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Do values or goals better explain intent? A cross-national comparison

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Abstract

Among six major lines of inquiry on motivations, two theories are especially pertinent to consumer behavior studies: values and goals. Several studies show that consumer behavior can be predicted on the basis of values or goals; this study examines which are the stronger predictors by presenting a cross-cultural comparison of the values and goals that may influence the behavioral intentions of U.S., Chinese, and French students to study abroad. As a service, study abroad has financial implications, represents a choice, and competes with other educational products. Therefore, goals appear to explain behavioral intentions better than do values, except among U.S. students. The goals and values associated with behavioral intentions differ across cultures and have different perceived dimensions, such that items cluster on those dimensions with specific meanings, depending on the culture. The different influences of values and goals on behavioral intentions may help marketing managers design more efficient marketing strategies in international markets. This paper thus contributes to the marketing literature by suggesting that national cultures moderate the effect of values and goals on consumer intentions.

Keywords: Consumer behavior, Behavioral intentions, Goals, National culture, Values.

1. Introduction

The elements that motivate consumers to choose products, brands, or stores are of primary interest to marketers because the knowledge of these motivators can help them design effective marketing strategies. Among the six major lines of inquiry previously identified to conceptualize motivations (instinct theories, need/personality theories, drive/learning theories, growth and mastery motivational theories, humanistic theories and cognitive theories, Franken, 2007), one line (cognitive theories) provides the focus for this study. Within this line, we selected two theories of motivation. The first pertains to the goals that drive a consumer to choose one product or brand over another. The second, based on a significant body of research, emphasizes consumers' values. Both theories are relevant in this effort to uncover the causes of the intention to study abroad; however, the two theories differ in terms of their proximity to the decision-making issue and are well adapted to various cultural orientations. Other theories appear less pertinent to this study, as they focus on broader, individual-level characteristics, such as instinct, biology, learning, or emotional forces.

Several academic studies offer evidence that goals can drive consumer behavior. For example, goals provide the direction and impetus to achieve specific decisions (Locke and Latham, 2002). Nysveen, Pedersen, and Thorbjørnsen (2005) attribute consumers' technology choices, such as the choice of mobile phones or wireless Internet, to goals such as enjoyment, usefulness, and expressiveness. Goals may be purchase specific or closely coupled with each purchase. They can be either long or short term, depending on the context. In turn, researchers must identify and measure goals ad hoc, in relation to the specific purchase.

Other studies posit that consumer behavior depends on consumers' values, that is, beliefs about what is important to achieve in life (Franken, 2007). Values thus represent desirable end states, such as friendship, respect for tradition, and equality, and are universal (Schwartz, 1992). Daghfous, Petrof, and Pons (1999) connect consumers' values, such as empathy or hedonic values, to the tendency to adopt innovations, and Fraj and Martinez (2006) use values to predict consumers' ecological purchase behavior. Because values are quite abstract, they may be more distant from behavior than goals. Most value measures rely on general value inventories.

This paper analyzes both values and goals as antecedents of consumer behavioral intention. Prior literature focuses on behavior as well as behavioral intention. However, according to the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), an intention to perform precedes all behaviors. With regard to involving behavior (Foxall 2002), where a situational context has been indicated, the two concepts likely correlate.

Which of the two concepts, values or goals, best predicts consumer behavior? This study examines this question by studying their differential influences on the behavioral intentions of college students from three different countries to study abroad. In this cross-cultural context, this study proposes that national cultures have a significant influence on the values or goals that explain intentions. Therefore, this investigation contributes to the consumer behavior literature; studies show that values tend to be similar across national cultures (Schwartz, 1992), but the priority that people grant to these values may differ significantly across cultures. Goals and values also appear to be structured differently across cultures, and the variance helps explain differences in people's intentions to act.

2. Values, goals and intention to purchase

Values are “abstract structures that involve the beliefs that people hold about desirable ways of behaving or about desirable end states” (Feather, 1995: 1), such as respect for tradition or equality, which suggests that values are universal (Schwartz, 1992). In addition, values are more abstract than goals because they reside farther from behavior than do goals (Jolibert and Baumgartner, 1997).

