

Integrative Review: Factors Effecting Consumer Ethnocentrism (CET)

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Abstract

This paper provides an integrative review of the main concept of CET in terms of its definition, theoretical perspectives, and the antecedents of CET including previous empirical studies. – Four categories of antecedents, namely, socio-psychological, political, economic and demographic are gathered from the literature. The majority of this work found that consumer ethnocentrism is an important factor that can determine behaviour in the decision making of consumers as they decide to purchase local or foreign products. Ethnocentric consumers exhibit a high preference towards domestic products over foreign products even when the quality is lower and price is higher due to nationalistic reasons. Also, the review of the literature found many studies have examined the degree of consumer ethnocentrism in more developed countries, where there still remains a lack of research related to consumer behaviour in developing countries and emergent markets. The results will be useful for marketers, policy makers and businessmen to find what is especially important in consuming foreign products in local market where could help in taking strategically decisions.

Key Words: *Conservatism, Patriotism, Consumers, Ethnocentrism, Foreign Products.*

Introduction

In the era of global trade, marketers should consider the barriers that exist when they decide to expand their business globally. In many countries around the world governments were active and sought to protect their domestic economies from foreign investments such as establishing tariff and non-tariff barriers (Snieška, 2008). Consumer ethnocentrism plays a role in shaping consumer' buying behavior and therefore can act as an obstacle to international trade (Deb & Chaudhuri, 2014). By assessing the level of ethnocentrism marketers can make strategic decisions about products and services in the global market. Consumer ethnocentrism may indicate a general tendency of consumers to reject foreign products regardless of a product quality or price considerations (Siamagka & Balabanis, 2015). Consumer ethnocentrism is derived

from the general concept of ethnocentrism that was first introduced in socio-psychological literature. Sumner (1906, p. 13) has defined ethnocentrism as the “view of things in which one's group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it”. In his book, he believed that each group has a pride of their own group and the perception of other groups as subordinate. According to Sumner, each group has feelings of pride and superiority, but other groups are perceived as inferior from the host group point of view. Similarly, Siamagka and Balabanis (2015) use the notion of the “cognitive aspect” to explain how ethnocentric people understand the out-group being different from their own ethnic perspective. Importantly, they argue that this creates bias against foreign countries. This is in line with the views of Shimp and Sharma (1987) who showed how ethnocentrism is important to purchasing behavior and that difference of views can be found about how a host country produces superior products, while other countries produce inferior products. According to Shimp and Sharma (1987) consumer ethnocentrism is about the beliefs held by customers who see purchasing foreign products as immoral, that it can hurt the local economy and cause job loss, while being unpatriotic.

Antecedents of Consumer Ethnocentrism

Based on previous research he categorized factors that can influence CET suggesting four main antecedents: socio-psychological, political, economic and demographic. Each category has elements that may affect positively or negatively on consumer ethnocentrism and the following section explores this further:

Socio-Psychological Antecedents

There are four components of the Socio-Psychological Antecedents, consisting of animosity, conservatism, cultural openness, and patriotism. These constructs can affect the level of consumer ethnocentrism tendency toward purchasing foreign and domestic products. Some of them are found to enhance the consumer ethnocentrism tendency such as animosity, conservatism, and patriotism, while cultural openness is found to reduce the levels of ethnocentric tendency. The next section reviews the previous work that used these constructs to investigate their effect of consumer ethnocentrism and a summary of previous work can be found in Table 1.

The effect of animosity toward purchasing foreign products has been documented widely in international marketing literature. Klein, Ettenson, & Morris (1998) were the first who published a study and defined consumer animosity in the field of marketing. Animosity is about antipathy, feelings that are related to political, military, and economic issues and problems (Fong et al., 2015; Klein et al., 1998). Consumers are different in their animosity and there may well be different reasons that cause this feeling including economic animosity, political animosity, religious animosity or personal animosity (Riefler & Diamantopoulos 2007). Feelings such as these can affect negatively on consumer purchase intention towards foreign products (Rose et al., 2009) and while the influence of consumer animosity on foreign products can appear to be similar to the concept of consumer ethnocentrism, the latter is not necessarily towards a specific foreign product from any particular country. Rather, it is a negative attitude and tendency towards foreign products in general (Jain & Jain, 2013). Based on previous research we can see a positive relationship between animosity and consumer ethnocentrism (Fong et al., 2015; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004).

