



The Mediating Role of Brand Love on The Relationship Between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Brand Loyalty with Structural Equation Modelling

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Abstract

Purpose

Main aim of this study is to examine the relationship among young consumers ethnocentrism, brand love and brand loyalty. The effect of coffee shop selection criteria and ethnocentric tendencies and brand love on brand loyalty is also studied among university students in this paper. Results of study show there is strong relationship among ethnocentric tendencies, brand love and brand loyalty.

The study aims to

Design/methodology/approach

Data was collected among 285 graduate and post graduate students in Aydın, Turkey. It was analyzed by using confirmatory structural equation modeling (SEM).

Findings

The study's findings indicate a significant relationship between ethnocentric tendencies, brand love, and brand loyalty. Additionally, brand love partially mediates the link between customer ethnocentrism and brand loyalty.

Research limitations/implications

The sample was relatively limited and it involved participants from only one of Aydın Adnan Menderes University students.

Keywords: consumer ethnocentrism, brand love, brand loyalty, structural equation modeling

1. INTRODUCTION

Coffee shop culture has been expanding over the past few decades, both internationally and in Turkey. Numerous local and international brands are in direct competition with one another. Most businesses, including coffee shops, aspire to have a strong brand that gives them an edge in the marketplace. As a result, the company experiences higher profit margins are less susceptible coming from external pressures and has more opportunity to build its brand. Brand loyalty offers firms several benefits. Customers who support a brand strongly express their opinions about it and tell their friends and family about it, which benefits the company financially and acts as a natural conduit for a promotion that attracts new clients. In this way, businesses provide time and cost savings to gain new customers. In the coffee shop market where competition is intense, it will be possible for a business to succeed through loyal customers connected with love.

Consumer ethnocentrism and brand loyalty are two variables that promote customer loyalty. An emotional and passionate attachment to a brand is known as brand love (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006). Strong emotional effects, which comprise a variety of experiences, are the primary cause of brand love, which also results in behavioral effects like brand loyalty (Langner, 2014).

The impact of ethnocentric tendencies on the context of cultural values has recently been studied in relation to whether or not cultural values influence brand preference. Wang and Chen (2004) assert that those who think ethnocentrically favor domestic goods. Consumers prefer their

own products because of their moral commitment even if the product produced in their own country is not always of good quality. Furthermore, consumer ethnocentrism is also a means of expressing personal identity (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). In other words, because of ethnocentrism, consumers may believe that it is immoral to buy products from other countries (Klein and Etterson, 1999). When compared to imported items, consumers prefer domestically produced goods and are frequently ready to pay more for them. Customers often only pay more for imported goods when they are significantly higher in quality (Knight, 1999).

The importance of this study is to reveal the general criteria for choosing coffee shops, as well as determine the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand love and loyalty and reveal the relationship between consumer loyalty and brand love. By putting greater emphasis on locality or foreignness in their promotions, firms may be able to retain clients by using the findings of this study.

The study's introduction is presented in the first section, while the second section reviews relevant literature. In the third section, conceptual models and assumptions are provided. The study's methodology is described in the fourth section that follows. In the fifth chapter, analysis and findings are provided, and the final chapter contains conclusions and recommendations.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

To build the conceptual model, the study first develops hypotheses regarding consumer ethnocentrism, brand love and brand loyalty.

2.1. Consumer Ethnocentrism

It is generally accepted that sociologist Sumner defined the term "ethnocentrism" for the first time in 1906. (Bizumic, 2014). According to Sumner (1906), ethnocentrism is the technical name of putting people's groups at the center of everything. Ethnocentric tendencies include seeing one's own culture as superior to other cultures, approaching other cultures with trepidation, wanting to be respected by the group to which one belongs, and attempting to set one's own culture apart. From this vantage point, the place of origin, which is expressed as production in a country or region, can influence how consumers see a product in either a favorable or negative way.

Consumers of an ethnocentric culture may tend to prefer products of the same culture or region, while negatively judging those from other cultures. For example, it is highlighted in Shimp and Sharma's (1987) study how ethical it is for American consumers to use products from other countries. According to the findings, purchasing imported goods is definitely not a patriotic act, is

improper from the perspective of ethnocentric consumers, and causes unemployment and economic harm. Wang and Chen's studies show that consumers who depend on ethnocentric thinking prefer local products. Consumers prefer goods produced in their own country because of their moral commitment, even if the product produced in their country is not always high quality (Wang and Chen, 2004).

The phenomenon of ethnocentrism has not only been studied in the scope of consumers' ethics or morality; it has been discussed in the literature with various socio-demographic and economic variables. From perspective of consumer demographics such as age, Vida and Fairhurst (1999) concluded that older people behave more ethnocentric than young people. In addition, Shimp and Sharma (1987) say that consumers in the upper socio-economic group is less ethnocentric than lower socio-economic group.