Rokeach (1973, 1979), following social scientists’ work on values (Allport, 1961; Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey, 1970), distinguishes between terminal and instrumental values. Terminal values are desirable endpoints in life, such as freedom, self-respect, and beauty, whereas instrumental values are preferred modes of conduct, such as ambition, kindness, and imagination. For example, an adolescent who believes in a terminal value such as beauty may possess an instrumental value such as responsibility and adopt environmental protection behaviors, such as recycling bottles and cans, to help beautify the world by minimizing trash.

With a basis in Rokeach’s (1973) values survey and the list of values (Kahle, Beatty, and Homer, 1986), among other sources, Schwartz’s (1992) theory of values consists of ten value types (or motivational domains): universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction. Each value type represents specific motivations. Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) and Schwartz (1999) confirm the universality of the value types but also note that the types exhibit different structures across cultures. Culture, communities, and individuals may all influence values, and cultures can espouse different values ranked in unique orders (Hofstede, 1987, 2001; Rokeach, 1979; Schwartz, 1992) .

Values are important to the degree that they influence a person's decision-making behavior. Kropp, Lavack, and Silvera (2005) cite values as predictors in more than 20 studies that pertain to various consumer situations, including food, tourism, and car purchases. The list grows in more sophisticated models, such as Kahle's (2008) examination of the influence of values on wine brand choices. Wan, Luk, Yau, Tse, Sin, Kwong, and Chow (2009) study the impact of traditional Chinese cultural values (e.g., face consciousness, other orientation) on the intention to buy pirated CDs.

Goals drive people to obtain satisfaction from a specific situation, which implies that they are more concrete than values. Goals enable a person to articulate needs in a concrete way by focusing on specific stimuli, such as money, prestige, power, curiosity, or achievement (Goldberg and Baumgartner, 2002; Jolibert and Baumgartner, 1997). Researchers analyze which goals drive consumers to obtain satisfaction, but these heterogeneous studies do not provide a list of goals, similar to the list of values. Each situation may depend on specific, unique goals.

Further complicating this discussion, although values are stable constructs, few people think deeply about their values when they make consumption decisions. For example, in the context of studying abroad, if a student claims to value stimulation, she or he might choose to participate in university studies in another country. The choice to study abroad then might result in negative outcomes (e.g., greater pressure from parents, more student debt) or positive outcomes (e.g., new and exciting experiences, improved resume). Although this student may value stimulation, he or she might decide not to study abroad because the immediate negative outcomes appear more compelling than the positive outcomes. That is, the student still values

stimulation, but the ultimate choice depends on something other than values, that is, goals. This discussion suggests a first proposition:

Proposition 1. Because values represent a higher level of abstraction than goals, the explanatory power of goals for business students' intentions to study abroad is greater than the explanatory power of values.

3. Values, goals and culture

Schwartz's (1992, 1994) multicountry research supports the idea that people in different countries discriminate among the ten universal, motivationally distinct types of values. These ten values reportedly encompass the entire range of values recognized across cultures, and Schwartz (1992, 1994) indicates that the structure and relationship of the ten values are universal across nationalities. Despite the findings that similar and universal motivational commonalities *structure* people's values, people may differ significantly in the relative *importance* they attribute to those values (Schwartz and Sagie, 2000). Differences across cultures also mark the importance that people attribute to the ten values, which is consistent with the argument that the cultural dimensions of values reflect the basic problems that societies confront to organize human activity, identify problems, plan responses, and motivate people to solve them (Hofstede, 2001; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1999). Members of cultural groups tend to share value-relevant experiences, and people become socialized to accept shared values. For example, traditional Chinese values, such as Confucianism, Taoism, and Buddhism, influence Chinese women's purchasing behavior much more significantly than do some Western values (Zhang and Jolibert, 2003). These values do not constitute religions; instead, they represent doctrines that people may follow according to the context. For example, Chinese people might use all of these values in a

single day, depending on the situation they face. Individual differences also account for a significant portion of the variance in value prioritization. However, the way in which members of a culture prioritize values should reflect the central thrust of that culture's overall value priorities. Even Schwartz (1999) finds that the prioritization of universal values differs by culture, such that each culture emphasizes certain values. Although values are universal, the importance of these values for solving problems and resolving choices varies across and is similar within cultural groups.

