

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

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*This chapter presents the theoretical framework for this thesis, concerned with the concept of Country of Origin image, Attitude and Purchase Intention. In the end of the chapter conceptual framework and a hypothesis with relevance to the theoretical framework is outlined.*

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#### **2.1. Country of Origin**

The definition of country of origin was defined broadly by many researchers. Zhang (1997) referred country of origin as “information pertaining to where a product is made”. Watson & Wright (1999) stated the definition of country of origin that “a positive or negative influence that a product’s country of manufacturer may have on consumers perceptions or their decision making process or subsequence behavior”. Cordell (1992) defined the meaning of Country of Origin that it constitutes as extrinsic cue that indicate quality and reduce the risks to consumers. It includes intangible elements of products such as price, brands, and warranty. This is opposite to intrinsic cue, which is tangible or physical element of product such as flavor, design and color. From these definitions above, it can be summarized that the country of origin means a country where goods are manufactured.

##### **2.1.1. Country of Origin Image**

COO image is the stereotypic perception that consumers hold toward the country’s representative products or brands (Nagashima, 1970; Roth & Romeo,

1992; Bluemelhuber et al, 2007). Roth & Romeo (1992) investigate COO image in association with product categories and define it as consumers' understanding of a country which is based upon their prior product perception of the strengths and weaknesses of the production and marketing of the product from that country. Prior research indicates that consumers may hold different appraisals related to products from different countries, thus significantly influencing their purchase intention (e.g. Schooler, 1965; Roth and Romeo, 1992; Yasin et al., 2007).

### **2.1.2. Country image and country of origin image**

Nagashima (1970, cited in Roth & Romeo, 1992) initially defined country image as the picture, the reputation and the stereotype that consumers stick with products of a specific nation. This image is built by national characteristics, economic, political background, history and traditions.

Country image was defined by Narayana (1981, cited in Roth & Romeo, 1992) as aggregate image of products of a specific country where consumers perceive. Knight & Calantone, 2000) also defined the country of origin as the reflection of general customer perceptions about the quality of goods which produced in a particular country and the nature of people from the given country.

Therefore, the definition of country image is summarized as the perception of customers on products, which created, based on the previous perception of countries in term of its production including strength and poor performance in the market.

If we analyze the definitions of country image by different authors we can perceive a certain mixture of different country image concepts. Studies on country

image operate on three relatively distinct conceptual grounds: (1) product image (PI) (2) country image (CI) and (3) country of origin image (COO or CoI), Those three constructs are closely related to each other, substantially overlap and (directly or indirectly) influence each other (based on Malota, 2001; Roth Diamantopoulos, 2009).

Therefore adopting the previously mentioned three country image concepts one can differentiate three main types of country image definitions according to their content: (1) overall country image definitions, (2) product-country image definitions and (3) definitions of product image related to countries. Research on country image has differentiated from product CI research since the 1980's. This new approach considers that country image has a considerable influence on products' country image (Papadopoulos et.al. 1988; Han, 1990; Heslop et.al. 2004; Elliott et.al., 2011).

The first category of country image definitions is that of overall country image definitions. To define country image, these consider the factors leading to the formation of country image, that is, they view the evaluation of a nation as the overall effect of a country's economic and political development, cultural and historical heritage and other factors (see also Bannister Saunders, 1978; Desborde, 1990; Allred et. al., 1999).

The second and third groups of definitions are actually a subdivision of country of origin effect (COO) into two distinct categories, according to whether the country or the product is in the focal point of the study. There is no common ground in the literature for this division and there are no common notations for the

concepts involved either. Papadopoulos & Heslop (1993) in their study note that the use of the product country image construct is more appropriate as it has a wider scope and therefore renders a more precise meaning to the notion than the country of origin or the made in references (Papadopoulos & Heslop, 1993).

The second group therefore in the literature is that of product country image (PCI) definitions. These include, beyond the country's proper image, the image of the country's typical products. All this leads to an approach according to which country image and product image are to be considered as two different although related concepts. Country image influences the image of a product originating from that country. There is evidence in the literature on the existing relationship between consumer preference towards given product and consumers' perceptions of CI. In this approach a special attention is paid to the effect of CI rather than to the formation of the product image evaluation.

