - Reference #:0000029357, this version (See Appendix E) was used because it was determined to be clear and easily completed by potential respondents while also providing the most insight into the research problem. Advertisement stimuli were chosen based on pre-test feedback regarding clarity of model ethnicity and consistency of advertised product.

3.4. Sample and Sample Frame

The sample frame for this study was participants above the age of 18 who identify as East or South-East Asian. This range encompasses multiple nationality groups, such as Chinese, Japanese, and Vietnamese to name a few. No discrimination was used regarding place of birth, the length of time respondents had spent in New Zealand, or nationality, though these metrics were measured. As this sample frame is not representative of the New Zealand population as a whole, participants were recruited through a mix of convenience, judgemental, and snowball sampling.

3.5. Research Design & Procedure

Responses were collected by three major methods. Firstly, contacting groups known to represent and interact with East and Southeast Asian New Zealand residents, allowing the survey to be quickly distributed using existing within-group connections. These groups included the Auckland Malaysian Society, the Confucius Institute, and the Korean Society of Auckland, among others. Secondly, dispersal of the survey through social media pages known to be frequented by East and/or Southeast Asians to increase the reach of distribution. These pages included the

Victoria University International Students Association Facebook page and several East/Southeast Asian cultural clubs from Victoria University of Wellington, Auckland University, and Massey University. Groups contacted in both of these manners were sent a recruitment message approved by the Pipitea Human Ethics Committee (See Appendix C) to be further distributed to individual group members. These two sampling methods represent the use of convenience sampling in this study, due to the ease with which these groups could be contacted.

Lastly, recruitment was carried out at areas such as Asian supermarkets, university campuses, and shopping centres to reach respondents who may be un-associated with either university or other social media groups, and thus not exposed to the previous two methods. This method employed judgemental sampling techniques, as ethnic identification is a psychological construct that cannot necessarily be discerned from outward appearance. For this reason, apart from posters at these locations participants could use to take the survey (See Appendix B), potential respondents were approached to participate in the survey based on assumed ethnic identification by the survey distributor. Approached persons were explained the context of the study and asked whether or not they identified as East or South-East Asian. Answers to the affirmative were then requested to participate in the study through completion of the survey, while answers in negative were not pressed any further. Only one person (the author of this paper) distributed the survey in person at any time during this study. To maintain respondent anonymity and due to the structure of the survey (such as respondents not being able to review advertisements after viewing them once), respondents recruited at physical locations were not given physical surveys to complete. Instead, respondents were provided a QR code and instructed to scan it using their phones' camera to gain access to the survey. After doing so, the survey could be completed on their phone at leisure. Lastly, survey responses were also gathered through snowball sampling, as regardless of recruitment method all respondents were requested to provide access to the survey to any friends, family, or associates who also identified as East or South-East Asian. Due to the relative rarity of potential Asian identifying respondents relative to the accessible New Zealand population, this sampling method was considered acceptable for use in this study.

Though non-probability sampling is generally viewed as inferior to probability sampling due to a lack of generalizability and increase in estimation bias (Vehovar, Toepoel, & Steinmetz, 2016)), it's use in this study is considered acceptable due to the homogeneity of the sample

population in at least one socio-demographic variable (in this case, ethnicity). In this research context, non-probability sampling is considered acceptable as it allows for clearer generalizability of findings. Through deliberately constraining the sociodemographic heterogeneity of the sample population, the chance of bias in regards to sociodemographic characteristics is reduced (though still not wholly removed) (Jager, Putnick, & Bornstein, 2017). Due to the anonymous nature of the survey, it is impossible to know what percentage of responses were acquired using any single method discussed in this section.

Existing research suggests that the use of monetary incentives during data collection increases the willingness of potential participants to provide valid responses to surveys (Brennan, Seymour, & Gendall, 1992; James & Bolstein, 1992). Therefore, to increase response rates a monetary incentive was implemented by which respondents could enter a raffle to win one of forty \$10 gift vouchers for an online store by completing the survey and providing an email address to which the prize may be sent at a later date. To provide this information while maintaining anonymity among respondents, subjects were redirected to a separate survey upon completion of the main survey, in which they could indicate their interest in receiving the results of the study at its completion, enter the raffle, or both, after which they could provide an email address (See Appendix F). Respondents who did not wish to receive the results of the study or enter the raffle were not provided the opportunity to provide an email address, instead immediately ending the survey. As results of this second survey were stored separate from results of the main survey, no single respondents could be linked to a provided email address.

Before providing consent or starting the survey, respondents were requested to read a provided information sheet (See Appendix D), which would outline the purpose and intended use of the study and its results. After indicating their consent in answering the survey and providing general demographic information (age, gender, education, nationality, among others), respondents were asked to review four images, portrayed as advertisements for unbranded business apparel clothing products. Business apparel was chosen for the stimulus because (1) it is a common, easily advertised clothing product that (2) is available for purchase by both men and women of any ethnicity. The images contained, respectively, a male Caucasian, a male Asian, a female Caucasian, and a female Asian clothing model (refer to Appendix A). Technically, only two unaltered images were used (the male Caucasian and female Asian model images). The remaining two were altered

to replace the heads of the male Caucasian and female Asian models with Asian and Caucasian counterparts respectively using photo-editing software. The purpose of this was to keep clothing and model positioning consistent within genders and between ethnicities. The images used were chosen due to their similar composition, model positioning, and clothing represented, while remaining unbranded to limit the influence of brand preference on attitude.

After reviewing these “advertisements”, respondents were then instructed to choose which of the four they felt was most appropriate for themselves, i.e., best represented their demographic. Following a similar procedure from Sierra et al.’s (2012) study, on which this experiment design is based, respondents were not given the opportunity to go back and view the advertisements. Following this choice, respondents were asked to complete a questionnaire (See Appendix E).

The questionnaire was developed using scales adopted from past research, with some slight modifications to better fit the context of this thesis’s research objective (See Appendix G). For the most part, the scales for these constructs use 7-point Likert scales for each item (1 = Strong Disagreement; 7 = Strong Agreement) and measure the following variables:

- Strength of Ethnic Identification (SEI)
- Ethnic Identification towards Advertisement (EI_{Ad})
- Attitude towards Targeting by Advertisements (AT_{Ad})
- Attitude towards Advertisements (A_{ad})
- Purchase Intention (PI)

Scales measuring participant acculturation do not use 7-point Likert scales, instead using 5-point Likert scales. Scores may range from 1, indicating low acculturation (high Asian identity) to 5, indicating high acculturation (high Western identity) (Suinn, Ahoona, & Khoo, 1992).

Strength of Ethnic Identification

In this research, Strength of Ethnic Identification (SEI) refers the strength of one’s felt identity towards their ethnic origin (Deshpande, Hoyer, & Donthu, 1986), which may also be described as one’s enduring association of one’s ethnic group with their sense of self (Forehand & Deshpande, 2001).

Traditionally, research regarding ethnic identification may use two measurement perspectives: objective and subjective. The objective perspective in defining ethnic identity uses demographic variables such as last name, age of immigration, and parent ethnicity, while the subjective perspective derives ethnicity from the labels that people give to identify their own ethnic background, often referred to as “self-identification” (Deshpande, Hoyer et al. 1986). The use of self-identification as a measure of ethnic identity evolved from problems faced by researchers in attempting to classify people into various ethnic groups (Stephan & Stephan, 2000). Frequently, where third-parties assign particular ethnicities to individuals, assignment into ethnic groups is based on indicators such as surname (Hoyer and Deshpande 1982; Zmud and Arce 1992) and area of residence (Wallendorf & Reilly 1983). In particular, Asian ethnic groups are frequently classified based on national origin (i.e., place of birth) or ancestral national origin (i.e., place of parents’ birth) (Ford & Harawa, 2010). As a result, a multitude of misclassifications may occur, including interpretation errors in which indicators are misread or certain indicators are weighted incorrectly (Such as assuming surnames to be less relevant than preferred language) (Phinney & Ong, 2007; Stephan & Stephan, 2000). Alternatively, as in the case of various groups of Chinese Americans whose families have existed in the United States for longer than may European descended Americans, grouping by national origin can lead to mis-estimation of cultural and/or social exposures which may significantly influence individual ethnic identity (Ford & Harawa, 2010). Because of frequent misclassifications in previous studies, researchers have adopted various self-identification methods to measure ethnic identification (Hirschman 1981; Phinney 1992; Romero & Roberts, 2003; Romero, Edwards, Fryberg, & Orduna, 2014). The assumption being that through use of this method, ethnic self-identification will better reflect internal self-beliefs of individuals regarding their perceptions of cultural reality (Phinney & Ong, 2007; Stephan & Stephan, 2000;).

Self-designated ethnicity was measured using a single, close-ended self-report question in which respondents were asked to designate themselves based on ethnic classifications used by Stats NZ in their most recent (2018) census. Such classifications include Asian, European, Maori, Pacific, Middle-Eastern, Latin American, African, or an unlisted ethnicity (Other) (Stats NZ, 2018). Respondents were not limited to any single ethnicity, as they may have chosen any ethnicities that they felt applied to themselves. The current study measures Strength of Ethnic Identification using

a 5-item, 7-point Likert scale used in Sierra et al.'s (2009) study, which was in turn adapted from Phinney's (1992) study. Phinney's Multigroup Measure of Ethnic Identity (MEIM) originally consisted of 14 items (later 12 items) measured on a 4-point Likert scale, intending to assess three aspects of ethnic identity: ethnic identity achievement, ethnic attitudes and sense of belonging, and ethnic behaviours (Roberts et al., 1999). From these 14 items, Sierra et al. (2009) selected 5 items deemed the most relevant to their research context of Black and Hispanic ethnic consumer behaviour regarding responses to ethnic advertising. For example, items such as "*I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means to me*" and "*I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership*" were dropped in favour of items such as "*I feel a strong attachment to my ethnic group*" and "*I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to*". As this research is similar in scope and context to Sierra et al.'s (2009) study, this modified scale was used.

Acculturation

In this research, acculturation is defined as a process that can occur when two or more cultures interact with each other (Suinn, Ahoona, & Khoo, 1992). There exist two schools of thought regarding this process, in which the process of acculturation is treated as either unidimensional or bidimensional. For the purpose of this research, acculturation will be treated as unidimensional. Current literature treating this process as unidimensional suggests that acculturation may be measured on a scale from low acculturation to high acculturation, broadly allowing for three outcomes: Assimilation (high acculturation, in which a person mostly associates with Western culture) Separation (low acculturation, in which a person mostly associates with ethnic culture), and Integration (neither high nor low acculturation, in which a person associates equally with Western and ethnic culture). To determine these outcomes, acculturation was measured using a revised 15 item version of Suinn, Ahoona, & Khoo's (1992) 26 item Suinn-Lew Asian Self Identity Acculturation (SL-ASIA) 5-point Likert scale, adapted by Hashemi, Marzban, Sebar, & Harris (2020). These 15 items could, in turn, be grouped into five distinct constructs, being Language & Cultural Preference, Cultural Interaction, Generational Identity, Affinity for Ethnic Identity & Pride, and Food Preference. The items which correspond to each construct may be seen in Appendix G.