It is also possible to find research on the ethnocentric perspectives of developed and less developed nations. Comparisons of countries with a macroeconomic viewpoint with regard to ethnocentrism have shown that consumers in less developed countries prefer imported goods due to their quality perception (Papadopoulos et al 1990; La Barre, 1994; Agbonifoh and Elimian, 1994; Mohammad et al., 2000, Mohammad et al. 2000).

In a narrower scope, it is possible to reach studies on the ethnocentrism of consumers of countries. These types of studies especially try to explain the consumption decisions and motivations of the societies they examine under the phenomenon of ethnocentrism. For instance, Varma (2007) found that Indian consumers showed very high demand for foreign goods and listed the reasons for the search for status symbol, inferiority complex, increasing relations with the west, increasing consumer income, changing expectations and consumers being culturally open to brands. Since Turkish consumers constitute the observation group of this research, it is important to focus on previous studies on the ethnocentric approaches of Turkish consumers. Turkish consumers, who have a high propensity for ethnocentrism, believe that consuming foreign goods will have a negative impact on their nation's economy (Küçükemiroğlu, 1999). In addition, Turkish customers are showing a rising ethnocentric trend, according to Uzkuş and Özmen (2004). Also, Aysuna and Altuna (2008) claim that in terms of ethnocentricity, Turkey is comparable to the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. According to their survey, consumers who support the Greek Cypriot side are less ethnocentric. Additionally, Turkish customers prefer local items when they are of an equal quality to imported ones (Açıkdilli et al., 2018). Lastly, According to Eroğlu

and Sari's (2017) research, students' propensity to stick with a certain brand decrease when they consider whether domestic products are included in the products they prefer.

It has been observed that CETSCALE (Consumers' Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale) scale is frequently used to measure consumer ethnocentrism in the literature. The CETSCALE is a useful tool for assessing the degree to which cultural biases and beliefs affect purchasing decisions and can help businesses and marketers better understand how to appeal to different cultural groups. The original CETSCALE is comprised of one dimension which includes 17 items that are scored on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). The items on the scale measure an individual's attitudes toward purchasing foreign products as well as their perceptions of the quality, value, and patriotism of domestic products.

Despite some criticism (Bawa, 2004), the CETSCALE is without a doubt the most utilized scale in consumer ethnocentrism research (Miguel vd., 2022). It has been validated in numerous investigations with a high level of internal consistency in many culturally diverse consumers, such as, Canadian and Russian (Saffu and Walker, 2005; Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Netemeyer et al. 1991, Good and Huddleston, 1995), Malaysian (Teo et al., 2011), Portugese (Miguel vd., 2022), Iranian (Nadimi et al., 2012), Saudi Arabian (Sulphey and Faridi, 2020), Indian (Sigh and Dihman, 2012), finally Turkish (Aysuna, 2006; Armağan and Gürsoy, 2011; Arı and Madran, 2011; Tuncer and Gökşen, 2016; Şahin and Sancı, 2017; Demir, 2018; Avcı, 2020).

Herche (1992) stated that the scale is a much better predictor of import purchasing behavior than demographic variables. In national studies, the CETSCALE yields more consistent results (Stepchenkova, 2022). In addition, it has produced results with a high level of reliability and consistency in numerous studies concentrating on Turkish consumers. For these reasons, the single dimension CETSCALE was used to measure consumer ethnocentrism in this study.

2.2. Brand Love

Love can be defined as “an attitude held by a person toward a particular other person, involving predispositions to think, feel and behave in certain ways toward the other person” (Rubin, 1973, p. 265). According to Sternberg's (1986) triangular theory of love depicts emotions as a triangle which's three corners complement each other. These three components are, closeness (top vertex of the triangle), passion (triangle's left vertex) and commitment (triangle's right vertex). These three intersection points complement each other and are inseparable from love. Although, people's

emotions toward objects and loved ones are similar (Albert & Valette-Florence, 2010), brand love (due to commercial products) and interpersonal love differs by means of their forms. (Shimp and Madden, 1988; Ahuvia, 1993).

In the literature, various definitions and dimensions of brand love have been attempted to be explained. First time brand love concept brought to the world of marketing by Kevin Roberts, CEO of Saatchi and Saatchi. According to Kevin Roberts, brand love, which also means that a brand's respect in the eyes of consumer, occurs in three dimensions as "mystery", "joy", and "intimacy" (Roberts, 2005). Carrol and Ahuvia (2006) defined brand love as "the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for particular trade name". They suggested a multi-item but unidimensional scale. However, as Albert and Merunka (2013) argued that the concept of brand love which is a complex structure in which many emotions interact can be better explained by a multidimensional scale rather than a one-dimensional scale. Albert et al. (2008) established eleven dimensions as; "passion", "duration", "self-congruity", "dreams", "memories", "pleasure", "attractions", "uniqueness", "beauty", "trust", and "declaration" while Batra et al. (2012) explains seven dimensions as; "positive attitude valence", "self-brand integration", "positive emotional connection", "separation distress", "long-term relationship", "passion-driven behavior", and "attitude strength". Followingly, Bagozzi et al. (2017) developed more useful brand love scales for shorter questionnaires.