Conservatism is also an important antecedent of the socio-psychological part of CET. According to Urbaitytė (2015, p. 15) conservatism is a “preference of status quo and traditions as well as negative attitude”. Conservative people have a tendency to cherish their traditions and social institutions that have survived over years (Shankarmahesh, 2006) and tend to show a strong resistance to any change. This might be expressed as supportive of punishment, through religious intolerance, and an insistence on strict rules and an anti-hedonic outlook (Shankarmahesh, 2006; Jain & Jain, 2013). Some academics argue that a

significant relationship between CET and conservatism exists and show that conservatism positively influences consumer ethnocentrism and results in a negative attitude toward foreign products (Javalgi, Khare, Gross, & Scherer, 2005; Jain & Jain, 2013). However, only a few studies have examined the construct of conservatism and its effect on consumer ethnocentrism (Vadhanavisala, 2015). It appears that there is a socio-psychological basis of conservatism that also relates to morality and is important in the study of CET.

Table: 1 Summary of previous work on the Socio-Psychological antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism

Antecedents	Authors	Country	Study type	Findings to CET
Conservatism (+)	Sharma et al. (1995)	Korea	Survey	(Positive) they found a positive relationship between ethnocentrism tendencies and conservatism.
	Balabanis et al. (2002)	Turkey	Survey	(Positive) They found a positive relationship between conservatism and consumer ethnocentrism
	Javalgi et al. (2005)	France	Survey	(Positive) conservatism has significant positive relationships with ethnocentrism.
	Altıntaş and Tokol (2007)	Turkey	Survey	(Positive) They found that conservatism was significant factor on consumer ethnocentrism.
	Jain and Jain (2013)	India	Survey	Significant correlation of CET with conservatism
Cultural openness (-)	Shimp and Sharma (1987)	USA	Survey	They found that consumers who located in Los Angeles were less ethnocentric than consumers who live in Detroit, Denver, and Carolinas.
	Shimp et al. (1995)	Korea	Survey	They found a negative correlation between ethnocentric tendency and cultural openness.
	Suh and Kwon (2002)	USA and Korea	Survey	Negative relationship between global openness and CET in US.
	Javalgi et al. (2005)	France	Survey	(Negative relationship) they found that cultural openness was an independent factor from ethnocentrism and didn't play an important for French consumers when buying foreign goods.
	Jain and Jain (2013)	India	Survey	Significant correlation of CET with cultural openness
Patriotism (+)	Han (1988)	USA	Survey	(Positive) The findings revealed that patriotism was significant on consumers' choices of products
	Sharma et al. (1995)	Korea	Survey	(Positive) found a positive relationship between ethnocentrism tendencies and patriotism.
	Balabanis et al. (2001)	Turkey	Survey	(Positive) consumer ethnocentrism was influenced by patriotism in Turkey, and nationalism in Czech Republic
	Javalgi et al. (2005)	France	Survey	(Positive) patriotism was significant and has a positive relationship with ethnocentrism among French consumers.

	Jain and Jain (2013)	India	Survey	Significant correlation of CET with patriotism
Animosity (-)	Klein et al. (1998)	China	Survey	Chinese animosity was negative toward willingness to purchase Japanese products (hostility)
	Nijssen and Douglasb (2004)	Netherlands	Questionnaire by interviewer	(Positive) they found that CET and feelings of animosity were significant on the evaluation of foreign products.
	Ma et al. (2012)	Taiwan	Survey	(Negative) weak effect on the negative impact of war and economic animosity on willingness to purchase foreign products and on the negative impact of CET on their willingness to purchase foreign products.
	Elahee (2012)	Jordan	Mall interception	Positive relationship, Jordanians consumers have strong feeling of animosity toward Britain, which led them to unwilling to purchase British products.
	Jain and Jain (2013)	India	Survey	Significant correlation of CET with animosity

Cultural openness can be defined as a willingness to understand other cultures, to interact with people and accept their cultures (Sharma et al., 1995). Individuals are different in terms of having experience and openness toward other cultures such as values, people, and artifacts (Sharma et al., 1995; Shankarmahesh, 2006). Cultural openness can result from greater interaction with foreign people in the home country (e.g. in work, hospitals, malls, banks, etc.) or by travelling overseas (Jain & Jain, 2013). Cultural openness and exposure to other countries can broaden people’s mind and help to reduce cultural prejudice toward people and products from other countries. Where there have been empirical studies to examine this association it has been found that a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and cultural openness exists (Shimp et al., 1995 in the USA; for France see Javalgi et al., 2005; and for India see Jain & Jain, 2013).