A meta-analysis review of studies published between 1987 and 2013 in which any version of the SL-ASIA scale was applied found that all reliability scores of the instrument ranged from acceptable to excellent, with Cronbach's alpha scores ranging from .62 to .96 with an average of .91 (SD=.07) (Phillips, King, Kivisalu, & O'Toole, 2016). Suinn, Ahoona, & Khoo's (1992) study regarding Asian migrants found significant correlation between acculturation scores using the SL-ASIA scale and demographic variables reflecting levels of Asian-American identity, demonstrating a satisfactory concurrent validity of the scale (Hashemi, Marzban, Sebar, & Harris, 2020). To date, most studies which use the scale validate it within the context of Asian populations within the United States, with relatively few studies showing validation from elsewhere in the world (Phillips, King, Kivisalu, & O'Toole, 2016). The present study contributes to this research gap by examining and validating the scale within the Asian immigrants in New Zealand context.

In the interest of decreasing the length of the survey while maintaining construct validity, this research uses a shortened, 15-item version of the SL-ASIA scale developed by Hashemi, Marzban, Sebar, & Harris (2020). In their study, this revised model was administered to 382 first-generation Middle-eastern migrants in Australia aged 20-39. Through modification, Hashemi et al. (2020) found the reliability of the orthogonal SL-ASIA scale to improve from .44 to .67, which was determined to be satisfactory.

Some questions were re-worded to reflect contemporary commonly used terms, such as changing all instances of the term "Oriental" with "Asian" or otherwise removing where superfluous (i.e., "Almost exclusively Asians, Asian-New Zealanders, Orientals" to "Almost exclusively Asians or Asian-New Zealanders"). References to the United States were changed to New Zealand to reflect the national context in which this research takes place. For example, the question "Where were you raised?" originally allowed respondents to answer "U.S. Only" which has been changed to "New Zealand Only" as well as other such references to the United States.

Ethnic Identification towards Advertisement

Ethnic identification is an underlying sense of belonging to a certain ethnic group, and its development may stem from an individual's ability to associate and relate to stimuli that pertain to their ethnicity (Phinney & Ong, 2007). In a marketing context, studies of ethnic minority

consumers suggest that identification with advertisements stems from an ability to perceive similarity and associate with visual cues in ads (Appiah, 2004; Green, 1999). The scale for Ethnic Identification towards an advertisement was adapted from Sierra et al.'s (2009) study, which was used to infer the degree to which respondents felt they could personally associate based on their personal felt ethnicity with their chosen ad. In their study, this scale was administered to 207 undergraduate students enrolled at a major research university in the southwestern United States and provided a Cronbach's alpha score of .92. This score is considered extremely reliable and thus the scale was determined to be acceptable for use in this research. Prior to Sierra et al.'s (2009) study, no multi-item scale existed to measure consumer ethnic identification towards advertisements. This scale contained items such as "I feel attached to the ad I chose" and "I feel affiliated to the ad I chose".

Purchase Intention

For the purpose of this study, purchase intention is defined as the likelihood that a consumer, after viewing an advertised product, will engage in behaviour that will result in their purchase of that product (Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991). Individuals with a high measured purchase intention, therefore, will indicate an increased likelihood to purchase an advertised product than those with lower measured purchase intentions. To measure purchase intention for business attire, the product displayed in the advertisements, this study used a 4-item, 7-point Likert scale adapted from Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal's (1991) study. This scale has previously been adapted into a multitude of studies regarding consumer behaviour and found to be acceptably reliable measuring consumer purchase intention under a variety of circumstances, including brand image, brand loyalty, and sports team identification (Kwon, Trail, & James, 2007; Malik et al., 2013; Wang & Tsai, 2014).

Some questions were reworded to better reflect the context in which the study was being done. For example, "My willingness to buy the product is (very high to very low)" was changed to "My willingness to buy the advertised clothing product would be high if I were shopping online" (strongly agree to strongly disagree). The purpose of this change being to maintain clarity regarding the context in which the advertisements were intended to be seen and what product was being advertised.

Attitude towards Advertisement

Attitude towards an advertisement refers to the tendency for a consumer to respond either favourably or unfavourably to an ad upon exposure (Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989). In this study, A_{Ad} was measured using a 5-item, 7-point Likert scale adapted from Sierra et al.'s (2009) study, which was used to assess the general attitude of respondents towards their chosen advertisement. This scale was, in turn, developed from Holmes & Crocker's (1987) study, which used a 10-item, 7-point semantic differential scale, which was originally used to measure attitude towards advertisements for high and low involvement products. Several studies have used Holmes & Crocker's (1987) scale in studies regarding consumer attitudes to great effect (Sierra & McQuitty, 2007; Yan, Ogle, & Hyllegard, 2010), thus use of the scale for this research was considered appropriate. Both scales included items such as "Appealing" and "Impressive" to measure respondent attitudes. No items were modified in the shortened version. Holmes & Crocker's (1987) original study administered this scale to 130 participants and found the scale to be acceptably reliable for use. Sierra et al.'s (2009) shortened scale was administered to 238 respondents and provided a Cronbach's alpha value of .84. Considering the high reliability of the shortened, 5-item scale and in the interest of shortening the length of the survey for respondents, Sierra et al.'s (2009) scale was used in this study.

Attitude towards Targeted Advertising

Attitude towards targeted advertising refers to a consumer's tendency to respond either favourably or unfavourably to the method by which they are exposed to an advertisement, rather than the advertisement itself (Samat et al., 2017). In this case, the method being online targeting based on given demographic information (ethnicity). Attitude towards targeted advertising was measured using a shortened 6-item, 7-point Likert scale, adapted from Samat et al.'s (2017) study. Alternatively, a 14-item version of the scale could have been used, but in the interest of keeping the survey as short as possible, the 6-item version was used instead. This 14-item scale was administered to 296 participants and showed a high reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .9265), while reduced, 6-item version showed an equally high reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .9362) (Samat, et al., 2017). Both versions contained questions such as "I would feel OK about this type of advertising" and "I would be annoyed by this type of advertising".

Chapter 4

Results

4.1. Introduction

The previous sections discussed the theoretical foundation of this research, the questions this research intended to answer, and the methods by which these research questions were addressed. The following section provides an overview of the data collected, its contents, the methods used to analyse and interpret the data, and whether these methods indicate support for the previously discussed hypotheses. It also discusses the tests used to determine the validity of the measures of the constructs used in this research as well as the theoretical model.

4.2. Respondent Profiles

Survey responses were collected through an anonymous online link using the Qualtrics survey software. At the end of the data collection period, 147 survey responses were collected. SPSS version 27 was used to conduct the analysis of collected data. Data cleaning resulted in 22 of these responses to be discarded due to respondent failure to answer all questions, resulting in a total of 125 valid responses from a wide range of East/South-East Asian nationalities.

While no one nationality represented a majority of the respondents, Chinese respondents made up the largest Asian nationality (25.6%) and New Zealanders the largest Western nationality (26.4%). Participant ages ranged from 18-74, with the largest age group represented being those ages 18-24 (44.8%). Gender representation favours female respondents (56%) over male respondents (44%). Respondent education levels were diverse, though a majority of respondents claimed at least some amount of university education (92.8%), as well as more respondents claiming Honour's level education or greater (32.8%) than those claiming no university education (6.4%). In total, respondents claimed eleven different nationalities (not counting all separate instances of "Other" nationalities), of which a Western nationality was claimed among 34 (27.2%) respondents, and an Asian nationality was claimed among 118 (94.4%) respondents. Comparatively, while all respondents identified as ethnically "Asian", a total of 14 (11.2%) of respondents identified as "European" as well. Table 4.1 summarizes the profiles of the respondents.

Table 4.1. Respondent Profiles

Profile	Description	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	55	44.0
	Female	70	56.0
Age	18-24	56	44.8
	25-34	43	34.4
	35-44	18	14.4
	45-54	5	4.0
	55-64	2	1.6
	65-74	1	.8
Education Level	Less than Secondary School	1	.8
	Secondary School Graduate	7	5.6
	Some University	26	20.8
	Bachelor's Degree	50	40.0
	Honours Degree	6	4.8
	Master's Degree	27	21.6
Cumulative Time Spent Outside New Zealand	Less than 6 months	15	12.0
	6 months-1 year	8	6.4
	1-2 years	5	4.0
	2-5 years	13	10.4
	5-10 years	5	4.0
	10-20 years	25	20.0
	20+ years	54	43.2
Nationality	New Zealander	33	26.4
	American	1	.8
	Japanese	12	9.6
	Malaysian	13	10.4
	Vietnamese	15	12.0
	Indonesian	10	8.0
	Chinese	32	25.6
	Korean	12	9.6
	Taiwanese	3	2.4
	Thai	7	5.6
	Other	14	11.2
	Total	152	121.6
Ethnicity	Asian	125	100.0
	European	14	11.2
	Total	139	111.2

Notes: n = 125; The totals for Nationality and Ethnicity are more than 125 due to respondent option to provide multiple answers

4.3. Manipulation Check

As a manipulation check to determine if model ethnicity influenced respondent choice, an independent samples t-test was conducted comparing model choice between male and female respondents. Results showed that male respondents identifying as East or South-East Asian considered the advertisement featuring the Asian Male model (See Appendix A) as more likely to be representative of their demographic than the alternative advertisements ($n=55$, $M=1.82$, $p<.001$). Similarly, female respondents identifying as East or South-East Asian considered the advertisement featuring the Asian Female model (See Appendix A) as more likely to be representative of their demographic than alternative advertisements ($n=70$, $M=3.01$, $p<.001$). These results suggest that the manipulation of model ethnicity was successful.

4.4. Gender Differences Across Key Variables Results

Independent sample t-tests were run to examine mean scores for males ($n=55$) and females ($n=70$) for each of the five items used to measure EI_{ad} . The purpose of these tests being to determine if consumer gender would significantly influence the results of this study (and thus generalizability to the Asian identifying population as a whole). Results indicate non-significant mean differences at the $p<.05$ level. Specifically, for EI_{ad1} (*attached* item) ($M_{male}=4.84$, $M_{female}=4.61$, $t(123) = .917$, $p=.782$), EI_{ad2} (*affiliation* item) ($M_{male}=5.05$, $M_{female}=4.73$, $t(123) = 1.327$, $p=.546$), EI_{ad3} (*relation* item) ($M_{male}=5.18$, $M_{female}=4.89$, $t(123) = 1.242$, $p=.890$), EI_{ad4} (*association* item) ($M_{male}=5.16$, $M_{female}=5.06$, $t(123) = .460$, $p=.689$), and EI_{ad5} (*intention* item) ($M_{male}=5.29$, $M_{female}=4.93$, $t(123) = 1.362$, $p=.275$).