If people from the same cultural group adhere to similar values (e.g., success, justice, freedom; Schwartz, 1999), specific goals should also be similar within cultural groups.

Individual differences explain some goals, but observing what motivates people of a specific cultural group may clarify the central focus of a culture's shared priorities (Schwartz, 1999).

This discussion leads to the next proposition:

Proposition 2. The goals and values that explain business students' intentions to study abroad differ across national cultures.

Despite Schwartz's (1992) finding that values are universal, evidence indicates that the factors that structure the values that people find most important vary across and are similar within cultural groups. In replications of prior research, Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) reveal that motivational domains—that is, the structural typology—in previous studies do not provide a tight fit for Spanish, Finnish, and Hong Kong samples. Similarly, Triandis and Suh (2002) suggest that different factors, such as ecology, social context, religion, and the cognitive structure of values, explain differences in values across cultures. This discussion leads into the third proposition:

Proposition 3. The factors that constitute the internal structure of values and goals with regard to studying abroad differ across national cultures.

4. Sampling and research methods

The decision to operationalize the propositions according to behavioral intentions rather than to behavior reflects several criteria. First, the time at which people make decisions (choice) varies across individuals and is difficult to identify. Second, choice is a categorical, binary variable, whereas the measure of intentions can use a continuous variable to evaluate the intensity of the relation between antecedents (values or goals) and the intention to behave in a certain way.

This study investigates student subjects from the United States, France, and China, three countries that represent significantly different national cultures. Different value prioritizations suggest six broad clusters of cultures: Western European, English-speaking, Far Eastern, East European, Latin American, and Islamic (Schwartz, 1999). The three samples represent Western European, English-speaking, and Far Eastern, which exhibit significant cultural differences (Schwartz, 1999). Therefore, this study includes sufficient variance to test the propositions.

The respondents are business students who indicate the importance of each value as a guiding principle in their lives, their goals for taking part in study in another country, and their intention to study in another country. The last measure provides the dependent variable; study abroad is a pertinent issue for students that may lead to outcomes such as openness to diversity (Ismail, Morgan, and Hayes, 2006), world-mindedness (Douglas and Jones-Rikkens, 2001), student development (Stecker, 2007), and cultural awareness and personal development (Black and Duhon, 2006). Universities encourage increasing student and faculty participation in study

abroad programs; for example, in China, between 1980 and 2000, nearly 300,000 Chinese students carried out advanced studies abroad. In 1995 alone, nearly 2,800 Chinese students earned doctoral degrees in the United States—more than 10% of the total number of degrees in China. Many universities offer programs in international business that recommend or require study abroad to help students launch their international careers (Emanoil, 1999; Malliah, 2001).

A study abroad program, as offered by most major universities, represents a service available to students that has a significant financial cost and competes with other educational product options. Study abroad is an option rather than a compulsory requirement in the three universities that the student samples represent.

Students may express several goals for their participation in study abroad programs; for example, they may want to gain international work experience (Malliah, 2001), master a foreign language, live in another country, make new international friends, or find excitement and enjoyment (Schroth and McCormack, 2000). The negative motivators that may deter students from studying abroad include language differences, costs in terms of both time and money (Henthorne, Miller, and Hudson, 2001), work and family commitments, ethnocentric attitudes, and a lack of connection between studying abroad and their future career (Marcum, 2001).