Next is patriotism. Patriotism can be defined as “strong feelings of attachment and loyalty to one’s own country, but without corresponding hostility towards other nations” (Balabanis et al., 2001). Patriotic people show their love to their own country, which positively affects their attitude toward the country’s products and services. Previous research found a positive relationship between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism and consumers depend on their patriotism in purchasing behaviors more than product attributes such as quality or price (Javalgi et al., 2005; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Balabanis et al., 2001). Some of the empirical studies have found that when the people who live in oppressed nations have a strong patriotism they also have a preference toward local products (Good & Huddleston, 1995; Jain & Jain, 2013).

Political Environment Antecedents

The political environment is a broad term and is one aspect used in the prediction of consumer ethnocentrism. This work uses the political environment as one of the antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism (Leong et al., 2008). For example, some commentators have cynically suggested that the tragic event of September 11th in the USA was an opportunity for the government to use it as “government propaganda” to increase consumer ethnocentrism in the country (Albarq & Alsughayir, 2013). However,

according to Shankarmahesh (2006) people who live in democratic countries tend to be less influenced by political propaganda than people living in authoritarian countries. Also implied is that the political environment can determine the level of consumer ethnocentrism towards purchasing foreign products from a particular country. Good and Huddleston (1995) have explained that Polish consumers are more ethnocentric because they belong to a country that has a history of oppression, while Russian consumers have low score of CET due to their belonging to a country of conquerors. Thus, the political environment as an antecedent can be related to Siamagka and Balabanis (2015) notion of ethical idealism and the possibility of authoritarian views. Table 2 provides a summary of the work on the political environment as an antecedent of consumer ethnocentrism.

Table: 2 Summary of previous literature of political environment antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism

Antecedents	Authors	Country	Study type	Findings to CET
Political Environment (-)	Shankarmahesh (2006)	India	Met-analysis	Generally, a positive relationship to CET because consumer hold negative attitude to certain country due to war or injustice
	Good and Huddleston (1995)	Poland	Questionnaire	Positive relationship between political history (oppression) and CET.
	Rosenblatt (1964)	N/A	N/A	Positive relationship, increases threats will increase ethnocentrism and then increase hostility

Economic Environment Antecedent

The economic environment also plays a role in determining the level of consumer ethnocentrism. Shankarmahesh (2006) showed that economic environments can influence consumers' preferences toward foreign products. He suggests that consumers prefer purchasing foreign products from advanced economy countries because of a products quality and importantly, that the level of country economic standing can reduce levels of consumer ethnocentrism tendencies. This is an argument that consumers in developing countries have a lower level of ethnocentric tendency toward products that are produced in industrialized countries compared to consumers in developed countries (Jin et al., 2015).

Table: 3 Summary of previous literature of economic environment antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism

Antecedents	Authors	Country	Study type	Findings to CET
Economic environment (-)	Shankarmahesh (2006)	India	Met-analysis	Generally, a negative relationship to CET because consumer hold positive attitude toward products made in advanced countries
	Wang and Chen (2004)	China	Survey	Negative relationship non ethnocentric consumers tend to purchase from industrialized countries.
	Good and Huddleston (1995)	Poland		The quality of Western products is more preferred when it is transforming from early stage to market economy and developed economy has negative relationship. However, intermediate stage of transformation has positive relationship. Therefore, positive relationships when in development progress.
	Durvasula et al. (1997)	N/A		Negative relationship because consumers attracted to Western products.

Chinese consumers have lower ethnocentric tendencies toward products made in developed countries meaning they prefer to purchase foreign over domestic products (Wang & Chen, 2004). As it has been discussed earlier, developing countries attempt to enhance the ethnocentrism tendency levels among consumers to buy local products in order to support the local economy and prevent losses jobs, while developed countries usually have a strong domestic economy that helps to grow exports, increase imports and provide a wide range of diverse products, choices and competition with foreign products (Good & Huddleston, 1995). The distinction between the two therefore is an important aspect in applying concepts of CET and it may suggest a difference in results if comparisons are made between developed and developing markets.