2.3. Brand Loyalty

Oliver (1999) defines brand loyalty as a strong sense of commitment that a customer-purchased product will be repurchased in the future, despite external factors and the marketing efforts of various brands. Brand loyalty is a psychological feature that emerges because of decision making and evaluation process over time (Fournier, 1997). Sales of a brand varies according to "the number of customers who preferred that brand", "the number of customers who prefer that brand", "how often customers prefer that brand?", and "to what extend those customers prefer other brands". These phrases can also be viewed as signs of brand loyalty (Ehrenberg et al., 2004). The key to a brand's success is cultivating a following of loyal customers rather than just being able to sell to them once (Odin et al., 1999). Every company's marketing strategy is frequently seen as being centered on brand loyalty, especially in the service sector where markets are notoriously competitive and hard to differentiate (Fournier and Yao, 1997). Organizations achieving greater

number of loyal customers are said to be capable of subsequently gaining higher market shares, earning higher return on investment rates, enhancing bargaining power from different suppliers and distribution channels, and eliciting positive word-of-mouth communication (Nawaz and Usman, 2011).

The ancestors of loyalty studies associated loyalty with behavior, as in the repeated purchase of a specific product or service over time (Kim et al., 2016). However, Day (1969) argued that brand loyalty goes beyond buying the same brand and described it as a positive attitude toward a brand and positive purchasing behavior. From that view, Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) created their theory which modeled by behavioral and attitudinal brand loyalty. Then Dick and Basu (1994) proposed a framework for brand loyalty that includes “relative attitude” and “repeat patronage”. From this perspective Oliver (1997) proposed the theory of loyalty stages, also called the loyalty ladder. Accordingly, attitudinal brand loyalty consists of "cognitive", "affective" and "conative" processes respectively. Also, Back and Parks (2003) modeled brand loyalty based on the stages of loyalty theory and supported the three dimensions of brand loyalty (Back and Parks, 2003). Oliver's framework (1997, 1999) indicates that cognitive loyalty is the idea that a product or service is better than other options based on the information provided. Also, a customer's positive feelings about a brand or service provider are shown by their affective loyalty. Lastly, conative loyalty is a customer's plans to keep using a service provider which is linked to a strong desire to buy from the same source again (Harris & Goode, 2004).

Oliver's brand loyalty framework is widely used in goods and service marketing literature. For example, by using this framework, Li et al. (2020) examined the impact of brand personality on brand loyalty in the hospitality industry, Fu (2019) investigated the relationship between existential authenticity and heritage tourist destination loyalty, and Kang et al. (2015) explored the self-congruity and functional congruity in brand loyalty of coffee shop customers.

3. RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

This model stresses that, was examined the mediating role of brand love in the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand loyalty. The research model is shown in Figure 1.

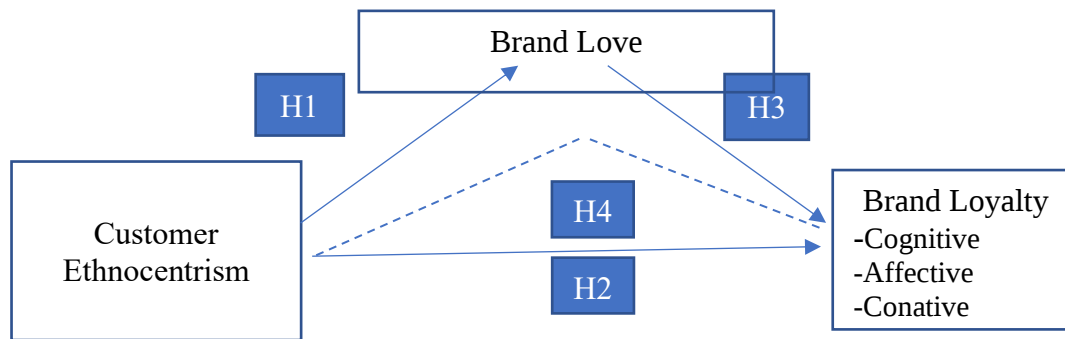


Figure 1: Conceptual Model

3.1. Ethnocentrism and Brand Love

Consumer ethnocentrism has been identified as an important factor in consumer decision-making, particularly concerning local brands (Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015). Lantz and Loeb (1996) found that consumers evaluate domestic and foreign products differently based on their degree of ethnocentric feelings. As the ethnocentric degree of the consumer increases, there is a higher tendency to prefer local products. Additionally, consumers are more likely to purchase goods from nations they perceive as close to their own. Ramadania et al. (2015) concurred that consumer ethnocentrism negatively impacts consumers' attitudes toward foreign products.