The third category of definitions solely focuses on the image of products originating from a given country. The first definition was given by Nagashima (1970). Although in his definition the author refers to the concept of "country" when defining the attributes of image, he actually only describes the image of given products originating from that country. In this case the aforementioned image concept can rather be referred to as a product image instead of a country of extant COO studies focuses on product images. And in this research authors is proposing to use second group. First, to learn about consumers perception about chosen countries image and then continues by evaluating consumer's perception, attitude and purchase intention on apparel products from chosen countries. Past

research shows that the image associated with country of origin plays a significant role in consumer perception of products, country of origin being considered a signal that enables consumers to make instant decisions when more versatile and comprehensive information is not available (Grazin & Olsen, 1998). In other words, country of origin is considerably important when the consumer is not familiar with the product and needed information is not available.

Regarding country preference many studies noticed that there is a difference among country development and product perception, for example Samie (1994) shows that consumers from high developed countries prefer local products instead of imported ones; in addition to this, those consumers prefer products from culturally similar countries in cases when a local product is not available.

On the other hand, in the case of the consumers from lower developed countries, a preference for imported products can be noticed. It is considered that country of origin image reflects the social status that the product brings to consumers from higher developed countries. The consumer admiration for high developed countries lifestyle is transferred to the products from those countries (Batra et al, 2000, p. 83).

Looking at all the academic finding in the area, the authors of this study wonders if there is a correlation between academic research and marketing practices. The majority of the studies show that country of origin is an important cue in product evaluation but in reality seems that the number of companies that have their products manufactured in China is increasing, as the news sites are

writing: *“Like many other international luxury brands, Armani has contracts with manufacturers in China. As usual, the contract clothing makers get from 1% to 3% of the final sale”* (The Guardian, 2012).

All this brings up the curiosity if consumers really consider the place of manufacturer in their buying decision. An important aspect that is rarely taken into consideration is the difference between the “made in” label and the “country of origin”. Consumers think about Lamborghini as an Italian car even if it is not owned by an Italian company and about Nike as an American product even when they are produced in China (Usunier, 2006, p. 64). An explanation for this might be the companies’ efforts for hiding unfavorable country of manufacturer or that consumers just do not consider important where a product is manufactured if they trust in brand and its origins.

The gap identified by the author, who is also approached in this project, concerns the fact that the concept of country of origin is not clearly differentiated from the one of made-in country and no study showed empirically the difference reflected in consumer perception regarding the two concepts, many of the studies being applicable in the cases where country of origin is also the place where the manufacturer takes place.

### **2.1.3. Country of Origin Effect**

There are many published researches on consumers’ buying behaviour regarding the country of origin. So it is not surprise to find different conclusions of the COO effects, in which some of them appear to contradict one another.

There is an attempt to explain the contradictory conclusions of the COO effects that have constrained the generalisability of findings, theory building and the overall usefulness of findings to marketing practitioners. By examining past studies, Bhaskaran & Sukumaran (2007) suggested that the contradictions are often the consequence of different contextual, sampling frames, methodological underpinnings, and timing.

Generally, marketers and consumer behaviour researchers accept that a product's country of origin is significant in consumer decision making (Piron 2000). It has been found to influence consumers' evaluative reactions to products (Bilkey & Nes 1982). More significantly, Papadopoulos et al. (1991) asserted that the effects of COO can lead to consumer preferences from one country over another. And also, the COO effects were found to include some tendencies. One of the tendency is the tendency for consumers to evaluate their own country's products more favourably than imported products (Bilkey & Nes 1982; Kaynak & Cavugil 1983; Nagashima 1970, 1977). This bias tendency is well-known as consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp & Sharma 1987). However, Bilkey & Nes (1982) found that, for many consumers, the effect of product evaluation bias can be offset by price concessions. Kaynak & Cavugil (1983) had generated similar results. They studied consumers' perceptions of different product classes from 25 countries and found that respondents generally held positive attitudes towards products made in their own country. Nevertheless, the same respondents could be swayed to choose imported products if quality and price considerations were sufficiently favourable. Further, the researchers concluded that consumers may

not accept inferior quality domestic products when superior foreign products are available and additionally, consumer attitudes toward products of foreign origin vary considerably across product categories (Kaynak & Cavusgil 1983).