4.1. Survey

A two-stage exploratory study was conducted. In the first stage, a qualitative survey of 49 international students attending one of the Western schools examined in this study was performed. Ten nationalities appear in the group. Students completed a short, open-ended questionnaire about study abroad. A similar survey was given to a group of Chinese students in China. The results of both surveys indicate the items that represent goals for students from

Western and Far Eastern nations. Several basic categories of goals emerge to summarize the specific items that reflect students' reasons for choosing to study abroad. The Chinese students were still in their native country, whereas the first group was already studying abroad. The issues pertaining to actual behavior may differ from the issues that they confronted when determining their behavioral intentions, but the objective of the survey is to establish a nearly complete inventory of goals. A very important international education market has been created by strong incentives (offered by many local promotional organizations as well as foreign institutions of higher education) and a strong interest of the Chinese students.

The second stage of the project consists of a survey with a list of goals derived from the first stage, plus one additional item to measure the dependent variable, that is, the respondent's intention to study abroad (Shim and Maggs, 2005). The respondents also indicated the importance of the universal values as a guiding principle in their lives (Schwartz, 1992) on the Schwartz values inventory, which is the most elaborate form of general universal values, includes the Rokeach values inventory and receives validation in many cultures (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1990). For all items, respondents indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with the statement on a 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree) scale.

The English-language instrument was translated into Chinese and French and then back-translated into English. A pretest with approximately 20 students from each university suggests some slight modifications to correct some errors and weaknesses. The implementation of the final instrument with 150 items includes student populations in China (Capital University of Business & Economics), France (Grenoble Ecole de Management), and the United States (Grand Valley State University). The French school is private, whereas the U.S. and Chinese

universities are public. The respondents come from business classes at these three institutions, and the surveys occurred during class time. The usable data represent information from 720 respondents: 403 from China, 167 from France, and 150 from the United States.

4.2. Data analysis

Principal component analyses focus first on the values and then on the goals for each country. Simple linear regressions from each value or goal to intentions help identify which items significantly influence behavioral intentions. Tests of the two models (Values → Intention and Goals → Intention) occurred in each country. The explanatory or independent variables correspond to factors that result from the principal component analyses and possibly to other isolated items that exhibit significant correlations with the dependent variable. These were not identified by the usual criteria of principal component analyses. A maximum-likelihood structural equation method tests the propositions and the two models.

5. Results

Tables 1–6 list the outcomes of the principal component analyses on values and goals, including the factors obtained and their corresponding items, as well as an estimate of reliability using Cronbach's (1951) alpha (α) for each country.

Insert Tables 1–6 here

These tables also include estimates and parameter tests of the relationship between the independent variables (values or goals) and the dependent variable (intention). Structural equation modeling tests six models, two for each country. Table 7 provides the adjusted indices of fit, which satisfy generally recommended standards (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998; Hu and Bentler, 1998).

Insert Table 7 here

First, according to the coefficients of determination (R^2) in Table 7, the French sample strongly supports Proposition 1, in that goals explain 71% of intention, whereas values explain only 11%. In the Chinese sample, the results again support Proposition 1: goals explain 18% of intention, and values explain only 11%. However, for the U.S. sample, the explanatory power of values (16%) is slightly greater than that of goals (15%), in contrast with Proposition 1. The explanatory power of values thus appears almost homogeneous across countries (between 11% and 15%), whereas the explanatory power of goals seems to be heterogeneous. A greater number of goals, compared with values, have statistically significant influences on intentions. In the United States, three of the four goal factors (sacrifices, benefits, and enjoyment) are statistically significant, whereas only one value factor (environmental sensibility) is. In France, two goals (financial, social situation) and one value (stimulation) are statistically significant. In China, one goal factor is statistically significant (professional), and two goals are marginally significant (financial, family), whereas one value (stimulation) is statistically significant and another is marginally significant (social).

Second, the goals and values that affect the intention to study abroad in each country differ from one another. This finding supports Proposition 2.

Third, values and goals exhibit different structures and configurations in each country, in support of Proposition 3. With regard to goals, in all three countries, concern about being far from family and friends is significant (and negative), but the similarities end there. Among U.S. students, the most significant goals are the benefits of pleasing parents, improving professional and social status, and having fun. Among French students, the only significant goal, other than

leaving family and friends, is another negative effect related to the fear of incurring debt.