In the fashion industry, Van den Berg et al. (2017) conducted a study focusing on South Africa, its relationship with regional brands, the love of regional brands there, and how it affects people's perceptions of and intentions to buy from international fashion companies. In this study, data were collected from 500 black middle-class women in South Africa. The findings revealed that low ethnocentric beliefs have a detrimental impact on attitudes toward global companies while positively fostering affinity for local brands.

Furthermore, Pentz et al. (2017) found a connection between ethnocentrism and love, suggesting that ethnocentric tendencies can influence emotional attachment to brands. Overall, these studies highlight the significant role of consumer ethnocentrism in shaping preferences and decision-making processes, particularly in the context of local versus foreign products. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H1: Consumer ethnocentrism positively influences brand love

3.2. Ethnocentrism and Brand Loyalty

Previous studies have shown a connection between consumer ethnocentrism and brand loyalty. Ethnocentric customers tend to reward their loyalty to national brands, showing their desire to remain within their own group, and negatively influence any loyalty to a foreign product, according to Zeithaml et al. (1996). Also, Eroğlu and Sarı (2011) find a strong relationship between ethnocentrism and brand loyalty. Ethnocentric consumers show more loyalty toward domestic products, and they have less or even zero loyalty for foreign-made products (Abosag and Farah, 2014). The study by Makanyeza (2015) on the manufacture of imported poultry meat demonstrated that ethnocentric tendencies have a detrimental impact on consumer loyalty to foreign brands. On the other hand, as the studies of Şahin and Gültekin (2017), showed that ethnocentric tendencies of the consumers had a strong effect on brand loyalty. Unlike Areiza-Padilla et al. (2020) discovered in their study of coffee shops, Colombian consumers are ethnocentric, but they are loyal to the mentioned global brand. There is a growing interest in the literature on consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, and loyalty. However, research on the impact of consumer awareness on consumer ethnocentrism and loyalty in the public sphere is lacking. Furthermore, there are insufficient scientific studies on the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on loyalty. As a result, the study sought to add to the literature by investigating the relationship between consumer awareness, ethnocentrism, and loyalty. As a result, the following hypothesis was developed:

H2: Consumer ethnocentrism has a positive effect on local brand loyalty.

H2_a: Consumer ethnocentrism has a positive effect on cognitive loyalty.

H2_b: Consumer ethnocentrism has a positive effect on affective loyalty.

H2_c: Consumer ethnocentrism has a positive effect on conative loyalty.

3.3. Brand Love and Brand Loyalty

Numerous studies have shown that brand love is one of the precursors to brand loyalty (Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Kamat and Parulekar, 2007; Roy et al., 2013, Chao and Huango, 2017) and there is a positive relationship between these two concepts (Şahin and Gültekin, 2017; Batra et al., 2012; Ünal and Aydın, 2013; Aşkın and İpek, 2016). Bagozzi et al.'s (2014) study supports this notion, showing a strong relationship between brand love and brand loyalty. Bergkvist and Bech-

Larsen's (2010) study further indicates brand loyalty as an outcome of brand love, while Drennan et al. (2015) found that brand love serves as both a mediator and a direct influence on brand loyalty.

In addition to these findings, Kalyoncuoğlu's (2017) study on Starbucks coffee shop customers demonstrated a positive and significant effect on brand love through brand loyalty. This supports the definition of loyalty by Jacoby and Kyner (1973) as a positive attitude toward a brand. According to the results of Aydın (2017) research, brand trust and innovation affect brand love, brand loyalty, intention to rebuy, and willingness to pay more. In addition, the impact of brand trust on loyalty is mediated through brand love.

Lastly, Şahin and Gültekin (2017) found that ethnocentric tendencies of consumers play a strong role in shaping brand loyalty. This suggests that consumers' cultural preferences and inclinations can significantly influence their loyalty to specific brands.

In summary, the relationship between brand love and brand loyalty is well-established in the literature, with various studies demonstrating that brand love can directly influence or mediate the development of brand loyalty. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: Brand love has a positive effect on brand loyalty

H3_a: Brand love has a positive effect on cognitive brand loyalty

H3_b: Brand love has a positive effect on affective loyalty

H3_c: Brand love has a positive effect on conative loyalty

3.4. Mediating role of brand love in consumer ethnocentrism and brand loyalty

After reviewing the findings in the literature, it is hypothesized that brand love and customer ethnocentrism may be connected in some indirect way. In other words, brand love somewhat mitigates the impact of customer ethnocentrism on brand loyalty. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

H4: Brand love plays a mediating role between customer ethnocentrism and brand loyalty

4. METHODOLOGY

A quantitative research model method was used to test the models and hypotheses. In order to carry out the research a questionnaire was created. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part of questionnaire presents respondents' selection criteria of the coffee shops. Second part of the questionnaire deals with the measurements of the constructs of the study. Brand royalty and brand love scale was used Aşkın and İpek (2016), brand loyalty adapted from the following studies Quester and Lim (2003), Back and Parks (2003), Cooper-Martin (1993), Jacoby and Kyner (1973) and Mano and Oliver (1993) and have fourteen (14) items. Also brand love adapted which is developed by Batra et al (2012) includes thirteen (13) items. Validity of the content is determined by current research and discussion with other marketing professors To calculate customer ethnocentrism; Shimp and Sharma (1987)'s CETSCALE is used for measuring ethnocentric tendencies which have nine (17) items..