Other studies further suggest a hierarchy of effects among countries as they found a relationship between COO, the level of economic development and the perceived superiority of the products (Cordell 1991; Wang & Lamp 1983). According to Wang & Lamp (1983), products from developed countries are often perceived as more superior to products from developing and less developed countries. The reasons behind these perceptions are largely accredited to the economic, cultural and political systems of the source countries (Wang & Lamp 1983). Similar result is stated in the study of Nes & Bilkey (1993). The researchers found that products from developing and less developed countries were rated lower on quality and higher in risk regardless of brand name (Nes & Bilkey 1993). For this reason, the COO effects can also act as intangible barriers to enter new market for firms from less developed countries in the form of negative bias held by consumer toward imported products (Wang & 1983). Nevertheless, Nes & Bilkey (1993) reported that a well-known brand name would lead the product made in less developed country to be perceived as being high quality and lower risk than if the brand name is unknown or not given. Therefore, negatively perceived COO can be overcome in a situation where other important information of products is available (Acharya & Elliott 2001).

The relationship between culture similarity and the COO effects has been researched widely (Heslop et al. 1998; Johansson et al. 1985). These researchers

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

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

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

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

#### **2.1.4. The importance of Country of Origin.**

To construct the perception about country of origin, there are brand and country image over and above the perceived attributes of products. Changes in the constructed perception of consumers about country of origin occur over time. For example, during 1950 consumers considered “made in Japan” label as a cheap imitation of products. Later on, Japan manufacturers improved the production to knowledge-intensive products and enhance the product image. In these days consumers perceive “made in Japan” label as a high quality product, high innovative and high technology advanced production. (Lampert & Jeffe, 1998)

The perceptions constructed about country of origin have influence on price setting. The effect of product image can be measured by the ratio of two brands' prices within the same categories of the products that much more due to marketing than to economic variables. (Lampert & Jeffe, 1998) Since consumers more trust in the country of origin, many brands create its differentiation by using specific demographics such as state, city and region to reference the country of origin. Moreover locations can be also used to create product's such as California Peaches, Idaho Potatoes and put the origin with the brands name such as Bailey's Irish Cream (Keller,1998) that increase reliability and charge price of products.

## **2.2. Attitude**

Schiffman & Hansen (2008) stated that attitude is inclination that occurs from acquisition of knowledge which cause satisfied and dissatisfied of behavior expression toward something individually. It also can be the expression of feelings that reflect satisfaction or dissatisfaction individual toward brands, service, and retail establishment, including the country of origin. Furthermore, attitude cannot be noticed obviously, however, it can be noticed from consumer behavior and also by their words.

There are two more concepts of attitude which are supported the idea of Schiffman & Kanuk; East (1998) quoted that attitude is individual measurement toward brands, product category, person or attitude. Peter & Olson (1994) stated that attitude is general measurement toward individual concepts, which mostly are object and behavior.

As mentioned above, there are a few different in definitions of attitude between those theories. Some said that attitude is only about feelings; however, some said that attitude is all about idea, understanding, and feeling. Nevertheless, the general definition of attitude is mainly mentioned about the relation between knowledge, feeling and behavior.

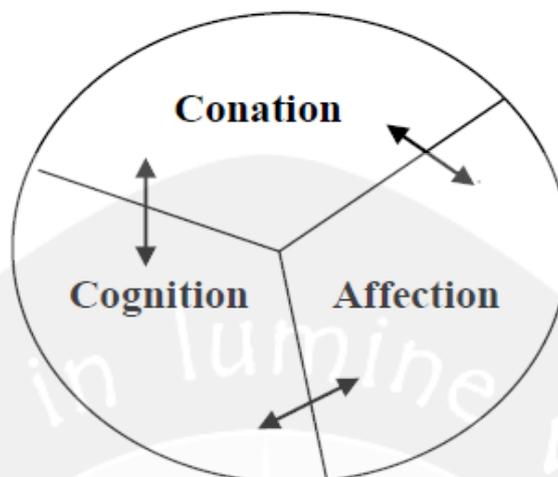
### **2.2.1. Components of Attitude**

In these days, there are two principle concepts of components of attitude which are tricomponent attitude and unidimensionalist view of attitude. However, only tricomponent concept is related to this research.