Similar independent t-tests were run to examine the mean scores of males and females on each item for the five remaining variables of SEI, Acc, At_{ad} , A_{ad} , and PI. As with EI_{ad} (See Table 4.2). Results for each item of each variable indicate non-significant mean differences at the $p<.05$ level.

Table 4.2 *Between Gender Independent t-test Results*

Variable	Mean & Std. Deviation	Males (n=55)	Females (n=70)	t-value	prob
EI_{ad}	M	5.11	4.84	1.30	.198
	SD	(1.11)	(1.14)		
SEI	M	5.62	5.48	.70	.489
	SD	(1.20)	(1.04)		
Acc	M	2.46	2.60	-1.00	.318

	SD	(.82)	(.76)		
A_{ad}	M	4.92	4.61	1.55	.124
	SD	(1.19)	(1.07)		
AT_{ad}	M	4.69	4.52	.75	.458
	SD	(1.23)	(1.26)		
PI	M	4.59	4.30	1.18	.240
	SD	(1.39)	(1.32)		

4.5. Measurement Model Assessment

Scales used on this study were drawn and adapted from extant literature, as such there already existed a theoretical foundation that justifies the use of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in this study (Hurley et al., 1997). With this in mind, CFA was conducted to validate the measurements for the six constructs used in this study. The model used in this study (See Figure 4.1.) appears to fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 593.522$, $df = 384$, $p < .001$, CFI = .934, TLI = .925, RMSEA = .066). As well, the measurement appears to have good construct validity. Table 4.3. shows the items used for each construct and their loadings, reliability estimates, and average variance extracted (AVE).

CFA for the Strength of Ethnic Identification (SEI) construct revealed good internal reliability with a Composite Reliability (CR) score greater than .800. Factor loadings for each item were between .700 and .800, indicating strong associations with their corresponding underlying variable. Construct Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is above .500, indicating acceptable variance captured by the construct in relation to measurement error.

CFA for the Acculturation (Acc) construct revealed good internal reliability with a CR score greater than .800. Factor loadings for four items are above .600, indicating good associations with their underlying variable. One item (Affinity) measures .465, indicating weaker, but still acceptable association. This item was kept due its theoretical contribution to capturing the meaning of the Acculturation construct. AVE for Acc is above .500, indicating acceptable variance captured.

CFA for the Ethnic Identification towards Advertisement (EI_{ad}) construct revealed good internal reliability with a Composite Reliability score greater than .800. Factor loadings for four items are above .700, indicating good associations with their underlying variable. One item (EI_{ad}5) measures .583, indicating weaker, but still acceptable association. AVE for EI_{ad} is .642, which

meets the minimum threshold for AVE of .500 and indicates good variance captured by the construct.

CFA for the Attitude towards Advertisement (A_{ad}) construct shows good internal reliability with a CR score of .92. Factor loadings for all five items measuring A_{ad} are above .700, indicating strong associations with their underlying variable. AVE for A_{ad} is above .500, with a score of .699, indicating good variance captured by the construct.

CFA for the Attitude towards Targeted Advertising (AT_{ad}) construct shows good internal reliability with a CR score of .91. Factor loadings for five of the items measuring AT_{ad} are above .700, indicating strong associations with the underlying variable. One item ($AT_{ad}2$) measures below .700, though above .600, indicating weaker, but still good association. AVE for AT_{ad} is above .500, with a score of .635, indicating good variance captured by the construct.

CFA for the Purchase Intention (PI) construct shows good internal reliability with a CR score of .926. Factor loadings for the items measuring PI are all above .700, indicating strong association with their underlying variable. AVE for PI is above .500, with a score of .758, indicating excellent variance captured by the construct.

The AVE for each construct is measured above .500, supporting convergent reliability. Discriminant validity, which tests the relation between assumed unrelated measurements, is measured through comparing the correlation values between constructs with their respective square root AVE value (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All square root AVE values (ranging between .774 and .871) are larger than their corresponding construct correlation values, indicating that each construct exhibits high discriminant validity (See Table. 4.3). Lastly, composite reliability scores for all six constructs measured greater than .7, ranging from .875 to .926 (See Table 4.4), indicating excellent internal consistency for all constructs in the final model (Hair et al., 2019). All constructs had five items except for Purchase Intention (four items) and Attitude towards Targeted Advertising (six items), of which two of the six items ($At_{ad}5$ and $AT_{ad}6$) were reverse coded.

Figure 4.1. *Conceptual Framework*

Table 4.3. Discriminant Validity – All Constructs

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. SEI	.835					
2. Acc	-.379**	.774				
3. EI _{ad}	.238**	-.245**	.801			
4. A _{ad}	.222*	.019	.443**	.836		
5. AT _{ad}	.128	.088	.263**	.376**	.796	
6. PI	.313**	-.101	.238**	.746**	.455**	.871
Mean	5.54	2.54	4.96	4.75	4.60	4.43
SD	1.13	.79	1.13	1.14	1.24	1.11

Notes: Values below the diagonal are bivariate correlations between the constructs, bold diagonal elements represent the square root of the average variance extracted for the relevant construct.

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

* . Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Table 4.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

<i>Constructs</i>	<i>SEI</i>	<i>Acc</i>	<i>EI_{ad}</i>	<i>A_{ad}</i>	<i>AT_{ad}</i>	<i>PI</i>	<i>Composite Reliability</i>	<i>AVE</i>	<i>√AVE</i>
SEI1	.708						.920	.698	.835
SEI2	.897								
SEI3	.860								
SEI4	.874								
SEI5	.835								
LangPref		.989					.875	.599	.774
FoodPref		.932							
Affinity		.465							
GenIden		.634							
Interaction		.751							
EI_{ad}1			.727				.897	.642	.801
EI_{ad}2			.795						

<i>Constructs</i>	<i>SEI</i>	<i>Acc</i>	<i>EL_{ad}</i>	<i>A_{ad}</i>	<i>AT_{ad}</i>	<i>PI</i>	<i>Composite Reliability</i>	<i>AVE</i>	$\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$
EL_{ad}3			.934						
EL_{ad}4			.882						
EL_{ad}5			.583						
A_{ad}1				.817			.920	.699	.836
A_{ad}2				.733					
A_{ad}3				.754					
A_{ad}4				.882					
A_{ad}5				.907					
AT_{ad}1					.839		.912	.635	.797
AT_{ad}2					.676				
AT_{ad}3					.853				
AT_{ad}4					.882				
AT_{ad}5					.717				
AT_{ad}6					.815				
PI1						.904	.926	.758	.871
PI2						.904			
PI3						.773			
PI4						.906			

4.6. Structural Model Assessment

The research hypotheses shown in Figure 4.1 were tested using a structural equation model with IBM SPSS Amos 27.0.0. The six constructs (SEI, Acc, EL_{ad}, A_{ad}, AT_{ad}, and PI) were included in the model.

Model estimation produced the following goodness-of-fit statistics: $\chi^2(384, 125) = 593.522$, $p < .001$, CFI=.934, TLI= .925, RMSEA=.066. The ratio of χ^2 per degree of freedom is less than two, indicating that there is an acceptable fit of the model to the data (Hair et al., 2019). The RMSEA figure meets the recommendation for acceptable fit (RMSEA<.08) (Hooper et al., 2008). For CFI and TLI, both normed fit indices whose values range between 0-1 with 1 indicating perfect fit, a value greater than .90 indicates that the model has an acceptable fit (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980; Hooper et al., 2008; Sharma et al., 2005). Both CFI and TLI values for this model are greater than .90, indicating that it has an acceptable fit.

Table 4.4. and Figure 4.2 provide a summary of the key path coefficients and their significance.

Hypothesis 1 postulated that Strength of Ethnic Identification (SEI) would have a significant positive effect on Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements (EI_{ad}) among Asian identifying consumers. The results show that SEI had a significant positive effect on EI_{ad} ($\beta = .183$, $p = .043$). These results that the stronger (weaker) a person identifies with their self-chosen ethnic group, the more (less) they will ethnically identify with advertisements featuring a model of a similar ethnicity. Therefore, H₁ is supported.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that the lower (higher) a person's level of acculturation, the more (less) they will ethnically identify with an ethnically similar advertisement, indicating a negative relationship. The results show that Acculturation had a significant negative effect on EI_{ad} ($\beta = -.190$, $p = .035$), indicating the H₂ is supported.

Hypotheses 3, 4, and 5 proposed that EI_{ad} would have a significant, positive effect on Attitude towards Advertisements (A_{ad}), Attitude towards Targeted Advertising (AT_{ad}), and Purchase Intention (PI) respectively. The results show that EI_{ad} had a significant, positive effect on A_{ad} ($\beta = .487$, $p = .000$), AT_{ad} ($\beta = .453$, $p = .000$), and PI ($\beta = .254$, $p = .007$), indicating that consumers who are able to more strongly ethnically identify with an advertisement are more likely to develop positive attitudes towards the advertisement, more likely to develop positive attitudes towards the practice of targeted advertising, and more likely to purchase the advertised product. Therefore, hypotheses 3, 4, and 5 are all supported.

Table 4.5. *Structural Equation Model Path Coefficients*

Variables	B	SE	C.R.	<i>p</i>	<i>Results</i>
EI_{ad} ← SEI	.183	.090	2.028	.043	H ₁ Supported
EI_{ad} ← Acc	-.190	.090	- 2.105	.035	H ₂ Supported
A_{ad} ← EI_{ad}	.487	.102	4.756	.000	H ₃ Supported
AT_{ad} ← EI_{ad}	.453	.120	3.773	.000	H ₄ Supported
PI ← EI_{ad}	.254	.095	2.684	.007	H ₅ Supported
PI ← A_{ad}	.953	.117	8.129	.000	H ₆ Supported
PI ← AT_{ad}	.226	.079	2.861	.004	H ₇ Supported

Figure 4.2. *The Final Structural Model*

4.7. Mediating Analysis Results

This study predicted that attitude towards the advertisement chosen by the respondent and attitude towards the practice of targeted advertising would mediate the effects of ethnic identification with the chosen ad on purchase intention.

To test these two hypotheses (H₈ and H₉), a Parallel Multiple Mediation model using PROCESS Macro version 3.5.3 (Hayes, 2013; 5,000 bootstrap samples) was conducted. As shown in Table 4.5, all regression coefficients of direct and indirect effects were significant at $p < .01$.