Demographic Antecedents

Demographic characteristics are important because they have strong implications for marketing practice. According to Chowdhury (2013) consumer-purchasing behaviour is strongly influenced by consumers' demographic characteristics and they play an important role in affecting the level of consumer ethnocentrism. The demographic variables that have been most widely studied in the literature are age, gender, education, income, and residents and these are now considered.

With respect to age, most of the evidence supports the idea that elderly people tend to be conservative, ethnocentric and have a positive attitude towards purchasing domestic products. Younger consumers, in contrast, are found to be more exposed to other cultures, have lower levels of ethnocentrism tendency, and have a positive attitude and preference towards foreign products due to their modern and fashionable outlook (Erdogan & Uz Kurt, 2010; Chrysochoidis et al., 2007; Siamagka & Balabanis, 2015). However, there is research that has found no significant results between consumer ethnocentrism and age (Siamagka & Balabanis, 2015; Good & Huddleston, 1995).

With respect to gender, previous research has reported that women are more conservatives and ethnocentric than men (Erdogan & Uz Kurt, 2010; Chrysochoidis et al., 2007; Siamagka & Balabanis, 2015). This work showed that women tend to evaluate domestic products more favourable than foreign products. Some of the reasons are given for justifying why women select domestic products over foreign are due to women tending to be more conservative, having caring duties, appearing to be more patriotic, and are concerned with actions that may affect others (Pentz et al., 2014; Chowdhury, 2013). However, there is work that did not find any statistically significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and gender (Saffu, Walker, & Mazurek, 2010; Al Ganideh & Al Tae, 2012).

Education has an important role in widening people's mind and changing their perspectives of life (Chowdhury, 2013) and has also been found to have a significant impact on consumer's evaluation of foreign products (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Previous research has suggested that the relationship with consumer ethnocentrism is based on how educated people are less conservative, less ethnocentric, but have pride in their own country (Pentz et al., 2014; Shimp et al., 1995; Chrysochoidis et al., 2007). However, Saffu et al. (2010) and Good & Huddleston (1995) have not find any significant relationship between both education and CET.

Income is a factor that negatively influences consumer ethnocentrism (Chowdhury, 2013). People who earn high incomes tend to evaluate foreign products more favourably than domestic ones (Chrysochoidis et al., 2007; Watson & Wright, 2000; Erdogan & Uz Kurt, 2010). This can affect consumer's exposure to other countries by travelling aboard and this too may result in cultural openness (Shimp et al., 1995). However, there is research that did not find any relationship between both constructs (Jain & Jain, 2013 and Javalgi et al., 2005).

With respect to residence, most of the previous studies have examined consumers' ethnocentrism toward foreign products in metropolitan cities rather than rural areas. Some scholars argue that due to major cities

having more market diversity there tends to be higher sales of foreign products, and that consumer ethnocentrism appears to be an urban phenomenon (Cui & Liu, 2001). For example, according to Sohail (2005) people who live in capital cities are more familiar with foreign products than rural areas. Chryssochoidis et al. (2007) have suggested that the influence of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer purchasing behaviour toward foreign products may be different in rural areas where the level of education is lower and there is less familiarity with foreign products.

Table: 4 Summary of previous literature of demographic antecedents of consumer ethnocentrism

Antecedents	Authors	Country	Study type	Findings to CET
Age	Sharma et al. (1995)	Korea	Survey	Positive relationship between age and CET
	Good and Huddleston (1995)	Poland	Questionnaire	The ethnocentric consumers are likely to be older people
	Javalgi et al. (2005)	France	Survey	The ethnocentric consumers are likely to be older people
	Caruana (1996)	Malta	Survey	Positive relationship, the higher the age were higher level of ethnocentrism.
	Klein et al. (1998)	USA	Survey	Positive relationship
	(Balabanis et al. 2001)	Turkey and Czech	Survey	Positive, the ethnocentric consumers were older people in Turkey. No relationship in Czech.
	Renganathan et al. (2015)	India	Survey	Positive relationship between age and CET
	Bawa 2004	India	Questionnaire	Positive relationship, senior secondary school students are more ethnocentric
	Candan and Yamamoto (2008)	Turkey	Survey	Positive, young Turkish students preferred to choose domestic products over foreign products.
	(Jain and Jain 2013)	India	Survey	Positive, older people were more ethnocentric than younger
Gender	Good and Huddleston (1995)	Poland	Questionnaire	Women are more ethnocentric than men
	Renganathan et al. (2015)	India	Survey	No significant relationship
	Candan and Yamamoto 2008)	Turkey	Questionnaire	Women are more ethnocentric than men
	Javalgi et al., 2005	France	Survey	Women are more ethnocentric than younger consumers
	Caruana (1996)	Malta	Survey	No relationship between specific gender and CET
	Sharma et al. (1995)	Korea	Survey	Women are more ethnocentric than men
	Balabanis et al. (2001)	Turkey and Czech	Survey	Turkish women are more ethnocentric than men. No relationship in Czech.
	Bawa 2004	India	Questionnaire	No significant relationship