Finally, among Chinese students, goals supporting study abroad including professional and, to a lesser degree, financial benefits, but being far from family remains a significant negative goal.

These goals do not appear to be similarly structured across countries, either. This study identifies four principal goals in the United States, eight in France, and six in China. The samples from all three countries demonstrate social/familial, financial, and professional goal factors, but the underlying significance of those factors differs. For example, in the United States and France, the financial factor relates to tuition costs and debt risk, which are threats. In China, the factor corresponds to an investment in a future lifestyle, or an opportunity.

With regard to values, the French and Chinese results are similar in the significant effect of stimulation on the intention to study abroad. The Chinese students also value a social sense of belonging, unlike the French and U.S. students. Among the U.S. respondents, the only statistically significant value is environmental sensibility, which shows little relation to the factors that emerge from France and China.

The findings also suggest that certain factors span cultures. For example, a factor that emerges from Chinese and French samples but does not appear in Schwartz's (1990) model pertains to the acceptance of life circumstances (i.e., "what one is dealt in life"). However, the origins of this factor differ. In China, the acceptance of destiny, together with values of moderation and self-discipline, likely results from the influence of Buddhism. In France, destiny appears more closely linked to a sense of fatalism, spiritual existence, and obedience.

A lack of conceptual equivalence may account for these differences in the origin of the factors (Douglas and Craig, 2006). For example, in China and France, compared with the United

States, family security emerges as more important. However, in China, family security reflects a Confucian orientation, whereas in France, family security is a component of social integration. The value of being successful that marks the U.S. leadership factor seems different from that in France, which resides within the stimulation factor. The values associated with spirituality in the United States appear to relate to religious notions, whereas in France, they reflect fatalism. In China, factors may be structured because of the characteristics of Buddhism, Taoism, and Confucianism. These results suggest that a universal structure of values may not exist; instead, the various structures may reflect culture variations. Despite the lack of a universal structure of values in this study, the list of items proposed by Schwartz (1992, based on Rokeach (1973)), is rich enough to allow a structure to emerge that can adapt to different cultures. In the case of China, the structure that emerges mirrors the three major philosophies that dominate in that country.

In summary, the goals and values related to intentions differ across these three cultures, and their structures differ as well. People who belong to the same cultural groups tend to adhere to similar values (Schwartz, 1999) and also to similar goals.

6. Discussion and further research

This study examines whether values or goals are more important in determining consumers' behavioral intentions. Because goals appear to link most closely with behavior, goals should explain a greater portion of behavioral intentions. However, the results are not homogeneous across the three countries studied. In the French sample, the explanatory power of goals is 6.23 times stronger than that of values. In the Chinese sample, goals explain intentions 1.83 times better than do values, which provides support for Proposition 1, though not as

strongly as the French sample does. Results for the U.S. sample do not support the first proposition.

Moderating variables may explain the limited influence of goals on behavioral intentions in United States and China. For example, income could moderate this relationship and prevent a student from exhibiting behavioral intentions to study abroad. The characteristics of the three institutions are different, as two are universities and one is a private business school. The socio-demographic homogeneity of the French students of a business school might not be met by the two universities. Further research should investigate whether sociodemographic variables moderate the relationship between values/goals and behavioral intentions.

With regard to Propositions 2 and 3, the results provide evidence that values and goals take different structures in different cultures, indicating little conceptual equivalence across cultures. Schwartz and Bilsky's (1990) inventory includes items that are pertinent to Asian cultures but fails to consider how value hierarchies may differ from one culture to another (Triandis and Suh, 2002). The results also show that the grouping of values diverges from the motivational domains suggested by Schwartz and Bilsky (1990). None of the values factors identified in the three countries in this study corresponds to the universal motivational domains defined by Schwartz (1990), perhaps because he relies on the Gutman-Lingoes smallest-space analysis (Gutman, 1982), a multidimensional scaling method. An attempted confirmation of Schwartz's (1990) results using the SPSS Promax multidimensional scaling method was unsuccessful. Therefore, the methods employed by this study are those more commonly applied for this type of analysis, including principal component and confirmatory factor analyses (Hair,

Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1998). These methods can group several variables into factors that reflect the varying structure of values across countries.