According to tricomponent attitude model, attitude consists of three components (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2008), which are;

- a) The cognitive component - Cognitive will occur from both knowledge and perception which a person has direct experience toward person's attitude and also relevant information from many sources. According to that, it can be shown that knowledge and perception can build trust in consumer mind later on.
- b) The affective component –Affective is emotions or feelings that a person evaluates toward products or brands which are satisfied or dissatisfied. The evaluation will be different as the case of characteristic and central value of each person.
- c) The conative component – Conative is consists of how the individual is likely to respond to object based on his or her knowledge and feeling.

These three components are related and affected to each other, which can be said that if a consumer believe and has positive attitude toward object or brand, then affection will be occurred and it will cause positive intention to buy toward the object or brand eventually.



**Figure 2.1: Simple Representation of Tricomponent Attitude Model**

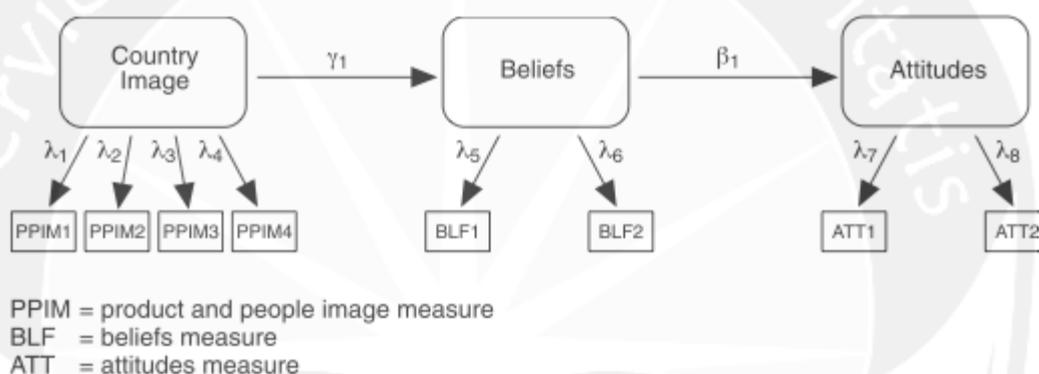
**Source: Schiffman & Kanuk & Hansen, 2008 p.251**

However, East (1998) contradict that inconsistency of three components model can cause the problem when predicting consumer's behavior. East argued that purchasing behavior is not always occurring from affection because attitude and behavior is not related or independent from each other. For example, a person who does not like the product can be purchaser as in the case of buying a present or gift for someone else. On the other hand, a person who likes the product probably is not buying the product due to some reason.

### **2.2.2. The Relationship between Country of Origin and Attitude.**

Knight & Calantone (2000) suggested that consumer perceptions of a product's country of origin image are based on three components. First is cognition that include knowledge about specific products and brands. Second is affect or favorable attitude about home country's goods. And the last is conation that are related to ultimate purchase behavior with the sourcing country.

Han (1989, cited in Knight & Calantone, 2000) explained consumers' behavior toward country of origin image through halo model. Halo model occurs when consumer is unfamiliar to the foreign products or low knowledge of the products. This model will be explained when consumer have low knowledge about the products, then country of origin image will be influenced consumer to have product attribute belief and in turn directly influence attitude toward the product.