As sampling method, convenience sampling method was used. Correspondents were graduate and post graduate students at Aydın Adnan Menderes University in Turkey. 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) was used in survey. All responders are also asked to choose their preferred coffee shop brand from the other three brands. After a pre-test survey is done with 40 respondents, total of 285 usable questionnaires collected.

The relationships of brand love, customer ethnocentrism and brand loyalty were empirically tested by Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) method. All analyses are done and visualized by IBM AMOS software.

5. EMPRICAL RESULTS

First, the samples was questioned about how frequently they visited coffee shops and whether they had any preferences for domestic or foreign coffee shops. The analysis of the questionnaire responses about the factors that respondents consider when selecting a coffee shop is then provided below.

Table 1: How often do you go to coffee shop?

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulativ e Percent
Everyday	24	8,4	8,5	8,5

Two or three times a week	116	40,7	40,8	49,3
Once a week	70	24,6	24,6	73,9
Once in a month	60	21,1	21,1	95,1
Never	14	4,9	4,9	100,0
Total	284	99,6	100,0	
System	1	,4		
	285	100,0		

According to the Table 1 total of 284 participants completed the survey question, and the responses were classified into five categories: everyday, two or three times a week, once a week, once a month, and never. The majority of respondents (40.7%) reported going to a coffee shop two or three times a week, while 24.6% visited once a week, and 21.1% visited once a month. A small percentage of participants (4.9%) indicated that they never go to a coffee shop.

The table also provides valid and cumulative percentages, which indicate the proportion of participants within each category and the percentage of the overall sample that falls into each category. The valid percentages range from 4.9% for the "Never" category to 40.7% for the "Two or three times a week" category. The cumulative percentages show the proportion of participants who fall into each category and all previous categories. For example, the cumulative percentage for the "Two or three times a week" category is 49.3%, which means that 49.3% of respondents visit a coffee shop at least two or three times a week or more frequently.

Table 2: Origin of your preferred business when you drink coffee?

		Frequenc y	Percent	Valid Percen t	Cumulativ e Percent
Valid	Foreign	130	45,6	46,4	46,4
	Domesti c	149	52,3	53,2	99,6
	4,00	1	,4	,4	100,0

	Total	280	98,2	100,0	
Missing	System	5	1,8		
Total		285	100,0		

Table 2 displays the origin of the preferred business that individuals visit when drinking coffee, based on responses from 280 survey participants. The respondents' preferences were categorized into two options: foreign and domestic. Of the participants, 52.3% reported that their preferred business was domestic, while 45.6% preferred foreign coffee shops. Only 1 participant (0.4%) selected the option "4.00". The table also displays valid and cumulative percentages. The valid percentages represent the proportion of respondents within each category, with 53.2% preferring domestic businesses and 46.4% preferring foreign businesses. The results suggest that with a slight majority of participants preferring domestic businesses.

5.1. Measure reliability and validity

The factor analysis results are shown in Table 3. Then, in order to reveal the main factors (dimensions) of the data set consisting of these variables that are related, firstly Factor Analysis was performed. The table 3 shows the factor loadings, Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each question and construct.

Table 3: Factor and Reliability Analysis

Scale	Question Number	Questions	Factor Load	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE
	CE1	Purchasing foreign-made products in un-Turkish.	0,780			
	CE2	It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it	0,782			

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Consumer Ethnocentrism		puts Turkish people out of a job.		0,912	0,922	0,569
	CE3	A real Turk should always buy Turkish products.	0,805			
	CE4	It is always best to purchase Turkish products	0,707			
	CE5	Turkey should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Turkish business and causes unemployment	0,776			
	CE6	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Turkish products	0,762			
	CE7	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets	0,774			
	CE8	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Turkey	0,661			
	CE9	Turkish consumers who purchase products made in other countries are	0,730			

			responsible for putting their fellow Turks out of work				
Brand Love							
		BL1	I often have to think about this coffee shop	0,700			
		BL2	I want to go this coffee shops often	0,715			
		BL3	I have often been in contact within the past	0,801	0,917	0,900	0,563
		BL4	I am willing to spend a lot of money and time on it	0,708			
		BL5	Was immediately a natural fit	0,826			
		BL6	I feel an emotional connection with the brand	0,780			
		BL7	I feel anxiety of the thought that the brand might disappear	0,712			
Brand Loyalty	<i>Cognitive Loyalty</i>	CG1	When I go to a coffee shop I think of “X” brand more than other brands	0,733			
		CG2	I pay attention to brand “X” above other brands	0,751	0,880	0,832	0,501