	Jain and Jain (2013)	India	Survey	No significant relationship
Education	Good and Huddleston (1995)	Poland	Questionnaire	Negative, the ethnocentric consumers are likely to be less educated
	Renganathan et al. (2015)	India	Survey	No significant relationship
	Javalgi et al. (2005)	France	Survey	No significant relationship
	Sharma et al. (1995)	Korea	Survey	Negative relationship between education and CET
	Caruana (1996)	Malta	Survey	Negative relationship, CET was lower among consumers who have higher level of education
	Balabanis et al. (2001)	Turkey and Czech	Survey	Not significant in both countries
	Erdogan and Uz Kurt (2010)	Turkey	Face to face survey	Negative, the ethnocentric consumers are likely to be less educated
	(Jain and Jain 2013)	India	Survey	No significant relationship
Income	Good and Huddleston (1995)	Poland	Questionnaire	The ethnocentric consumers are likely to be less income
	Renganathan et al. (2015)	India	Survey	No significant relationship
	Javalgi et al. (2005)	France	Survey	Not significant relationship
	Sharma et al. (1995)	Korea	Survey	Negative relationship between income and CET
	Erdogan and Uz Kurt (2010)	Turkey	Face to face survey	Low level of income will increase CET
	Bawa 2004	India	Questionnaire	Positive, income increase will decrease the feeling of ethnocentrism for senior secondary school students
	Candan and Yamamoto (2008)	Turkey	Questionnaire	Increase level of income will reduce the CET level
	Balabanis et al. (2001)	Turkey and Czech	Survey	Negative, lower income Turkish consumers were more ethnocentric. Positive relationship between income and CET among Czech consumers
	Caruana (1996)	Malta	Survey	No relationship
	Jain and Jain (2013)	India	Survey	No significant relationship
Residence	Cui and Liu, (2001)	China	Survey	Urban consumer tend to be more ethnocentric than rural consumer

Product Category and Availability

The impact of product categories on consumer ethnocentrism has been discussed in a number of studies and shows the multi-dimensional complexity of the concept. Generally, scholars suggest that ethnocentric consumers prefer domestic products at the expense of foreign products (Siamagka & Balabanis, 2015; Shankarmahesh, 2006). However, consumer ethnocentrism varies when it comes to products' categories (Chowdhury, 2013). According to Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) the relationship between the level of consumer ethnocentrism and preference toward domestic products differs across products categories, and the preference toward foreign products varies depending on specific products categories. They showed that for British ethnocentric consumers, the first choice was local products such as food and toys, but they preferred Germany and Japanese products for other categories such as cars and TV's, respectively. Similarly, He and Wang (2015) found that the idea of ethnocentric consumers only preferring domestic products was not significant, because they held different preferences based on the products categories such as shampoo, mobile phones, athletic shows, and bottled water. From this it might be consider how the assessment of consumers' preference towards domestic or foreign products is shaped through the products category.

Other studies have examined consumer ethnocentrism with regards to two groups: high ethnocentric consumers and non-ethnocentric consumers. A comparative study by Chrysochoidis et al. (2007) was conducted among Greek consumers to evaluate their ethnocentrism tendencies toward different product categories such as beer, yellow cheese, and ham. However, they drew out a subtle difference showing this about mostly among high ethnocentric consumers, while non-ethnocentric consumers still rated domestic products more favourable, but not enough to reject foreign products overall. Along the same line of thought, Evanschitzky et al. (2008) measured consumer ethnocentrism toward 14 products categories from different countries of origin, such as Germany (as the home country), Italy, Japan, Britain, and France. Their findings showed that ethnocentric consumers were varied in their tendencies based on products categories, and when they hold ethnocentrism tendencies towards a specific product, this feeling is not necessary transferred to other products categories.