In Table 4.6, results for the test of the mediation hypotheses are shown. Results indicate that EI_{ad} is a significant predictor of both Attitude towards Advertisement (A_{ad}) ($B = .44$, $SE = .081$, 95%CI (.285, .607), $p = .000$) and Attitude towards Targeted Advertising (AT_{ad}) ($B = .289$, $SE = .095$, 95%CI (.099, .479), $p = .003$), as well as Purchase Intention (PI) ($B = .285$, $SE = .073$, 95%CI (.139, .430), $p = .000$). Results also indicate that both A_{ad} ($B = .684$, $SE = .076$, 95%CI (.533, .835), $p = .000$) and AT_{ad} ($B = .192$, $SE = .065$, 95%CI (.063, .320), $p = .003$) were positively associated with PI. These results support both mediation hypotheses, that is, both A_{ad} (H₈) and AT_{ad} (H₉) act as significant moderators of the relationship between EI_{ad} and PI. They do not act as complete mediators, however, as EI_{ad} is shown to maintain a significant association with PI after controlling for the mediators, A_{ad} and AT_{ad} ($B = .285$, $SE = .073$, 95%CI (.139, .430), $p = .000$), consistent with partial mediation.

Approximately 63.7% of the variance in PI was accounted for by the predictors ($R^2 = .637$). As shown in Table 4.7, results indicate that for A_{ad}, the indirect coefficient was significant ($B = .305$, $SE = .085$, 95%CI (.160, .490)). Results also indicate that for AT_{ad}, the indirect coefficient was significant ($B = .055$, $SE = .029$, 95%CI (.010, .124)).

The results of this mediation model suggest that the more (less) a person ethnically identifies with an ethnically similar advertisement, the more (less) positive their attitudes will be towards these advertisements (H₃) and towards the practice of targeted advertising (H₄). As well, the more (less) a person identifies ethnically with an advertisement, has a positive attitude towards an advertisement, or has a positive attitude towards the practice of targeted advertising, the more (less) likely their intention to purchase an advertised product (H₅, H₆, & H₇).

Table 4.6. Direct Effects on Purchase Intention

Variables	B	SE	t	p	95% CI
EI_{ad}	.285	.074	3.87	.000	(.139, .430)
A_{ad}	.684	.076	8.97	.000	(.533, .835)
AT_{ad}	.192	.065	2.97	.003	(.064, .320)

Notes: B = Regression Coefficients; SE = Standard Error; t = Population t value; p = Probability value; CI = Confidence Interval. $R^2 = .637$, $F(3, 125) = 70.80$, $p = .000$

Table 4.7. Effects of EI_{ad} on Mediating Variables

Variables	B	SE	t	p	95% CI
A_{ad}	.446	.081	5.48	.000	(.285, .607)
AT_{ad}	.289	.096	3.02	.003	(.099, .479)

Notes: B = Regression Coefficients; SE = Standard Error; t = Population t value; p = Probability value; CI = Confidence Interval.

A_{ad}: $R^2 = .196$, $F(1, 125) = 30.06$, $p = .000$;

AT_{ad}: $R^2 = .069$, $F(1, 125) = 9.12$, $p = .003$

Table 4.8. Indirect Effects of X (EI_{ad}) on Y (PI)

Variables	B	SE	95% CI
TOTAL	.360	.088	(.211, .555)
A_{ad}	.305	.085	(.160, .490)
AT_{ad}	.055	.029	(.010, .124)

Chapter 5

Discussion & Implications

5.1. Introduction

The use of demographic and behavioural based segmentation as a method for targeting populations with appropriate advertisements to increase purchase intention is an extremely common practice in both traditional and modern marketing (Chudry & Pallister, 2002). Particularly in an online context, the use of demographic and behavioural data allows for precise targeting by advertising groups using stimuli most suited to specific individuals (Johnson & Grier, 2011). As a result, not only can products most likely to be purchased by targeted consumers be shown over products less likely to be purchased, but advertisements themselves can be altered to best fit certain groups, such as through the changing of language or spokesperson used. For these reasons, the use of ethnicity and cultural orientations as market segmentation tools has historically been extremely effective (Lindridge, 2015; O'Guinn & Faber, 1986;). As the use of this data has become more prevalent, however, consumers have become more aware of the practice, and thus more savvy to its application to themselves as individuals. While traditional advertising mediums (television adverts, billboards, and other physical means) necessitated that no individual could be specifically targeted beyond mail-in advertisements, the medium of the internet allows for precise targeted of singular consumers. Of particular interest to this field of research, then, is the development of novel methods of consumer segmentation within these data sets, as well as better understandings of the impact the use of such targeting methods may inherently have on consumer willingness to purchase advertised products.

To these ends, the primary purpose of this study was to examine the effects of acculturation and strength of ethnic identification on Asian identifying consumers' ability to identify with advertisements featuring ethnically similar models, as well as the influence of one's ethnic identification with an advertisement on one's intention to purchase products featured in such an advertisement. Secondly, this research aimed to investigate the influence of consumer awareness of targeted advertising practices on purchase intention of advertised products in the

context of being targeted based on one's ethnic or cultural background. To that end both of these objectives have been satisfied, the findings to be presented by this research providing some important theoretical contributions to the field of marketing and advertising research as well as managerial contributions to marketing as a business practice. Lastly, this study attempted to develop a more extensive conceptual model than those previously developed in similar studies, that effectively incorporates all variables measured in this research into a concise, easily understandable, and valid framework (Deshpande & Stayman; 1994; Johnson & Grier; 2011; Sierra, Hyman, & Torres; 2012). Similar to the previous objectives, it would appear that this goal has also been met.

5.2. Strength of Ethnic Identification & Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements

The findings of this study suggest that Asian identifying consumers that identify strongly with their ethnicity are more likely to ethnically identify with advertisements featuring Asian models than Asian consumers that have weak ethnic identification. In other words, the more an Asian consumer felt themselves to be members of the Asian community (i.e., through feeling pride in their membership or otherwise being happy of the fact they were "Asian"), the more likely they were to feel that an advertisement featuring an Asian model was relevant to themselves. Previous literature has shown similar results, though far more in the context of Hispanic and Black consumers than Asian consumers, and largely only in a North American setting, rather than similar, non-American, Western market contexts (Deshpande et al., 1986; Torres & Briggs, 2005; Elias et al., 2011). In particular, Appiah's (2001) study found that, in comparison to Black consumer with weak ethnic identification, Black consumers with stronger ethnic identification viewed themselves more similar to, and thus ethnically identified more strongly with, advertisements featuring Black characters. Appiah's (2001) study further found that where Black consumers tended to ethnically identify with an advertisement, their purchase intention of the advertised products tended to be larger in comparison to those who did not ethnically identify with the advertisement. This is relevant, as our study also suggests that Asian consumers that ethnically identify with an advertisement are more likely to have an increased purchase intention for the advertised product. These finding support previous research by Sierra, Hyman, & Torres (2012) and Elias, Appiah, &

Gong (2011) who also found similar relationships, though within Hispanic and Black consumers rather than Asian consumers in a non-Western context.

5.3. Acculturation & Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements

The second hypothesis of this study predicted a significant negative relationship between Asian identifying consumer acculturation and their ethnic identification towards advertisements featuring ethnically similar models. The findings of this study support this hypothesis, with results showing that Asian consumers who identify more strongly with their Asian culture (Low Acculturation) are more likely to ethnically identify with advertisements featuring Asian models than Asian consumers who identify with New Zealand/Western culture (High Acculturation). Though no previous studies have investigated the relationship between acculturation and ethnic identification with advertisements in the past, studies such as those done by Li, Wang, & Xiao (2019) and Balidemaj & Small (2018) have previously supported evidence that acculturation level among ethnic minority groups may significantly influence psychological factors related to ethnic identification, such as psychological well-being and stress. As well, consumer behaviour research has previously found evidence supporting acculturation level as a significant predictor of consumer intent to purchase luxury (or non-luxury) products (Wang, Joy, Belk, & Sherry, 2019) and willingness to engage with ethnic (or non-ethnic) businesses (Chai & Dibb, 2014). With these studies in mind, the results of this research find support for previous application of acculturation to consumer behaviour and ethnic minority psychology.

5.4. Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements, Attitude towards Advertisements, & Attitude towards Targeted Advertising

The fourth hypothesis of this study predicted that Asian identifying consumers' attitude towards an advertisement would be significantly influenced by the degree to which they ethnically identify with the advertisement shown. The fifth hypothesis of this study proposed that, where consumers are aware of the practice of targeted advertising, their attitude towards this practice would be significantly influenced by the degree to which they ethnically identify with the advertisement shown. The results of this study support both of these hypotheses, having found empirical evidence that suggests that Asian consumers that ethnically identify with an

advertisement develop both a more positive attitude towards the advertisement and towards the idea of themselves being targeted by ads based on their ethnicity. In contrast, respondents who reported weaker ethnic identification towards an advertisement tended to also report more negative attitudes towards both the advertisement itself, as well as the practice of targeted advertising. Previous studies have similar results. Notably, Appiah's (2004) study regarding Black, online consumers and racially targeted websites and Holland & Gentry's (1999) study regarding Hispanic attitudes towards targeted advertising using more analogue methods. In both studies, results found that respondents who felt stronger ethnic ties towards advertisements (both physical and digital mediums) tended to display more positive attitudes towards being targeted. As such, the results of this study support these findings as applied to Asian identifying consumers. As well, previous studies have found evidence suggesting that ethnic minority consumers tend to respond more favourably to advertisements coded towards their ethnicity (i.e., through the use of an ethnically similar model or other visual/linguistic cues) (Butt & Run, 2012; Elias, Appiah, & Gong, 2011; Lau & Lee, 2018). Similarly, this study supports these previous findings.

5.5. Determinants of Purchase Intention

Hypotheses 3, 6, and 7 predicted, respectively, a significant positive effect of Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements, Attitude towards Advertisements, and Attitude towards Targeted Advertising on an Asian consumer's Purchase Intention for product shown in an advertisement featuring ethnically similar models. These hypotheses were supported by and validate previous research regarding all three of these relations. Regarding the efficacy of targeted advertising and the impact its use has on consumer purchase intention, these findings validate the results of previous studies (Johnson & Grier, 2011; Meyers & Morgan, 2013), in which this relationship was investigated in the context of advertising to a multicultural market and millennial, Black-American markets respectively. The added dimension of ethnically targeted advertising should be useful for future research in this area of marketing research. Regarding the relationship between ethnic identification towards an advertisement and purchase intention, the results of this study support the findings of previous research, such as Green's (1999) study of racial composition of advertisements and purchase intention among African-American consumers and Banna et al.'s more recent 2018 study conducting similar research in the context of consumers featuring dual

ethnocentric identities. Lastly, though the relationship between consumer attitudes and purchase intention is far and away the most heavily, previously researched area of this study, the results of this study nevertheless support and contribute to previous findings, particular in the context of Asian identifying consumers in Western markets (Eze & Lee, 2012; Kaushal & Kumar, 2016). In addition to supporting these previous studies, this paper has expanded upon their key findings by providing empirical evidence of these relationships in the context of ethnically identifying Asian consumers in New Zealand.