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		CG3	Brand “X” gives me a high level of product quality when compared to other brands	0,766			
		CG4	No coffee shop brand can offer better products than brand “X”	0,522			
	<i>Affective Loyalty</i>	AL1	I feel better when I use brand “X”	0,709	0,882	0,816	0,528
		AL2	Brand “X” excites me more than other brands	0,647			
		AL3	I like “X” brand more than other brands	0,839			
	<i>Conative Loyalty</i>	CL1	For me, buying brand “X” is more important than buying any other brand of coffee	0,661	0,852	0,803	0,578
		CL2	I see the brand “X” as my first purchase choice	0,820			

For consumer ethnocentrism, the results indicate high reliability, with all nine questions showing strong factor loadings ranging from 0.661 to 0.805. The Cronbach’s alpha and CR values were both above 0.9, indicating excellent internal consistency, and the AVE value of 0.569 was above the recommended threshold of 0.5, indicating good convergent validity.

For brand love, the results were mixed, with factor loadings ranging from 0.700 to 0.801. The Cronbach's alpha and CR values were both high, indicating good internal consistency. Although the AVE value of 0.563, it is still very close to recommended threshold of 0.5.

For brand loyalty, the results showed good reliability for all three dimensions (cognitive, affective, and conative loyalty), with factor loadings ranging from 0.522 to 0.820, Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.852 to 0.882, and CR values ranging from 0.803 to 0.832. The AVE values ranged from 0.501 to 0.578, indicating good convergent validity.

5.2. Structural model results

Structural model results present the goodness-of-fit indices for the three scales of the study: Brand Love, Consumer Ethnocentrism, and Brand Loyalty. The indices provide an evaluation of how well the theoretical model fits the empirical data. The indices include Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and p-value for the test of close fit ($RMSEA < .05$),

Table 4: Goodness of Fit Indicates

Goodness of Fit Indices	Brand Love	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Brand Loyalty
GFI	0.93	0.88	0.85
AGFI	0.86	0.80	0.73
IFI	0.96	0.91	0.92
NFI	0.95	0.90	0.91
NNFI	0.94	0.88	0.89
CFI	0.96	0.91	0.92
RMSEA	0.12	0.13	0.15
p value for test of close fit (RMSEA < .05)	0.000	0.000	0.000

Table 4 indicates that the Consumer Ethnocentrism, the Brand Love and Brand Loyalty models have goodness of fit indices model. The GFI values are above the recommended cutoffs 0.85 and acceptable. The AGFI values for brand love and consumer ethnocentrism models are goodness of fit index but brand loyalty slightly below the recommended cut off of 0.80. IFI, NFI and CFI cutoffs 0,90 , respectively, indicating a good fit as well. The NFI value indicated acceptable fit (NFI>0,80). The RMSEA value indicated a poor (RMSEA = 0.10) fit and The RMSEA values are below the recommended cutoff of 0.10, indicating a good fit. Even when the model is properly specified, the RMSEA for models with small df can frequently exceed cutoffs (Kenny et al., 2015). The p values for the test of close fit are all less than 0.05, indicating that the models fit the data well.

Table 5: Fit Statistics

Fit statistics	Decision criteria (Source)	Result
$\chi^2/\text{degrees of freedom}$	<2,00 (Bollen, 1989; <u>Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001</u>)	1,903
GFI	>0,85 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1984; Marsh et al., 1988)	0.87
AGFI	>0,80 (<u>Schumacker & Lomax, 1996</u>)	0.84
RMSEA	<0,05 (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001; Steiger, 2007)	0.057
p value for RMSE<.05	< 0,05 (Bentler, 1990; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001)	0,000
NNFI	>0,80 (Hu & Bentler, 1999)	0,95
NFI	>0,80 (<u>Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008</u>)	0.94
CFI	>0,95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; <u>Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003</u>).	0.95

Different metrics were used to assess the overall goodness of fit. We used eight indices: Chi-square goodness of fit ($\chi^2/\text{degrees of freedom}$), the goodness of fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), p value for

RMSE, the non-normed fit index (NNFI), normed fit index (NFI) and the comparative Fit Index (CFI).

Measuring the consistency between observed and estimated covariances, chi-square is the first value which must be analyzed (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Chi-square value (χ^2) is calculated as 3994.40 ($p < 0,05$) which was an expected result in such situations where sample size is large (Çokluk, Şekercioğlu et al., 2010). For this reason, it is recommended in the literature that normed chi-square value obtained from degrees of freedom value divided by chi-square should be taken into account instead of chi-square alone, and it is called relative Chi Square value (Hair et al., 2010). Relative chi-square is calculated as 3,22 demonstrated that collected data suggest reasonably adequate model fit (Wheaton et al., 1977).