Several values do not fit into the factors, suggesting the presence of some isolated values. One explanation may be found by revisiting Rokeach's work. Rokeach's (1973) values do not originate from a theory of values or culture; rather, they are derived intuitively (Thompson and Troester, 2002). Rokeach (1973: 30) notes that "there is no reason to think that others ... would ... come up with precisely the same list of ... terminal and ... instrumental values," which supports the potential for other configurations of values, including isolated ones. An emic approach that considers the specificity of values and goals by culture may better explain the links among values, goals, and behavioral intentions better than an etic, universal approach.

Similarly, other theories of values and goals, in addition to those that feature a cultural perspective, could be informative. For example, Allport et al. (1970) discuss the concept of proprium—the ego and self—with an emphasis on motives that are unique to the individual and determined by the ego. Perhaps the ego represents the true focus of interest for the creation of goals.

This study surveys college students who are familiar with study abroad products; therefore, generalizing these results to a nonstudent population or a different behavioral intention requires great caution (Peterson, 2001). The study results are limited to the study's context and require replications in other contexts, such as consumer goods purchases, low-involvement products, or new product purchases.

Finally, the findings suggest that existing value inventory tools and the methods used to analyze them suffer from several limitations. Researchers need a reliable measurement tool that

has little or no equivalence bias, as existing inventories (e.g., Schwartz and Bilsky, 1990), do not fit all cultures. To be valid, these tools should not depend on the method, which implies a need for a more rigorous and effective method to measure motivational domains and values.

7. Managerial implications

We have shown that value structures vary across three countries, meaning that this structure is not universal. Thus, managers who intend to use values in advertising, for example, should select them according to the culture of their target market. For a homogeneous sample, according to its sociodemographic characteristics (e.g., the French sample), goals explain behavioral intentions better than do values. However, goals are also more specific and must reflect the function of the product, the cultural context, and the specific characteristics of the target population. Although the structure of values varies across countries, the list of value items remains relatively universal and complete, which may make them easier to implement in advertising.

Study abroad program managers in particular should consider using promotional efforts that resonate with students' values and goals. They may achieve better results if they adapt their promotional programs to a specific culture and appeal to particular values and goals. For example, among U.S. college students, the strongest motive to study abroad comes from the potential for enjoyment, whereas financial sacrifices and separation from family and friends represent significant barriers. Chinese college students receive motivation from their hopes for a successful professional and financial future, but family issues hold them back. Chinese students also may study abroad to enjoy an exciting life and a sense of belonging, but U.S. students do so to pursue the value of environmental sensibility. Thus, study abroad managers might be able to

attract more student customers if they appeal to different goals and values when they design the promotional campaigns for their programs.

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Table 1. Summary of the influence of goals on intent: U.S. sample

Factor	Items	Impact on Intent
Sacrifices $\alpha = .795$	I would not be able to take care of my family and friends If I did not have to leave my family and/or my friends It would be difficult for my family if I were away from home I would miss my family and friends	ld = .242** t = 2.192 p = .028
Benefits $\alpha = .816$	To please my parents To improve my parents' social recognition To be able to freely practice my religious beliefs Because there are more opportunities in other countries than in my country to obtain a university degree	ld = -.360 *** t = -3.516 p = .000
Financial $\alpha = .708$	I would have to go into debt to do so It were not so expensive I have financial obligations that I would not be able to meet if I studied abroad Studying abroad is a luxury	ld = .030 <i>n.s.</i> t = .297 p = .766
Enjoyment $\alpha = .599$	To have fun To experience a more exotic life To increase my enjoyment level	ld = .253** t = 2.181 p = .029