5.6. Mediating Roles of Attitude towards Advertisement & Attitude towards Targeted Advertisements

Previous studies have indicated that both consumer attitude towards advertisements and attitude toward the practice of targeted advertising have a positive effect on product purchase intention (Farahat & Bailey, 2012; Kaushal & Kumar, 2016). With this in mind, this study hypothesized that these variables, attitude towards an advertisements and attitude towards targeted advertising, would act as mediators for the effect of Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements (EI_{ad}) on purchase intention for Asian consumers in New Zealand. The results of this study support these hypotheses, though interestingly neither variable acted as a full mediator of the effect of EI_{ad} on Purchase Intention, rather both acted as partial mediators. Of the two, attitude towards advertisement was the stronger mediator in the relationship. This partial mediation relationship implies that there is not only a significant relationship between EI_{ad} , the mediating variables, and purchase intention, but also a direct relationship between EI_{ad} and purchase intention. These results further validate previous research regarding the positive relationship between EI_{ad} and consumer purchase intention (Butt & Run, 2012; Green, 1999; Sierra, Hyman, & Torres, 2012), implying that while attitude towards advertisements and targeted advertising are worth awareness in developing advertising campaigns, where consumer ethnicity is relevant, their ability to identify with an advertisement should remain an important factor of consideration.

5.7. Theoretical Implications

The results of this research reveal multiple theoretical contributions. Firstly, in re-examining the role of ethnicity in advertising in the context of Asian identifying consumers, this

research integrated all three theories of Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Social Identity Theory (SIT), and Distinctiveness Theory for a previously under-researched area of marketing literature into a model that could theoretically be applied to future research regarding other, similarly under-research ethnic consumer groups. At present, however, this research's contribution remains in applying this model to Asian identifying consumers in New Zealand. This, while perhaps limited in its current form, represents a noteworthy contribution to the greater field of ethnic advertising and targeted marketing.

Second, while previous studies have explored the role of attitude towards targeted advertising and ethnic identification on consumer purchase intention (Butt & Run, 2012; Johnson & Grier, 2015) separate from one another, this study is among the first to examine how the use of ethnicity as a targeting method affects consumer purchase intention when the user is aware that they, as an individual, are being targeted specifically based on their ethnicity. In the modern advertising landscape, it is relatively easy for advertising groups or businesses to gain access to demographic information about an individual and thus use that information for targeted advertising purposes. Not only through publicly available records, but as well from data given willingly by potential consumers online or through large data aggregators (Leon et al., 2013; Park & Skoric, 2017). By investigating the consumer attitude to this practice in the context of Asian identifying consumers, this research contributes to the answering of the question of whether engaging in this practice can influence consumer attitudes and thus impact purchase intention. This study, therefore, expands the Theory of Planned Behaviour and Distinctiveness Theory to online ethnic targeted advertising by suggesting that the practice of targeting ads using consumer ethnicities to appeal to their sense of inclusion and distinctiveness can impact the consumer's attitude toward the advertised product, thus influencing their purchase intention.

The results of this study contribute to existing literature regarding ethnic identification, acculturation, and the relationship between the two constructs. Studies have previously been conducted in which ethnic identity and acculturation status were found to share several developmental factors and consistently act as predictors of similar behavioural outcomes, particularly among first and second-generation ethnic minority immigrants (Matsunaga, Hecht, Elek, & Ndiaye, 2010). Such predictions include that of linguistic orientation, in which individuals exhibiting profiles of both weaker SEI and stronger acculturation (being more strongly attached to

Western culture) tend more towards English language use, even when use of an alternative, second language is known and available (Dailey, Giles, & Jansma, 2005); other studies have found similar relationships to perception of career barriers (Mejia-Smith & Gushue, 2017), psychological well-being (Balidemaj & Small, 2018; Chae & Foley, 2010), and attitudes towards therapy (Li, Marbley, Bradley, & Lan, 2016). The relationship between SEI and acculturation has been well established in psychology literature (Berry, 2005), as well as across a multitude of disciplines and applied to multiple ethnicities. The results of this study aim to contribute to the application of this relationship to marketing literature. Though the constructs of ethnic identity (Pires & Stanton, 2018) and acculturation (Gupta, 2013; Vijaygopal & Dibb, 2012) have been applied separately to marketing research in the past, the body of literature that employs both constructs simultaneously is somewhat lacking, considering the established relationship between the two (Jun, Ham, & Park, 2014; Shoham, Segev, & Gavish, 2017). This paper contributes to this body of research through the application of these constructs together to a novel area of marketing literature, that being ethnic identification with advertisements.

As noted in Chapter 3 of this paper, multiple scales used in this research are either modified versions of existing scales or scales which have seen little use outside of the research for which they were originally developed. Among this first group include the scale used to measure Acculturation, known as the SL-ASIA scale (Suinn, Ahoona, & Khoo, 1992). Though this scale has been previously used in multiple studies and found to show consistently high reliability and validity (Phillips et al., 2016), the version of the SL-ASIA scale used in this study was a novel version developed by Hashemi et al. (2020). Although Hashemi et al.'s (2020) study found their version to be valid, further use of the scale in other papers is necessary to properly test this. The application of this new version to this paper provides justification for its use in future studies, representing a contribution to the field of acculturation research. The scale used to measure Strength of Ethnic Identity is quite similar, as it too was developed from scale which had been previously adapted from its older version (Phinney's (1992) Multigroup Measure of Ethnic Identity) to a reduced version in a more recent study (Sierra et al., 2009). While Sierra et al. (2009) found the application of this reduced, 5-item version to be valid for the purpose of their study, applying to a similar, though significantly different context provides much needed insight into the applicability of this scale for future research.

The scales used to measure Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements and Attitude towards Targeted Advertising, both adapted from existing previous studies, have seen relatively little use in studies outside of those in which they were developed (Sierra et al., 2009; Samat et al., 2017), compared to measures such as the SL-ASIA scale or Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal's (1991) measure of Purchase Intention. Their use in this study, in finding that both scales display excellent validity and reliability as measures of their intended constructs, provide support to future studies which may wish to further investigate either of these variables in novel contexts.

Lastly, although the remaining measures of Attitude towards Advertisement and Purchase Intention were not significantly modified for this study, their application to a novel research context contributes to supporting their validity and reliability as measures for future papers regarding consumer behaviour.

5.8. Managerial Implications

The findings of this study have several implications for businesses and marketers, particularly those based in New Zealand. Firstly, the success of marketing across all platforms (both digital and physical) can largely be attributed to the accurate identification of market segments and precise targeting of these segments based on shared demographic pattern and interests (Kizgin, Jamal, Dey, & Rana, 2018). Of those methods of segmentation available to marketers, this study has identified both strength of ethnic identification and level of acculturation as significant contributors to consumer behaviour, and thus possible criteria by which consumers may be segmented.

Results of the study suggest that, when targeting Asian consumers that strongly identify with their ethnicity, products do not necessarily need to be supplemented by other sales promotions, so long as advertisements used are heavily Asian consumer oriented. As shown directly by this study, the use of identifiably Asian oriented models in advertising or sales promotion materials may be an effective means by which to appeal to Asian identifying consumers in Western markets. Though using Asian models is among the more straightforward methods of appealing to consumer ethnic identification, previous studies have shown that other visual cues such as language or cultural icons can be used to increase ethnic identification with an advertisement as well (Butt & Run, 2010; Butt & Run, 2012). In the case of weakly identifying consumers, the opposite is the

case. Use of ethnically coded visual cues or models should be scaled back, in favour of reliance on traditional sales promotions techniques, such as appealing to rational consumer behaviour regarding price and product utility.

Similar to strongly Asian identifying consumers, advertisers may attempt to appeal to groups of differently acculturated Asian consumers through the use of strongly or weakly ethnically oriented advertisements. Consumers that indicate higher levels of acculturation (highly Western identified) tended to have stronger English language proficiency (including speaking, reading, and writing). As a result, targeting groups of highly acculturated Asian-identifying consumers may see more success through the use of English based advertisements, as opposed to trying to appeal using Asian languages. In contrast, low acculturated (Highly Asian identified) Asian consumers may prefer being advertised to using Asian languages in advertisements. Alternatively, targeting bicultural groups (neither high nor low acculturation) may benefit from the use of both English and Asian languages in advertising materials, provided the targeted group is associated with the language. Incorporation of mainstream New Zealand culture and societal values in advertisements would likely see more success when applied to highly acculturated Asian consumers versus low acculturated ones. For example, food preference is a reliable determinant of consumer acculturation, indicating that the use of New Zealand oriented food in advertisements would likely be more appealing to highly acculturated consumers than low acculturated ones. Likewise, the use of Asian oriented foods in advertisements may be more effective in appealing to low acculturated consumers. It should be noted that this is not a recommendation to include cultural foods in all advertisements to appeal to certain acculturated groups and appropriate advertising context should still take precedence.

Due to the significant positive relationship found between EI_{ad} and purchase intention, the findings further suggest that using ethnically similar models in ads to target Asian consumers in New Zealand may be an appropriate and effective marketing strategy. Thus, at least for products similar to those in the study (i.e., clothing/fashion products), marketers might engage in this practice to better appeal to an Asian population that has shown significant growth between 2013 – 2018 and is likely to see continued growth over the next decade (Immigration New Zealand, 2013; Stats NZ, 2019). It should also be noted that a further analysis found that Ethnic Identification

towards advertisements was not significantly different between genders¹, indicating that marketers should not need to significantly alter strategy based on gender when targeting Asian consumers. Though the research was conducted with the digital marketplace in mind, marketers could try to place ads featuring ethnically similar models near areas where Asian consumers physically congregate, such as Asian supermarkets. Though Asian identifying consumers would be the target audience, advertisers should not need to worry about potentially alienating non-Asian identifying consumers who also frequent such locations, as previous research has found that while ethnically targeted advertisements tend to elicit positive attitudes from targeted ethnic consumers, non-targeted consumers tend to not be significantly deterred (Whittler, 1989; Johnson & Grier, 2015).