The fit statistics in Table 4 provide information on how well the measurement model fits the data. The chi-square/degrees of freedom ratio is a measure of absolute fit and indicates how well the model fits the data compared to a null model. In this case, the ratio is 1,903, which is below the threshold of 2.00 suggested by Bollen (1989).

The Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) both measure the proportion of variance and covariance accounted for by the model. The GFI value of 0.87 and the AGFI value of 0.84 indicate that the model fits the data well, although they are slightly below the recommended thresholds of 0.85 and 0.80, respectively, suggested by (Anderson & Gerbing, 1984; Marsh et al., 1988; Schumacker and Lomax, 1996)

The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) provides a measure of how well the model fits the data, adjusting for the number of parameters in the model. The value of 0.057 is below the recommended threshold of 0.10 suggested by Tabachnik and Fidell (2001), indicating good model fit. The p-value for the RMSEA test of close fit is 0.000, indicating that the model fits the data significantly better than a null model.

We used two divided by degrees of freedom (instead of two because it is sensitive to larger sample sizes) (CFI). According to Schermelleh-Engel and Moosbrugger (2003), the acceptable fits for GFI and AGFI must be greater than 0,90 and 0,85; however, these values are calculated to be 0,812 and 0,78, respectively. It is not advised to use GFI and AGFI in the literature because of how sample size affects these fit indices (Fan and Sivo, 2005, Sharma et al., 2005).

As a result, the hypothetic model is reasonably fitted as measured by other fit indices including the NNFI, NFI, and CFI. Modifications are not taken into account in this study solely by a few fitted indices that meet the minimum criteria.

Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), The Normed Fit Index (NFI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI), all measure how well the model fits the data compared to a baseline model. The values of 0.95 for NNFI, 0.94 for NFI and 0.95 for CFI. NNFI, NFI and CFI indicate good model fit suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999) and Hooper et al.(2008).

Overall, the fit statistics suggest that the measurement model fits the data well, although some of the values are slightly below the recommended thresholds.

5.3. Path Modelling and Hypotheses Testing

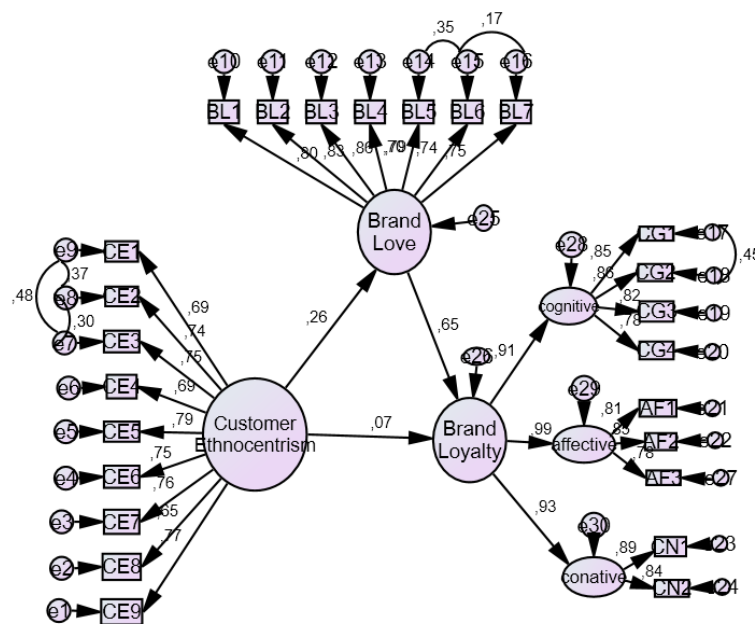


Figure 2: Path Modeling

The results (Table 6) provide evidence for H1 (consumer ethnocentrism and brand love), H2 (consumer ethnocentrism and brand loyalty), H2_a (consumer ethnocentrism and cognitive brand

loyalty), H2_b (consumer ethnocentrism and affective brand loyalty), H2_c (consumer ethnocentrism and conative brand loyalty) and H3 (brand love and brand loyalty), H3_a (brand love and cognitive brand loyalty), H3_b (brand love and affective brand loyalty), H3_c (brand love and conative brand loyalty). All hypotheses are supported.

Table 5: Hypotheses Testing Results

Hypotheses	Causality	Path	
		Coefficients	t-values
H1	Consumer ethnocentrism has a positive direct effect on brand love	0.23	3.48*
H2	Consumer ethnocentrism has a positive direct effect on brand loyalty	0.12	2.53*
H2 _a	<i>Consumer ethnocentrism has a positive effect on cognitive brand loyalty</i>	0,277	4.85*
H2 _b	<i>Consumer ethnocentrism has a positive effect on affective brand loyalty</i>	0,25	4.33*
H2 _c	<i>Consumer ethnocentrism has a positive effect on conative brand loyalty</i>	0,198	3,38*
H3	Brand love has a positive direct effect on brand loyalty	0.68	7.68*
H3 _a	<i>Brand love has a positive effect on cognitive brand loyalty</i>	0,61	12,92*
H3 _b	<i>Brand love has a positive effect on affective brand loyalty</i>	0,65	14,47*
H3 _c	<i>Brand love has a positive effect on conative brand loyalty</i>	0,58	11,948*

* Hypothesis had been confirmed.