*** p -value < .01; ** p -value < .05; * p -value < .10; *n.s.*: non-significant,

Notes: ld = loading, t= student value, p= p value

Table 2. Summary of the influence of values on intent: U.S. sample

Factor	Items	Impact on Intent
Environmental sensibility $\alpha = .721$	Preserving my public image Social recognition Moderate Unity with nature	ld = -.449*** t = -2.732 p = .006
Leadership $\alpha = .609$	Influential Successful Helpful	ld = .112 <i>n.s.</i> t = .390 p = .697
Pleasure and social relations $\alpha = .639$	True friendship Enjoying life	ld = .013 <i>n.s.</i> t = .049 p = .961
Spirituality $\alpha = .774$	Devout A spiritual life	ld = .119 <i>n.s.</i> t = 1.060 p = .289
Universalism $\alpha = .750$	A world of beauty Protecting the environment A world at peace	ld = .117 <i>n.s.</i> t = .869 p = .385

*** p -value < .01; ** p -value < .05; * p -value < .10; *n.s.*: non-significant,

Notes: ld = loading, t= student value, p= p value

Table 3. Summary of the influence of goals on intent: French sample

Factor	Items	Impact on Intent
Attraction to novelty $\alpha = .587$	None of my friends have ever studied abroad To be exposed to people from other countries To experience a lifestyle other than my own To have international experience To see new things	ld = 4.179 <i>n.s.</i> t = .331 p = .741
Material wealth $\alpha = .838$	To provide a good living to my children To provide a good living to my family To achieve a higher social status	ld = -1.196 <i>n.s.</i> t = -.407 p = .684
Enjoyment/freedom $\alpha = .753$	To experience a more exotic life To increase my enjoyment level To have fun To find greater freedom To be able to breathe the "air of liberty"	ld = .461 <i>n.s.</i> t = .562 p = .574
Professional achievement $\alpha = .691$	To help me realize my own potential To more easily enter the job market To learn about new ways of doing business To study at a prestigious university	ld = -.081 <i>n.s.</i> t = -.047 p = .963
Openness/mobility $\alpha = .708$	To study at a prestigious university To obtain a different view of the world To travel To see the world To give me a more open mind To achieve my dream of having a foreign experience My country is the best place for me to study	ld = -1.616 <i>n.s.</i> t = -.346 p = .729
Personal development $\alpha = .621$	To make a professional work connection To better learn about human civilization To experience another culture To have exciting experience For personal enhancement	ld = -2.635 <i>n.s.</i> t = -.328 p = .743
Social ascension $\alpha = .585$	To improve my parents' social recognition So that my children can be exposed to a complete modern and systematic educational system To be able to freely practice my religious beliefs	ld = 2.056 <i>n.s.</i> t = .375 p = .708
Financial	I would have to go into debt to do so	ld = -.238*** t = -3.745 p = .000
Social situation	I would not be able to take care of my family and friends	ld = -.171*** t = -2.680 p = .007

*** p -value $< .01$; ** p -value $< .05$; * p -value $< .10$; *n.s.*: non-significant,

Notes: ld = loading, t = student value, p = p value

Table 4. Summary of the influence of values on intent: French sample

Factor	Items	Impact on Intent
Social integration $\alpha = .471$	Family security Self respect Politeness Self-discipline	ld = .031 <i>n.s.</i> t = .243 p = .808
Fatalism $\alpha = .472$	Obedient A spiritual life Accepting my portion in life	ld = .009 <i>n.s.</i> t = .093 p = .926
Universalism $\alpha = .789$	Protecting the environment Unity with nature A world at peace Social justice	ld = .105 <i>n.s.</i> t = 1.134 p = .257
Stimulation $\alpha = .568$	An exciting life A varied life Successful	ld = .280** t = 1.970 p = .049