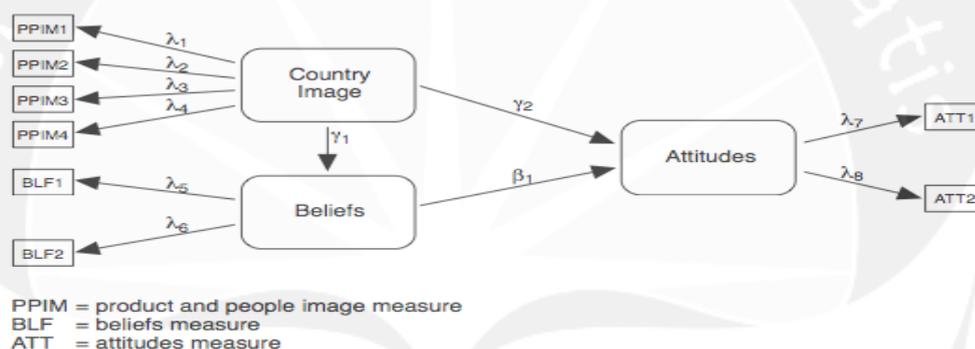


**Figure 2.2: Halo Model.**

**Source: Knight, G.A & Calantone, R.J, 2000 p: 129**

Based on the model above, country of origin image is created from measure of product and people image. For example, to measure product image of country of origin, researchers may ask that is this kind of product sold in many countries, or is there a lot of imitation of this kind of product. To measure people image of country of origin, researchers may ask that do citizens in a country have a good education, do they work hard, and do they use a high technology in producing the products. Thereby, product and people image in the country of origin combine into country of origin image.

Apart of the first model, there is another model called “flexible model” which extends and improves prior by Hans (Knight & Calantone, 2000). This model explained that country of origin image can be influenced by attitude directly and also indirectly which is through belief. If consumer already familiar with the product, they tend to form the attitude by believing in the product attribute and country of origin image. On the other hand, if consumer has less knowledge about product, they will form the attitude by relying on country of origin stereotype.



**Figure 2.3: Flexible Model**

**Source: Knight, G.A & Calantone, R.J, 2000 p: 131**

### 2.3. Purchase Intention

Nowadays, there are many new plans on the international market to attract customers which create a highly competitive market. In this case, customers have various opportunities in buying products; however, there are plenty factors that have an influence on product accomplishment and consumer purchase intention. In accordance with Fishbein & Ajzen (1975), both of the best predictor of behavior and an unbiased predictor of action which is intention (Bagozzi,

Baumgartner & Yi, 1989; Chen, 2007). During 1940s-1970s purchase intention had been variously researched by the U.S. government (Young, De Sarbo, & Morwitz, 1998) and through the last 60 years, many researches have still judged this topic.

Some of scholars characterize purchase intention as personal action tendencies according to brand. They have also assumed that intention is diverse from attitude. While attitude means appraisal of products, intention is the person's actuation in the sense of his or her intention to perform behavior. Another definition argued that purchase intention is the individual's awareness to make an endeavor to buy a brand (Shabbir, Kirmani, Iqbal, & Khan, 2009).

Other researchers believe that purchase intention is "what we think we will buy" (Park, 2002). It also defines the feeling or perceived likelihood of purchasing the products that are advertised, furthermore, purchase express the degree of faithfulness to products. Other scholars like Daneshvary & Schower (2000) indicated that consumer purchase intention has a connection with demographic factors like age, gender, profession and education (Lu, 2007). Additionally, there is another statement which shows that especial feature of products, perception of consumers, country of origin and perception of country of origin, all have an impact on customer purchase intention (Wang, Li, Barnes, & Ahn, 2012).

### **2.3.1. The role of Purchase Intention**

What is more, marketing managers are concerned with consumer purchase intentions to forecast sales of new products and services. Purchase

intentions data can help managers to make a decision which related to product demand, market segmentation and promotional strategies.

A consumer's attitude and evaluation and external elements construct consumer purchase intention, and it is a decisive element to forecast consumer behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Purchase intention can measure the possibility of a consumer to buy a product, and the higher the purchase intention is, the higher a consumer's willingness is to buy a product (Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal, 1991; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Purchase intention is that consumers will accord to their acquaintance, preference and external environment to collect information, evaluate substitutes, and make decision in purchasing (Zeithaml, 1988; Dodds et al., 1991; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000; Yang, 2009).