5.4. The Mediating Model Results

The methods of Baron and Kenny (1986) were used to test the hypotheses of the study. The conditions proposed by Baron and Kenny for the mediating effect are as follows:

1. The level of variability of the independent variable significantly explained by variables of the assumed mediator variable,

2. The variables of the mediator variable are explained significantly by the variables of the independent variable,
3. When conditions (a) and (b) are taken under control, it is seen that the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is zero and the previous significant relationship between these two variables is no longer significant. This is an indication of a strong mediation effect.

Table 6: Results on the Mediating Role of Brand Love in the Effect of Consumer Ethnocentrism on Brand Loyalty

Effect	Prediction	Standard Error	T	P	Conclusion
Customer Ethnocentrism → Brand Loyalty	0.281	0.055	4,854	***	Acceptance
Direct Effect	Prediction	Standard Error	T	P	Conclusion
Customer Ethnocentrism → Brand Love → Brand Loyalty	0.121	0.097	2.388	***	Acceptance
Indirect Effect	Prediction	Confidence Interval		Conclusion	
Customer Ethnocentrism → Brand Love → Brand Loyalty	0.169	(0.075, 0.262)		Significant	

***p<0.05

While the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable was significant, it was examined whether there was a mediator role in this effect. The fact that the values in the 95% confidence interval do not include 0 according to the results of the model shows that it has a mediator role in the model (0.075, 0.262). After deciding that there is an intermediary role, it was examined whether the direct effect was significant to decide on the type of this mediator role. As a result, it was seen that the direct effect was significant, but the effect coefficient decreased and it was decided that it was a partial mediator ($\beta=0.121$, $p<0.05$)

6. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

As a result of globalization, local and global brands compete in the marketplace. This is consistent with the growth of coffee shop brands in Turkey on account of both domestic and international demand. Brand loyalty has emerged as a crucial idea in this competitive industry. Businesses create a variety of techniques to guarantee customer brand loyalty. While elements like quality, comfort, brand image, service quality, and service environment are crucial in fostering brand loyalty. In addition consumer ethnocentrism and brand love are two of the most important factors affecting customer loyalty. By appealing to the national sentiments of consumers in their place of origin, it seeks to ensure client loyalty

The study's results were confirmed by previous studies. Firstly, a positive and significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and brand love was found as demonstrated in previous studies such as Van den Berg et al. (2017) and Pentz et al., (2017). Secondly, this study confirms the positive effect of consumer ethnocentrism on brand loyalty as agreed with the work by Zeithaml et al. (1996), Eroğlu and Sarı (2011) and Makanyeza (2015), Şahin and Gültekin (2017) and disagreement Areiza-Padilla et al. (2020). Thirdly, this study put forward a positive correlation through brand love to brand loyalty, which supported by the previous studies as; Carroll and Ahuvia, 2006; Kamat and Parulekar, 2007; Roy et al., 2013, Bagozzi et al.'s ,2014; Chao and Huang, 2017 and Şahin and Gültekin, 2017.

Writers could not reach any previous study about the relationship between brand love and customer ethnocentrism. For this reason, one of the aims of the study is to contribute to the literature about the mentioned relationship. The results of the research have proved that brand love has partially mediating role in the relationship of customer ethnocentrism and brand loyalty. According to study findings, brand love and loyalty are correlated with consumer ethnocentric attitudes. The findings suggest that brand love and loyalty are influenced by client ethnocentrism. We demonstrated how brand love is influenced favorably by brand loyalty. This study is important in terms of showing that consumer ethnocentrism affects customer loyalty in local coffee shops and that the effect of ethnocentrism on loyalty can be increased by using brand love.

This study also has some limitations. One of them is the dimensional structure of the relationship between the variables. Although many studies (Guo et al., 2018; Maksan et al., 2019;

Teng, 2019) like this study, dealt with the one-dimensional structure of brand love, brand loyalty and consumer ethnocentrism, future studies can be carried out in multidimensional. The sample of this study is limited only to university students, and convenience sampling was used as a sampling technique. Although many studies used students as samples, it would be beneficial to repeat the study by selecting different samples and product groups from different cultures.

This study has put forward the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and brand loyalty by the mediating effect of brand love. Thus, they continue to support regional brands. Additionally, consumers who form an emotional connection with the brand are said to have greater brand loyalty than other consumers. As a result, people with strong national loyalty prefer local products. Nationalistic feelings of people may lie behind this situation. Customers acting with this kind of awareness may think that by consuming local products, they contribute to the country's economy and act morally right.

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