The mediating effects of Attitude towards Advertisements and Attitude towards Targeted Advertising on the effect of Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements on Purchase Intention imply that advertisers must take these factors into consideration even when engaging in advertising to ethnic groups using ethnic appealing strategies. The quality of an advertisement should not be ignored simply because using ethnically similar models is likely to increase purchase intention. As indicated by the items used to measure Attitude towards Advertisement in this study, consumers should still find advertisements impressive, attractive, appealing, etc. Outside of the use of ethnically similar models, advertisers should still strive to appeal both emotionally (through the use of pleasing imagery, music, messages, etc.) and rationally (through the use of logical persuasion and relevant facts) to consumers in order to maximize the effectiveness of their advertisements. Similarly, the opinions that targeted consumers have regarding the practice of targeting consumers based on ethnicity should be taken into consideration. Where targeted consumers display positive attitudes to being targeted, advertisers can be more overt with this practice, such as leveraging the fact that the advertisements (and thus products) are specifically intended to be shown to the individual viewing them. In line with Distinctiveness Theory, by appealing to individuals based on aspects of themselves they consider to be “distinct” targeted advertisements may ingratiate themselves to viewers. On the other hand, where consumers display more negative attitudes towards targeted advertising it may suit to be less obvious in the practice.

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¹ An independent samples t-test results indicates that there was not a significant difference in Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements scores between Males (M=5.11, SD=1.11) and Females (M=4.84, SD=1.14); $t(123) = 1.30, p = .198$.

The cause of this likely being that, despite appeals to what makes an individual distinct, the practice of targeted advertising may still be seen as an invasion of privacy to some, as indicated by previous research on the topic (McDonald & Cranor, 2010; Wang, Xia, & Huang, 2016), resulting in prevalent negative attitudes towards the practice.

A potential dilemma may arise in the process of considering the use of ethnic identity and culture as a means of segmenting populations for the purpose of targeted advertising. After all, one's self-image in regard to their ethnic and cultural background is often an important, personal attribute to which one may ascribe far more personal value than they might to their age, income level, or various behavioural tendencies (Spencer, 2014). Should a consumer consider this use of these personally valued attributes in marketing tools as distasteful, it is likely their attitude towards advertised products using this information would significantly drop, causing purchase intention to drop as well, a result which has been found to be true in this study. As such, it is necessary that, should marketing groups or advertisers use the results of this study in their own projects, the use of ethnicity and culture as a segmentation tool be relegated to those who strongly identify with their ethnicity or those who are weakly acculturated, as the results of this study indicate these groups to be the most likely to appreciate the use of their demographic variables as targeting tools, rather than to find their use distasteful.

Were one's attitude towards targeted advertising not significantly relevant to their consumption behaviour, or the relevance only minimal, it would be possible (if not particularly advisable) that marketers may simply ignore this aspect of targeted advertising and carry on as normal. However, the results of this study show that not only does consumer attitude towards targeted advertising significantly positively influence purchase intention of advertised products, but the relationship between the two is also quite large. As such, not only would ignorance of this relationship be inadvisable, but potentially quite destructive to marketing efforts should targeted consumers with negative attitudes towards the practice become aware of individual brand targeting, a potentiality becoming increasingly common with modern technology and information resources available to the common consumer. The first difficulty of understanding the impact attitude towards targeted advertising on consumer behaviour, then, may be overcome due to this and other studies on the topic. The second difficulty, however, lies in understanding how to avoid or otherwise treat more delicately those consumers who seem to actively dislike targeted advertising.

Though this research cannot necessarily adapt its findings to all forms of targeted advertising, it can be applied to situations in which consumer ethnic identification is concerned.

A practical method of direct measurement of attitude towards targeted advertising could be prohibitively cumbersome, as the only reliable method of which this researcher is aware would be through a similar survey as used in this research. Such a method would likely be prohibitively expensive and time consuming for most marketing or advertising groups (Schonlau, Ronald, & Elliot, 2002). Particularly considering modern cost-effective techniques for data collection would be difficult to apply (Kirtis & Karahan, 2011; Zahay & Griffin, 2010). The use of Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements as a predictor of Attitude towards Targeted Advertising, then, is extremely useful, particularly considering that significant predictors of Ethnic Identification towards Advertisements, being Strength of Ethnic Identification and Acculturation, are themselves measure-able using information generally made available through social media and other online presences (Hofstra & Schipper, 2018). Information such as country of birth, preferred foods, and engagement with cultural events may all fall within the boundaries of information available for collection (Lomborg & Bechmann, 2014; Stieglitz, Mirbabaie, Ross, & Neuberger, 2018) should such data be considered worth analysing.

Chapter 6

Limitations, Future Research, & Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

The present study provides important insight into the role of consumer ethnic identity and acculturation in influencing consumer behaviour in the context of ethnically targeted advertising. As well, the study contributes to understanding the role of awareness and attitude towards targeted advertising as it pertains to the use of one's ethnicity as a targeting tool. Despite the value of this information, the study is not without limitations. While none of these limitations are considered so significant that they undermine the results of this study, it is important to acknowledge their existence to provide areas of improvement for future studies. The following section will outline these limitations while providing possible solutions and directions which future research may take. Lastly, the conclusion of the study will be presented.

6.2 Limitations and Future Research

Sample Size and Respondent Profiles

The sampling methods and population sample size of the study, though adequate for the expressed goals of this study, could be improved in future research to gain deeper insights into the research problems, as well as providing greater practical applicability in real-world marketing efforts. While survey responses were gathered from a wide breadth of respondents with different education backgrounds, ages, and nationalities, a majority of the responses come from university students or university graduates in their early twenties to mid-thirties. While this sample may be representative of a relevant consumer population, it is not necessarily representative of Asian consumers within New Zealand as a whole. As a result, applications of this research to populations who do not fit within this age/education criteria may see significantly different results. This limitation is somewhat exacerbated by the limited sample size of 125 which, when paired with the limited sampling, may impede the generalisability of this research to the entire Asian population

in New Zealand. For identifying a major sub-group within a population (Asian identifying consumers in New Zealand) 125 should be considered acceptable (Delice, 2010). The main limitation comes from the variety of minor subgroups within this population. Delice's (2010) paper suggests that for each minor sub-group in a major sub-group population, one should acquire 20 to 50 samples. With a total sample size of only 125 and responses that are not equally distributed across potential minor subgroups, this requirement becomes difficult to meet. A contributing factor to this weakness likely comes from the methods used to acquire respondents, in which a mix of judgemental, convenience, and snowball sampling were used. Due to the relative difficulty in acquiring valid responses for this study with the resources available, these methods were considered acceptable. Nevertheless, as a consequence of their use, the results of this study may be influenced by respondent biases. To ensure external validity, future research should consider putting greater emphasis on gathering more and wider representing data with a more balanced proportion of both student and non-student samples. As well, to avoid volunteer and selection bias, future studies should aim to employ more probability sampling methods, to allow stronger inferences to be made regarding the Asian consumer population of New Zealand as a whole.

Model Phenotype

This study focused on the broad term of “Asian” consumers and made little distinction between self-identification as East Asian, South-East Asian, or any other more specific classifications of personal ethnic identity. While the general classification of “Asian” has been used in similar studies regarding ethnicity and is generally considered acceptable (Chattaraman & Lennon, 2008; Ha, Hums, & Greenwell, 2014), future studies may wish to investigate within-group differences between respondents of differing Asian nationalities. While this study did not acquire a sufficiently large number of responses from any single nationality to provide relevant insight into between nationality differences, it may be an area of interest to future research. Furthermore, it should be noted that for the purpose of this research, only two models were used as a means of ethnically appealing to Asian consumers (See Appendix A). While the results of the study show significant correlation between respondent ethnicity and choice of model ethnicity, observable physical trait differences exist between Asian nationality groups (Leow, 2017; Thai et al., 2020). In line with Social Identity Theory and Distinctiveness Theory, these phenotype differences may result in stronger consumer identification towards advertisements featuring models who possess

physical traits that more closely resemble those of both one's ethnic and nationality group. Future research may investigate this potentiality to determine if the personalization of advertisements beyond broad ethnic representation significantly influences attitude towards advertisements.

Product Advertised

Similar to limitations in model representation, this research was limited in the form and content of the advertisements shown, being only images presenting clothing as a low-involvement product. In its current form, although it has been argued that the research may be applied to various advertising situations, the generalisability of these findings to significantly altered circumstances may be limited. Previous research, such as Holmes & Crocker's (1987) study, have found that certain appeals tend to work best depending on the involvement of the product advertised. Specifically, low involvement products tend to benefit most from emotional appeals to the consumer, while higher involvement products tend to benefit from rational appeals. Both these findings may be relevant to this and future studies, as clothing (being a low involvement item) would be most benefitted from emotional appeals (such as using model ethnicity to influence consumer attitude. It is possible that the application of ethnically similar models to higher involvement products (such as appliances or vehicles) may result in weaker relationships between ethnic identification towards advertisements and purchase intention. Regarding the form in which the advertisements of this study were shown, previous studies have noted that online click through rates (CTR) for advertisements presented as a single image compared to advertisements presented as videos were significantly different, with images boasting higher CTRs than videos (Kong, Huang, Scott, Zhang & Shen, 2019). Lastly, this study did not control for the context in which respondents were exposed to advertisements, not portraying the advertisements as website banners, pop-ups, or other forms of online advertising. Therefore, future studies may extrapolate on the forms by which advertisements may be shown (i.e., video vs. still image), the methods by which consumers are exposed to the advertisements (i.e., website banner, pop-up ad, in-video advertisement, etc.), and the properties displayed in the advertised products (i.e., low-involvement vs. high-involvement products, explicitly ethnically associated vs. implicitly ethnically associated, etc.).

Available Language

For the purpose of acquiring a sufficient number of valid responses, the survey for this research was administered to any potential respondents who met two criteria: (1) ethnically self-identified as Asian and (2) were over 18 years old. Respondents were not limited to being members of a specific nationality (i.e., Chinese, Japanese, Vietnamese, etc.). To remove the necessity of translating the survey into multiple Asian languages, the survey was only available in English. Language use has previously been found to have a significant relationship with ethnic identity (Eastman, 1984; Lytra, 2016), as well as several of the questions regarding acculturation (language preference, reading preference, and writing preference specifically) allowed respondents to answer on a scale of 1 (uses only an Asian language) to 5 (uses only English). Due to the survey being available only in English, respondents were implicitly required to have a minimum understanding of the English language to complete it. As a result, the mean score for respondent Language Preference (3.16) indicates that most respondents considered themselves equally proficient in English and an Asian language. Respondents of the survey displayed a mean SEI score of 5.54 (skewed towards stronger SEI) and mean Acculturation score of 2.54 (skewed towards stronger Acculturation). While SEI scores are actually skewed towards stronger ethnic identification and Acculturation scores are only slightly skewed towards being stronger, it is possible that the requirement of English proficiency to complete the survey resulted in a respondent population displaying lower SEI and higher Acculturation scores than would be representative of the entire Asian identifying population of New Zealand. Future studies may remedy this weakness by administering the survey to only respondents who speak either English or one other Asian language, such as Japanese, requiring the survey to be available in only English and that other language. Should future studies similarly not bar respondents based on nationality, versions of the survey would otherwise need to be available in all expected languages of potential respondents.