Furthermore, consumer purchase intention originates from consumers' perception on benefits and values achievement, and it plays a vital role to predict consumer purchase behavior. In particular, Monroe and Krishnan (1985) submitted that purchase intention will be effected by perceived value and perceived quality, and the more perceived value and perceived quality, the stronger purchase intention is. In 1988, Zeithaml also suggested that the higher perceived value is, the higher purchase intention is.

#### **2.4. Consumption of Apparel**

Since the present study focuses on a specific product category, namely apparel, it is crucial to examine the consumption of clothing and the attributes of apparel considered by consumers when making purchase decisions.

In the past, the primary use of clothing was for protecting and covering human body. Nowadays the purpose of wearing clothes, however, has changed. Clothing becomes more than a basic necessity for human (Alexander et al. 2005). Many authors (e.g. Hollander 1978; Holman 1980; McCracken and Roth 1989; O’Cass 2004) have described the use of clothing as a code or a language which allows a message to be established and selectively understood (Auty and Elliott 1998). Auty and Elliott (1998) stated that the consumer verifies the existence of a clothing code and further demonstrates the significance of branding to the code. Thus, clothing has been turned into an instrument of communication for consumers (Noesjirwan and Crawford 1982). In addition, clothing also carries cultural and social meanings of the brand. As asserted by Marcoux et al. (1997), when the consumption product becomes a communication tool, image variables may be considered as the intangible attributes of the product that carry cultural and social meanings. These image variables emerge from the symbolism of advertising, the celebrity endorsement, the brand, and the COO of the product. The above are four cognitive representations individuals have of their environments (Marcoux et al. 1997). Consequently, clothing appears to represent social identity rather than personal identity (Noesjirwan and Crawford 1982). O’Cass (2000) supported that clothing can fulfil other functions besides warmth and protection. It involves indicating the importance of an individual, revealing to others an individual’s status, telling what an individual is like (O’Cass 2000), reflecting selfimage, expressing identity, and giving individuals a way to impress others (Beaudoin et al. 1998). Furthermore, Bearden and Etzel (1982) classified

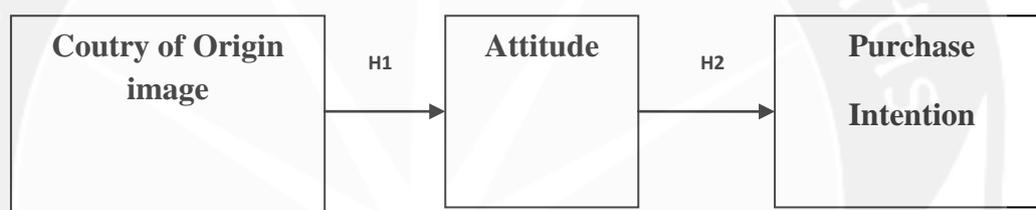
clothing as a public necessity where reference group influence on the product category is weak, but where reference group influence on the brand choice is strong. As clothing occupies a central position in many people's lives and has significant social functions and meanings as well as economic value in many societies (O'Casey 2004), understanding how people make different judgements about apparel is therefore important.

Apparel attributes are perceived differently by different consumers (North et al. 2003) because people tend to have different attitudes, values and expectations for wearing clothes, (Alexander et al. 2005). In an apparel purchase, a variety of criteria seem to influence consumers' evaluations and purchase intentions (North et al. 2003). Forsythe et al. (1999) pointed out that physical appearance of apparel products can be viewed as a multi dimensional construct, comprising both cognitive and affective dimensions, because apparel reflects a combination of cognitive cues (such as workmanship, fabric quality) and affective cues (such as style, design, fashionability).

North et al. (2003) indicated that price, care requirements, brand, product composition (i.e. style and color), store image, and advertising image are important considerations influencing consumers when purchasing clothing items. Dickerson (1982) researched the relative importance that consumers attach to five garment attributes, including price, care, country-of-origin, quality and style. Beaudoin et al. (1998) classified 12 attributes that associated with the overall attitudes when purchasing imported and domestic apparel products, namely: good fit, durability, ease of care, good price, comfort, quality, choice of colour,

attractiveness, fashionableness, brand name, appropriateness for occasion, and choice of styles. Wang and Heitmeyer (2006) adapted the instrument from Shim et al. (1989). The apparel attributes examined include care instruction, brand name, quality, fibre content, comfort, colour, attractiveness, fashionableness, good fit, good price, ease of care, suitability, and appropriate for occasion (Wang and Heitmeyer 2006). Eckman et al. (1990) asserted that price and brand are most frequently used attributes in consumer assessment of apparel.