*** p -value < .01; ** p -value < .05; * p -value < .10; *n.s.*: non-significant,

Notes: ld = loading, t= student value, p= p value

Table 5. Summary of the influence of goals on intent: Chinese sample

Factor	Items	Impact on Intent
Discovery/novelty $\alpha = .782$	Travel Go on vacation Experience the occidental way of life	ld = .110 <i>n.s.</i> t = 1.467 p = .142
Inclination to stay at home $\alpha = .650$	None of my friends have gone to study abroad I run the risk of not being able to practice my religion if I studied abroad My country is the best place for me to pursue my studies	ld = .040 <i>n.s.</i> t = .259 p = .796
Professional $\alpha = .498$	To build my own network of professional relations To encourage me to change certain things about myself To access the job market more easily	ld = .263*** t = 2.597 p = .009
Financial $\alpha = .563$	To reach a better standard of living To become richer	ld = .223* t = 1.843 p = .065
Privacy $\alpha = .397$	To be able to freely practice my religious beliefs To live in a place that respects the private life of the individual	ld = -.328* t = -1.649 p = .099
Family $\alpha = .497$	If I were far from my family. it would be difficult for them No-one in my family has ever gone to study abroad	ld = -.229* t = -1.778 p = .075

*** p -value < .01; ** p -value < .05; * p -value < .10; *n.s.*: non-significant,

Notes: ld = loading, t= student value, p= p value

Table 6. Summary of the influence of values on intent: Chinese sample

Factor	Items	Impact on Intent
Confucian values $\alpha = .653$	Family security Politeness Social justice Obedient Preserving my public image Social recognition	ld = $-.046$ <i>n.s.</i> t = $-.078$ p = $.938$
Taoist values $\alpha = .620$	Responsible Inner harmony Enjoying life Pleasure	ld = $.203$ <i>n.s.</i> t = 1.049 p = $.294$
Buddhist values $\alpha = .470$	Moderate Accepting my portion in life Self-discipline	ld = $-.278$ <i>n.s.</i> t = $-.884$ p = $.377$
Friendship $\alpha = .500$	Mature love True friendship	ld = $.241$ <i>n.s.</i> t = $.543$ p = $.587$
Stimulation	An exciting life	ld = $.099$ ** t = 2.04 p = $.041$
Social	Sense of belonging	ld = $.090$ * t = 1.851 p = $.064$

*** p -value < .01; ** p -value < .05; * p -value < .10; *n.s.*: non-significant,

Notes: ld = loading, t= student value, p= p value

Table 7. Adjustment of the models to the data

United States Sample size = 150 $\bar{x} = 2.7, s^2 = 1.82$	Indices	Val □ Intent	Goal □ Intent
	χ^2	105.28	143.97
	d. f	75	93
	CMIN	1.40	1.54
	SRMR	.06	.06
	GFI	.91	.89
	RMSEA	.05	.06
	TLI	.91	.89
	R²	.16	.15
Explanatory factors	One factor: Environmental sensibility: Preserve public image Public recognition Moderate Unity with nature	Three factors: Sacrifices Benefits Enjoyment	
France Sample size = 167 $\bar{x} = 2.7, s^2 = 2.21$	Indices	Val □ Intent	Goal □ Intent
	χ^2	129.20	837.87
	d.f	80	531
	CMIN	1.61	1.57
	SRMR	.06	.07
	GFI	.91	.78
	RMSEA	.06	.05
	TLI	.84	.83
	R²	.11	.71
Explanatory factors	One factor: Stimulation Exciting life Varied life Successful	Two factors: Financial Social situation	
China Sample size = 403 $\bar{x} = 1.9, s^2 = 0.85$	Indices	Val □ Intent	Goal □ Intent
	χ^2	393.21	213.35
	d.f.	126	84
	CMIN	3.12	2.54
	SRMR	.07	.05
	GFI	.90	.93
	RMSEA	.07	.06
	TLI	.71	.82
	R²	.10	.18
Explanatory factors	Two factors: Stimulation	Two factors: Financial	

		An exciting life Social Sense of belonging	Family
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Notes: d.f. = degrees of freedom, CMIN = $\chi^2/\text{d.f.}$, SRMR = square root mean residual, GFI = goodness-of-fit index, RMSEA = root mean squared error of approximation, and TLI = Tucker-Lewis index.