Self-Report vs. Objective Measurement

Results of the study rely heavily on self-report responses (questions in which respondents are required to assess and report on personal characteristics) as opposed to objective measurements (such as questions regarding country of birth, time spent outside New Zealand, etc.). Though the use of self-report as a measurement for perceptual constructs such as attitudes and values is generally viewed as acceptable (Schmitt, 1994) and constructs such as ethnic identity and acculturation could be considered as such constructs, the use of self-report does still risk

respondent bias affecting the final results. Perhaps most relevant to the context of this study, social desirability bias (the tendency for one to answer self-report questions in a manner that portrays one's self in a positive or desirable manner) may occur among respondents who desire to consider themselves as strongly or weakly ethnically identified, while not actually being so. This weakness is difficult to remedy, as perceptual constructs are, by their very nature, difficult to measure objectively. The use of objective measurements (such as surname or place of birth) may be used to measure simpler constructs such as basic ethnic identification (i.e., Asian, European, Hispanic, etc.) (Ford & Harawa, 2010; Imai & Khanna, 2016), however these tend to be used primarily as estimates where personal identification is unavailable. Furthermore, at the time of writing, there do not exist reliable methods of objectively measuring more complex perceptual constructs like SEI and Acculturation. As such, it is the opinion of this author that some degree of potential respondent bias must be considered acceptable for the results of this study.

SL-ASIA Scale

This study took the unidimensional approach to measuring acculturation, making use of the SL-ASIA scale to do so. A recent criticism of the SL-ASIA scale is its use of the unidimensional approach to portraying acculturation, which critics claim does not sufficiently capture complex relationships between acculturation and other cultural variables (Abe-Kim et al., 2011; Phillips, King, Kivisalu, & O'Toole, 2016). However, other studies have found that this criticism is somewhat diminished by consistent reliable scores produced by multiple studies using the SL-ASIA scale among diverse populations (Phillips, King, Kivisalu, & O'Toole, 2016). Nevertheless, it is possible that future studies may wish to apply a measurement scale of acculturation which uses the bidimensional approach to investigate any complex relationships which the unidimensional SL-ASIA scale may be unable to capture.

Furthermore, it should be noted that the items used to measure acculturation in this study (Language Preference, Food Preference, Cultural Affinity, Generational Identity, & Cultural Interaction) are not necessarily the only items available for use. Though the SL-ASIA scale used in this study does not provide alternatives, other acculturation scales exist which have found success in the use of additional or alternative measurement items. These include Klonoff & Landrine's (2000) African American Acculturation Scale, in which ethnic cultural health and religious beliefs are including as measurements of acculturation; or Barry's (2001) East Asian

Acculturation Measure, in which questions relating to language preference go into more depth regarding the context in which language is used (i.e., in jokes, in poetry, at home, etc.). While the SL-ASIA scale was used in this study due to its historically high reliability in measuring acculturation among Asians, it is possible that alternative measurements of acculturation may be of use in future studies, and thus provide further avenues by which advertisers may appeal to differently acculturated groups.

6.3. Conclusion

The objective of this thesis was to expand upon existing literature regarding the relationships between consumer ethnic identification and acculturation, the use of ethnic models in advertisements, and the practice of targeted advertising itself. To achieve these objectives, this study gathered data regarding constructs from Asian identifying consumers living in New Zealand. This data was gathered through a survey using an experimental design based around respondent affiliation towards ethnically targeted test advertisements. From a quantitative analysis of survey results completed by these Asian identifying consumers, this study reached the conclusion that both strength of ethnic identification and acculturation serve as significant predictors of ethnic identification towards advertisements, which in turn can significantly influence consumer purchase intention of advertised products. Additionally, consumer attitude towards the practice of targeted advertising was shown to significantly influence purchase intention. These results indicate that the use of consumer ethnic identity and acculturation level may serve as a relevant segmentation tools for marketers and advertisers wishing to attract ethnic minority consumers in Western market contexts. These results also show, however, that the use of these variables as segmentation tools should not necessarily be done blatantly, as attitude towards the practice of targeted advertising may result in targeted consumers actively avoiding a brand they believe to be engaging in such practices.

Based on these conclusions, advertisers should strive engage in the use of more ethnically coded messages in advertising materials in markets that have shown to be increasing in ethnic minority consumers, such as in New Zealand with its rising Asian population. Rather than simply using consumer ethnicity as an indicator of ethnic identification towards an advertisement, advertisers may attempt to use consumer strength of ethnic identity and acculturation levels, which should

more accurately predict the effectiveness of ethnically coded advertisements (i.e., those which use ethnic models, language, visual/audio cues, etc.). Furthermore, as ethnic identification towards an advertisement was found to positively influence attitude towards targeted advertising, consumers who are expected to identify more strongly with an ethnically targeted advertisement may benefit from increased targeting using similar methods. Further research is needed to investigate these relationships, particularly as far as understanding more convenient means by which advertisers may measure these constructs. In closing, it is the opinion of this author that the results of this study indicate significant managerial and theoretical contributions to the fields of multi-cultural marketing and advertising.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Stimulus for Advertisements

Caucasian Male (Top-Left), Asian Male (Top-Right), Asian Female (Bottom-Left), Caucasian Female (Bottom-Right).

Appendix B: Recruitment Poster

Greetings,

We are conducting a research project to better understand consumer perceptions of targeted online advertisements and their use of ethnicity as a targeting tool. It should offer value for both advertisers and online consumers by examining these key factors, allowing for adjustments to marketing practices that better suit the preferences of the general consumer.

For the purpose of this survey, we are looking for **people who consider themselves as East or South-East Asians (Asian, Asian-New Zealander, Chinese-New Zealander, etc.)** who are **at least 18 years old**. If you meet both of these criteria, we encourage you to participate.

Would you have around 5 minutes of your time to help us by participating in our survey?
Here is a link to our survey:

Participants are provided with a QR code here

(Scan the QR code with your phone to bring you to the survey.)

Anyone who completes the survey can also enter to win **ONE of FORTY \$10 Mighty Ape Gift Vouchers!**

The methods employed in our study were approved by Victoria University's Human Research Ethics committee in Wellington: # 0000029357

Please feel free to share this survey with your networks.

Thank you very much,

Michael Allan

Appendix C: Recruitment Email

Hi There!

We are conducting a research project to better understand consumer perceptions of targeted online advertisements and their use of ethnicity as a targeting tool. It should offer value for both advertisers and online consumers by examining these key factors, allowing for adjustments to marketing practices that better cater to the average consumer's preferences.

Would you have around **5 minutes of your time** to help us by participating in our survey? Here is the link:

Participants are provided with an embedded url link here

For the purpose of this survey, we are looking for **people who consider themselves as East or South-East Asians (Asian, Asian-New Zealander, Chinese-New Zealander, etc.)** who are **at least 18 years old**. If you meet both of these criteria, we encourage you to participate.

Plus, anyone who completes the survey may also enter a raffle to win **ONE of FORTY \$10 Mighty Ape Gift Vouchers!**

The methods employed in our study were approved by Victoria University's Human Research Ethics committee in Wellington: # 0000029357

Please feel free to share this survey with your networks.

Thank you very much for your participation! Every response is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Michael Allan

Appendix D: Participant Information Sheet

Targeted Online Advertisements and Ethnic Identification

INFORMATION FOR PARTICIPANTS

You are invited to take part in this research. Please read this information before deciding whether or not to take part. If you decide to participate, thank you. If you decide not to participate, thank you for considering this request.

Who am I?

My name is Michael Allan and I am a Master's student in the School of Marketing and International Business at Victoria University of Wellington. This research project is work towards my thesis.

What is the aim of the project?

Targeted online advertisements are increasingly becoming involved in our day-to-day online experience. To the point where it is likely you are already aware of them and have formed some perception. The aim of this research is to understand the impact that the perception of being targeted by ads based on one's ethnicity has on one's opinion of and willingness to purchase from advertised brands.

Your participation will support this research by answering a survey regarding your demographic, your perception of targeted online advertisements, your ethnic background, and brand purchase intentions. This research has been approved by the Victoria University of Wellington Human Ethics Committee: # 0000029357

How can you help?

You have been invited to participate because you fit within the demographic I intend to study. If you agree to take part, you will be asked to complete a short survey. The survey will ask you questions about your perception of targeted online advertisements, opinions regarding your own ethnicity, and your willingness to purchase a brand that uses ethnicity as a marketing tool. The survey will take you 5-10 minutes to complete.

What will happen to the information you give?

This research is anonymous. This means that nobody, including the researchers will be aware of your identity. By answering it, you are giving consent for us to use your responses in this research. Your answers will remain completely anonymous and unidentifiable. Once you submit the

survey, it will be impossible to retract your answer. Please do not include any personal identifiable information in your responses.

What will the project produce?

The information from my research will be used in my Master's thesis. The results will also be disseminated in journal publications/conference presentations.

Consent

Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate. If you decide to participate in this research survey, you may withdraw at any time prior to your submission of the completed questionnaire.

By participating in this survey, you are indicating that you have read and understand both the above statement and the information given in the participant information sheet.

If you have any questions or problems, who can you contact?

If you have any questions, either now or in the future, please feel free to contact either:

Student:

Name: Michael Allan

University email address:

Supervisor:

Name: Fandy Tjiptono

Role: Senior Lecturer in Marketing

School: School of Marketing and International Business

Phone: -----

Email: -----

Human Ethics Committee information

If you have any concerns about the ethical conduct of the research you may contact the Victoria University of Wellington HEC Convenor: Associate Professor Judith Loveridge. Email ----- or telephone -----.

Appendix E: Main Survey

Qualtrics Survey Software

<https://vuw.ca1.qualtrics.com/Q/EditSection/Blocks/Ajax/GetSurveyPrin...>

English ▾

Main Survey

This research has been approved by the Pipitea Subcommittee of the Human Ethics Committee - Reference #: 0000029357.

Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You may choose not to participate. If you decide to participate in this research survey, you may withdraw at any time prior to your submission of the completed questionnaire.

By selecting "I Agree", you are indicating that you have read and understand both the above statement and the information given in the participant information sheet. If you have not read the information sheet, please do so [here](#).