## 2.5. Conceptual Framework



**Figure 2.4. : Conceptual Framework**

By reviewing different literatures we can conclude that country of origin image has influence to attitude directly. If consumer is already familiar with the product, they tend to form the attitude by believing in the product attribute and country of origin image. So it is any businesses duty to reduce the customer's uncertainty and make a good relationship based on belief which it created to its customers (Kim, Ferrin et al. 2003). On the other hand, if consumer has less knowledge about product, they will form the attitude by relying on country of origin stereotype.

Also researches showed that there is a positive relationship between attitude and purchase intention on products (especially foreign products) based on the findings of studies COO (Al-Sulaiti and Baker, 1998; Javalgy et al. 2005). Javalgy et al. (2005) stated the relationship between attitudes and buying behavior has been helpful in explaining the purchase of products with high involvement in CE studies (eg studies Herche, 1994; Kayna & Kara, 2002; Moon, 2002; Sharma et al., 1995; Watson & Wright, 2000). Machleit & Wilson also explained that intention is a cause of the future purchase by influence of attitude. Thus, a positive attitude toward the imported product from one country can be expected to influence the purchasing intentions of foreign products.

## **2.6. Hypothesis development**

Han (cited in Knight & Calantone, 2000) explained consumers' attitude toward country of origin image through halo model. Halo model occurs when consumer is unfamiliar to the foreign products or less knowledge about the products. This model indicate that when consumer have less knowledge about the products, then country of origin image will influence consumers to have a belief on products and it directly influence consumers' attitude toward the product.

For example, if consumer has less knowledge about the apparel brand named Versace that made in Italy, country of origin image will influence them to have a product belief. Especially if consumer has a positive attitude toward country image of Italy, they will believe that apparel from Italy supposed to be good and it will directly influence consumer to have the positive attitude toward the brand Versace. If consumer is already familiar with the product, they tend to

form attitude by believing in the product attribute. On the other hand, if consumer has less knowledge about product, they will form the attitude by relying on country of origin stereotype.

Based on the above literature the first hypothesis is developed as follows:

**H1a.** Uzbek consumers' perception on South Korean apparel products influence their attitude toward South Korean apparel products.

**H1b.** Uzbek consumers' perception on Turkish apparel products influence their attitude toward Turkish apparel products.

**H1c.** Uzbek consumers' perception on Uzbek apparel products influence their attitude toward Uzbek apparel products.

Many researches indicate that there is a strong relationship between attitude and purchase intention on product, especially on imported product. As it was mentioned above the relationship between attitudes and buying behavior has been helpful in explaining the purchase of products. Thus, a positive attitude toward the imported product from one country can be expected to influence the purchasing intentions of foreign products. Many other studies also found that attitude has a positive and significant effect on purchase intention. Machleit & Wilson explained that intention is a cause of the future purchase by influence of attitude. They also showed that factors that influence on the relationship between attitude and purchase intention. Purchase action does not always cause from intention but it can change by attitude. A survey reported that 60% of intenders and 17% of non intenders purchased cars eventually. It means that intention might

change due to the factors such as time and experience by changing their attitude. (Tirtiroglu & Elbeck, 2008). Also Goldsmith et al, (2000); Gresham & Shimp, (1985); Yi, (1990) stated that attitude has been found to play an important role in influencing consumer's purchase intention. Based on the above literature the second Hypothesis is developed as follows:

**H2a.** Uzbek consumers' attitude on South Korean apparel products influence their purchase intention toward South Korean apparel products.

**H2b.** Uzbek consumers' attitude on Turkish apparel products influence their purchase intention toward Turkish apparel products

**H2c.** Uzbek consumers' attitude on Uzbek apparel products influence their purchase intention toward Uzbek apparel products.