The Effect of Country of Origin

The mediating effect of country of origin (COO) has been investigated in number of studies. It can be defined as a consumers' general perception toward products from certain countries (Soares, 2014). Since the 1960s, the country of origin effects has found to be a significant research topic in the international marketing literature (Deb & Chaudhuri, 2014; Rezvani et al., 2012). The growth of international trade and the evolution of international consumer segments have increased interest in the influence of COO on consumers' evaluations (Fischer & Zeugner-Roth, 2016). However, many COO studies have been conducted in more developed countries such as the US and in countries in Europe (Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp, & Ramachander, 2000). The main finding of previous work is a perceived superiority of home country effects on consumer preference to buy products that are manufactured locally (Shankarmahesh, 2006). Consumers may prefer products from a foreign country but they resist purchase due to feelings of patriotism and beliefs about damage to the national economy (Shimp & Sharma, 1987).

This shows how studies can often differ in their conclusion, with some indicating that the effect of COO on consumer evaluation of products and purchase intention were significant, while others argued it is doubtful. Wang and Chen (2004) believe consumers from developed countries prefer to buy domestic products to foreign products, while consumers from developing countries prefer to purchase foreign products from developed countries (see also Nadiri & Tümer, 2010; Hamin & Elliott, 2006; Sohail, 2005). In comparison, Batra et al. (2000) found that COO has an effect on ethnocentric consumers toward nonlocal brands of different products categories among Indian consumers. In addition, New Zealand consumers' attitude toward foreign products has also been researched by Tong and Shergill (2007). They used different countries of origin such as USA, Japan, Germany, and China and found that COO was a significant factor

that affected consumers' attitude toward foreign products. Hence, consumer perspectives and their evaluation of foreign or domestic products can be about a specific product, the origin, or both (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004) again illustrating complexity.

The Role of Cultural Similarity

Past studies have discussed the impact of products from culturally similar and culturally dissimilar countries on consumers' evaluations toward purchasing foreign products. Ma, Wang, & Hao (2012) examined cultural similarity effects on consumer's product's judgment and their willingness to purchase foreign products. They have used Hofstede's model (will be explained further in the next chapter) of cultural difference to measure cultural similarities between Taiwan as the home country and USA, China, and Japan as foreign countries. They chose the countries because they were different to the origin country Taiwan. China is culturally similar in this regard because of historical reasons such as the majority of population in Taiwan are Chinese and who therefore share a similar cultural background and speak the same language. On other hand, Taiwan and Japan are culturally closer than the USA because they share a similar Asian culture and their geographical location is closer (Ma et al., 2012). However, Taiwan has historical and political reasons that lead to animosity towards China and Japan, whereas they have a neutral attitude towards the USA (Ma et al., 2012). The findings showed that foreign products from a culturally similar country were positively correlated to consumer evaluation of and willingness to buy, the products. Cultural similarity is an important factor and has a significant impact on ethnocentrism tendency.

The impact of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitude toward foreign products may be conditioned by the lack of availability of domestic alternatives (Watson & Wright, 2000). Watson and Wright (2000) have used the model by Schwartz to measure cultural similarity between New Zealand and USA, Germany, Italy, and Singapore. They tested the relationship between CET and cultural similarity in two different product categories; refrigerators because New Zealand has a foreign alternative available in the market, and TV and cameras as no domestic manufacturing alternative available in New Zealand. The findings showed that high ethnocentric consumers positively evaluated products from culturally similar cultures because they were familiar with the countries concerned and they were geographically closer than other dissimilar countries. Watson and Wright (2000) conclude that cultural similarity plays an important role in evaluating foreign products by ethnocentric consumers. Šmažienė and Vaitkienė (2015) found that high ethnocentric consumers did not prefer to purchase foreign-made dietary supplements from countries culturally similar to Lithuania, regardless of the quality of foreign products.