- ☐ I Agree
☐ I Do Not Agree

Age

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

Gender

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female
- ☐ Non-binary / third gender
- ☐ Prefer not to say

Ethnicity (Choose all that apply)

- ☐ Asian
- ☐ European
- ☐ Māori
- ☐ Pacific Peoples
- ☐ Middle Eastern
- ☐ Latin American
- ☐ African
- ☐ Other

Nationality (Choose all that apply)

- ☐ New Zealander
- ☐ Australian
- ☐ American
- ☐ Chinese
- ☐ Japanese
- ☐ Korean
- ☐ Malaysian
- ☐ Taiwanese
- ☐ Vietnamese
- ☐ Hong Kong
- ☐ Indonesian
- ☐ Thai
- ☐ Other

Country of Birth

- ☐ New Zealand
- ☐ Other

Country of Parents' Birth (Choose all that apply)

- ☐ New Zealand
- ☐ Other
- ☐ Other

Age of Immigration to New Zealand

- ☐ Under 6
- ☐ 6-12
- ☐ 13-17
- ☐ 18 - 24
- ☐ 25 - 34
- ☐ 35 - 44
- ☐ 45 - 54
- ☐ 55 - 64
- ☐ 65 - 74

Cumulative Time Spent Outside of New Zealand

- ☐ Less than 6 months
- ☐ 6 months - 1 year
- ☐ 1 - 2 years
- ☐ 2 - 5 years
- ☐ 5 - 10 years
- ☐ 10 - 20 years
- ☐ 20+ Years

Education Level

- ☐ Less than Secondary Education
- ☐ Secondary School Graduate
- ☐ Some University
- ☐ Bachelor's Degree
- ☐ Honors Degree
- ☐ Master's Degree
- ☐ Doctorate

Please review the following clothing advertisements

Participants are presented with advertisement stimuli here (See Appendix 1)

Please choose which ad you believe best represents your demographic

- ☐ Ad 1
☐ Ad 2
☐ Ad 3
☐ Ad 4

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements for your chosen ad

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I feel attached to the ad shown to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel affiliated to the ad shown to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I can relate to the ad shown to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I can associate with the ad shown to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel like the ad shown was intended for me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Imagine you have just signed up for a social media account, on which you have provided information regarding your demographic (Age, Nationality, Education Level, Gender, etc.). Several days later while using this social media website, you see a noticeable increase in ads similar to the one you chose. You realize that the information you provided is being used to display advertisements that have been specifically targeted at you. Please indicate your agreement with the following statements

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I would feel okay about this type of advertising	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would not be bothered by this type of advertising	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would be interested in products shown in this type of advertising	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would feel this type of advertising can be helpful to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would be annoyed by this type of advertising	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would not like this type of advertising	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements for your chosen ad

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I find the ad shown appealing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I find the ad shown believable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I find the ad shown impressive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I find the ad shown attractive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I find the ad to my overall liking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements for your chosen ad

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
If I were going to purchase a clothing product, I would consider buying this advertised product	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I were shopping for new clothing product, the likelihood I would purchase this advertised product is high	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My willingness to buy the advertised clothing product would be high if I were shopping online	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The probability I would consider buying the advertised clothing product is high	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements

	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I have a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a strong sense of belonging to my ethnic group	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group and its accomplishments	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

What Language Can You Speak?

- ☐ Asian only (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, etc.)
☐ Mostly Asian, some English
☐ Asian and English about equally well (Bilingual)
☐ Mostly English, some Asian
☐ English Only

What is your movie preference?

- ☐ Almost exclusively Asian movies
- ☐ Mostly Asian, some Non-Asian movies
- ☐ Equally Asian and Non-Asian movies
- ☐ Mostly Non-Asian movies
- ☐ Almost exclusively Non-Asian movies

Do you...

- ☐ Read only an Asian language? (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, etc.)
- ☐ Read an Asian language better than English?
- ☐ Read both an Asian language and English about equally well?
- ☐ Read English better than an Asian language?
- ☐ Read only English?

Do you...

- ☐ Write only an Asian language ?(e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, etc.)
- ☐ Write an Asian language better than English?
- ☐ Write both an Asian language and English about equally well?
- ☐ Write English better than an Asian language?
- ☐ Write only English?

What is your...

	Exclusively Asian food	Mostly Asian food, some New Zealand food	About equally Asian and New Zealand food	Mostly New Zealand food, some Asian food	Exclusively New Zealand food
Food preference at home?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Food preference at restaurants?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

If you consider yourself a member of the Asian group (Asian, Asian New-Zealander, Chinese-New Zealander, whatever you prefer), how much pride do you have in this group?

- ☐ Extremely proud
- ☐ Moderately proud
- ☐ Little pride
- ☐ No pride, but do not feel negative towards the group
- ☐ No pride and do feel negative towards the group

How would you culturally rate yourself?

- ☐ Very Asian
- ☐ Mostly Asian
- ☐ Bicultural
- ☐ Mostly Westernized
- ☐ Very Westernized

Do you participate in Asian occasions, traditions, holidays, etc.?

- ☐ Nearly all
- ☐ Most of them
- ☐ Some of them
- ☐ A few of them
- ☐ None at all

Please answer the following questions.

	Asian	Mostly Asian, somewhat New Zealander	Asian-New Zealander	Mostly New Zealander, somewhat Asian	New Zealander
How do you identify yourself?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Which identification does (did) your father use?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Which identification does (did) your mother use?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Where were you raised?

- ☐ In Asia only
- ☐ Mostly in Asia, some New Zealand
- ☐ Equally in Asia and New Zealand
- ☐ Mostly in New Zealand, some Asia
- ☐ In New Zealand only

What was the ethnic origin of the friends you had at the following ages?

	Almost exclusively Asians or Asian-New Zealanders	Mostly Asians or Asian-New Zealanders	Equally Asian groups and Non-Asian groups	Mostly Non-Asian groups	Almost exclusively Non-Asian groups
Below age 6	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ages 6-18	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Rate yourself on how strongly you believe in Asian and New Zealand values regarding things such as marriage, education, family, etc.

	Strongly Believe	Mostly Believe	Moderately Believe	Somewhat Believe	Do not Believe
Asian values	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
New Zealand (Western) values	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Rate yourself on how well you fit with the following groups.

	Fit in Very Well	Mostly Fit in	Moderately Fit in	Somewhat Fit In	Do not Fit in
Other Asians of the same ethnicity	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
New Zealanders who are non-Asians (Westerners)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix F: Redirect Email Survey

Qualtrics Survey Software

<https://vuw.ca1.qualtrics.com/Q/EditSection/Blocks/Ajax/GetSurveyPrin...>

Email "Survey"

Would you like to receive the results of this study at its completion?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

Would you like to enter a raffle for one of forty \$10 Mighty Ape gift vouchers?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

Please provide an email address to which the results of this study or a gift voucher (or both) can be sent in the future.

Any email address provided will not be used or shown in the research report and will only be used to send you the results of this study.

If you do not wish to provide an email address, you may click forward to end this survey.

Powered by Qualtrics

Appendix G: Construct Table

No.	Construct/Variable (α)	Definition	Measurement Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Reference
1	Level of Acculturation (.91)	“The process by which individuals adopt the attitudes, values, customs, beliefs, and behaviours of another culture”. (Abraido-Lanza, Armbrister, Florez, & Aguirre, 2006, p.52)	Suinn-Lew Asian Self-Identity Acculturation Scale (SL-ASIA)			(Suinn, Ahuna, & Khoo, 1992) (Hashemi, Marzban, Sebar, & Harris, 2020)
	Language & Cultural Preference (.79)		1) Language Written 2) Language Spoken 3) Language Read 4) Movie Preferred	3.06 3.10 3.10 3.37	.91 .80 .83 1.15	
	Interaction (.77)		1) Childhood Friends 2) Adolescent Friends 3) Where Raised	2.07 2.19 2.42	1.42 1.26 1.64	
	Generational Identity (.71)		1) Self-Ethnic Identity 2) Paternal Ethnic Identity 3) Maternal Ethnic Identity	1.92 1.43 1.43	1.04 .86 .86	

	Affinity for Ethnic Identity & Pride (.70)		1) Participation in Ethnic Traditions	3.42	1.56	
	Food Preference (.71)		2) Self-Rate Culture	2.46	1.18	
			3) Pride in Ethnic Membership	2.06	.89	
			1) Food preference at home.	2.22	.81	
			2) Food preference at restaurants	2.57	.99	
2	Strength of Ethnic Identification (.92)	The degree to which one affiliates themselves with an ethnic group (Deshpande et al., 1986)	1) I feel a strong attachment to my own ethnic group.	5.22	1.39	(Sierra et al., 2009) (Phinney, 1992)
			2) I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background.	5.86	1.10	
			3) I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group and its accomplishments.	5.84	1.16	
			4) I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.	5.36	1.39	
			5) I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.	5.43	1.33	

3	Ethnic Identification towards Advertisement (.86)	The degree to which one perceives an advertisement to represent their ethnic group and therefore themselves. The stronger one's ethnic identity, the more likely they are to identify with an ethnically similar advertisement. (Lau & Lee, 2018).	1) I feel attached to the ad shown to me.	4.71	1.34	(Sierra et al., 2009)
			2) I feel affiliated to the ad shown to me.	4.87	1.37	
			3) I can associate to the ad shown to me.	5.02	1.33	
			4) I can relate to the ad shown to me.	5.10	1.28	
			5) I feel like the ad shown was intended for me.	5.09	1.48	
4	Attitude towards Targeted Advertising (.86)	A predisposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to advertisements using this particular exposure method.	1) I would feel okay about this type of advertising.	4.97	1.45	(Samat et al., 2017)
			2) I would not be bothered by this type of advertising.	4.74	1.61	
			3) I would be interested in products shown in this type of advertising.	4.64	1.48	

			4) I would feel this type of advertising can be helpful to me.	4.63	1.44	
			5) I would be annoyed by this type of advertising.	3.75	1.47	
			6) I would not like this type of advertising.	3.64	1.47	
5	Attitude towards Advertisement (.88)	A predisposition to respond to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure experience. (Mackenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986; Biehal, Stephens, & Curlo, 1992)	1) I find the ad shown ad appealing. 2) I find the ad shown believable. 3) I find the ad shown impressive. 4) I find the ad shown attractive. 5) I find the ad to my overall liking.	4.93 4.95 4.41 4.77 4.68	1.14 1.32 1.31 1.44 1.38	(Holmes & Crocker, 1987) (Sierra et al., 2009)
6	Purchase Intention (.91)	A kind of decision making that studies the reason to buy a	1) If I were going to purchase a clothing product, I would	4.56	1.45	(Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991)

		particular brand/product by a consumer (Shah et al., 2012). A situation where a consumer tends to buy a certain product in a certain circumstance (Morinez et al., 2007)	consider buying this advertised product. 2) If I were shopping for new clothing product, the likelihood I would purchase this advertised product is high. 3) My willingness to buy the advertised clothing product would be high if I were shopping online. 4) The probability I would consider buying the advertised clothing product is high.	4.41 4.38 4.37	1.45 1.57 1.51	