Cultural differences have also been discussed in a consumer behaviour context. Gürhan-Canli and Maheswaran (2000) have examined cultural differences effects from country of origin impacts on product evolution in USA and Japan, using mountain bikes as the product. They described cultural differences in two dimensions: first, collectivism in Japan and second, individualism in the USA. Their findings showed that individuals prefer products from their home country only if local products are superior to foreign products. In contrast, through collectivism consumers preferred products from their home country regardless of product superiority. A collective society is more likely to involve a beneficial behaviour in-group, in contrast to individuals who are more likely to involve a behaviour beneficial to individuals. Cultural orientation can influence buying behaviour towards foreign products, and specifically collectivism and individualism constructs can play a role in influencing buying behaviour towards foreign products. It can be suggested that moral values and purchasing behaviour towards foreign products may differ depending on culture relevant to the consumer's home country.

The Relationship between Moral Values and CET

The effect of moral values has been discussed in many disciplines including marketing. Moral psychologies have incorporated matters of harm, justice, and rights (Haidt & Graham, 2007), while according to Caruana (2007) morality is made up of beliefs, values, and norms that are established in social structures and which

help to explain what is right and wrong. From a consumer behaviour research perspective, moral values are “a situation in which the individual is aware that the well-being of others depends on their act and where they feel responsible for the act and its consequences” (Arvola et al., 2008, p. 443). Thus, moral values can be the basis of making an ethical purchasing decision with individuals holding different views in what they may see as right or wrong based on their moral perspective. The variations in an individuals’ moral judgment can be examined through two main dimensions: these are idealism and relativism.

Forsyth (1980) has spoken about an ethical ideology that determines moral differences. He introduces two dimensions to measure individual ethical ideology, known as idealism and relativism. Idealism refers to an individual’s action on the welfare of people. Being idealistic is a belief that avoiding harming people will always obtain the “right action”, while alternatively those low idealistic individuals believe that harming others may sometimes be necessary and unavoidable. Relativism refers to how individual morality is related to particular context or standpoint. Relativistic individual moral values and moral judgments depend on a particular situation, and an evaluation of others based on specific standpoints shows the difference from idealistic ethical principles. Low levels of moral relativism require moral principles, laws, or norms to enable people to distinguish what is right and wrong (Forsyth, 1992). From a consumer behaviour perspective, Ha and Lennon (2006) used a sample of students’ in two different colleges and examined the impact of ethical ideologies on consumer purchase intention toward counterfeit products. Interestingly, their findings indicated that price was the main factor to purchase counterfeit products and argued that the result indicated that moral ideology, both relativism and idealism, failed to be an important role in predicting consumers’ intention to purchase products. They suggested that consumers did not consider buying counterfeit products as immoral, and were instead swayed by the design, which was identical to the original goods.

In terms of moral relativism, Sumner (1906) argued that every culture has different morals related to their mores, customs, and traditions. In a similar way, Kidwell, Farmer, and Hardesty, (2013) suggested that moral values are different between groups of people. Thus, Forsyth, O’Boyle, and McDaniel, (2008) have examined the differences between idealism and relativism dimensions across 29 countries using a meta-analysis. They have developed the “ethics position questionnaire” (Forsyth, 1980) with a huge sample of 30,230 respondents. The findings from their work showed that levels of idealistic and relativistic morality differ across cultures, leading us to assume that every group will express a morality from their own view. There is a question therefore for this study, about whether consumers who are more idealistic have less intention to purchase foreign products in comparison to relativistic consumers, who may have positive views of foreign products.

An individual’s moral judgment may also be related to business ethics (Forsyth, 1992). This association enables Singhapakdi, Marta and Cicic (2001) to examine the idealist and relativist philosophy between American and Australian marketers. They were aiming to make a comparison between ethical problems, corporate ethical values, and ethical intention. Using Hofstede’s cultural model, they attempted to identify the differences and similarities in both cultures, although their findings showed no significant difference relating to a firm’s ethical values. They argued that Australian marketers were more idealistic and relativistic than American marketers and in addition, cultural similarity can be found between both marketers as they express similar behaviour. While, with regard to the firms’ ethical values, there were differences found in the ethical perceptions and intentions of each group. The authors conclude that globalization plays an important role in exposing more cross cultural ethics, and they expect that similar cultures will have similar ethical orientations.

The Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Morality

Moral values are the basis of the ethnocentrism concept. The literature explains how consumer ethnocentrism is important to understand moral concerns arising from consuming foreign products over domestic products. As it has noted, Adorno et al. (1950) defined ethnocentrism as a personality trait and

spoke about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign made products. While Sumner has defined ethnocentrism as each group feeling that their own group is superior, and other groups are inferior. A recent argument by Siamagka and Balabanis (2015) says that ethnocentric consumers believe that buying foreign products is immoral, unpatriotic, and will hurt the domestic economy, which will lead loss jobs. According to Sharma (2014) consumers hold beliefs about the appropriateness and morality to purchase foreign products, which leads ethnocentric consumers to reject buying foreign products. Ethnocentric consumers tend to prefer domestic products and reject foreign products and are less likely to purchase foreign over domestic products because they believe that buying nonlocal products is morally wrong and is likely to damage the domestic economy. This would suggest that consumer ethnocentrism is related to moral values.

Sumner (1906) argued that the notions of what is “right” and “wrong” are related to a society’s mores and believed that every culture has different morals. He suggested morals cannot be intuitive because they are historical and determined by a society’s culture, mores and traditions. He explained ethical relativism is related to how members of society have an ingrained tradition, custom, and mores and that this leads them to think naturally about what is objectively good and right. Sumner believed that an individual believes his or her native culture to be superior and assumes this view to distinguish them from the out-group, and that when group members make their ethical decision it draws on their culture, mores, and traditions, which in turn reinforces their superiority. As morals are important to consumer ethnocentrism, moral relativism may be assumed to play an important role in influencing consumer ethnocentrism tendency toward foreign products. It should not be overlooked the association between morality and consumer ethnocentrism from a consumer behaviour perspective.

Consumer ethnocentrism seems to be related to moral idealism. Not least because as Shimp (1984) noted, this perception of morality and consumer behaviour “is postulated to transcend mere economic and functional considerations, and, instead, to have a more noble foundation rooted in morality” (p. 258). In contrast, Siamagka and Balabanis (2015) have hypothesized that research shows how ethical idealism is correlated to authoritarianism. The concept of ethnocentrism based on moral obligation may be a defense of the local economy and employment for instance, although the authors also believed that ethnocentrism is rooted to altruism, protecting the economy and jobs from threat. Therefore, ethnocentrism concepts are expected to be a part of moral idealism. This could perhaps be used as a starting point to investigate the basis of ethnocentrism and its effect toward foreign products and products from culturally similar markets. Only a few studies have discussed the impact of ethical ideologies, relativism and idealism, to help us understand consumer ethnocentrism. The impact of moral philosophy as moral idealism and moral relativism and ethnocentrism on international quality of life (IQOL) orientation between American and Korean marketing managers was considered by Lee and Sirgy (1999). They explained IQOL as the marketers’ professionals’ tendency to make their decision to increase the well-being of consumers in foreign markets, and maintain well-being of other stakeholders at the same time. They collected the data from business people enrolled as students on university MBA courses. The study found that moral idealism and ethnocentrism tendency have significantly affected IQOL with levels of moral idealism significant among marketers, while moral relativism was not. They also found that Korean marketers were more morally idealistic but less morally relativistic and more ethnocentric than American marketers. This is in line with Siamagka and Balabanis (2015) who found a positive relationship between moral idealism and consumer ethnocentrism, while contrary to Sumner’s (1906) view of moral relativism.

Conclusions

In this paper, an extensive review of the antecedents of CET was provided. The majority of this work found that consumer ethnocentrism is an important factor that can determine behavior in the decision making of consumers as they decide to purchase local or foreign products. Ethnocentric consumers exhibit a high preference towards domestic products over foreign products even when the quality is lower and price is

higher due to nationalistic reasons. Also, the review of the literature found many studies have examined the degree of consumer ethnocentrism on purchasing intention of foreign and domestic products in more developed countries, where there still remains a lack of research related to consumer behavior in developing countries and emergent markets. Furthermore, the existing literature shows a lack of evidence on how the degree of consumer ethnocentrism influences consumer's evaluation of foreign products in non-western countries, and but little attention has been paid by international marketing researchers to Arab consumers. In terms of methodology, there is a lack of work that utilizes the CETSCALE and provides evidence of the usefulness of the scale in non-western countries, particularly with a focus on Middle East countries.

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